PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION/CONTROL AND SYMPTOMS OF
PSYCHOPATHOLOGY: MEDIATOR ROLES OF PERSONALITY
CHARACTERISTICS

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
OF
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

DUYGU YAKIN

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE
IN
THE DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

JULY 2011

Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

_____

Prof. Dr. Meliha Altunışık
Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science.

_____

Prof. Dr. Nebi Sümer
Head of the Department

This is to certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science.

_____

Prof. Dr. Tülin Gençöz
Supervisor

Examining Committee Members

Assist. Prof. Dr. Özlem Bozo-İrkin   (METU, PSY)   _____

Prof. Dr. Tülin Gençöz   (METU, PSY)   _____

Assoc. Dr. Azmi Varan   (EU, PSYCH)   _____

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct, I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Name, Last Name: Duygu Yakın

Signature:

ABSTRACT

PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION/CONTROL AND SYPMTOMS OF

PSYCHOPATHOLOGY: MEDIATOR ROLES OF PERSONALITY

CHARACTERISTICS

Yakın, Duygu

M.S., Department of Psychology

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Tülin Gençöz

July, 2011, 226 pages

The purpose of the present study was to examine the relationships between parental acceptance-rejection/control, personality constructs and symptoms of psychopathology. In this regard, 801 university students (440 females and 361 males) between the ages of 18 and 47 (M = 21.85, SD = 2.59) participated in the present study. The data of the study were collected by a package of questionnaires consisting of Demographic Information Sheet, Mother Form of Parental Acceptance-Rejection/ Control Questionnaire, Father Form of Parental Acceptance-Rejection/ Control Questionnaire, Basic Personality Traits Inventory, Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale, Locus of Control Scale, Beck Depression Inventory, Trait form of the State Trait Anxiety Inventory and Trait form of the State Trait Anger Expression Inventory, respectively. Prior to main analyses, factor structure of the Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale was investigated in a university student sample. Similar to the original formulation and theoretical background, a six-factor solution was utilized including concern over mistakes, doubts about actions, personal standards, organization parental criticism and parental expectations factors. Later on, various MANOVAs were conducted to examine the influence of demographic variables on the measures of the study. Accordingly, socio-economic level and

gender were indentified to have influence on parental behaviors, personality constructs and trait anxiety. Afterwards, two sets of hierarchical analyses were conducted to examine the paths between personality constructs and symptoms of psychopathology. As expected, negative parental behaviors predicted maladaptive personality constructs and symptoms of psychopathology. Furthermore, multiple regression analyses were conducted to test the mediator role of perfectionism on the relationship between parental rejection/control and symptoms of psychopathology. Accordingly, perfectionism was identified as a mediator on the relationship between both maternal and paternal rejection and symptoms of psychopathology. On the other hand, in terms of parental control, only the relationship between paternal control and trait anger was mediated by the perfectionism. Later on, results of the current study were discussed within the related literature findings. Finally, clinical implications and suggestions for future research were stated.

ÖZ

EBEVEYN KABUL-REDDİ/KONTROLÜ VE PSİKOPATOLOJİK BELİRTİLER:
KİŞİLİK YAPILARININ ARACI ROLÜ

Yakın, Duygu

Yüksek Lisans, Psikoloji Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi, Prof. Dr. Tülin Gençöz

Temmuz, 2011, 226 Sayfa

Bu çalışmanın amacı ebeveyn kabul-reddi/kontrolü, kişilik yapıları ve psikopatolojik belirtiler arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmaktır. Bu bağlamda, mevcut araştırmaya yaşları 18 ve 47 arasında değişen (O = 21.85, SS = 2.59), 440 kadın 361 erkek, toplam 801 üniversite öğrencisi katılmıştır. Çalışma kapsamında katılımcılara sırasıyla Demografik Bilgi Formu, Ebeveyn Kabul-Reddi/Kontrolü Ölçeği Anne ve Baba formu, Temel Kişilik Özellikleri Ölçeği, Frost Çok Boyutlu Mükemmeliyetçilik Ölçeği, Kontrol Odağı Ölçeği, Beck Depresyon Envanteri, Durumluk Sürekli Kaygı Envanteri Durumluk Kaygı Formu ve Durumluk Sürekli Öfke İfade Tarzı Ölçeği Durumluk Öfke Formu'ndan oluşan bir ölçek bataryası uygulanmıştır. Temel analizlerden önce, üniversite öğrencileri için Frost Çok Boyutlu Mükemmeliyetçilik Ölçeği'nin faktör yapısı incelenmiştir. Yapılan analiz sonucunda ölçeğin asıl formülasyonu ve teorik arka planıyla uyumlu olarak, hatalara aşırı dikkat, davranışlardan şüphe duyma, ebeveyn beklentisi, ebeveyn eleştiriselliği, kişisel standartlar ve organizasyondan oluşan altı faktörlü bir yapı elde edilmiştir. Sonrasında, demografik değişkenlerin ölçüm alınan değişkenler üzerindeki etkisini araştırmak için bir dizi MANOVA uygulanmıştır. Buna göre, sosyo-ekonomik düzey ve cinsiyet ebeveyn davranışları, kişilik yapıları ve durumluk kaygı düzeyi üzerinde etkili bulunmuştur. Daha sonra, kişilik yapıları ve psikopatolojik değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemek için iki set hiyerarşik regresyon analizi uygulanmıştır. Beklendiği gibi, olumsuz ebeveyn davranışları, uyumsuz kişilik yapılarını ve

psikopatolojik belirtileri yordamıştır. Buna ek olarak, ebeveyn reddi ve kontrolü ile psikopatolojik belirtiler arasındaki ilişkide mükemmeliyetçiliğin aracı rolünü araştırmak için bir dizi çoklu regresyon analizi uygulanmıştır. Buna göre, hem anne hem de baba reddi ve psikopatolojik belirtiler arasında mükemmeliyetçiliğin aracı rol oynadığı belirlenmiştir. Öte yandan, sonuçlar ebeveyn kontrolü açısından incelendiğinde, mükemmeliyetçiliğin yalnızca babadan algılanan davranışsal kontrol ve durumluk öfke arasındaki ilişkide aracı rol oynadığı görülmüştür. Sonrasında, çalışmadan elde edilen bulgular güncel literatürdeki bilgiler ışığında tartışılmıştır. Son olarak, çalışmanın klinik alana yansımaları ve ileride yapılacak çalışmalara ilişkin göz önünde bulundurulması gereken faktörler belirtilmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Ebeveyn Kabul-Reddi / Kontrolü, Kişilik Özellikleri, Kontrol Odağı, Mükemmeliyetçilik, Psikopatolojik Belirtiler

In memory of the greatest mother on heaven,
with love…

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I firstly would like to present my deepest appreciation and gratitude to my supervisor Professor Tülin Gençöz for her unfailing intellectual guidance, emotional support and encouragement, which enabled me to overcome the requirements of this thesis by feeling confident and secure. With her warm smile and unconditional support, she has been always a model for me as an academician from the very first moment I met her.

I am also heartily thankful to my examining committee members. Associate Professor Azmi Varan has been a valuable advisor who shared his wisdom with me during my undergraduate and graduate years and has played an essential role in shaping my academic inspirations. I owe him a big thank you for being there whenever I needed despite his heavy schedule. I would also like to thank Assistant Professor Özlem Bozo-İrkin for her helpful suggestions and constructive criticism throughout this thesis.

I owe my appreciation to Assistant Professor Sait Uluç, who always treated me with warmth and acceptance without which my graduate life would not be what it is. I would also like to thank Doctor Yeliz Kındap for providing me with valuable insight to overcome my perfectionist anxiety and helping me to solve my intellectual confusions. I am also grateful to Doctor Sedat Işıklı for his common sense and belief in me.

I would like to thank Süleyman Turan for his valuable feedbacks and contributions in the arrangement of the study in a scientific format and style. I would also like to express my appreciation to Yalçın Doğan for his valuable help for Ms Office programs.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

For many adults, the most significant childhood memories involve their parents. For this reason, relationships with their parents have been accepted to be the most fundamental experiences. Parents play a central role in the child's socialization process and they continue to be essential for the individuals, even when other attachment figures emerge in their later life. In this sense, parent's provision of physical and psychological resources is crucial for children's development (John, Robins, & Pervin, 2008). In this regard, many different theorists (Freud, 1923/1962; Bowlby, 1951; Beck, 1967/1973; Rohner, 1975/2000) have emphasized the connection between early experiences with parents and later psychological adjustment.

Unfortunately, possible problems related to parent-child relationships may lead to significant impairments in individual's personality and cause psychological distress as well. The consequences of these problems include low self-esteem, hostility and aggression, emotional unresponsiveness and instability, negative worldview and impaired self-adequacy (Rohner, 1986/2000). Furthermore, these problems were found to be associated with different personality traits such as neuroticism and extraversion (Kuterovac-Jagodić & Keresteš, 1997) and distinct personality constructs, such as locus of control orientation (Rohner, Chailie, & Rohner, 1980) and maladaptive perfectionism (Soenens, 2007). Similarly, they were found to be related to more devastating mental health problems like depression (Crook, Raskin, & Eliot, 1981; Perris et al., 1986), anxiety (Rapee, 1997) and anger

(Rohner, Khaleque & Cournoyer, 2007; Rohner& Britner, 2002). That is, these problems are recognized as the main indicators of psychological distress and manifestation of these feelings is closely associated with the well-being of the individual.

Spielberger and Reheiser (2009) stated that there is lack of dominant guiding theories to explain the origins of depression, anxiety, and anger. However, the parent-child relationship is a frequently highlighted factor for the development of these kinds of problems within the current literature (Rapee, 1997). Therefore, with respect to the significant burden that is caused by psychological distress experienced in both personal and economic context, the importance of the link between parental factors and anxiety, anger and depression become more of an issue. For instance, according to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2010), unipolar depression is the fourth-greatest burden all over the world. Taking into consideration that anxiety and anger have been accepted to be the main contributors to depression; the role that parental practices play in the development of psychopathology gains importance (Spielberger & Reheiser, 2009).

On the other hand, there is a growing body of empirical research that show the fact that the effects of parental attitudes on individuals' problems are only mild or moderate. Furthermore, the link between perceived parental acceptance-rejection and control on the development of psychological stress is found to be in relation with the individual's personality. In a recent study, it was found that the detrimental effects of negative parental behavior have only limited effect on the development of problems in individuals with certain personality characteristics (O'Connor& Dvorak, 2001). Likewise, Rohner (1986/2000) postulates that despite the fact that negative consequences of parental rejection can be generalized to 80% of people all over the world, a small minority of individuals overcome the negative effects of parental rejection more efficiently due to their personality and interpersonal characteristics. Thus, O'Connor and Dvorak (2001) suggested that the examination of the personality-environment interaction is also crucial while forging a link between early experiences with parents and psychological adjustment. Therefore,

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the role of different personality constructs in relation with the perceived parental attitudes and symptoms of psychopathology needs further exploration, especially in different cultural contexts. Within this frame, the current study aims to investigate the role of personality traits, locus of control and perfectionism in relationship between retrospective perceived parental acceptance-rejection/control and adult's psychological adjustment in Turkish culture that has both individualistic and collectivist features as Kağıtçıbaşı (2005) describes. For this purpose, in the first part Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory will be described. Afterwards, depression anxiety and anger will be introduced in relation with their parental antecedents. Finally, with respect to this connection, personality traits, perfectionism and locus of control will be discussed as related personality constructs.

1.1.Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory

Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory (PARTheory) was developed by Rohner (1986/2000), as a theory of socialization that draws attention to identify the main antecedents, correlates and consequences of the role of parental acceptance-rejection. In his theory, Rohner proposes that children need positive response from their parents, referring to acceptance, regardless of their age, gender, ethnicity, culture and other conditions. In this regard, Rohner defines "parent" as the primary caretaker of the children. In this case, the term "parent" can refer to either biological or adoptive parents, older siblings, grandparents or other relatives.

In 1981, Rohner and Rohner acknowledged acceptance and rejection as the two poles of a continuum, the warmth dimension of parenting. The theory suggested that the affective quality of a parental relationship between the parents and their children can be defined on this continuum. Later on, following the extended factor analytic studies on the subject, the control dimension of parenting was classified as the second dimension of parenting. The control dimension of parenting was defined with permissiveness on one pole and strictness on the other (Rohner, 1986/2000).

1.1.1. The Warmth Dimension of Parenting

Rohner (1986/2000) proposes that everyone experience warmth and acceptance from their parents to some extent and these particular experiences can be placed on somewhere in the warmth dimension of parenting. As might be expected, the quality of this relationship ranges from a great deal of acceptance to nearly none.

Rohner (1986/2000) describes parental acceptance as warmth, affection and love that is given to children, expressed either by verbal or physical means in regards of the continuum of the warmth dimension of parenting. According to his conceptualization, physical expressions of warmth involve indications of endearment, care, comfort, concern, approval, nurturance or support such as kissing, hugging, fondling or smiling whereas verbal expression of warmth and affection can involve praising, complimenting and saying nice thing to or about the children. In contrast, parental rejection is placed on the other side of the continuum and characterized with the absence or withdrawal of warmth, affection and love that children perceive from their parents. As can be expected, presence of these behaviors is both psychologically and physically hurtful.

As cited in Rohner (1975/2000; 1986/2000), extended cross-cultural research revealed that regardless of their culture, gender and age, individuals all around the world describe their perception of parental rejection within four different classification of behavior. Accordingly, the expression of parental rejection involve behaving (a) in a cold and unaffectionate manner, (b) in a hostile and aggressive manner, (c) in an indifferent and neglecting manner and lastly (d) in an undifferentiated rejecting manner towards the children.

Rohner (1986/2000) defines cold and unaffectionate behaviors as the lack of physical and verbal expressions of warmth to approve of, nurture and support the children. Hostility and aggression are described as the negative feelings of the parents towards their children such as anger, resentment or enmity that could include behaviors that cause intentional harm. Therefore, hostility and aggression

are associated with either verbal (i.e., hitting, biting or scratching) or physical (i.e., cursing, sarcasm or saying thoughtless, unkind and cruel things to or about the children) expressions. Moreover, nonverbal symbolic gestures are considered as the manifestation of hostility as well. Additionally, Indifference and neglect are defined with the lack of care about the child's physical, medical and educational needs, concerns, wishes and interests. The major indicator of neglect is considered as the physical and psychological unavailability of the parents. Apart from that, undifferentiated rejection was described as the perception of parental rejection of the children due to their subjective experiences of being unloved, uncared, unwanted or unappreciated though there is no visible sign of behaviors that refers to any form of parental rejection (Rohner, 1975/2000; 1986/2000).

As suggested in the review of Rohner, Khaleque and Cournoyer (2007), parental acceptance-rejection can be viewed from two different perspectives; first, the subjective experience of the individual and second, objective assessment of the researcher. Although the two perspectives usually overlap with each other, contradicting conclusions can occur due to the differences between perceived and observed expressions of acceptance and rejection. Related to this, Kagan (1978) proposes that parental love is not simply related to a particular quality of behaviors of the parents; instead of this, it refers to a belief that is adopted by the children (cited in Rohner, 1986/2000). Therefore, children may have feelings of rejection due to their subjective experiences. Hence, PARTheory emphasizes a phenomenological approach while assessing parental acceptance and rejection (Rohner, 1986/2000; Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2007)

1.1.2. The Control Dimension of Parenting

As postulated in PARTheoy (Rohner & Rohner, 1981), parental control, the other major dimension of parenting, has significant effects on the development of children and personality functioning of adults. Similar to the warmth dimension of parenting, parental control is defined within a bipolar continuum. The control dimension of parenting is accepted to range from permissiveness to strictness and

either individually or in relation with parental warmth; parental control have been associated with different personality constructs.

Although factor analytic studies concluded that parental control is a unique dimension and independent from parental warmth (Schaefer, 1965), recent research showed that some aspects of parental warmth can be associated with parental control. For instance, Saavedra (1980) found that strict maternal control is associated with maternal rejection. Likewise, Rohner and Rohner (1981) found that parental control is associated with both parental hostility and overall rejection. However, this tendency to associate parental control with rejection did not validated in some non-western cultures. To date, in a study of Rohner and Pettengil (1985), which was conducted with Korean Adolescents, it was found that strict behavioral control is related to greater parental acceptance. In a more recent study of Kim (2005), which was conducted with American Korean Families, strict parental control was found to be associated with less parental acceptance in the relationship between adolescents and their mothers. In contrast, in the relation of adolescents and their fathers, behavioral control was associated with parental warmth.

Parental control is defined within two major components. The first component is concerned with restrictions and limits on the children's behavior whereas the second component is concerned with the frequency of the enforcement of these prescriptions and proscriptions. Accordingly, parents who slightly control their children tend to be considered as permissive, whereas parents who strictly monitor their children's behavior are considered as restrictive. In this sense, permissive parenting includes having minimum control over the children's behavior. Permissive parents usually do not enforce their barely existing rules, which are usually associated with the safety and physical health of their children. They adopt a non-directive parenting style and allow their children to make their own decisions. On the contrary, restrictive parenting includes imposing many different prescriptions and proscription to their children in a rigid way. Restrictive parents enforce their rules on many a variety of different issues such as the proprieties, household chores, sex role, toilet training, and so on. Hence, restrictive parents limit

their children's autonomy to make a decision without parental interference or guidance (Rohner & Rohner, 1981).

1.1.3. Subtheories of Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory

PARTheory attempts to explain five basic questions within three distinct subtheories namely personality subtheory, coping subtheory and sociocultural systems subtheory. In this regard, Personality Subtheory mainly focuses on the consequences of perceived parental acceptance-rejection on the behavioral, cognitive and emotional development of children and their later personality functioning as adults (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2007). Two basic questions are asked within this concept. (1) "Do the children around the world, with different background, respond in the same way to the perception of parental rejection?" And (2) "How deeply does the effects of childhood rejection affect adulthood and what personality dispositions are likely to be altered in the course of developing maturity?" On the other hand, Coping Subtheory deals with the resilience factors that protect children to develop personality, social-cognitive and emotional impairments and ask one basic question (3) "Why can some children deal with the effects of emotional abuse and parental rejection better than others?" Finally, Sociocultural Systems Subtheory deals with expressive correlates of parental acceptance-rejection in different cultural contexts and deals with two basic questions. These are; (4) "Why are some parents warm and caring while others are aggressive, ignorant, rejecting and cold?" And (5) "In what ways do the parents and their acceptance and rejection of their children affect the fabric of society and the behaviors and beliefs of individuals within that society?" (Rohner, 1986/2000, pp.14-15; Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2007).

Since PARTheory studies were mostly focused on Personality subtheory, the majority of empirical evidences are obtained from these studies. Therefore, Personality Subtheory has been considered as the most advanced part of the theory (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2007). Concordantly, the connection between parental characteristics and symptoms of psychopathology was examined within

different personality constructs in the current study. Therefore, in line with the aims of the study, only Personality Subtheory will be introduced.

1.1.3.1. Personality Subtheory

As Rohner (1986/2000) described, Personality Subtheory particularly deals with the personality development of children and mental health problems, which are caused by perceived parental rejection. With this respect, it is postulated that people are biologically motivated to get positive response from people who are crucial to them. This need is persistent and can be either conscious or not. During infancy, parents are accepted to be the primary source for children to satisfy their needs. However, as the individuals grow up to adulthood, since many other non-parental figures emerge to satisfy the individuals' needs, the form of the need for positive response and individuals' response to its withdrawal differs.

In terms of PARTheory, the definition of personality refers to the "Individual's more or less stable set of predispositions to respond (i.e., affective, cognitive, perceptual, and motivational dispositions) and actual modes of responding (i.e., observable behaviors) in various life situations or contexts". Within this perspective, if the individuals' need for positive stroke is not satisfied, individuals tend to manifest particular types of behaviors and emotions (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2007, p.8).

Since examining all of the consequences of parental rejection within a single theory will be overwhelming, Rohner (1986/2000) mostly focuses on the worldwide correlates of perceived parental acceptance-rejection and propose seven personality dispositions to describe rejected adults and children. In this sense, dependence or defensive independence, impaired self-esteem and self-adequacy, emotional unresponsiveness, hostility and aggression, emotional instability, and negative worldview were considered as the results of perceived parental rejection across all cultures, races, and languages. Each of the seven personality dispositions is defined on a continuum like the dimensions of parenting and they are contingent with perceived parental acceptance-rejection/control. For instance, dependence, which is

considered as the most controversial personality disposition, is defined on a continuum with dependence in its one pole and independence on the other.

Dependence is conceptualized as "emotional reliance" of the individual to another person in order to obtain support, care, comfort, attention, nurturance and so on (Rohner, 1986/2000, pp.71-87). As suggested, individuals can manifest a variety of behavioral bids to obtain positive respond. Children usually manifest these bids by crying, whining or clinging to parents whereas adults are more likely to seek for reassurance, approval, support and demand comfort, affection, or solace from attachment figures (Rohner, 1986/2000).

Parental rejection has detrimental effects on other personality dispositions as well. Since the perception of parental love is absent in the experiences of rejected individuals, they tend to consider themselves unworthy of love and their self-esteem and self-adequacy is impaired. Thus, individuals perceive themselves as worthless and incompetent. Moreover, since the pain caused by rejection is extremely challenging to compensate, individuals may not manifest their emotions overtly and manifest emotional responsiveness to avoid further rejection. In this regard, emotional responsiveness is associated with the problems related to the individuals' emotional expressions, such as lack of spontaneity, affection, and genuineness. Although rejected people can be sociable, they usually do not have genuine intimate relationships. In addition, parental rejection is suggested to cause significant aggression that refers to the behavioral manifestation of hostility and include the intention of hurting someone or something. Last but not least, rejected individuals can be angered or upset easily and they are sensitive to even minor stress conditions. Therefore, they may not have emotional instability that refers to the stableness of one's mood and characterized with frequent, rapid and extreme mood swings. Because of all these detrimental effects of perceived rejection, rejected individuals are more likely to develop a negative worldview and consider life as bad, insecure, uncertain and so forth (Rohner, 1986/2000; Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2007).

1.1.4. Parental Acceptance-Rejection/Control and Psychological Adjustment

The main emphasis of PARTheory on the link between perceived parental acceptance-rejection/control and psychological adjustment was extensively researched with adults and children in both holocultural and intracultural level. In a recent meta-analytic study of Rohner and Khaleque (2010), the postulates of PARTheory have been tested by more than 400 studies on every continent except Antarctica for the last 50 years. Besides, since no exception that contradicts with the major postulates of PARTheory has emerged in all of these studies, the results were considered as robust and stable.

Additionally, research shows that regardless of age, ethnicity and culture, children are prone to react to parental rejection as in the way it is proposed in PARTheory. Moreover, although to a lesser extent, adult's retrospective memories of perceived parental rejection were found to be related with the same cluster of consequences (Rohner & Khaleque, 2010). In this sense, parental acceptance-rejection was found to be accounted for 26% of the variability in children's psychological adjustment whereas childhood experiences of parental acceptance and rejection was found to be responsible for 21% of the variability of adult's psychological adjustment (Khaleque & Rohner, 2002).

Apart from indicators of psychological maladjustment, namely dependence or defensive independence, impaired self-esteem and self-adequacy, emotional unresponsiveness, hostility and aggression, emotional instability, and negative worldview; parental acceptance-rejection was found to be associated with a diversity of mental health problems as well. The link between parental rejection and mental health problems such as depression, anxiety disorders, behavior problems, suicidality, substance abuse were emphasized in more than 2000 studies (Rohner & Britner, 2002). On the other hand, although parental control was found to be associated with adolescent depression (Magaro & Weizs, 2006), the effects of parental control seems to be dependent on culture, ethnicity and religiosity (Ripoll-Núñez, 2009; Rohner & Pettengil, 1985).

1.2. Symptoms of Psychopathology

Depression, anxiety, and anger are accepted as the main indicators of psychological distress. As cited in Spielberger and Reheiser (2009, p. 271), World Health Organization (WHO) defined that "Normally, emotions such as anxiety, anger . . . pain or joy interact to motivate a person to a goal-directed action. However, when certain emotions predominate and persist beyond their usefulness in motivating people for their goal-directed behavior, they become morbid or pathological". Hence, the manifestations of depression, anger and anxiety are closely associated with the individual's well-being. Therefore, indicators of these problems should be carefully examined due to its vitality for psychological diagnosis and treatment plan.

1.2.1. Depression

Depression is one of the most common and devastating disorders in mental health area. According to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2010), it leads remarkable disability and it is the fourth greatest contributor to the global burden of disease. Within 2020, problems related to depression are predicted to be the second greatest burden for all ages, all backgrounds and both sexes. According to the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders of American Psychiatric Association (*DSM-IV-TR, 2000*), depressive disorders are categorized under the title of mood disorders and include symptoms of depressed mood, loss of interest or pleasure in daily activities, disturbances of sleep and appetite regulation, loss of energy, diminished self-worth, excessive or inappropriate guilt, psychomotor agitation or retardation, reduced ability to think and concentrate, and the presence of recurrent suicidal ideation, a suicide attempt or a specific plan for suicide. An individual get a diagnosis only if five of these symptoms are presented for at least two weeks, causing clinically significant distress and did not occurred as a result of a medical condition or bereavement.

Although a variety of developmental, genetic and organic factors are associated with the etiology of depression; parental rejection is considered as an

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environmental risk factor as a result of many different empirical investigations. Besides, several retrospective studies revealed that clinically depressed subjects reported their parents as more rejecting and controlling than non-depressed control group (Crook, Raskin, & Eliot, 1981; Rapee, 1997). Furthermore, as concluded by Rohner and Britner (2002), parental rejection was found to be associated with both clinical depression and less serious depressed affect in a variety of different minority groups and countries that include Turkey as well. Likewise, research that examined the link between parental rejection and depression with Turkish university students revealed that parental rejection displays a significant risk for the development of depression (Salahur, 2010; Işık, 2010). Similarly, Reinherz and colleagues (1999) emphasized the link between parental rejection and depression and proposed that this association is valid for adults and children of both genders, though to a lesser extent for men. On the other hand, Belsky and Pensky (1988) pointed out the positive effects of parental acceptance. In this regard, perceived parental acceptance has been viewed as a possible buffer against depressed affect. Furthermore, they emphasized the mediating role of personality and corrective emotional experiences in the link between parental rearing styles and the consequences of parental rejection and disregard as well.

Although most of the research on the link between parental attitudes and depression was focused on parental rejection, some studies include the parental control dimension as well. However, studies of Parker (1982), Parker and Hadzi-Pavlovic (1984) and Whisman and Kwon (1992) concluded that parental rejection is responsible for most of the explained variance in depression, whereas parental control is responsible for little or no additional explained variance (cited in Rapee 1997). Likewise, Bifulco and colleagues (1987) found that perceived parental rejection is a more crucial dimension than parental control in order to distinguish depressed and non-clinical individuals. Therefore, the effect of parental rejection could be considered as relatively more consistent for the development of depression.

1.2.2. Anxiety

In a psychological perspective, anxiety is first described by Freud (1934) as an unpleasant affective condition resulted from the repression of the libido. Latterly, the concept has been associated with specific symptoms, such as heart palpitation, arrhythmia, disturbed respiration, sweating, tremor, vertigo and so on (cited in Spielberger, 1966). In terms of *DSM-IV-TR* (2000), 13 different anxiety disorders have been identified; panic disorder, agoraphobia, panic disorder without agoraphobia, agoraphobia without history of panic disorder, specific phobia, social phobia, obsessive compulsive disorder, post traumatic stress disorder, acute stress disorder, generalized anxiety disorder, anxiety disorder due to a general medical condition, substance-induced anxiety disorder, and anxiety disorder not otherwise specified. In all of these disorders, individuals considered their symptoms as egodystonic.

Additionally, factor analytic studies of Cattell and Scheier (1958; 1961) revealed two dimensions of anxiety namely trait anxiety and state anxiety. In this sense, trait anxiety is described as "measuring stable individual differences in a unitary, relatively permanent personality characteristic", whereas state anxiety is defined as "a transitory state or condition of the organism which fluctuated over time" that results from a variety of covariate variables (cited in Spielberger, 1966, p.13).

Although the distinction between depression and anxiety is clearly defined in theoretical basis, the same notion is not valid for the empirical base. Some scholars postulated that depression and anxiety are not diverse concepts and should be considered under a higher concept such as negative affectivity or internalization, whereas still others emphasize the distinct features of them. However, the distinction between depressive symptoms as measured by Beck Depression Inventory and anxiety as measured by State-Trait anxiety Inventory seems to be more consistently validated (Crowley & Emerson, 1996; see Karagözoğlu, Masten & Baloğlu, 2005). Apart from its contribution to depression, anxiety is considered

to be among the mental health consequences of parental acceptance-rejection (Rohner & Khaleque, 2010; Spielberger & Reheiser, 2009). For instance, Rohner (1986/2000) connected parental rejection with parental grief and postulated that children's responses to perceived parental rejection and grief, which are associated to the loss of a significant other, largely resembles to each other. In this sense, he emphasized the importance of substantial anxiety and insecurity that can be caused by perceived parental rejection.

Although the anxiety related consequences of parental acceptance-rejection is relatively limited within PARTheory, as concluded by Rapee (1997), studies conducted with different measures revealed the fact that clinically anxious individuals were more prone to perceive their parents as rejecting and controlling than nonclinical individuals. Moreover, research show that the different childrearing practices exists between specific anxiety disorders. Furthermore, the degree of perceived parental rejection was found to be associated with the degree of anxiety and in most cases; greater anxiety was found to be associated with greater parental rejection and control. More specifically, a recent study conducted with Turkish university students examined the link between socio-economic status, perceived parental rearing styles, depression and anxiety. The results revealed that parental rejection and overprotection are associated with anxiety (Anlı & Karslı, 2010).

1.2.3. Anger

Historically, anger is defined within psychodynamic theory and psychodynamic conceptualizations of depression and anger are strongly associated with each other (Newman, Gray, & Fuqua, 1999). Thus far, the construct has been widely investigated and different anger-related dimensions have been identified. However, in the current literature, there seems to be a strong overlap among the constructs of anger, hostility, and aggression. Therefore, Spielberger and Reheiser (2009) defined each of these construct as the dimensions of a higher-order concept. According to them, anger refers to the affective-subjective component of this concept, whereas hostility and aggression refers to cognitive and behavioral components. In this

sense, trait anger is considered as an emotion or a personality trait and defined as "the tendency or the general and stable disposition to experience states of anger with greater frequency or intensity, as well as before a wider range of situations and over longer periods of time" (Sanz, García-Vera, & Magán, 2010, pp. 262). Furthermore, anger is accepted to be a robust risk factor for both physical and psychological health. Problems related to anger management is associated with suicidal ideation, personality disorders and serious problems in interpersonal relationships (Thomas, 2007). According to *DSM-IV-TR* (2000), problems related to management of anger have been frequently cited as a symptom of different personality disorders, impulse control disorder and substance-related disorders.

From PARTheory's perspective, anger is among the most commonly emphasized consequences of parental rejection in terms of hostility and aggression. In addition to the abovementioned empirical research on the connection between parental rejection and the personality dispositions, several studies emphasized the effects of parental rejection and control on the development of anger and hostility. For instance, Houston and Vavak (1991) conducted a study with 930 undergraduate students. Ten percent of the participants that scored on the top of the distribution were considered as high cynical hostility group. These individuals were found to be more prone to perceiving less genuine acceptance, harsh control, more punitiveness and more interference from their parents. Likewise, Meesters, Muris and Esselink (1995) found that highly hostile subjects are prone to perceive less emotional warmth, more rejection, and more overprotection from their parents. Additionally, parental rejection was found to be a robust predictor of the level of hostility in both sexes. Meesters and Muris (1996) came up with the same results via their second study which was conducted with male myocardial infarction patients. In another study that was conducted by adolescents revealed that low levels of emotional warmth and high levels of rejection, control and inconsistency are associated with higher levels of anger (Murris et. al, 2004). Moreover, in a study of Turkish adolescents, perceived maternal rejection was found to be related to anger (Sarıtaş, 2007).

Hence, parental rejection and strict control seem to be associated with anger. However, since parental control is dependent on culture, ethnicity, and religiosity further examination is needed on this issue.

1.3. Personality Traits

Personality has been conceptualized from a diversity of theoretical perspectives that include developmental, dynamic and interpersonal theories, evolutionary perspectives and behavior genetics. Finally, there is an emerging consensus on higher-order taxonomy of personality traits, which consists of a hierarchical system of five major personality traits. In this sense, the big five taxonomy is defined as "An empirical generalization about the covariation of personality traits across individuals" (John & Srivastava, 1999, pp.127; McCrae & John, 1992).

Five-factor model was inspired from the lexical hypothesis, which postulates that most of the important diversities between individuals were encoded into natural languages around the world. Therefore, the Five-factor model has not been built on a particular theoretical perspective. Rather, with an integrative perspective of different conceptualizations of personality, the dimensions were derived from the statistical analyses of the contemporary casual natural-language adjectives that people use while representing themselves. (John, Robins & Pervin, 2008).

Historically, the studies of Allport and Odbert (1936) were among the first important studies on the related construct. In their study, they created a list, consisting of 18.000 terms that can be used to indicate differences amongst people. However, due to the excessiveness of the terms for making a satisfactory classification, they only provide initial framework for personality lexicon (cited in John & Srivastava, 1999). Cattell (1945) aimed to find taxonomy for distinguishing, sorting and naming the differences among individuals' behavior and experience, following the lexical study of Allport and Odbert (1936). Therefore, Cattell obtained 12 personality factors from the 4500 adjectives that were derived from Allport and Odbert's list. However, in-depth analyses of Cattell's variables with orthogonal

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rotational methods revealed that only five factors were replicable (cited in Goldberg, 1990). These five dimensions were accepted to "represent personality at the broadest level of abstraction, and each dimension summarizes a large number of distinct, more specific personality characteristics" (cited in John & Srivastava, 1999, pp.105). According to Costa (1991), a portrait of an individual is provided by these five dimensions and it can be beneficial in many diversified ways in therapeutic practices from psycho-diagnosis to the outcome of the treatment during the course of the therapy. Although different researchers have used different labels to identify these dimensions, most frequently cited labels for these dimensions are Openness to experiences, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism that refers to the "OCEAN of human personality" with their initial letters (cited in Burger, 2004, pp.167).

Neuroticism refers to the individual's tendency to experience unpleasant and distressing emotions. Individuals high in neuroticism tend to respond to daily stressors with emotional distress and hence, they can be nervous, tense, and emotionally unstable. On the other hand, those low in neuroticism are usually characterized as calm and relaxed people that are satisfied with themselves. However, like many other personality traits, every individuals experience neuroticism to some extent (McCrea & Costa, 2003; Burger, 2004).

Extraversion refers to a person's engagement with social and material world and is characterized with high sociability and assertiveness. Extraversion is defined on a dimension that ranges from extraversion to introversion. In this sense, people high in extraversion are usually considered as active, optimistic and friendly whereas people high in introversion do not express these characteristics and tend to be emotionally unresponsive (McCrea & Costa, 2003). However, Costa and McCrea (1992) concluded that "Introverts are reserved rather than unfriendly, independent rather than followers, even-paced rather than sluggish" (cited in Burger, 2004, pp.168).

Openness to experience refers to the receptiveness of new activities, ideas and values. The characteristics of openness dimension include a vivid imagination, divergent thinking and intellectual curiosity and these kinds of people can be considered as intellectual, polished or free-minded. Related to this, occupational interests of the people that are high in openness dimension usually involve artistic activities. In contrast, people low in openness prefer familiar and practical alternatives instead of involving in new experiences (McCrea & Costa, 2003; John & Srivastava, 1999).

Conscientiousness is characterized by self-control and self-discipline. People that are high in conscientiousness usually put emphasis on organization and achievement and these kinds of people are considered as orderly, responsible and dependable. Additionally, they can be extremely ambitious and hardworking. On the other hand, people lows in conscientiousness are considered as more easygoing, careless and not dependable (McCrea & Costa, 2003; John & Srivastava, 1999).

Agreeableness, which is related to the quality of relationship with other people, ranges from affectionate behavior to antagonism. People high in agreeableness tend to be helpful, trusting and sympathetic and they prefer cooperating rather than competition. On the contrary, antagonistic people are usually considered as tough-minded and hardheaded and they try to push limits for their interests and beliefs (McCrea & Costa, 2003; John & Srivastava, 1999; Burger, 2004).

As concluded by Goldberg (1990), the lexical hypothesis about personality traits were empirically tested for English and a variety of different languages. In these studies, similar factor structures that support validity of five factor model were obtained. However, this factor structure was often needed to be converted and occasionally, some disagreements occurred among the researchers. As a result of this confusion, the big five model was accepted as "Big Five, plus or minus two" by some researchers. Likewise, McCrea and John (1992) stated that a sixth factor could be added to the five-factor model, due to language-related differences. Therefore,

the generalizability of the big five taxonomy across cultures is a highlighted issue (Burger, 2004; cited in John & Srivastava, 1999).

Although there is a growing body of research on personality development in Turkey, personality measures have been started to be utilized not too long ago. In clinical practices, Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI), which was standardized by Işık (1981), was frequently used during the seventies and the eighties. Afterwards, Hacettepe Personality Inventory (Özgüven, 1992), Eysenck Personality Questionnaire and California Psychological Inventory (Demirtürk, 1987) came up in sequence to assess personality (cited in Gülgöz, 2002). However, although various adaptation studies were conducted in the last two decades, these studies suffer from small sample sizes and restricted populations. Therefore, Gülgöz stated that "existing personality measures in Turkey do not meet adequate standards to measure personality and are not sufficient for an accurate conclusion" (Gülgöz, 2002, p.175).

Due to above-mentioned reasons, Basic Personality Traits Inventory that was particularly developed for Turkish culture by Gençöz and Öncül (manuscript under review) was used in the current study. Within this measure, negative valence was included as a sixth factor in addition to the five-factor model. Concordantly, negative valence refers to someone's negative attributions about himself or herself and characterized by adjectives like sneaky, rude, greedy or mannerless.

1.3.1. Developmental Origins of Personality Traits

Recent interest in the literature mainly focused on the remarkable differences between individuals. Therefore, eliciting developmental origins of personality becomes increasingly important in order to get a better understanding of different personality patterns.

In the literature, although the diverse effects of parental rejection on the individuals personality has been extensively researched across cultures (Rohner, 1975/2000), there is only limited empirical evidence for the development of more

fundamental aspects of normal personality (Reti et al ,2002). In a study of McCrea and Costa (1988), the relationship between recalled parent-child relations and adult personality was investigated. Results revealed that parental love is associated with lower levels of neuroticism and higher levels of extraversion, agreeableness, openness and conscientiousness for both sexes. However, since the effect sizes were small, they concluded that, major dimensions of parenting have only limited effect on adult personality. Afterwards, Pincus and Ruiz (1997) examined the same link with undergraduate students and replicated the results of McCrea and Costa, except their findings regarding openness dimension. They found that individuals, who describe their parents as affiliative, are more likely to score low in neuroticism and high on extraversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness. Furthermore, maternal affiliation is more determinative for personality traits than paternal affiliation and only paternal control was found to be associated with conscientiousness. Pincus and Ruiz concluded that examining the link between parental attitudes and adult personality traits can be fruitful in understanding its clinical presentations. More recently, Reti and colleagues (2002) examined the influence of parenting on five-factor model of personality and found moderate correlation between parental experiences and personality traits of neuroticism and conscientiousness for both sexes. Among personality traits, conscientiousness had the strongest variance and among parental behaviors, maternal behavior was found to be more essential. Additionally, similar results were obtained by De Clercq and colleagues (2008) in their study of non-referred and referred adolescents and children. They found that parenting has a moderator role in the link between personality and psychopathology. Rogosch & Cicchetti (2004) examined the link between child maltreatment and personality organization with maltreated and non-maltreated children. Results revealed that maltreated children display lower agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness compared to non-maltreated children. Similarly, the association between perceived parenting styles and disordered personality traits was explored by Yu and colleagues (2007) in both adult students and patients with personality disorder. Hence, research concluded that parental experiences were considered as an important factor for the development of certain personality traits.

1.3.2. Personality Traits and Symptoms of Psychopathology

The links between personality traits and different forms of psychopathology was extensively examined in the literature. Kotov and colleagues (2007) proposed that the exploration of these links provides important information about the etiology and comorbidity of psychopathology.

As concluded by John, Robins and Pervin (2008), the relationship between distinct personality traits and mental health problems is one of the major research areas in psychology. Personality traits were associated with several common mental health problems such as depression, anxiety, eating disorders, substance use, Cluster B and Cluster C personality disorders.

A vast majority of research concluded that among personality traits, neuroticism and negative emotionality were the most frequently linked traits to psychopathology. Due to the emerging consensus on the fact that similar genetic and environmental determinants play a role in depression and anxiety, the strong connection between major depressive disorder and anxiety was emphasized and these two problems usually handled together in recent personality research. Furthermore, Gershuny and Sher (1992) found that lower extraversion and higher neuroticism are related to higher levels of anxiety and generalized anxiety disorder was found to be having the strongest link with neuroticism whereas the links were less strong for specific phobias (cited in Kotov et al, 2007).

Likewise, results of an extended meta-analysis of Kotov and colleagues (2010) concluded that, a higher order taxonomy of some major personality traits was found to be substantially related to depression (Major depressive disorder, unipolar depression, dysthymic disorder), anxiety (generalized anxiety disorder, panic disorder, agoraphobia, social phobia, specific phobia, obsessive compulsive disorder) and substance use disorder (Alcohol, mixed, drugs). Consistent with previous research, neuroticism was found to be strongly associated with all disorders. Furthermore, besides neuroticism, lower levels of conscientiousness and extraversion were found to be recommended to be associated with psychological

problems as well. Hence, it was emphasized that the results highlights the importance of personality traits in clinical psychology.

Similarly, Zinbarg, Uliaszek and Adler (2008) concluded that as a result of different reviews of several longitudinal studies, neuroticism is accepted as a risk factor for developing major depressive disorder, emotional disorders and post traumatic stress disorder. Moreover, neuroticism and introversion were prescribed to contribute to the mechanism that is related to the development and maintenance of depressive and anxiety disorders.

On the other hand, although research on the links between anger and different personality traits seems to be limited, similar to other psychological problems, neuroticism was found to be substantially associated with anger. However, there is a proliferation on the differentiation of hostility and anger due to the strong associations between concepts. Therefore, in most of the studies these concepts were handled together in relation with different personality traits. With this respect, different studies conducted with university sample concluded that both anger and hostility were found to be positively correlated with neuroticism and negatively correlated with agreeableness (cited in Sanz, García-Vera & Magán, 2010). More specifically, Whiteman and colleagues (2001) found that trait anger is positively associated with neuroticism and negatively associated with agreeableness for both men and women. However, in contrast with the previous literature, Sanz, García-Vera, & Magán (2010) found that trait anger was mainly related to neuroticism and it was not related to agreeableness. The results of this study were recommended as a validation for the hypotheses that emphasize the differences between the experience of anger and hostility.

1.4. Perfectionism

In the last few decades, perfectionism has become increasingly popular in research area. Historically, the examination of the construct has begun with Freud's (1926) definition of perfectionism as a function of harsh and punitive superego that makes demands for high achievement (cited in Hill, Mc Intire, & Bacharac, 1997).

Afterwards several attempts were made to define the construct. For instance, Horney (1950) defined perfectionism as the "The tyranny of should". Hollender (1978) described perfectionism as "The practice of demanding of oneself or others a higher quality of performance than is required by the situation" and he postulated that perfectionist individuals see themselves as "Being judged by what he does, not for what he is", therefore they are usually involved in self-belittlement (cited in Shafran & Mansell, 2001, p.880). Likewise, Burns (1980) considered perfectionist people as "Those whose standards are high beyond reach or reason, people who strain compulsively and unremittingly toward impossible goals and who measure their own worth entirely in terms of productivity and accomplishment." (p.34) Moreover, according to Burns, since these individual's self- esteem is contingent on the achievement of their unrealistic goals, they rigidly adhere these impossible goals and as a result, their interpretation of events become distorted.

Although many of the early conceptualization about perfectionism emphasized the negative aspects of the construct, there were also theorists that considered perfectionism as positive and inherent. For instance, Adler (1956) considered striving for perfection as normal and innate. However, he proposed that setting unrealistic standards of superiority can pose problems in diverse areas. Based on this conceptualization, Hamachek (1978) divided perfectionist people in two groups as normal perfectionists and neurotic perfectionists. In this sense, normal perfectionists are the individuals who set high standards and have flexibility to tolerate their mistakes and be satisfied with their performance according to different circumstances. On the other hand, regardless of the achievement of the work, neurotic perfectionists are considered as having feelings of dissatisfaction and concentrating on their mistakes (cited in Rice, Ashby, & Preusser, 1996).

In order to gather empirical data for his hypotheses, Burn was among the first researchers that attempted to develop a measure to examine causes and effects of perfectionism. He modified a portion of the Dysfunctional Attitudes Scale (DAS) to create a perfectionism measure that assess the role of genetic determinants, upbringings and culture in the development of the construct (Burns, 1980). In the

early 1990s, the tendency to view perfectionism as unidimensional changed due to two major notions. Firstly, Frost and colleagues (1990) proposed that self-criticism is an important discriminative factor while differentiating adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists. Moreover, Frost and colleagues (1990) argued that people high in perfectionism are more likely to have concern over their mistakes, have doubts about the quality of their performance, overvalue their parent's expectations and overemphasize order and organization. Secondly, based on their clinical observations, Hewitt and Flett (1991) postulated that perfectionism has both personal and social aspects and they emphasized that perfectionism can turn towards both the perfectionists themselves and the other people around these people. Therefore, orientation of the perfectionist demands can cause difficulties in interpersonal level as well.

Hence, the most frequently used measures of perfectionism have been developed from a clinical perspective. In Frost and colleague's conceptualization, perfectionism is measured by six components, namely "Concern over Mistakes (reacting negatively to mistakes, interpreting mistakes as equivalent to failure and fearing that one will lose the respect of others following failure), Doubts about Actions (doubting the quality of one s performance), Personal Standards (setting very high standards and the excessive importance placed on these high standards for self-evaluation), Parental Expectations (perceiving that one's parents have high expectations) and Parental Criticism (perceiving one's parents as being excessively critical)" (Shafran, Cooper & Fairburn, 2002, p.776).

In Hewit and Flett's (1991) conceptualization, perfectionism is defined within three dimensions, namely Self-oriented perfectionism, Other-oriented perfectionism and Socially-prescribed perfectionism. The definition of Self-oriented perfectionism is very similar to earlier definitions of perfectionism and refers to "behaviors such as setting exacting standards for oneself and stringently evaluating and censuring one's own behavior; evaluating one's own behavior stringently and striving to attain perfection in one's own endeavors as well as striving to avoid failure". Likewise, in Other-oriented perfectionism, the same behavior patterns are

directed outward and the individual has "unrealistic standards for significant others, places importance on other people being perfect, and stringently evaluates others' performance". Apart from that, Socially-prescribed perfectionism refers to a "belief or perception that significant others have unrealistic standards for them, evaluate them stringently, and exert pressure on them to be perfect." (Hewitt & Flett, 1991, p.457).

More recently, with respect to the previously emphasized distinction between adaptive and maladaptive aspects of the perfectionism construct, Frost and colleagues (1993) examined the dimensions of perfectionism by a factor analytic study that includes all subscales of the above-mentioned multidimensional perfectionism scales despite the overlapping aspects across subscales. The results revealed two major components, namely Positive Achievement Striving (PAS) and Maladaptive Evaluative Concerns (MEC). In this regard, PAS was found to be associated with setting high standards, orderliness and organization whereas MEC was found to be related with perceived expectations from significant others to achieve high standards and self-criticizing processes that include being concerned about even minor mistakes and having doubts about one's actions (cited in DiBartolo, Yen Li, & Frost, 2008).

Notwithstanding, there is no consensus in the existing literature on whether it is better to identify perfectionism as a one-dimensional or two dimensional construct with adaptive and maladaptive features. Although both theoretical explanations and some empirical data that were derived from limited number of studies emphasize distinct adaptive and maladaptive features of perfectionism, the construct needs further exploration (Bieling, Israeli, Antony, 2004).

In the current study, Frost's Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (F-MPS) is used due to two reasons. First, F-MPS gives the chance for assessing origins of perfectionism which is strongly associated with one of the main aims of the study that link parental perceptions to adult personality characteristics. Second, F-MPS is considered as more relevant to the classical concept of perfectionism in comparison

to Hewitt and Flett's conceptualization (See, Shafran & Mansell, 2001; Shafran, Cooper & Fairburn, 2002).

1.4.1. Developmental Origins of Perfectionism

Most of the scholars agree on the etiology of perfectionism, which emphasizes early relationships with parents (Enns, Cox, & Clara, 2002). The link between parental factors and adaptive and maladaptive perfectionist attitudes were examined in many different studies and for a long while, parental evaluations and parental criticism have been considered as a robust contributor to the development of maladaptive perfectionism. In this sense, parents of the maladaptive perfectionist individuals are postulated to be harsh, critical, controlling and demanding (Burns, 1980; Shafran and Mansell, 2001; Rice, Lopez, & Vergara, 2005).

According to Hamacheck (1978), neurotic perfectionism occurs due to the children's need for acceptance from their parents who have high standards and performance-contingent approval. Likewise, according to Missildine (1963) maladaptive perfectionism have its roots from "an inner child of the past, who strives to gain parental acceptance, which was withheld in the past, because of ever present parental pressures to do better" (p. 85). Moreover, since parent's acceptance is essential, the children excessively strive for the perfect achievement to obtain acceptance and love from their parents (Missildine, 1963). Furthermore, Barrow and Moore (1983) summarized parental factors that contribute the development of perfectionism in four different clusters. The first one involves overt parental criticism that leads to the contingency of self-worth upon achievement. The second condition involves not overt but implied criticism in the expression of standards, ideals and expectations. The third condition occurs when the expression of clearly defined standards are absent, in that condition the individual may adopt perfectionism as the standard. Finally, the last condition involves social learning of perfectionism via perfectionist role models.

Most of the research that connects parenting factors with perfectionism, links adaptive and maladaptive characteristics of perfectionism with less parental

warmth, affection and high levels of control. (Kawamura, Frost & Harmatz, 2002; Enns, Cox, & Clara, 2002; Soenens, Vansteenkiste et al, 2005; Yoon and Lau, 2008). For instance, consistent with previous research of Frost and colleagues (1991) which indicated an association between parents' harshness and daughters' perfectionism, Rice, Ashby, and Preusser (1996) found that maladaptive perfectionists tend to describe their parents as more demanding and critical compared to adaptive perfectionist. Moreover, it was revealed that parental expectations play an essential role in self-esteem for both adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists. In support of this view, Soenens (2007) bridges parental rejection and maladaptive perfectionism in terms of PARTheory. He highlights the similarity between maladaptive perfectionist cognitions that are characterized by harsh self-evaluations, concerns over failing and feelings of worthlessness and consequences of parental rejection that also include indications of low self-esteem and low self-adequacy.

Additionally, Soenens, Vansteenkiste and colleagues (2005) found that perfectionist cognitions mediate the link between perceived parental psychological control and depression. Moreover, it was revealed that adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism have their unique developmental origins, which support the notion of adaptive-maladaptive dichotomy of perfectionism. Soenens, Elliot and colleagues (2005) found that psychological control is an intervening variable in the intergenerational transmission of perfectionism. In a more recent study, family origins of functional and dysfunctional perfectionism as measured by Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale were examined and extreme family enmeshment and authoritarian parenting style significantly predicted both functional and dysfunctional perfectionism whereas psychological control significantly predicted dysfunctional but not functional perfectionism (Craddock, Church & Sands, 2009)

1.4.2. Perfectionism and Symptoms of Psychopathology

Review of the recent literature on perfectionism demonstrated that a variety of research focus on the correlation between negative aspects of perfectionism and its consequences that include both the current psychopathology and the risks for the development of psychopathology.

The results of a remarkable body of research revealed that maladaptive aspects of perfectionism are associated with negative affect and psychopathology whereas adaptive aspects of perfectionism are associated with positive affect. Moreover, maladaptive perfectionist attitudes predict severity of psychopathological symptoms within the interaction of other vulnerability factors in longitudinal studies. Thus, as cited in Shafran and Mansell (2001) the results warrant the link between perfectionism and psychopathology, such as depression, anxiety disorders, eating disorders, personality disorders; especially obsessive compulsive personality disorder and psychosomatic problems like low back pain, peptic ulcers, migraine headache.

Perfectionism was considered as a robust vulnerability factor for the development of depression in both psychoanalytic and cognitive theory (see Hewit & Flett, 1991). With this respect, an increasing body of empirical evidence emphasizes the positive correlation between perfectionism and depression. In a review of cognitive behavioral perspectives on the link between perfectionism and depression, Hewitt and colleagues (2003) proposed that the roots of this relationship were associated with the perfectionist tendency to evaluate oneself harshly, focus on even minor mistakes and as a result, having feelings of dissatisfaction about their performance. Moreover, since perfectionists' self-worth is contingent on their performance, they tend to accept their failures as a sign of worthlessness and experience depression.

Furthermore, different studies examined the link between perfectionism measured by Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale and self-report depression. In all of those studies, depression was found to be more strongly

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associated with Doubts about Actions and Concerns over Mistakes subscales whereas Personal Standards demonstrated very small or even negative correlation with depression. However, these results were not examined in clinical sample (cited in Enns & Cox, 1999).

On the other hand, the link between perfectionism measured by Hewitt Multidimensional perfectionism Scale and depression was examined in both non-clinical university sample and clinical sample. The results concluded that Socially Prescribed Perfectionism subscale which was considered as overlapping with parental expectations and parental criticism subscales of F-MPS was the most strongly associated subscale with depression (cited in Antony et al., 1998). Likewise, Hewitt and Flett (1991) hypothesized that Socially Prescribed Perfectionism is more likely to associate with emotional states like anger, anxiety and depression. Moreover, they found that clinically depressed individuals have higher levels of perfectionism and it was hypothesized that Self-oriented perfectionism is more likely to be related to clinical depression.

The link between anxiety disorders and maladaptive perfectionism was another research area that became increasingly popular. In a review of Shafran and Mansell (2001) a variety of research that examined the association between perfectionism and different types of anxiety disorders such as panic disorder, post traumatic stress disorder, obsessive compulsive disorder, social phobia or specific phobias were cited. However, social phobia and obsessive-compulsive disorder were considered as having the strongest correlation with maladaptive perfectionism, especially Socially Prescribed Perfectionism, Concern over Mistakes and Doubts about Actions. More specifically, in a study of Flett and colleagues (1995), trait anxiety was found to be related to maladaptive perfectionism (cited in Kawamura et. al., 2001). The same results were found in Antony and colleagues' (1998) study, which was conducted with clinical sample. However, Kawamura and colleagues (2001) hypothesized that there is lack of empirical evidence on whether perfectionism is associated with all types of anxiety or associated with specific anxiety symptoms uniquely related to specific anxiety disorders.

On the other hand, the link between perfectionism and anger still needs further examination. Although the direct association between perfectionism and anger has not been examined extensively, significant correlations between hostility and different dimensions of perfectionism were found in the studies of Frost and colleagues (1990); and Hewitt and Flett (1991). Hence, concerns over mistakes, doubts about actions, self oriented perfectionism and socially prescribed perfectionism are associated with anger.

Saboonchi and Lundh (2003) described the relationship between anger and perfectionism within two different cognitive conceptualizations. According to first conceptualization, anger is elicited as a result of an undesirable incident that is caused by intentional behavior. With this respect, anger is associated with socially prescribed perfectionism. However, other cognitive theories suggest that anger is elicited because of frustration. From this point of view, anger is hypothesized to be manifested as a result of the failure to achieve high standards. Accordingly, anger is connected to self-oriented perfectionism. On the other hand, in their study, Saboonchi and Lundh (2003) found significant correlation only between self-oriented perfectionism and anger. More specifically, Dunn et al (2006) examined the link between trait anger and perfectionism in athletes and found that maladaptive perfectionism is associated with trait anger. Likewise, a more recent study of Esfahani and Besharat (2010) revealed that Self-Oriented and Socially Prescribed perfectionism is related to anger dimensions. However, to our knowledge, no studies have examined the direct association between dimensions of Frost Multiple Perfectionism Scale and anger.

1.5. Locus of Control Orientation

Historically, personal control has been touched by many diverse areas, such as religious and philosophical thoughts, sociological and anthropological writings and in psychology from different perspectives such as Bandura's (1992) conceptualization of self-efficacy, Seligman's (1992) conceptualization of

explanatory style and learned helplessness theory and Rotter's (1966) locus of control (cited in Carton & Nowicki, 1994).

Rotter (1966) first propounded locus of control in terms of his social learning theory. The basic assumption of the theory is that besides reinforcement and the importance of goals, the expectation of individuals about the results of their behaviors is also important to determine the individual's behavior. In terms of social learning theory, Rotter (1954) defines expectancy as "a probability or contingency held by the subject that any specific reinforcement or group of reinforcements will occur in any given situation or situations" (cited in Carton & Nowicki, 1994, p.33). According to Rotter (1966), based on their experiences of social learning, individuals shape their expectancies about the contingency of their behaviors. With this respect, locus of control of reinforcement is conceptualized as a generalized expectancy. In this regard, internal versus external control was described as "the degree to which persons expect that a reinforcement or an outcome of their behavior is contingent on their own behavior or personal characteristics versus the degree to which persons expect that the reinforcement or outcome is a function of chance, luck, or fate, is under the control of powerful others, or is simply unpredictable" (Rotter, 1990, p. 489). Hence, internally controlled people are considered as tending to see consequences of the events as self-initiated behaviors, whereas externally controlled people are considered as relying on extrinsic factors such as chance and luck (cited in Lefcourt, 1976).

Based on unidimensional conceptualization of locus of control, Rotter (1966) developed a 23-item scale to measure locus of control in a dichotomous format. However, since Nowicki and Duke (1974) criticized Rotter's scale due to problems related to social desirability, types of locus of control of reinforcement and difficulties related to its reading level, Nowicki and Strikland (1973) developed Nowicki-Strikland Locus of Control Scale for Adults (cited in Finch et al, 1981). Likewise, Levenson (1974) considered locus of control as a multidimensional construct and developed a measure of locus of control consisting of tree subscales namely internal Control scale, Powerful Others scale, and Chance scale. Hence, she

distinguished externally controlled people in two groups; externally controlled by chance, luck or fate and externally controlled by powerful others.

1.5.1. Developmental Origins of Locus of Control

Like many other personality dimensions, the antecedents of locus of control orientation lie in the parent-child relationship as well (Lefcourt, 1976; MacDonald, 1971; Rohner, Chaille, Rohner, 1980).

The studies of Chance (1965) and Katkovski, Crandall and Good (1967) were among the first studies that examined parental antecedents of locus of control by using observational data and both of the studies reached similar conclusions (cited in Lefcourt,1976). Chance found that maternal permissiveness, early independence training, and mothers' flexibility of expectations for their children contribute to the development of their children's internal locus of control. Likewise, Katkovski, Crandall and Good (1967) stated that parents' nurturance, supportiveness and acceptance is essential for the development of internal locus of control. They found that the development of internal locus of control is positively associated with displaying warm, praising, protective, and supportive behaviors towards children, whereas dominant, rejecting and critical behaviors are negatively associated with the development of internal locus of control. However, since nurturing mothers contribute internal locus of control orientation of boys but not girls in both studies, contradictory findings across genders were emphasized. On the contrary, MacDonald (1971) found that parental nurturance is associated with external control for both sexes whereas paternal hostility is related to internal locus of control of the sons. In another study of undergraduate students, Johnson and Kilmann (1975) found that perceived overprotective and restrictive maternal attitudes are related to an external orientation. Additionally, from PARTheory's perspective, the link between parental acceptance-rejection and development of children's locus of control was examined by Rohner, Chaille, and Rohner (1980). They found that internal locus of control orientation is positively correlated with children's age and perceived parental acceptance. Finally, in another study of

McClun and Merrell (1998) Authoritative parenting style that was characterized by high acceptance and moderate control was found as a contributor of the development of internal locus of control whereas authoritarian and permissive parenting were found to be associated with more negative outcomes.

In conclusion, as McClun and Merrell (1998) summarized, consistency of discipline, moderate autonomy and reinforcement of positive behaviors is more frequently associated with internal locus of control. Hence, despite exceptions, internal control is connected to parental nurturance, warmth and acceptance, whereas external control is connected to more psychological control, neglect and rejection (Lefcourt, 1976).

1.5.2. Locus of Control and Symptoms of Psychopathology

Although Rotter (1966) did not intend to assume that internal expectancies are always related to better outcomes, Crandall and Crandall (1983) reviewed the research findings that compares internal versus external locus of control orientation and concluded that internal locus of control is associated with more positive outcomes, such as more engagement in achievement activities, higher levels of performance due to their positive attitudes about achievement, better interpersonal relationships, better emotional adjustment and less severe psychiatric diagnoses of anxiety and depression compared to external locus of control orientation.

In a meta-analytic study of Benassi, Sweeney, Dufour (1988) strong correlation was found between external locus of control and depression and no group differences were found between men and women. The results were also replicated with normal and clinical population. In another meta-analysis study of Presson and Benassi (1996), depressive symptoms were found to be uniquely associated with a belief in lack of internality, chance and powerful others. Likewise, the study of Kennedy, Lynch and Schwab (1998) revealed that patients with major depression have scored significantly greater on Powerful Others scale of Levenson's locus of control scale.

However, Abrahamson and Sackeim (1977) suggested that the distinction between two major theories of depression leads to a paradoxical view of depression. The first theory involves the Seligman's (1975) learned helplessness model of depression. According to Seligman, affective, cognitive and behavioral aspects of depression have their roots from the learning that there is no contingency between the individual's behaviors and the events' outcomes. From this point of view, depression is related to hopelessness and helplessness. On the other hand, according to Beck (1967/1973), even negative events occur due to certain external factors, depressed individuals have the tendency to negatively interpret these events and blame themselves for their outcomes due to their distorted beliefs about themselves, their experiences and their future. With this respect, Beck connected depression with self-blame and guilt. Apart from the paradox that was formed by Beck and Seligman; Lamont (1972) postulated that the link between depression and external locus of control interacts with the mood of the individuals. According to Lamont, Rotter's scale does not measure the intended construct; rather, the interaction between item mood level and degree of depression is responsible for the correlation between external locus of control and depression. This point of view also gain support with the study of Aiken and Baucom (1982). Moreover, as a reply to the controversy about the link between external locus of control and depression in the literature, Aiken and Baucom (1982) postulated that since depression is a complex phenomenon with different types, diverse theories can be useful to explain different types of depression. Hence, although the paradoxical view of depression is evident both in conceptual and in empirical level, external locus of control tends to be associated with self-reports of depression.

On the other hand, the link between locus of control orientation and anxiety related problems seems to be more robustly validated. In the literature, external locus of control orientation was associated with greater trait anxiety, whereas greater sense of personal control over the situations was found to be related to lower state anxiety (cited in Archer, 1979a). Archer's (1979b) review of 21 studies revealed that 18 of them found significant correlation between greater external

locus of control and higher trait anxiety in different populations. Furthermore, since both anxiety and external locus of control shared similar developmental factors, Archer emphasized the possible interaction between the development of locus of control and trait anxiety. Moreover, in an experimental study of Archer (1979a), it was found that the individual's perception about their ability to avoid negative outcomes is significantly related to their trait anxiety. Hence, it is concluded that the interaction of situational variables and personality traits is related to experiences of anxiety. In another study, locus of control was found as a risk factor for the development of anxiety in case of facing stress (Cohen et al, 2008). Moreover, a recent study that was conducted with Turkish university students revealed that the trait anxiety of externally controlled individuals is greater than internally controlled individuals (Arslan, Dilmaç, & Hamarta, 2009).

In contrast with depression and anxiety, the link between locus of control orientation and anger was a relatively untouched area. Notwithstanding, the locus of control orientation was examined with different aspects that are closely related to anger such as hostility (Pefley, 1987) and aggression (Sadowski & Wenzel, 1982). In a study of Sadowski and Wenzel (1982), they concluded that although individuals with external locus of control orientation have a tendency to report greater hostility and aggression, external locus of control was more strongly associated with hostility. Moreover, in their study, fatalism was found to be related with hostility for men whereas social system control was found to be associated with hostility for women. Similarly, Pefley (1987) found that external locus of control is related to greater hostility and they emphasized sex differences with stressing that these results occurred due to the women's scores. More specifically, Lester (1988) examined the mediator role of anger toward others in the relationship between locus of control and depression and found that the belief in being controlled by powerful others is associated with depression for only individuals that are unable to express their anger in any way. Furthermore, these findings were replicated by Young (1990) as well.

1.6 The Aims of the Present Study

The current study mainly focuses on the role of different personality constructs (i.e., Personality Traits, Perfectionism, and Locus of Control) on the relationship between major parenting dimensions (i.e., Parental Rejection, and Parental Control) and symptoms of psychopathology (i.e., Depression, Trait Anxiety, and Trait Anger). In the literature, although the impacts of various forms of parental attitudes and different personality constructs on psychological problems have been investigated separately, to our knowledge, no one has investigated these personality constructs together as the mediators of the relationship between retrospectively perceived parental acceptance-rejection/control as emphasized in PARTheory and adults' psychological symptoms. Therefore, the present study aimed;

(1) To examine factor structure of Frost Multiple Perfectionism Scale with a Turkish university students sample.

(2) To examine possible influence of demographic variables of Gender, Age, Number of Siblings, Maternal Education Level, Paternal Education Level and Family Income on Parental Factors (i.e., Overall Parental Rejection, Parental Warmth/Affection, Parental Hostility/Aggression, Parental Indifference/Neglect, Parental Undifferentiated Rejection, and Parental Control), Personality Constructs (Personality Traits, Perfectionism Factors and Locus of Control Factors) and symptoms of psychopathology (i.e., Depression, Trait Anxiety, and Trait Anger).

(3) To examine the associates of Overall Locus of Control Orientation, Overall Perfectionism, and Symptoms of Psychopathology (i.e., Depression, Trait Anxiety, and Trait Anger).

(4) To examine the mediator roles of Overall Perfectionism on the relationship between parental factors (Paternal Rejection, Paternal Control, Maternal Rejection, Maternal Control) and symptoms of psychopathology (i.e., Depressive Symptoms, Trait Anxiety and Trait Anger).

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Hence, following the model presented in Figure 1.1, two sets of hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to examine the paths of negative parental attitudes, personality constructs and symptoms of psychopathology. Accordingly, the first set of hierarchical regression analyses was conducted to examine associates of personality constructs (i.e., Locus of control, perfectionism). For these analyses, the variances accounted by socio-demographic variables and broader personality traits were controlled. Furthermore, as suggested by the presented model, perfectionism and locus of control scores were controlled as well for the second set of analyses that were conducted for the symptoms of psychopathology. Later on, the mediator role of perfectionism between negative parental attitudes and symptoms of psychopathology was tested via several mediation analyses. Thus, the hypotheses of the study are as follows:

(1) Higher levels of negative parental attitudes will be associated with higher levels of External Locus of Control.

(2) Higher levels of negative parental attitudes will be associated with higher levels of Overall Perfectionism.

(3) Higher levels of negative parental attitudes will be associated with higher levels of psychopathological symptoms.

(4) Higher levels of external locus of control will be associated with higher levels of perfectionism.

(5) Higher levels of external locus of control will be associated with higher levels of psychopathological symptoms.

(6) Higher levels of perfectionism will be associated with higher levels of psychopathological symptoms.

(7) Perfectionism will have a mediator role on the relationship between negative parental attitudes and psychological distress.
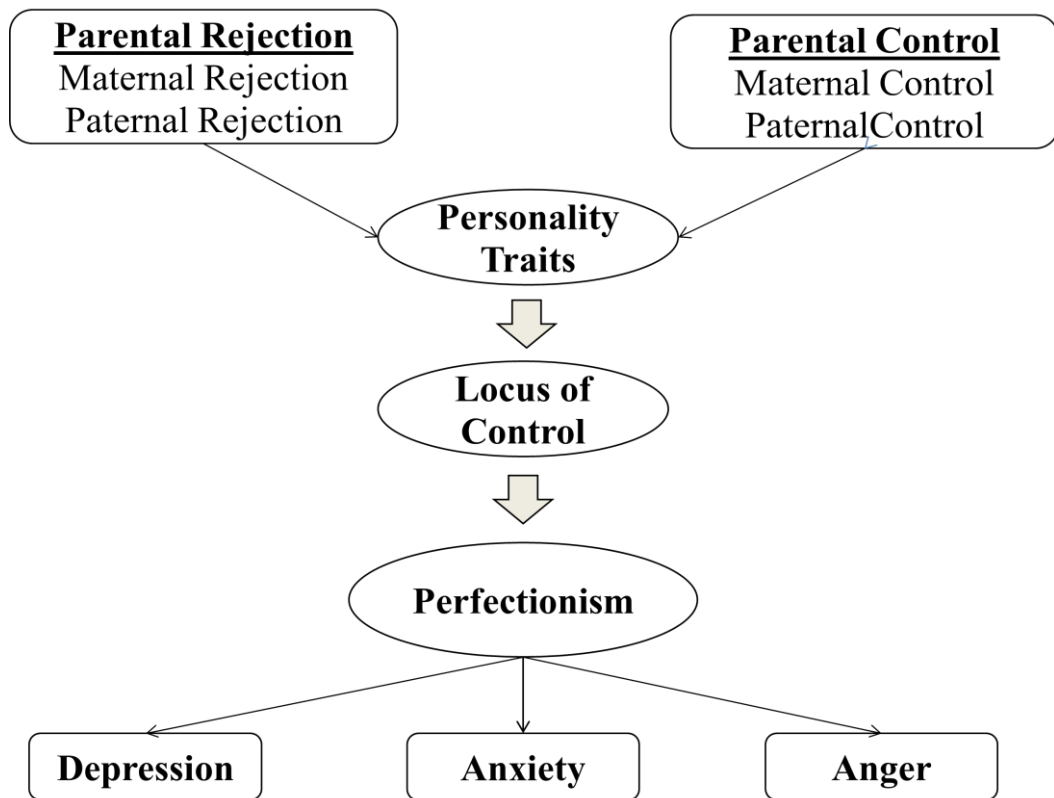
Figure 1. The Model of the Study: Mediator Roles of Personality Characteristics

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1. Sample

A total of 801 university students from various universities in Ankara (n = 592), İzmir (n = 170), and İstanbul (n = 39) participated in the current study. The sample consisted of 361 (45%) males and 440 (55%) females between the ages of 18 and 47 ($\underline{M}$ = 21.86, $\underline{SD}$ = 2.59). Detailed characteristics of the subjects are presented in Table 1.

2.2. Materials

In the current study, participants filled out a package of questionnaires that consists of two parts. In the first part, informed consent form (See Appendix A) was presented to patrticipants and questions regarding socio-demographic information were included. In this regard, the participants were asked about their sex, age, socio-economic status, and parental issues (See Appendix B).

In the second part, participants filled out eight different questionnaires namely Mother Form of the Parental Acceptance-Rejection/Control Questionnaire (M-PARQ) (See Appendix C), Father Form of the Parental Acceptance-Rejection/Control (F-PARQ) Questionnaire (See Appendix D), Basic Personality Traits Inventory (BPTI) (See Appendix E), Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (FMPS) (See Appendix F), Locus of Control Scale (See Appendix G), Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) (See Appendix H), Trait Form of the State Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI-T) (See Appendix I) and Trait Form of the State Trait Anger Inventory (STAXI-T) (See Appendix J).

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

Variables		N	%
Gender	Female	440	54.9
	Male	361	45.1
	Missing	0	0
	Total	801	100
Age	18 to 21	426	53.2
	22 to 47	375	46.8
	Missing	0	0
	Total	801	100
Number of Sibling	No Sibling	100	12.5
	1 Siblings	430	53.7
	2 Siblings	184	23.0
	3 Siblings	47	5.9
	4 Siblings and more	39	4.8
	Missing	1	0.1
	Total	801	100
Family Income	Below 1000 TL	89	11.2
	Between 1000-3000 TL	435	54.3
	Between 3000-5000 TL	174	21.7
	Above 5000 TL	98	12.2
	Missing	5	0.6
	Total	801	100
Mother Education	Illiterate	27	3.4
	Literate	16	2.0
	Primary School	199	24.8
	Secondary School	66	8.2
	High School	197	24.6
	University	296	37.0
	Missing	0	0
	Total	801	100
Father Education	Illiterate	8	1.0
	Literate	10	1.2
	Primary School	125	15.6
	Secondary School	72	9.0
	High School	166	20.7
	University	420	52.4
	Missing	0	0
	Total	801	100

With respect to the retrospective nature of the study, participants were instructed to consider their early years while filling out the questionnaires related to parental issues.

2.2.1. Adult Versions of Mothers and Fathers of the Parental Acceptance-Rejection/Control Questionnaire (PARQ)

Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire was developed by Rohner, Saavedra and Granum (1978) to assess consequences of perceived childhood experiences of parental acceptance-rejection in childhood (cited in Rohner & Khaleque, 2005). The questionnaire consists of 60 items divided in four dimensions to measure both maternal and paternal warmth/affection, hostility/aggression, indifference/neglect and undifferentiated rejection. Latterly, Parental Control Scale was developed by Rohner (1987) to assess the individual's perception of behavioral control that was experienced in childhood. Parental control scale consists of 13 items to measure lax, moderate, firm or strict control. Hence, Parental Acceptance-Rejection/Control Questionnaire was formed by the standard 60-item PARQ and the 13-item Parental Control Scale (cited in Rohner & Khaleque, 2005).

The original PARQ consists of four subscales assessing perceptions of parental acceptance-rejection. Items of PARQ are rated by respondents on a 4-point likert-type scale from (4) almost always true to (1) almost never true. After reverse coding of the seven items from the indifference/neglect subscale and all of the items in warmth/affection subscale, the scores that were derived from four subscales are summed up to produce overall measure of perceived acceptance and rejection. Higher scores represent greater rejection and possible total scores range from 60 (indicating maximum acceptance) to a 240 (indicating maximum rejection). With this respect, scores at or above 150 reveal the experience of significantly greater rejection whereas scores between 60 and 150 generally reveal the experience of acceptance. On the other hand, similar to PARQ, items of parental control scale are rated by respondents on a 4-point likert-type scale from (4) almost always true to (1) almost never true and higher scores represent more strict behavioral control. The

scores range from 13 (indicating maximum strictness) to 52 (indicating maximum permissiveness) (Rohner & Khaleque, 2005).

The psychometric properties of the PARQ and Parental Control Scale were examined by Rohner and Khaleque (2002). The coefficient alphas of PARQ were found to be ranging from .86 to .95, and test-retest reliability of the total scale was .93. Moreover, the construct validity of the scale was also found to be satisfactory. On the other hand coefficient alphas of Parental Control Scale were found to be ranging between .77 and .91. Additionally, in a more recent meta-analysis of Rohner and Khaleque (2003), the cronbach alpha that was aggregated across all samples and all versions of the scale was found to be .73.

Turkish adaptation studies of PARQ/Control were conducted by Varan (2003) in both clinical and nonclinical samples. Psychometric properties of PARQ Turkish form was examined in a study of Varan (2003) with 1700 participants between the ages of 17 and 78. Results revealed that the coefficient alphas of both mother and father version ranged between .86 and .96, and internal consistency was found to be .97 for whole scale. Additionally, the construct validity of the Turkish forms was found to be satisfactory. On the other hand, Turkish adaptation studies revealed that coefficient alphas were .84 for Mother Form and .83 for Father Form of PCS. Hence, Turkish form of PARQ/Control was considered as a valid and reliable assessment tool (cited in Varan, 2011).

In the present study, the Cronbach alpha coefficient for the PARQ Mother and Father forms were .96 and .97, respectively. Additionally, the coefficient alphas of the subscales were ranging between .81 and .94 for the Mother Form and .85 and .96 for the Father Form. Moreover, the Cronbach alphas of Parental Control Scale were found to be .84 for the Mother Form and .87 for the Father Form.

2.2.2. Beck Depression Inventory

Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) was developed for assessing cognitive, behavioral, motivational and somatic manifestations of depression. The original

form of the BDI was developed in 1961 and it was revised in 1978 by Beck Rush, Shaw and Emery as a 21-item self-report measure to measure symptoms of depression such as depressive affect, pessimism, feelings of failure, guilt and restlessness; loss of appetite and weight; loss of interest or pleasure in daily activities, somatic complaints and distortions related to the body image.

All of the items in the scale were presented with four sentences that were ranged with respect to the severity of the specified depressive symptom. Each item scored by the respondents from 0 to 3 with 4 options by considering their condition for the last weeks. Higher scores indicate higher levels of depression symptoms and possible total scores range between 0 and 63. The internal consistency of the BDI was found to be ranged between .73 and .95. Test-retest reliability was between .60 to .83 for non-clinical sample and between .48 and .86 for clinical sample (Beck, Steer, & Garbin, 1988).

Turkish psychometric properties of BDI were first examined by Tegin (1980) and coefficient alphas were found to be .78 for the sample of university students and .61 for the sample of depressed patients. Moreover, the split-half reliability coefficient was .65. Secondly, psychometric properties of BDI were examined by Hisli with clinical sample (1988) and university sample (1989). The criterion validity of the latest version of the scale was found to be ranged between .65 and .68 whereas the split-half reliability of the scale was .74. Hence, the scale was considered as a statistically reliable and valid instrument.

In the current study, 1989 version of the scale was used and the Cronbach alpha coefficient for the scale was found to be .85.

2.2.3. Trait Form of the State Trait Anxiety Inventory

State Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) is a 40-item self report questionnaire and was developed by Spielberger, Gorgush, and Lushene (1970) to assess anxiety in research and clinical practice. The questionnaire includes two scales measuring trait and state anxiety. In state anxiety form, respondent are asked to report the

"intensity" of their current anxiety, whereas in trait anxiety form, respondents are asked to report the "frequency" of their feelings and cognitions related to anxiety.

Items are rated by respondents on a 4-point likert-type scale from (1) almost never to (4) almost always. The test-retest reliability of the scale was found to be ranging from .73 to .86 for trait form; whereas the Cronbach alpha coefficient was found to be ranging from .86 to .92. Construct and criterion variables were also reported as satisfactory (Spielberger & Vagg, 1984).

The Psychological properties of the Turkish STAI were examined by Öner and LeComte (1985) in both normal and clinical sample. In adaptation studies, test-retest reliability of the STAI was found to be ranged between .71 and .86 whereas the internal consistency was found to be ranged between .83 and .87. Additionally, criterion and construct validity of the questionnaire were considered as satisfactory as well. The criterion validity of the scale was established on the basis of the difference between the scores of diagnosed patients and normal sample.

In the current study, only 20-item trait form was utilized with respect to its retrospective nature. The Cronbach alpha coefficient for the scale was found to be .87.

2.2.4. Trait form of the State Trait Anger Expression Inventory

State Trait Anger Expression Inventory (STAXI) is a 44-item self report questionnaire that was developed by Spielberger (1988) to measure the expression and control of the experienced anger. STAXI consists of two main scales namely, The State-Trait Anger Scale and Anger Expression Scale. The constructs that were used to develop STAXI was defined in a similar way to STAI. In this regard, state anger was referred to a psychobiological state or condition that measure the differences in the intensity of the expressed anger whereas trait anxiety measure the frequency of the individual differences in anger expression (cited in Spielberger & Reheiser, 2009).

Factor analytic studies of STAXI revealed six factors namely State Anger, Anger/In, Anger/Out, and Anger/Control scales, and the Trait Anger Temperament and Reaction subscales (Spielberger & Reheiser, 2009). The items were rated by respondents on a 4-point scale from 1 (none) to 4 (totally). The internal consistency of the original scale was found to be ranging between .73 and .93. Moreover, criterion validity was considered as satisfactory (cited in Newman, Gray, & Fuqua, 1999).

Turkish adaptation studies of STAXI were conducted by Özer (1994). In the preliminary study of Özer (1994), Trait Anxiety and Anger Expression subscales were administrated to college and high school students, managers and outpatient clients. The cronbach alpha coefficient was found to be ranging between .62 and .92 for Trait Anger. Factor analysis revealed three factors for anger expression namely anger/in, anger/out, and anger/control and the cronbach alpha coefficient were found to be ranging between .80-.90, .69-.91 and .58-.76 respectively. For these factors, criterion validity of the scale was examined with hypertensive patients and considered as satisfactory. In another study, Özer (1994) reported internal consistency of the scale as ranging between .68 and .84 for both trait anger and anger expression subscales.

In line with the aims of current study, only ten-item trait form of the STAXI was utilized. The cronbach alpha coefficient for the STAI-T was found to be .84.

2.2.5. Basic Personality Traits Inventory

Basic Personality Traits Inventory was developed specifically for Turkish culture by Gençöz and Öncül (manuscript under review) to measure basic personality traits that is basely inspired from the five-factor model of personality of McCrea and Costa (2003). During the process of development, initially, the researchers aimed to identify the most common adjectives that were used in Turkish culture. For this reason, 100 participants were asked to write down the adjectives that they used to describe different people. Afterwards a 226-item basic personality traits list was formed within the written adjectives. Following this procedure, the

basic personality traits list were administered to 510 participants and they were asked to rate their own personality traits on a five point scale, which was ranging from 1 (does not apply to me) to 5 (definitely applies to me). In line with the literature, in addition to the five factors that represent five basic personality traits, factor analysis revealed a sixth factor that represent negative self attributions. Accordingly, the factors were named as extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness to experience, and negative valence. Lastly, the most heavily loaded items on each factor formed the 45-item BPTI together.

Finally, psychometric properties of BPTI were examined with 454 undergraduate students and internal consistency of the sub-measures were .89 for Extraversion, .84 for Conscientiousness, .85 for Agreeableness, .83 for Neuroticism, .80 for Openness to Experience and .71 for negative valence. Moreover, test-retest reliability of the scale was found to be ranged between .71 and .84. Additionally, the concurrent validity of the scale was found to be satisfactory.

In the current study, the Cronbach alpha coefficients for the scale was .88 for Extraversion, .83 for Conscientiousness, .80 for Agreeableness, .78 for Neuroticism, .75 for Openness to Experience and .66 for Negative Valence.

2.2.6. Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale

Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale was developed by Frost, Marten, Lahart and Rosenblate (1990) to measure the dimension of perfectionism. The researchers identified different dimensions of perfectionism such as high standards for one's performance, the tendency to overemphasize even minor mistakes, doubts about one's performance, place emphasize on parents' expectations, and displays great care about organization. Additionally, studies revealed that perfectionism can be considered as adaptive and maladaptive.

Frost multidimensional perfectionism scale has 35 items that were rated on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The scale has six subscales and psychometric properties of the original scale were considered

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as satisfactory. The Cronbach alpha coefficients were found to be .88 for concern over mistakes, .83 for personal standards, .93 for organization, .84 for parental expectations, .84 for parental criticism and .77 for doubts about actions.

The adaptation studies of the Turkish form of the scale was firstly conducted by Mısırlı-Taşdemir (2003) and internal consistency of the scale were found to be ranging from .63 to .87, and split-half reliability coefficient was found to be .80. More recently, the psychometrics properties of the scale were also examined by Kındap and Sayıl (2010). In their study, coefficient alphas were found to be .81 for concern over mistakes, .82 for personal standards and organization, .81 for parental expectations, .62 for parental criticism and .68 for doubts about actions. In the current study, Kındap and Sayıl's translation of the scale was utilized.

The present study investigated internal consistency reliabilities of F-MPS and factor structure of its subscales for emerging adults (see the Result Section for details).

2.2.7. Locus of Control Scale

Locus of Control Scale is a 47-item self-report scale that was developed by Dağ (2002) to measure the individuals' internal or external attributions about the consequences of their behaviors. Items are rated by respondents on a 5-point likert-type scale from 1 (totally inappropriate) to 5 (totally appropriate). Related to this, higher scores indicate greater internal locus of control and possible total scores that range from 47 to 235.

In the development process of the scale, initially, an item pool was formed with 80 items from almost the entire major locus of control scales, especially Rotter's (1966) locus of control scale. Additionally, most of the items were partially changed and two items were added to the scale as a result of the researcher's own experiences. Afterwards, the 80 items were administrated to 272 university students. Consequently, 47-item locus of control scale was obtained as a result of

items analysis, and the Cronbach alpha coefficient for the scale was found to be .91 in that study (Dağ, 2002).

In the second study, 47-item locus of control scale was administered to 111 university students. Accordingly, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was .92 whereas test-retest reliability was .88. In order to establish construct validity, factor analysis was conducted and five different factors were obtained namely "personal control", "relying on luck", "meaninglessness of striving", "fatalism", and "belief in an unjust world". In this regard, coefficient alphas were found to be .87, .79, .76, .74, .61 respectively. Moreover, results of convergent validity analysis of Locus of control scale revealed significant correlations with Rotter's I-E scale (r=.67), Rosenbaum's Learned Resourcefulness Schedule (r=-.39), the SCL-90-R(r=.25), and Paranormal Beliefs Scale (r=.46). Hence, Locus of control scale was considered as a reliable and valid instrument to measure locus of control orientation (Dağ, 2002).

The Cronbach alpha coefficient of the scale was found to be .89 in the current study. Additionally, the Cronbach alpha coefficients of the five subscales were found to be ranging between .66 and .88.

1.2.3. Procedure

Prior to administration of the questionnaire packet, permission was taken from The Applied Ethics Research Center of Middle East Technical University for research with human participants. Afterwards, for students living in Ankara and Izmir, questionnaire packets were applied to voluntary participants during class hours whereas for students living in Istanbul, snowball sampling procedure was utilized via internet. Those students participated the study via internet were given required information that contains the aims of the study and instructions about filling the scales. All participants signed an informed consent form and confidentiality was assured. Taken together, it took students about forty minutes to fulfill the required procedures and questionnaires.

1.2.4. Statistical Analysis

In the current study, in order to conduct statistical analyses, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was employed. Prior to analyses, the data was examined for the accuracy of data entry, missing values, fit between their distributions and the assumptions of multivariate analysis. Among a total of 816 variables, 15 cases were deleted that were identified as both univariate and multivariate outliers through Mahalonobis distance (37.70, p<.001). Afterwards the analyses were conducted with the remaining 801 cases that acceptably satisfy the assumptions of multivariate analysis.

After the data cleaning acts, factor analysis was employed for the Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale to examine its factor structure with a sample of emerging adults. Afterwards, reliability analyses were conducted for PARQ (Mother and Father From), BPTI, F-MPS, Locus of Control Scale, BDI, STAI-T, and STAXI-T.

Before the main analyses, in order to examine the differences of demographic variables on the measures of the study various independent samples t-tests and MANOVAs were employed. Additionally, a zero order correlation was conducted for the measures of the study (PARQ/Control Mother and Father Forms, BPTI, F-MPS, Locus of Control Scale, BDI, STAI-T, STAXI-T). Afterwards, hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to identify associates of locus of control orientation, perfectionism and symptoms of psychopathology. Finally, mediation analyses were utilized to identify the mediator role of perfectionism via multiple regression.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

3.1. Factor Analysis of Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (F-MPS)

In order to examine the primary factors of F-MPS, prior to the analysis, dimensional nature of the items was tested through Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and satisfactory results were found.

Afterwards, principal component analysis was employed on 35 items included in Turkish form of the scale. Based on scree-plot and eigenvalues, 6 factor solution was preferred. In line with the original formulation of the scale, six factors were named as Organization, Concern over Mistakes, Parental Expectations, Personal Standards, Parental Criticism, and Doubts about Actions. Taken together, these six factors totally accounted for 60.18% of the total variance, whereas each of six factors separately accounted for 23.54 %, 14.78 %, 7.98 %, 6.44 %, 3.78% and 3.64 % of the total variance, respectively. In order to be included under a particular factor, items had to meet two main criteria: (1) having an item loading of .30 or higher, (2) if an item total loading was .30 or higher on more than one factor, the item's semantic content, the cronbach alpha coefficient values for these factors, original scale formulation and theoretical coherence were considered while deciding the factor under which the item took part. In this regard, among 35 items, five of them cross-loaded on more than one factor. Item 4 was loaded on both factor 2 (factor loading of .41) and factor 4 (factor loading of .51); item 16 was loaded on both factor 1(factor loading of .40) and 4 (factor loading of .55); and item 18 was loaded on both factor 2 (factor loading of .53) and factor 4 (factor loading of .46).

Table 2. Factor Structure of Frost Multiple Perfectionism Scale

Factors	Factor 1 Organization	Factor 2 Concern over Mistakes	Factor 3 Parental Expectations	Factor 4 Personal Standards	Factor 5 Parental Criticism	Factor 6 Doubts about Actions
F-MPS 27	**.89**	.05	.04	-.02	-.02	.06
F-MPS 29	**.88**	.10	.06	-.03	-.01	.05
F-MPS 8	**.85**	.04	.-02	.12	-.06	.01
F-MPS 7	**.85**	.02	.04	-.02	-.06	-.02
F-MPS 31	**.84**	.00	-.06	.18	.04	-.00
F-MPS 2	**.77**	.06	-.01	.19	.03	.03
F-MPS 9	.13	**.75**	.05	.04	.01	-.01
F-MPS 13	.00	**.68**	.04	.30	.12	.14
F-MPS 21	-.07	**.66**	.13	.14	.22	.28
F-MPS 23	-.03	**.66**	.01	.14	.31	.22
F-MPS 14	.03	**.65**	.09	.22	.07	.12
F-MPS 10	.15	**.64**	.17	-.08	-.09	.07
F-MPS 25	.05	**.61**	.10	.16	.29	.17
F-MPS 34	.06	**.58**	.06	.09	.26	.28
F-MPS 18	.06	**.53**	.14	.46	-.03	.17
F-MPS 11	.07	.21	**.82**	.09	.00	-.03
F-MPS 20	.03	.12	**.80**	.21	.26	.04
F-MPS 1	.05	.05	**.76**	.08	.19	.09
F-MPS 26	-.05	.06	**.70**	-.13	.31	.14
F-MPS 15	.02	.25	**.55**	.18	.43	.09
F-MPS 19	.17	.22	.18	**.78**	-.04	.01
F-MPS 12	.13	.18	.10	**.77**	-.13	-.08

Table 2. Continued

Factors	Factor 1 Organization	Factor 2 Concern over Mistakes	Factor 3 Parental Expectations	Factor 4 Personal Standards	Factor 5 Parental Criticism	Factor 6 Doubts about Actions
F-MPS 16	.40	-.09	.01	**.55**	.03	-.20
F-MPS 24	-.09	.20	-.12	**.52**	.18	.22
F-MPS 4	.16	.41	.11	**.51**	.08	.09
F-MPS 30	.41	.30	.11	**.36**	.09	.14
F-MPS 6	.46	.14	.11	**.34**	-.21	.02
F-MPS 35	-.08	.12	.27	-.03	**.75**	.20
F-MPS 22	-.12	.15	.21	-.08	**.72**	.10
F-MPS 5	-.04	.14	.12	.01	**.69**	.08
F-MPS 3	.09	.12	.17	.07	**.68**	.07
F-MPS 33	.06	.13	.10	.07	.00	**.82**
F-MPS 32	.05	.17	.07	.01	.18	**.81**
F-MPS 17	-.01	.27	.01	.05	.10	**.66**
F-MPS 28	.05	.29	.09	-.08	.21	**.56**
Eigenvalue	14.42	27.33	36.06	44.49	52.69	60.16
% variance	23.54	14.78	7.98	6.44	3.78	3.64
The Cronbach Alpha	.92	.86	.85	.76	.72	.78
Item Total Correlation Range	.89-.77	.75-.53	.82-.55	.78-.34	.75-.68	.82-.56

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Original scale formulation and highest factor loadings were taken into account for these three items to be included under a particular factor. Accordingly, item 4 and item 16 were included under factor 4 whereas item 18 was included under factor 2. On the other hand, although item 6, which was cross-loaded on both factor 1 (factor loading of .46) and factor 4 (factor loading of .34), and item 30, which was cross-loaded on both factor 1(factor loading of .41) and factor 4 (factor loading of .36), were heavily loaded on factor 1, based on theoretical coherence, original scale formulation and the cronbach alpha coefficient values, these items were considered under factor 4. Above-stated factor structure was found to be similar to both the original factor structure and the factor structure obtained by Kındap and Sayıl (2010).

The Cronbach alpha coefficients were calculated for each of six factors. Accordingly, the Cronbach alpha coefficients were .92 for Organization, .86 for Concern over mistakes, .85 for Parental Expectations, .78 for Parental Criticism, .76 for Personal Standards, and .78 for Doubts about Actions. Detailed information about factor structures, eigenvalues, internal reliability estimates and factor loadings were given in Table 2.

3.2. Descriptive Information about the Major Variables of the Study

In order to examine descriptive characteristics of the measures used in the study, means, standard deviations and ranges were computed for Indifference/Neglect, Warmth/Affection, Hostility/Aggression, Undifferentiated Rejection, and Parental Control subscales of Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire Mother and Father Forms; Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, and Negative Valence subscales of Basic Personality Traits Inventory; Concern over Mistakes and Doubts about Actions, Parental Expectations and Parental Criticism, Organization, and Personal Standards subscales of Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale; Personal Control, Relying on Luck, Meaninglessness of Striving, Fatalism, and Belief in an Unjust World subscales of Locus of Control

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Scale; Beck Depression Inventory; Trait form of the State Trait Anxiety Inventory; Trait form of the State-Trait Anger Inventory (see Table 3).

Table 3. Descriptive Information for the Major Variables in the Study

Measures	Subscales	N	Mean	SD	Range	Number of Items
Mother PARQ	MW/A	801	68.28	10.34	20-80	20
	MI/N	801	21.63	5.57	15-60	15
	MH/A	801	22.39	6.59	15-60	15
	MUR	801	14.41	3.96	10-40	10
	MC	801	32.17	6.90	13-52	13
Father PARQ	PW/A	801	62.86	13.59	20-80	20
	PI/N	801	26.35	8.70	15-60	15
	PH/A	801	22.03	7.56	15-60	15
	PUR	801	14.46	4.73	10-40	10
	PC	801	31.98	8.02	13-52	13
BPTI*	O	801	3.78	0.65	1-5	6
	C	801	3.62	0.73	1-5	8
	E	801	3.53	0.83	1-5	8
	A	801	4.27	0.48	1-5	8
	N	801	2.80	0.70	1-5	9
	NV	801	1.63	0.54	1-5	6
FMPS*	OR	801	3.77	0.98	1-5	6
	CM	801	2.63	0.87	1-5	9
	PE	801	2.97	1.06	1-5	5
	PS	801	3.48	0.74	1-5	7
	PC	801	1.86	0.88	1-5	4
	DA	801	2.64	0.95	1-5	4
LCS*	PC	801	2.64	0.51	1-5	18
	RL	801	2.88	0.52	1-5	11
	MS	801	2.25	0.56	1-5	10
	F	801	2.95	0.97	1-5	3
	BUW	801	2.32	0.65	1-5	5
BDI		797	9.78	7.26	0-44	0-63
STAI-T		796	58.63	8.99	37-87	35-95
STAXI-T		796	21.56	5.52	10-39	10-40

* For these measures, which have subscales, mean, standard deviation and range values were calculated by dividing the obtained score with number of items for that measure. Thus, these scores are within the rating format of each measure.

Note. PARQ: Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire, MW/A: Maternal Warmth/Affection, MI/N: Maternal Indifference/neglect, MH/A: Maternal

Hostility/Aggression, MUR: Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection, MC: Maternal Control, PW/A: Paternal Warmth/Affection, PI/N: Paternal Indifference/neglect, PH/A: Paternal Hostility/Aggression, PUR: Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection, PC: Paternal Control, BPTI: Basic Personality Traits Inventory, O: Openness to Experience, C:Conscientiousness, E: Extraversion, A: Agreeableness, N: Neuroticism, NV: Negative Valence, FMPS: Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale, OR: Organization, CM: Concern over Mistakes, PE: Parental Expectations, PS: Personal Standards, PC: Parental Criticism, DA: Doubts about Actions, LCS: Locus of Control Scale, PC: Personal control, RL: Relying on luck, MS: Meaninglessness of striving, F: Fatalism, BUW: Belief in an unjust world, BDI: Beck Depression Inventory, STAI-T: State-Trait Anxiety Inventory-Trait Form, STAXI-T: State-Trait Anger Inventory- Trait form.

3.3.Descriptive Analyses of the Measures of the Study

Separate multivariate analyses, (2x2) ANOVAs and independent-samples t-test analyses were employed to examine the difference that demographic variables make on the measures of the study. In order to conduct these analyses, demographic variables were characterized into two groups and employed as the independent variables of the variance analysis. Information regarding these categorizations was given in Table 4.

Table 4. Categorization of the Demographic Variables

Variables		N	%
Gender	Female	440	54.9
	Male	361	45.1
Age	18 to 21 (Younger) ($\underline{M}$: 20.16, $\underline{SD}$: 0.83)	426	53.2
	22 to 47 (Older) ($\underline{M}$: 23.78, $\underline{SD}$: 2.57)	375	46.8
Number of Siblings	Having none or one (Low)	530	66.2
	Having two or more (High)	270	33.8
Family Income	Below 3000TL (Low)	524	65.4
	3000TL or more (High)	272	34.0
Mother Education	Graduate of high school or below (Low)	505	63.0
	Graduate of University or above (High)	296	37.0
Father Education	Graduate of high school or below (Low)	381	47.6
	Graduate of University or above (High)	420	52.4

3.4. Influence of Demographic Variables on Parental Attitudes

Influence of demographic variables on perceived parental acceptance-rejection and control were investigated for mothers and fathers separately.

3.4.1. Influence of Demographic Variables on Maternal Attitudes

Influence of demographic variables on perceived overall maternal rejection and perceived maternal control were investigated for mothers.

3.4.1.1. Influence of Age and Gender on Overall Maternal Rejection/ Control:

In order to examine possible influence of Gender and Age on maternal attitudes, 2 (Male, Female) x 2 (Younger, Older) between subjects MANOVA was employed with perceived Overall Maternal Rejection and perceived Maternal Control serving as the dependent variables.

Table 5. Gender and Age Influence on Mother PARQ/Control

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate F	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate F	Univariate η^2
Gender	.98	10.03[***]	2, 796	.02	-	-
OMR	-	-	1, 797	-	3.31	.01
MC	-	-	1, 797	-	11.04[**]	.01
Age	1.00	1.67	2, 796	.00	-	-
OMR	-	-	1, 797	-	2.82	.01
MC	-	-	1, 797	-	1.49	.01
Gender X Age	1.00	0.98	2, 796	.00	-	-

*** p<.001; ** p<.01
Note. OMR: Overall Maternal Rejection, MC: Maternal Control

As can be seen in Table 5, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Gender [Multivariate F (2, 796) = 10.03, p <.001; Wilk's Lambda = .98; partial η^2 = .02]. However, there was no significant main effect of Age [Multivariate F (2, 796) = 1.67, p> .05; Wilk's Lambda = 1.00; partial η^2 = .01] and no significant

interaction effect for Gender X Age [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (2,796) = 0.98, $\underline{p}$> .05; Wilk's Lambda = 1.00; partial η^2 = .00].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Gender main effect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Accordingly, the alpha values that are lower than .025 (i.e., .05/2) were considered as significant. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Gender only for Maternal Control [$\underline{F}$ (1, 797) = 11.04, $\underline{p}$< .001, partial η^2 = .01]. According to the mean scores, female participants ($\underline{M}$ = 32.94) reported significantly more perceived maternal control than male participants ($\underline{M}$ = 31.32).

Table 6. Mean Scores of Gender on Maternal Control

	Female	**Male**
Maternal Control	32.94	31.32
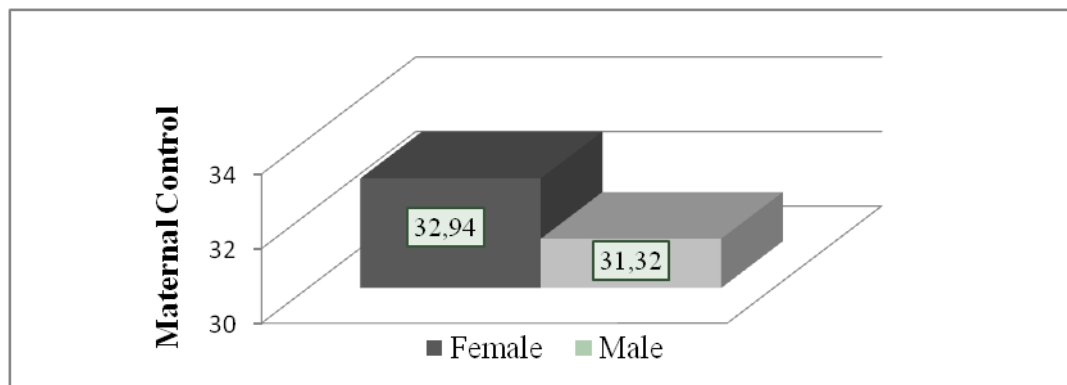
Figure 2. Mean Scores of Gender on Maternal Control

3.4.1.2. Influence of Number of Siblings on Overall Maternal Rejection/ Control:

In order to examine possible influence of Number of Siblings on maternal attitudes, MANOVA was employed with perceived Overall Maternal Rejection and perceived Maternal Control serving as the dependent variables.

Table 7. Number of Siblings Influence on Mother PARQ/Control

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate F	Df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate F	Univariate η^2
Number of Siblings	.97	11.32[***]	2,797	.03	-	-
OMR	-	-	1,798	-	20.27[***]	.02
MC	-	-	1,798	-	0.01	.01

[***] p<.001

Note. OMR: Overall Maternal Rejection, MC: Maternal Control

As can be seen in Table 7, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Number of Siblings of the participants [Multivariate F (2, 797) = 11.32, p< .001; Wilk's Lambda = .97; partial η^2 = .03].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant main effect for Number of Siblings of the participants with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Number of Siblings of the participants on only Overall Maternal Rejection [F (1,798) = 20.27, p< .001, partial η^2 = .02].

Table 8. Mean Scores of Number of Siblings on Overall Maternal Rejection

	Having none or one	Having two or more
Overall Maternal Rejection	87.56	95.32

According to the mean scores, participants who had two or more siblings (M = 95.32) reported significantly more perceived Overall Maternal Rejection than (M = 87.56) those who had none or one sibling.
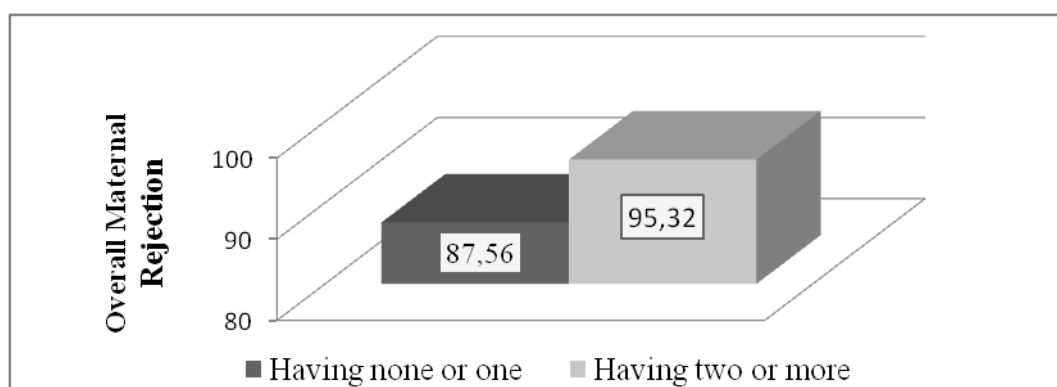
Figure 3. Mean Scores of Number of Siblings on Overall Maternal Rejection

3.4.1.3. Influence of Maternal Education Level on Overall Maternal Rejection/ Control:

In order to examine possible influence of Maternal Education Level on maternal attitudes, MANOVA was employed with perceived Overall Maternal Rejection and perceived Maternal Control serving as the dependent variables.

Table 9. Maternal Education Level Influence on Mother PARQ/Control

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Maternal Education Level	.99	5.15[**]	2, 798	.01	-	-
OMR	-	-	1, 799	-	10.28[***]	.01
MC	-	-	1, 799	-	0.65	.01

*** p<.001; ** p<.01

Note. OMR: Overall Maternal Rejection, MC: Maternal Control

As can be seen in Table 9, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Maternal Education Level of the participants [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (2, 798) = 5.15, p< .01; Wilk's Lambda = .99; partial η^2 = .01].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Maternal Education Level main effect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a

significant main effect of Maternal Education Level of the participants on Overall Maternal Rejection [F (1, 799) = 10.28, p< .001, partial η^2 = .01]. According to the mean scores, participants who had low educated mothers (M = 92.16) reported significantly more perceived overall maternal rejection than those who had highly educated mothers (M = 86.72).

Table 10. Mean Scores of Maternal Education Level on Overall Maternal Rejection

	Low educated mother	Highly educated mother
Overall Maternal Rejection	92.16	86.72
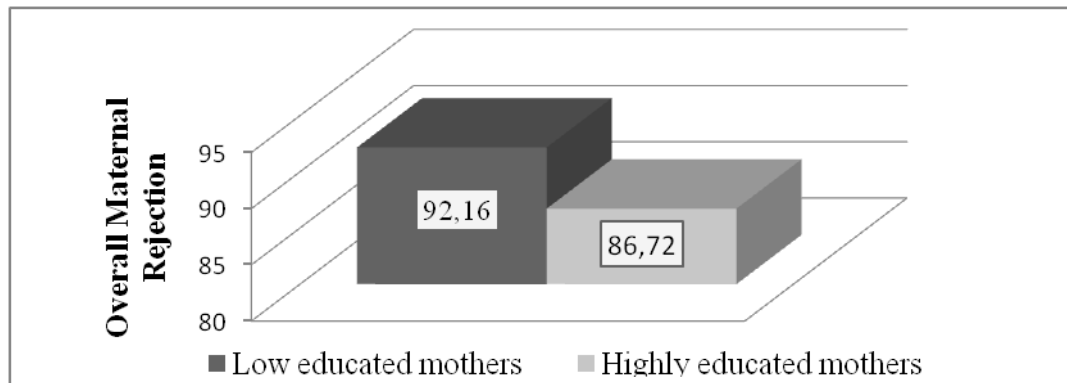
Figure 4. Mean Scores of Maternal Education Level on Overall Maternal Rejection

3.4.1.4. Influence of Paternal Education Level on Overall Maternal Rejection/ Control:

In order to examine possible influence of Paternal Education Level on maternal attitudes, MANOVA was employed with perceived Overall Maternal Rejection and perceived Maternal Control serving as the dependent variables.

Table 11. Paternal Education Level Influence on Mother PARQ/Control

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Paternal Education Level	.99	4.11*	2, 798	.01	-	-
OMR	-	-	1, 799	-	8.14**	.01
MC	-	-	1, 799	-	0.32	.01

** $\underline{p}$<.01; * $\underline{p}$<.05

<u>Note</u>. OMR: Overall Maternal Rejection, MC: Maternal Control

As can be seen in Table 11, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Paternal Education Level of the participants [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (2, 798) = 4.11, $\underline{p}$< .05; Wilk's Lambda = .99; partial η^2 = .01].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Paternal Education Level main affect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Paternal Education Level of the participants on Overall Maternal Rejection [$\underline{F}$ (1, 799) = 8.14, $\underline{p}$< .01, partial η^2 = .01].

Table 12. Mean Scores of Paternal Education Level on Overall Maternal Rejection

	Low educated father	Highly educated father
Overall Maternal Rejection	92.61	87.92

According to the mean scores, participants who had low educated fathers ($\underline{M}$ = 92.61) reported significantly more perceived overall maternal rejection than those who had highly educated fathers ($\underline{M}$ = 87.92).
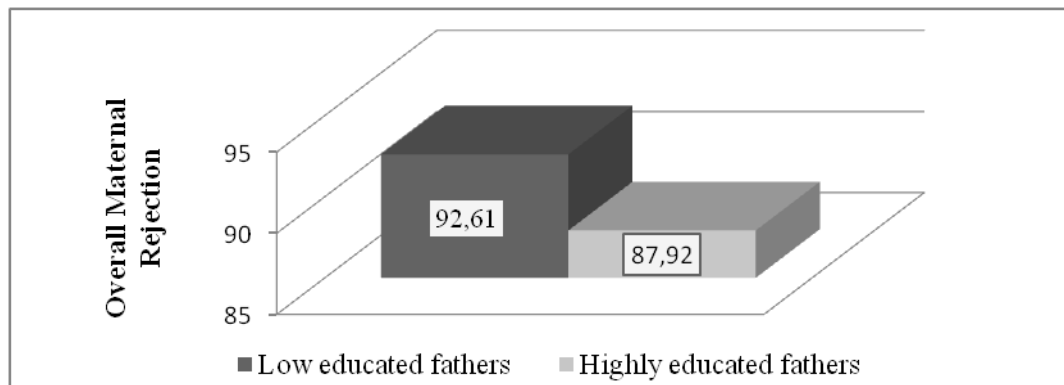
Figure 5. Mean Scores of Paternal Education Level on Overall Maternal Rejection

3.4.1.5. Influence of Family Income on Overall Maternal Rejection/ Control:

In order to examine possible influence of Family Income on maternal attitudes, MANOVA was employed with perceived Overall Maternal Rejection and perceived Maternal Control serving as the dependent variables.

Table 13. Family Income Influence on Mother PARQ/Control

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Family Income	.99	2.43	2, 793	.01	-	-
OMR	-	-	1, 794	-	4.12	.01
MC	-	-	1,794	-	0.04	.01

<u>Note</u>. OMR: Overall Maternal Rejection, MC: Maternal Control

As can be seen in Table 13, MANOVA results did not revealed significant main effect for Family Income of the participants [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (2, 793) = 2.43, $\underline{p}$> .05; Wilk's Lambda = .99; partial η^2 = .01].

3.4.2. Influence of Demographic Variables on Paternal Attitudes

Influence of demographic variables on perceived paternal rejection and perceived paternal control were investigated for fathers.

3.4.2.1. Influence of Age and Gender on Overall Paternal Rejection/ Control:

In order to examine possible influence of Gender and Age on Paternal attitudes, 2 (Male, Female) x 2 (Younger, Older) between subjects MANOVA was employed with perceived Overall Paternal Rejection and perceived Paternal Control serving as the dependent variables.

Table 14. Age and Gender Influence on Father PARQ/Control

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Gender	.99	4.95[**]	2, 796	.01	-	-
OPR	-	-	1, 797	-	5.44[*]	.01
PC	-	-	1, 797	-	2.25	.01
Age	.99	2.37	2, 796	.01	-	-
OPR	-	-	1, 797	-	4.48	.01
PC	-	-	1, 797	-	1.01	.01
Gender X Age	1.00	.32	2, 796	.00	-	-

** $\underline{p}$<.01; * $\underline{p}$<.05
Note. OPR: Overall Paternal Rejection, PC: Paternal Control

As can be seen in Table 14, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Gender [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (2, 796) = 4.95, $\underline{p}$< .01; Wilk's Lambda = .99; partial η^2 = .01]. However, there was no significant main effect for Age [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (2, 796) = 2.37, $\underline{p}$> .05; Wilk's Lambda = .99; partial η^2 = .01] and no significant interaction effect for Gender X Age [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (2, 796) = 0.32, $\underline{p}$> .05; Wilk's Lambda = 1.00; partial η^2 = .01].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Gender main effect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Accordingly, the alpha values that are lower than .025 (i.e., .05/2) were considered as significant. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Gender for Overall Paternal Rejection [$\underline{F}$ (1,797) = 5.44, $\underline{p}$<.02, partial η^2 = .01].

According to the mean scores, male participants ($\underline{M}$ = 102.89) reported significantly more perceived overall paternal rejection than female participants ($\underline{M}$ = 97.87).

Table 15. Mean Scores of Gender on Overall Paternal Rejection

	Female	Male
Overall Paternal Rejection	97.87	102.89
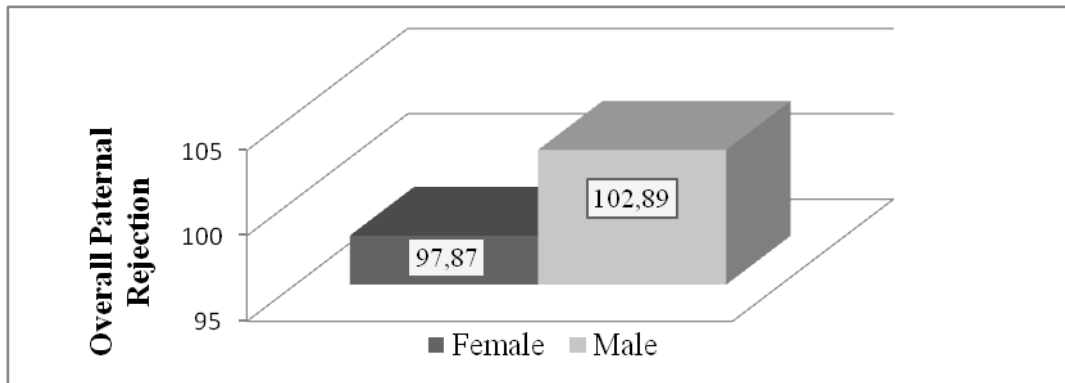
Figure 6. Mean Scores of Gender on Overall Paternal Rejection

3.4.2.2. Influence of Number of Siblings on Overall Paternal Rejection/ Control:

In order to examine possible influence of Number of Siblings on paternal attitudes, MANOVA was employed with perceived Overall Paternal Rejection and perceived Paternal Control serving as the dependent variables.

Table 16. Number of Sibling Influence on Father PARQ/Control

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Sibling Number	1.00	2.14	2, 797	.00	-	-
OPR	-	-	1, 798	-	2.48	.01
PC	-	-	1, 798	-	2.80	.01

<u>Note</u>. OPR: Overall Paternal Rejection, PC: Paternal Control

As can be seen in Table 16, MANOVA results did not revealed significant main effect for Number of Siblings of the participants [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (2, 797) = 2.14, $\underline{p}$ >.05; Wilk's Lambda = 1.00; partial η^2 = .01].

3.4.2.3. Influence of Maternal Education Level on Overall Paternal Rejection/ Control:

In order to examine possible influence of Maternal Education Level on paternal attitudes, MANOVA was employed with perceived Overall Paternal Rejection and perceived Paternal Control serving as the dependent variables.

Table 17. Maternal Education Level Influence on Father PARQ/Control

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Maternal Education Level	.99	3.79*	2, 798	.01	-	-
OPR	-	-	1, 799	-	5.67*	.01
PC	-	-	1,799	-	3.59	.01

* $\underline{p}$<.05
<u>Note</u>. OPR: Overall Paternal Rejection, PC: Paternal Control

As can be seen in Table 17, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Maternal Education Level of the participants [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (2, 798) = 3.79, $\underline{p}$< .05; Wilk's Lambda = .99; partial η^2 = .01].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Maternal Education Level main effect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Maternal Education Level of the participants on only Overall Paternal Rejection [$\underline{F}$ (1, 799) = 5.67, $\underline{p}$< .02, partial η^2 = .01]. According to the mean scores, participants who had low educated mothers ($\underline{M}$ = 101.93) reported significantly more perceived overall paternal rejection than participants those who had highly educated mothers ($\underline{M}$ = 96.65).

Table 18. Mean Scores of Maternal Education Level on Overall Paternal Rejection

	Low educated mother	Highly educated mother
Overall Paternal Rejection	101.93	96.65
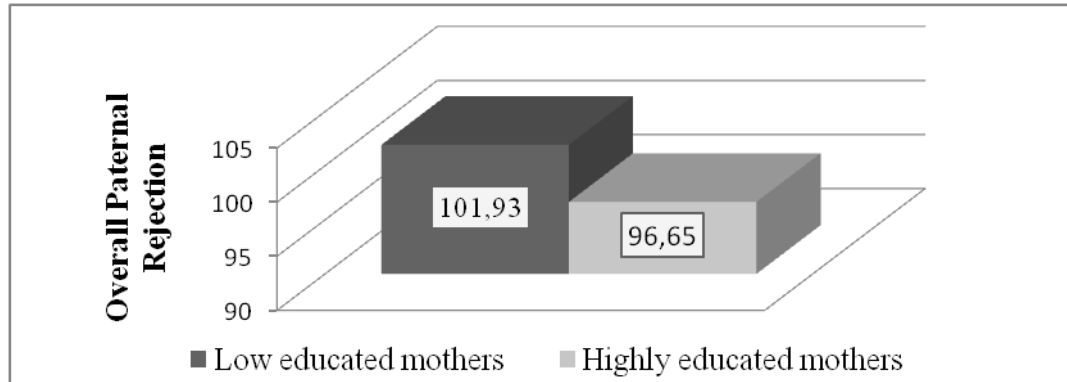
Figure 7. Mean Scores of Maternal Education Level on Overall Paternal Rejection

3.4.2.4. Influence of Paternal Education Level on Overall Paternal Rejection/ Control:

In order to examine possible influence of Paternal Education Level on paternal attitudes, MANOVA was employed with perceived Overall Paternal Rejection and perceived Paternal Control serving as the dependent variables.

Table 19. Paternal Education Level Influence on Father PARQ/Control

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Paternal Education Level	.98	6.57***	2, 798	.02	-	-
OPR	-	-	1, 799	-	9.63**	.01
PC	-	-	1, 799	-	1.16	.01

*** $\underline{p}$<.001; ** $\underline{p}$<.01
Note. OPR: Overall Paternal Rejection, PC: Paternal Control

As can be seen in Table 19, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Paternal Education Level of the participants [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (2, 798) = 6.57, $\underline{p}$ <.05; Wilk's Lambda = .98; partial η^2 = .02].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Paternal Education Level main effect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Paternal Education Level of the participants on Overall Paternal Rejection [$\underline{F}$ (1, 799) = 9.63, $\underline{p}$< .01, partial η^2 = .00].

Table 20. Mean Scores of Paternal Education Level on Overall Paternal Rejection

	Low educated father	Highly educated father
Overall Paternal Rejection	103.46	96.83

According to the mean scores, participants that have low educated fathers ($\underline{M}$ = 103.46) reported significantly more perceived overall paternal rejection than participants that have highly educated fathers ($\underline{M}$ = 96.83).
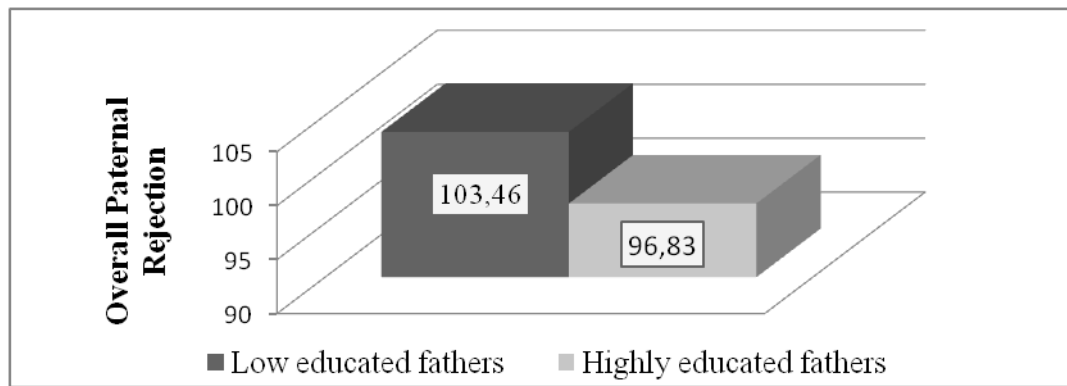
Figure 8. Mean Scores of Paternal Education Level on Overall Paternal Rejection

3.4.2.5. Influence of Family Income on Overall Paternal Rejection/ Control:

In order to examine possible influence of Family Income on paternal attitudes, MANOVA was employed with perceived Overall Paternal Rejection and perceived Paternal Control serving as the dependent variables.

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Table 21. Family Income Influence on Father PARQ/Control

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Family Income	1.00	2.14	2, 793	.00	-	-
OPR	-	-	1, 794	-	4.13	.01
PC	-	-	1, 794	-	0.01	.01

Note. OMR: Overall Paternal Rejection, MC: Paternal Control

As can be seen in Table 21, MANOVA results did not revealed significant main effect for Family Income of the participants [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (2, 793) = 2.14, $\underline{p}$> .05; Wilk's Lambda = 1.00; partial η^2 = .01]

3.4.3. Influence of Demographic Variables on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection

Influence of demographic variables on perceived maternal warmth, maternal hostility/aggression, maternal Indifference/neglect, and maternal undifferentiated rejection were investigated for mothers.

3.4.3.1. Influence of Gender and Age on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection/ Control:

In order to examine possible influence of Gender and Age on maternal attitudes, 2 (Male, Female) x 2 (Younger, Older) between subjects MANOVA was employed with perceived Maternal Warmth, Maternal Hostility/Aggression, Maternal Indifference/Neglect, and Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection serving as the dependent variables.

Table 22. Age and Gender Influence on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Gender	.97	6.26***	4, 794	.03	-	-
MW/A	-	-	1, 797	-	10.38***	.01
MH/A	-	-	1, 797	-	0.03	.01
MI/N			1, 797		6.68**	.01
MUR			1, 797		1.01	.01
Age	.99	1.93	4, 794	.01	-	-
MW/A	-	-	1, 797	-	3.47	.01
MI/N	-	-	1, 797	-	2.20	.01
MH/A			1, 797		0.32	.01
MUR			1, 797		3.11	.01
Gender X Age	.99	2.14	4, 794	.01	-	-

*** $\underline{p}$<.001; ** $\underline{p}$<.01

Note. MW/A: Maternal Warmth/Affection, MI/N: Maternal Indifference/Neglect, MH/A: Maternal Hostility/Aggression, MUR: Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection

As can be seen in Table 22, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Gender [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (4, 794) = 6.26, $\underline{p}$< .001; Wilk's Lambda = .97; partial η^2 = .03]. However, there was no significant main effect of Age [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (4, 794) = 1.93, $\underline{p}$> .05; Wilk's Lambda = .99; partial η^2 = .01] and no significant interaction effect for Gender X Age [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (4, 794) = 0.99, $\underline{p}$> .05; Wilk's Lambda = .99; partial η^2 = .01].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Gender main effect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Accordingly, the alpha values that are lower than .012 (i.e., .05/4) were considered as significant. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Gender for Maternal Warmth [$\underline{F}$ (1, 797) = 10.38, $\underline{p}$< .001, partial η^2 = .01] and Maternal Indifference/Neglect [$\underline{F}$ (1, 797) = 6.68, $\underline{p}$< .01, partial η^2 = .01] dimensions of Maternal Acceptance-Rejection/Control.

Table 23. Mean Scores of Gender on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection

	Female	Male
Maternal Warmth/Affection	69.29	66.93
Maternal Indifferance/Neglect	21.17	22.20

According to the mean scores, female participants ($M = 69.29$) reported significantly more perceived maternal warmth than male participants ($M = 66.93$), whereas male participants ($M = 22.20$) reported significantly more perceived maternal neglect than female participants ($M = 21.17$).
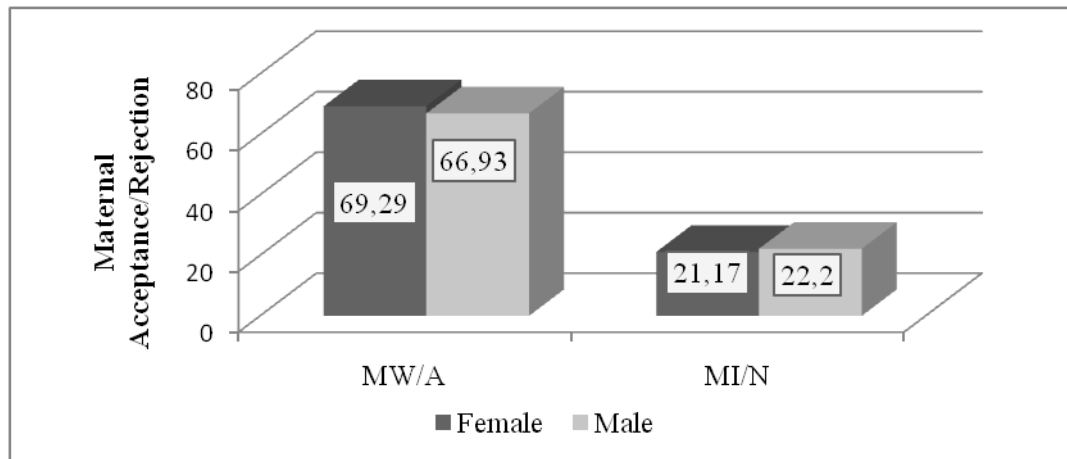
Note. MW/A: Maternal Warmth/Affection, MI/W: Maternal Indifference/Neglect

Figure 9. Mean Scores of Gender on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection

3.4.3.2. Influence of Number of Siblings on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection

In order to examine possible influence Number of Siblings on maternal acceptance-rejection, MANOVA was employed with perceived Maternal Warmth, Maternal Hostility/Aggression, Maternal Indifference/Neglect and Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection serving as the dependent variables.

Table 24. Number of Siblings Influence on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate F	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate F	Univariate η^2
Number of Siblings	.97	6.69[***]	4, 795	.03	-	-
MW/A	-	-	1, 798	-	25.40[***]	.03
MH/A	-	-	1, 798	-	7.50[**]	.01
MI/N			1, 798		20.51[***]	.02
MUR			1, 798		5.80	.01

*** p<.001; ** p<.01

Note. MW/A: Maternal Warmth/Affection, MI/N: Maternal Indifference/Neglect, MH/A: Maternal Hostility/Aggression, MUR: Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection

As can be seen in Table 24, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Number of Siblings of the participants [Multivariate F (4, 795) = 6.69, p< .001; Wilk's Lambda = .97; partial η^2 = .03].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Number of Siblings main effect of with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Number of Siblings of the participants for Maternal Warmth [F (1, 798) = 25.40, p<. 001, partial η^2 = .03], Maternal Hostility/Aggression [F (1, 798) = 7.50, p< .01, partial η^2 = .01] and Maternal Indifference/Neglect [F (1, 798) = 20.51, p< .001, partial η^2 = .02] dimensions of Maternal Acceptance-Rejection/Control.

Table 25. Mean Scores of Number of Siblings on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection

	Having none or one	Having two or more
Maternal Warmth/Affection	69.57	65,73
Maternal Hostility/Aggression	21.94	23.29
Maternal Indifference/Neglect	21.01	22.87

According to the mean scores, participants who had none or one sibling ($\underline{M}$ = 69.57) reported significantly more perceived maternal warmth than those who had two or more siblings ($\underline{M}$ = 65.73). On the other hand, participants who had two or more siblings ($\underline{M}$ = 23.29) reported significantly more perceived maternal aggression than those who had none or one sibling ($\underline{M}$ = 21.94). Additionally, participants who had two or more siblings ($\underline{M}$ = 22.87) reported significantly more perceived maternal neglect than those who had none or one sibling ($\underline{M}$ = 21.01)
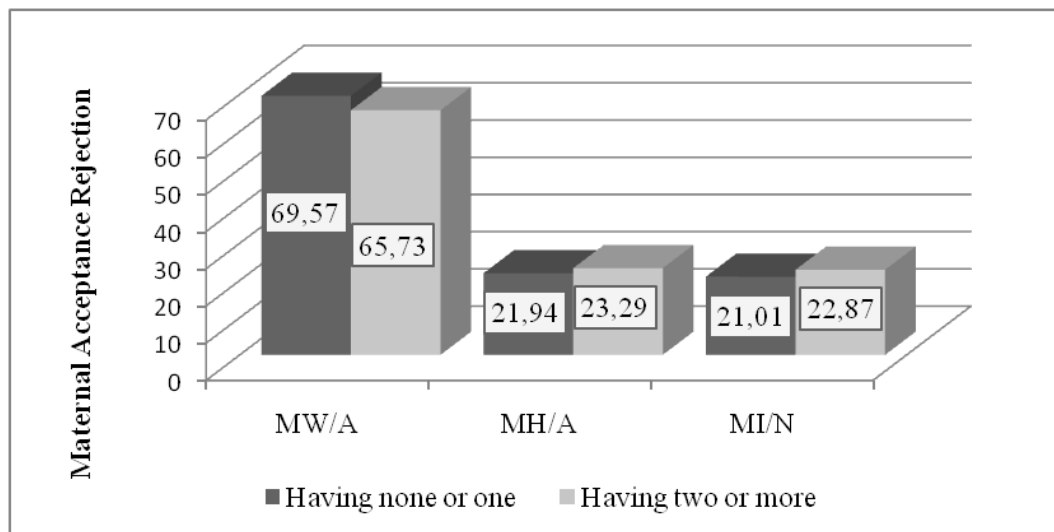
Note. MW/A: Maternal Warmth/Affection, MH/A: Maternal Hostility Aggression, MI/W: Maternal Indifference/Neglect

Figure 10. Mean Scores of Number of Siblings on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection

3.4.3.3. Influence of Maternal Education Level on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection

In order to examine possible influence of Maternal Education Level on maternal acceptance-rejection, MANOVA was employed with perceived Maternal Warmth, Maternal Hostility/Aggression, Maternal Indifference/Neglect and Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection serving as the dependent variables.

Table 26. Maternal Education Level Influence on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Maternal Education Level	.98	6.69**	4, 796	.02	-	-
MW/A	-	-	1, 799	-	15.08***	.01
MW/A	-	-	1, 799	-	15.08***	.01
MH/A	-	-	1, 799	-	4.07*	.01
MI/N			1, 799		5.98*	.01
MUR			1, 799		3.81*	.01

*** p<.001; ** p<.01; * p<.05
Note. MW/A: Maternal Warmth/Affection, MI/N: Maternal Indifference/Neglect, MH/A: Maternal Hostility/Aggression, MUR: Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection

As can be seen in Table 26, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Maternal Education Level of the participants [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (4, 796) = 6.69, p< .001; Wilk's Lambda = .98; partial η^2 = .02].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Maternal Education Level main effect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Maternal Education Level of the participants for Maternal Warmth [$\underline{F}$ (1, 799) = 15.08, p< .001, partial η^2 = .01], Maternal Hostility/Aggression [$\underline{F}$ (1, 799) = 4.07, p< .05, partial η^2 = .01], Maternal Indifference/Neglect [$\underline{F}$ (1, 799) = 5.98, p< .05, partial η^2 = .01] and Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection [$\underline{F}$ (1, 799) =3.81, p< .05, partial η^2 = .01] dimensions of Maternal Acceptance-Rejection/Control.

Table 27. Mean Scores of Maternal Education Level on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection

	Low educated mother	Highly educated mother
Maternal Warmth/Affection	67.21	70.12
Maternal Hostility/Aggression	22.75	21.78

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Table 27. Continued

	Low educated mother	Highly educated mother
Maternal Indifference/Neglect	22.00	21.01
Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection	14.62	14.05

According to the mean scores, participants who had highly educated mothers ($\underline{M}$ = 70.12) reported significantly more perceived maternal warmth than those who had low educated mothers ($\underline{M}$ = 67.21). On the other hand, compared to participants who had highly educated mothers ($\underline{M}$ = 22.75; $\underline{M}$ = 22.00; $\underline{M}$ = 14.62) participants who had low educated mothers ($\underline{M}$ = 21.78; $\underline{M}$ = 21.01; $\underline{M}$ = 14.05) reported significantly more perceived maternal aggression, neglect and undifferentiated rejection respectively.
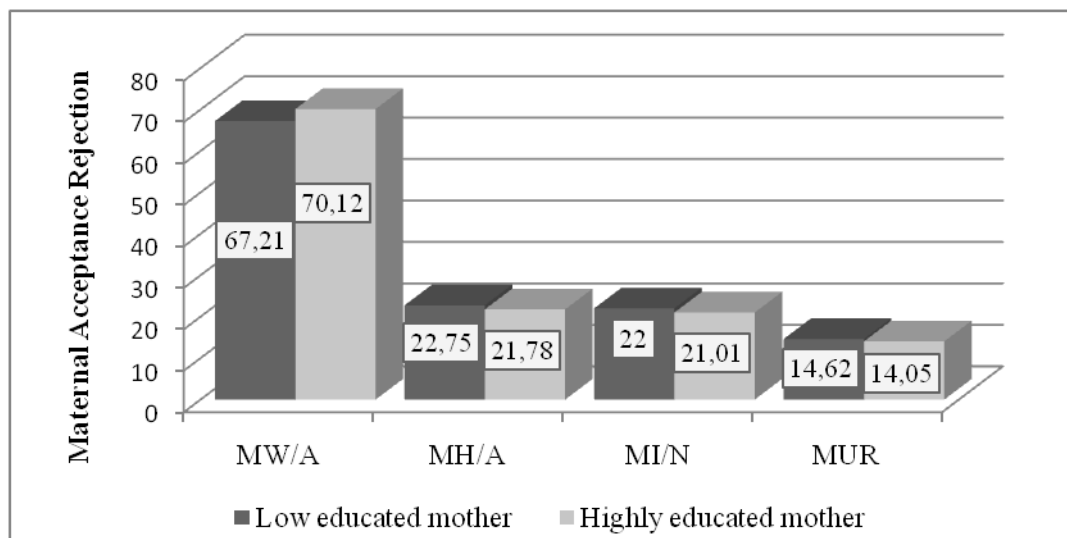
Note. MW/A: Maternal Warmth/Affection, MI/N: Maternal Indifference/Neglect, MH/A: Maternal Hostility/Aggression, MUR: Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection

Figure 11. Mean Scores of Maternal Education Level on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection

3.4.3.4. Influence of Paternal Education Level on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection

In order to examine possible influence of Paternal Education Level on maternal acceptance-rejection, MANOVA was employed with perceived Maternal

Warmth, Maternal Hostility/Aggression, Maternal Indifference/Neglect and Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection serving as the dependent variables.

Table 28. Paternal Education Level Influence on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Paternal Education Level	.99	2.84[*]	4, 796	.01	-	-
MW/A	-	-	1, 799	-	10.24[***]	.01
MH/A	-	-	1, 799	-	3.32	.01
MI/N			1, 799		8.37[**]	.01
MUR			1, 799		1.80	.01

*** p<.001; ** p<.01; * p<.05
<u>Note</u>. MW/A: Maternal Warmth/Affection, MI/N: Maternal Indifference/Neglect, MH/A: Maternal Hostility/Aggression, MUR: Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection

As can be seen in Table 28, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Paternal Education Level of the participants [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (4, 796) = 2.84, $\underline{p}$< .05; Wilk's Lambda = .99; partial η^2 = .01].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Paternal Education Level main effect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Paternal Education Level of the participants for Maternal Warmth [$\underline{F}$ (1, 799) = 10.24, $\underline{p}$< .001, partial η^2 = .01] and Maternal Indifference/Neglect [$\underline{F}$ (1, 799) = 8.37, $\underline{p}$< .01, partial η^2 = .01] dimensions of Maternal Acceptance-Rejection/Control.

Table 29. Mean Scores of Paternal Education Level on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection

	Low educated father	Highly educated father
Maternal Warmth/Affection	67.06	69.39
Maternal Indifference/ Neglect	22.23	21.09

According to the mean scores, participants who had highly educated fathers ($M = 69.39$) reported significantly more perceived maternal warmth than those who had low educated fathers ($M = 67.06$). On the other hand, participants who had low educated fathers ($M = 22.23$) reported significantly more perceived maternal neglect than those who had highly educated fathers ($M = 21.09$)
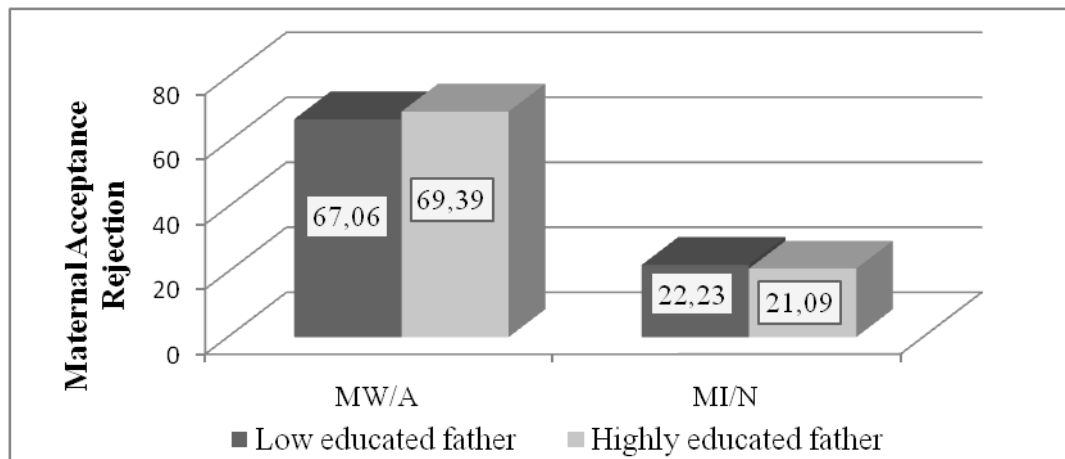
Note. MW/A: Maternal Warmth/Affection, MI/N: Maternal Indifference/Neglect

Figure 12. Mean Scores of Paternal Education Level on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection

3.4.3.5. Influence of Family Income on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection

In order to examine possible influence of Family Income of the participants on maternal acceptance-rejection, MANOVA was employed with perceived Maternal Warmth, Maternal Hostility/Aggression, Maternal Indifference/Neglect and Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection serving as the dependent variables.

Table 30. Family Income Influence on Maternal Acceptance-Rejection

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Family Income	.99	1.28	4, 791	.02	-	-
MW/A	-	-	1, 794	-	4.07	.01
MH/A	-	-	1, 794	-	1.77	.01

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Table 30. Continued

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate F	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate F	Univariate η^2
MI/N			1, 794		5.02	.01
MUR	-	-	1, 794	-	1.73	.01

Note.MW/A: Maternal Warmth/Affection, MI/N: Maternal Indifference/Neglect, MH/A: Maternal Hostility/Aggression, MUR: Maternal Undifferentiated Rejection

As can be seen in Table 30, MANOVA results did not revealed significant main effect for Family Income of the participants [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (4,791) = 1.28, $\underline{p}$>.05; Wilk's Lambda = .99; partial η^2 = .01].

3.4.4. Influence of Demographic Variables on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection

Influence of demographic variables on perceived paternal warmth, paternal hostility/ aggression, paternal indifference/neglect, and paternal undifferentiated rejection were investigated for fathers.

3.4.4.1. Influence of Gender and Age on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection/ Control:

In order to examine possible influence of Gender and Age on Paternal attitudes, 2 (Male, Female) x 2 (Younger, Older) between subjects MANOVA was employed with perceived Paternal Warmth, Paternal Hostility/Aggression, Paternal Indifference/Neglect, and Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection serving as the dependent variables.

Table 31. Gender and Age Influence on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Gender	.99	2.85[*]	4, 794	.01	-	-
PW/A	-	-	1, 797	-	6.84[**]	.01

Table 31. Continued

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
PH/A	-	-	1, 797	-	4.23[*]	.01
PI/N			1, 797		2.31	.01
PUR			1, 797		1.88	.01
Age	.98	3.55[*]	4, 794	.02	-	-
PW/A	-	-	1, 797	-	6.42[**]	.01
PI/N	-	-	1, 797	-	3.59	.01
PH/A			1, 797		1.46	.01
PUR			1,797		1.10	.01
Gender X Age	1.00	.38	4,794	.00	-	-

** $\underline{p}$<.01; * $\underline{p}$<.05

Note. PW/A: Paternal Warmth/Affection, PI/N: Paternal Indifference/Neglect, PH/A: Paternal Hostility/Aggression, PUR: Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection

As can be seen in Table 31, results revealed significant main effect for Gender [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (4, 794) = 2.85, $\underline{p}$< .05; Wilk's Lambda = .99; partial η^2 = .01] and Age [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (4, 794) = 3.55, $\underline{p}$< .05; Wilk's Lambda = .98; partial η^2 = .02]. However, there was no significant interaction effect for Gender X Age [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (4, 794) = 0.38, $\underline{p}$> .05; Wilk's Lambda = 1.00; partial η^2 = .01].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Gender and Age main effects with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Accordingly, the alpha values that are lower than .012 (i.e., .05/4) were considered as significant. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Gender for perceived Paternal Warmth/Affection [$\underline{F}$ (1, 797) = 6.84, $\underline{p}$< .01, partial η^2 = .01] and Paternal Hostility/Aggression [$\underline{F}$ (1, 797) = 4.23, $\underline{p}$< .05, partial η^2 = .01]. Additionally, there was a significant main effect of Age for perceived Paternal Warmth/Affection [$\underline{F}$ (1, 797) = 6.42, $\underline{p}$< .01, partial η^2 = .01] dimensions of Paternal Acceptance-Rejection /Control.

Table 32. Mean Scores of Gender and Age on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection

	Gender		Age	
	Female	**Male**	**Younger**	**Older**
Paternal Warmth/Affection	63.91	61.40	63.88	61.44
Paternal Hostility/ Agression	21.57	22.67	-	-

According to the mean scores, female participants ($\underline{M}$ = 63.91) reported significantly more perceived paternal warmth than male ($\underline{M}$ = 61.40) participants. Male participants ($\underline{M}$ =22.67) reported significantly higher paternal aggression than female participants ($\underline{M}$ = 21.57). Younger ($\underline{M}$ = 63.88) participants reported significantly more perceived parental warmth compared to older ($\underline{M}$ = 61.44) participants.
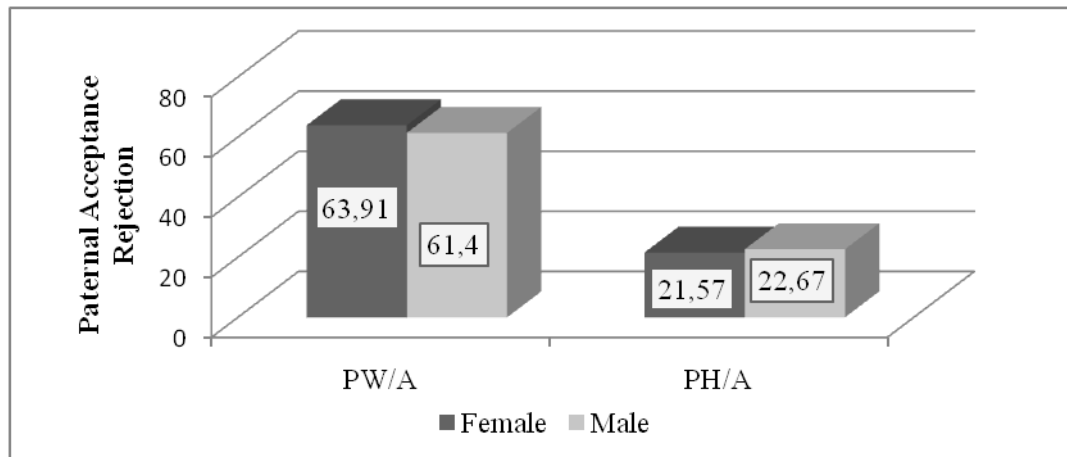
Note. PW/A: Paternal Warmth/Affection, PH/A: Paternal Hostility/Aggression

Figure 13. Mean Scores of Gender on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection
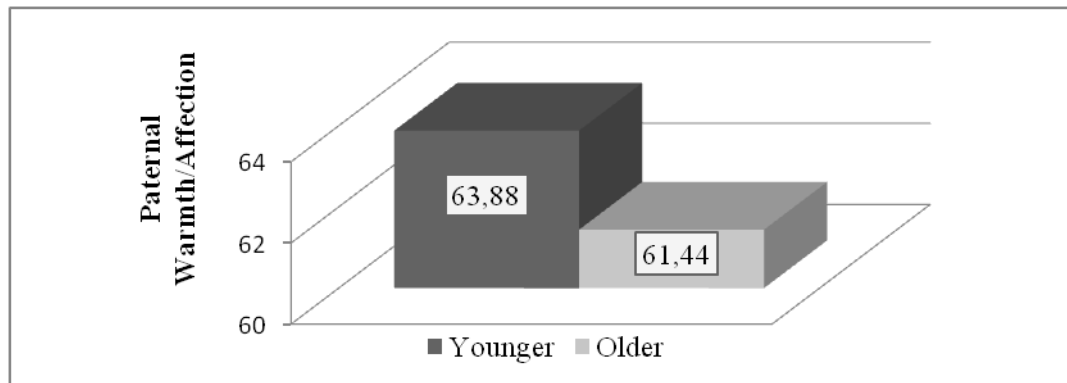
Figure 14. Mean Scores of Age on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection

3.4.4.2. Influence of Number of Siblings on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection

In order to examine possible influence of Number of Siblings on paternal acceptance-rejection, MANOVA was employed with perceived Paternal Warmth, Paternal Hostility/Aggression, Paternal Indifference/Neglect and Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection serving as the dependent variables.

Table 33. Number of Siblings Influence on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate F	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate F	Univariate η^2
Number of Siblings	1.00	1.08	4, 795	.00	-	-
PW/A	-	-	1, 798	-	2.20	.01
PH/A	-	-	1, 798	-	0.83	.01
PI/N			1, 798		2.33	.01
PUR			1, 798		2.51	.01

Note. PW/A: Paternal Warmth/Affection, PI/N: Paternal Indifference/neglect, PH/A: Paternal Hostility/Aggression, PUR: Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection

As can be seen in Table 33, MANOVA results did not revealed significant main effect for Number of Siblings of the participants [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (4, 795) = 1.08, $\underline{p}$> .05; Wilk's Lambda = 1.00; partial η^2 = .01].

3.4.4.3. Influence of Maternal Education Level on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection

In order to examine possible influence of Maternal Education Level on Paternal acceptance-rejection, MANOVA was employed with perceived Paternal Warmth, Paternal Hostility/Aggression, Paternal Indifference/Neglect, and Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection serving as the dependent variables.

Table 34. Maternal Education Level Influence on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate F	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate F	Univariate η^2
Maternal Education Level	.98	3.67**	4, 796	.02	-	-
PW/A	-	-	1, 799	-	10.02**	.01
PH/A	-	-	1, 799	-	1.60	.01
PI/N			1, 799		2.93	.01
PUR			1, 799		1.07	.01

** $p < .01$

Note. PW/A: Paternal Warmth/Affection, PI/N: Paternal Indifference/Neglect, PH/A: Paternal Hostility/Aggression, PUR: Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection

As can be seen in Table 34, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Maternal Education Level of the participants [Multivariate F (4, 796) = 3.67, $p < .01$; Wilk's Lambda = .98; partial $\eta^2 = .02$].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Maternal Education main effect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Maternal Education Level of the participants for only the Paternal Warmth [F (1, 799) = 10.02, $p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = .01$] dimension of Parental Acceptance-Rejection/Control.

Table 35. Mean Scores of Maternal Education Level on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection

	Low educated mother	Highly educated mother
Paternal Warmth/Affection	61.71	64.84

According to the mean scores, participants who had educated mother (M = 64.84) reported significantly more perceived paternal warmth than those who had low educated mothers (M = 61.71).
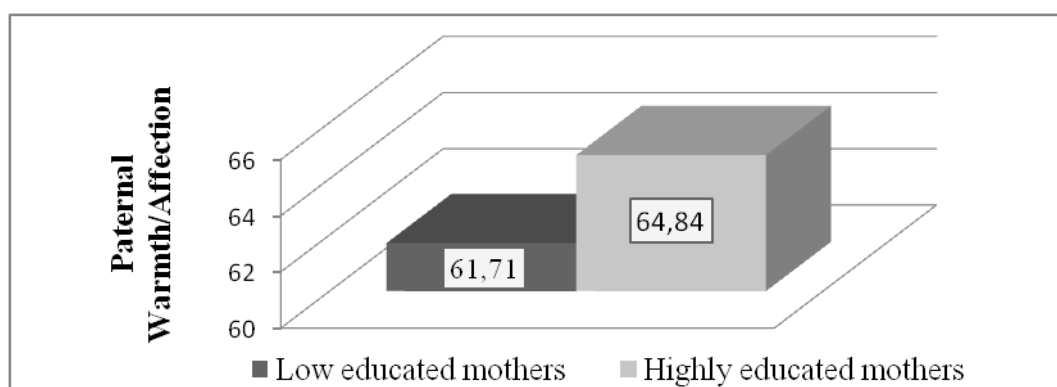
Figure 15. Mean Scores of Maternal Education Level on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection

3.4.4.4. Influence of Paternal Education Level on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection

In order to examine possible influence of Paternal Education Level on Paternal acceptance-rejection, MANOVA was employed with perceived Paternal Warmth, Paternal Hostility/Aggression, Paternal Indifference/Neglect, and Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection serving as the dependent variables.

Table 36. Paternal Education Level Influence on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate F	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate F	Univariate η^2
Paternal Education Level	.98	5.15[***]	4, 796	.02	-	-
PW/A	-	-	1, 799	-	16.18[***]	.02
PH/A	-	-	1, 799	-	0.41	.01
PI/N			1, 799		12.72[***]	.02
PUR			1, 799		0.68	.01

*** p<.001

Note. PW/A: Paternal Warmth/Affection, PI/N: Paternal Indifference/Neglect, PH/A: Paternal Hostility/Aggression, PUR: Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection

As can be seen in Table 36, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Paternal Education Level of the participants [Multivariate F (4, 796) = 5.15, p< .001; Wilk's Lambda = .98; partial η^2 = .02].

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Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Paternal Education Level main effect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Paternal Education Level of the participants for Paternal Warmth [F (1,799) = 16.18, p<.001, partial η^2 = .02] and Paternal Indifference/Neglect [F (1,799) = 12.72, p<.001, partial η^2 = .02] dimensions of Parental Acceptance-Rejection/Control.

Table 37. Mean Scores of Paternal Education Level on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection

	Low educated father	Highly educated father
Paternal Warmth/Affection	60.85	64.68
Paternal Indifference/Neglect	27.49	25.31

According to the mean scores, participants who had highly educated father (M = 64.68) reported significantly more perceived paternal warmth than those who had low educated fathers (M = 60.85). On the other hand, participants who had low educated fathers (M = 27.49) reported significantly more perceived paternal neglect compared to participants who had highly educated fathers (M = 25.31).
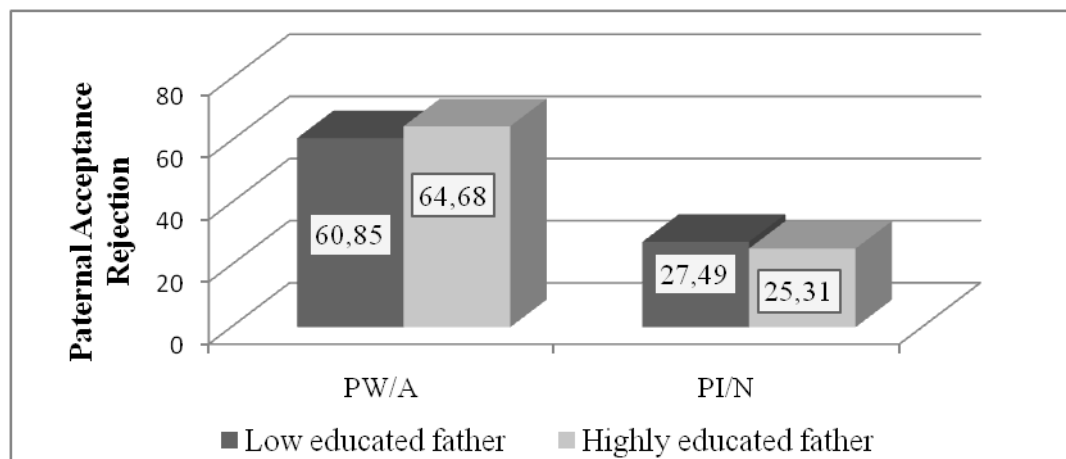
Note. PW/A: Paternal Warmth/Affection, PI/W: Paternal Indifference/Neglect

Figure 16. Mean Scores of Paternal Education Level on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection

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3.4.4.5. Influence of Family Income on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection

In order to examine possible influence of Family Income of the participants on paternal acceptance-rejection, MANOVA was employed with perceived Paternal Warmth, Paternal Hostility/Aggression, Paternal Indifference/Neglect, and Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection serving as the dependent variables.

Table 38. Family Income Influence on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Family Income	.98	2.92[*]	4,791	.02	-	-
PW/A	-	-	1,794	-	8.32[**]	.01
PH/A	-	-	1,794	-	0.33	.00
PI/N			1,794		3.10	.00
PUR			1,794		0.37	.00

** p<.01; * p<.05
Note. PW/A: Paternal Warmth/Affection, PI/N: Paternal Indifference/Neglect,
PH/A: Paternal Hostility/Aggression, PUR: Paternal Undifferentiated Rejection

As can be seen in Table 38, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Family Income of the participants [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (4,791) = 2.92, p<.05; Wilk's Lambda = .98; partial η^2 = .02].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Family Income main effect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Paternal Education Level of the participants only for the Paternal Warmth [$\underline{F}$ (1,794) = 8.32, p<.01, partial η^2 = .01] dimension of Parental Acceptance-Rejection/ Control.

Table 39. Mean Scores of Family Income on Paternal Acceptance-Rejection

	Low Income	High Income
Paternal Warmth/Affection	61.86	64.78

According to mean scores, participants who had high family income ($\underline{M}$ = 64.78) reported significantly more perceived paternal warmth than participants who had low family income ($\underline{M}$ = 61.86).
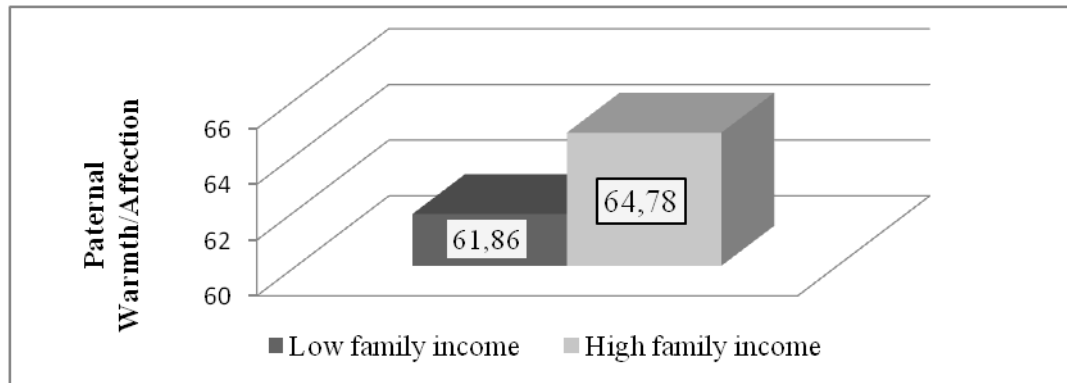
Figure 17. Mean Scores of Family Income Paternal Acceptance-Rejection

3.5. Influence of Demographic Variables on Personality Traits

Influence of demographic variables on Openness to experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, and Negative Valence were investigated.

3.5.1. Influence of Age and Gender on Personality Traits

In order to examine possible influence of Gender and Age on Personality Traits, 2 (Male, Female) x 2 (Younger, Older) between subjects MANOVA was employed with Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism and Negative Valence serving as the dependent variables.

Table 40. Gender and Age Influence on Personality Traits

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	Df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Gender	.88	17.75[***]	6, 792	.12	-	-
E	-	-	1, 797		0.54	.01

Table 40. Continued

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate F	Df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate F	Univariate η^2
C	-	-	1, 797	-	1.05	.01
A	-	-	1, 797	-	2.86	.01
N	-	-	1, 797	-	6.86	.01
O	-	-	1, 797	-	26.12***	.03
NV	-	-	1, 797	-	31.62***	.04
Age	.99	1.52	6, 792	.01	-	-
O			1, 797		0.25	.01
C			1, 797		4.96	.01
E			1, 797		0.00	.01
A			1, 797		0.01	.01
N			1, 797		0.25	.01
NV			1, 797		1.79	.01
Gender X Age	.99	1.58	6, 792	.01	-	-

*** $p<.001$

Note. E: Extraversion, C: Conscientiousness, A: Agreeableness, N: Neuroticism, O: Openness to Experience, NV: Negative Valence

As can be seen in Table 40, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Gender [Multivariate F (6, 792) = 17.75, $p<$ .001; Wilk's Lambda = .88; partial η^2 = .12]. However, there was no significant main effect of Age [Multivariate F (6, 792) = 1.52, $p>$ .05; Wilk's Lambda = .99; partial η^2 = .01] and no significant interaction effect for Gender X Age [Multivariate F (6, 792) = 1.58, $p>$ .05; Wilk's Lambda = .99; partial η^2 = .01].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Gender main effect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Accordingly, the alpha values that are lower than .008 (i.e., .05/6) were considered as significant. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Gender for Openness to Experience [F (1, 797) = 26.12, $p<$ .001, partial η^2 = .03] and Negative Valence [F (1, 797) = 31.62, $p<$ .001, partial η^2 = .04] traits.

Table 41. Mean Scores of Gender on Personality Traits

	Female	Male
Openness to Experience	22.08	23.47
Negative Valence	9.22	10.49

According to the mean scores, male participants ($\underline{M}$ = 23.47) reported themselves as more open to new experiences compared to female participants ($\underline{M}$ = 22.08). Male ($\underline{M}$ = 10.49) participants also reported themselves as having significantly more negative attributions about themselves compared to female participants ($\underline{M}$ = 9.22).
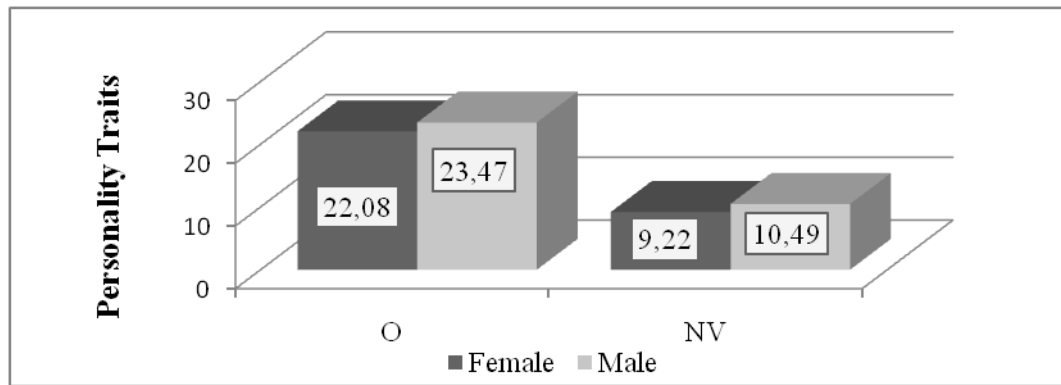
Note. O: Openness to New Experiences; NV: Negative Valence

Figure 18. Mean Scores of Gender on Personality Traits

3.5.2. Influence of Number of Siblings on Personality Traits

In order to examine possible influence of Number of Siblings on Personality Traits, MANOVA was employed with Openness to experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism and Negative Valence as serving dependent variables.

Table 42. Influence of Number of Siblings on Personality Traits

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	Df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Number of Siblings	.97	4.44***	6,793	.03	-	-

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Table 42. Continued

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate F	Df	Multivariate η2	Univariate F	Univariate η2
E	-	-	1,798	-	1.23	.01
C	-	-	1,798	-	4.30[*]	.01
A	-	-	1, 798	-	0.13	.01
N	-	-	1, 798	-	0.61	.01
O	-	-	1, 798	-	0.89	.01
NV	-	-	1, 798	-	10.32[***]	.01

*** $p<.001$; *$p<.05$
Note. E: Extraversion, C: Conscientiousness, A: Agreeableness, N: Neuroticism, O: Openness to Experience, NV: Negative Valence

As can be seen in Table 42, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Number of Siblings [Multivariate F (6, 793) = 4.44, $p<$ .001; Wilk's Lambda = .97; partial η^2 = .03].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Number of Siblings main effect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Number of Siblings on Conscientiousness [F (1, 798) = 4.30, $p<$ .05, partial η^2 = .01] and Negative Valence [F (1, 798) = 10.32, $p<$ .001, partial η^2 = .01] traits.

Table 43. Mean Scores of Number of Siblings on Personality Traits

	Having none or one	Having two or more
Conscientiousness	28.61	29.52
Negative Valence	9.53	10.30

According to the mean scores, participants who had two or more siblings ($\underline{M}$ = 29.52) reported themselves as significantly more conscientious than those who had none or one sibling ($\underline{M}$ = 28.61). Furthermore, Participants who had two or more siblings ($\underline{M}$ = 10.30) reported themselves as having significantly more negative attribution about themselves compared to those who had none or one sibling ($\underline{M}$ = 9.53).
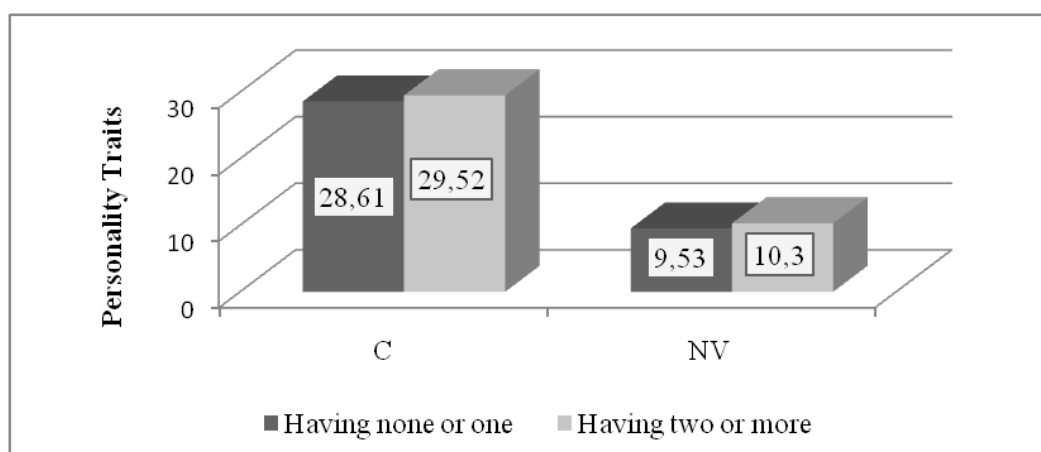
Note. C: Conscientiousness; NV: Negative Valence

Figure 19. Mean Scores of Number of Siblings on Personality Traits

3.5.3. Influence of Maternal Education Level on Personality Traits

In order to examine possible influence of Maternal Education Level on Personality Traits, MANOVA was employed with Openness to experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, and Negative Valence serving as the dependent variables.

Table 44. Influence of Maternal Education Level on Personality Traits

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate F	Df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate F	Univariate η^2
Maternal Education Level	.98	2.83**	6, 794	.02	-	-
E	-	-	1, 799	-	0.24	.01
C	-	-	1, 799	-	13.80***	.02
A	-	-	1, 799	-	0.00	.01
N	-	-	1, 799	-	0.06	.01
O	-	-	1, 799	-	0.28	.01
NV	-	-	1, 799	-	0.00	.01

*** $p<.001$; * $p<.05$

Note. E: Extraversion, C: Conscientiousness, A: Agreeableness, N: Neuroticism, O: Openness to Experience, NV: Negative Valence

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As can be seen in Table 44, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Maternal Education Level [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (6, 794) = 2.83, $\underline{p}$<.01; Wilk's Lambda = .98; partial η^2 = .02].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Maternal Education Level main effect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Maternal Education Level on only Conscientiousness [$\underline{F}$ (1,799) = 13.80, $\underline{p}$<.001, partial η^2 = .02] trait.

Table 45. Mean Scores of Maternal Education Level on Personality Traits

	Low educated Mother	Highly educated Mother
Conscientiousness	29.51	27.93

According to the mean scores, participants who had low educated mothers ($\underline{M}$ = 29.51) reported themselves as more conscientious than those who had highly educated mothers ($\underline{M}$ = 27.93).
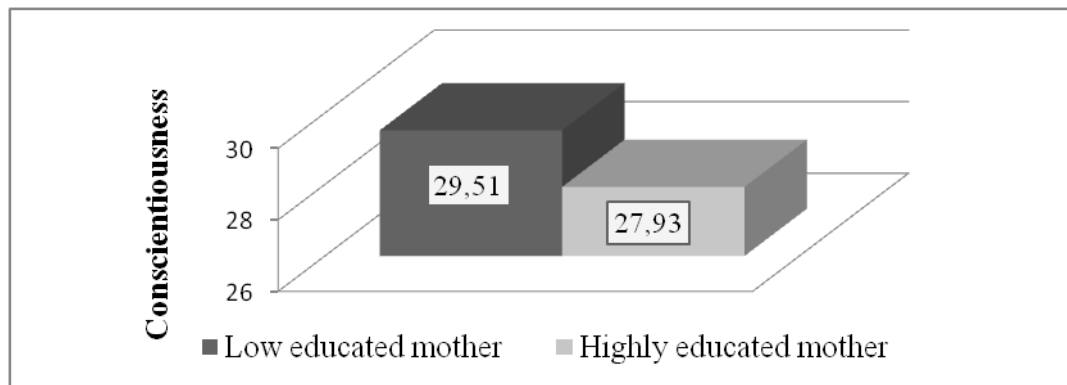
Figure 20. Mean Scores of Maternal Education Level on Personality Traits

3.5.4. Influence of Paternal Education Level on Personality Traits

In order to examine possible influence of Paternal Education Level on Personality Traits, MANOVA was employed with Openness to experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism and Negative Valence serving as the dependent variables.

Table 46. Influence of Paternal Education Level on Personality Traits

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Paternal Education Level	.99	1.91	6, 794	.01	-	-
E	-	-	1, 799	-	1.11	.01
C	-	-	1, 799	-	6.81	.01
A	-	-	1, 799	-	0.16	.01
N	-	-	1, 799	-	0.58	.01
O	-	-	1, 799	-	1.59	.01
NV	-	-	1, 799	-	0.16	.01

Note. E: Extraversion, C: Conscientiousness, A: Agreeableness, N: Neuroticism, O: Openness to Experience, NV: Negative Valence

As can be seen in Table 46, MANOVA results did not revealed significant main effect for Paternal Education Level [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (6, 794) = 1.91, $\underline{p}$> .05; Wilk's Lambda = .99; partial η^2 = .01].

3.5.6. Influence of Family Income on Personality Traits

In order to examine possible influence of Family Income on Personality Traits, MANOVA was employed with Openness to experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, and Negative Valence serving as the dependent variables.

Table 47. Influence of Family Income on Personality Traits

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	Df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Family Income	.99	1.48	6, 789	.01	-	-
E	-	-	1, 794	-	5.69	.01
C	-	-	1, 794	-	0.94	.01
A	-	-	1, 794	-	0.19	.01
N	-	-	1, 794	-	0.76	.01

Table 47. Continued

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
O	-	-	1, 794	-	3.86	.01
NV	-	-	1, 794	-	0.26	.01

Note. E: Extraversion, C: Conscientiousness, A: Agreeableness, N: Neuroticism, O: Openness to Experience, NV: Negative Valence

As can be seen in Table 3.46, MANOVA results did not revealed significant main effect for Family Income [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (6, 789) = 1.48, $\underline{p}$> .05; Wilk's Lambda = .99; partial η^2 = .01].

3.6. Influence of Demographic Variables on Perfectionism

Influence of demographic variables on overall perfectionism and more specific perfectionism dimensions was investigated separately.

3.6.1. Influence of Demographic Variables on Overall Perfectionism

Initially, influence of demographic variables on the overall perfectionism scores of the participants were examined.

3.6.1.1. Influence of Age and Gender on Overall Perfectionism

In order to examine possible influence of Gender and Age on Overall Perfectionism, 2 (Male, Female) x 2 (Younger, Older) between subjects ANOVA was employed with Overall Perfectionism serving as the dependent variable.

Table 48. Analysis of Variance for Overall Perfectionism

	df	SS	MS	$\underline{F}$	η^2
Gender	1	2445.25	2445.25	6.08[**]	.01
Age	1	825.27	825.27	2.05	.01
Gender X Age	1	.02	.02	0.00	.01
Error	797	320339.49	401.93		

** $\underline{p}$<.01

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As can be seen in Table 48, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect of Gender [$\underline{F}$ (1, 797) = 6.08, $\underline{p}$< .01]. However, there was no significant main effect of Age [$\underline{F}$ (1, 797) = 2.05, $\underline{p}$> .05; partial η^2 = .01] and no significant interaction effect for Gender X Age [$\underline{F}$ (1, 797) = .00, $\underline{p}$> .05; partial η^2 = .01].

Table 49. Mean Scores of Gender on Overall Perfectionism

	Female	**Male**
Overall Perfectionism	102.01	105.53

According to mean scores, male participants ($\underline{M}$ = 105.53) reported significantly more overall perfectionism than female participants ($\underline{M}$ = 102.01).
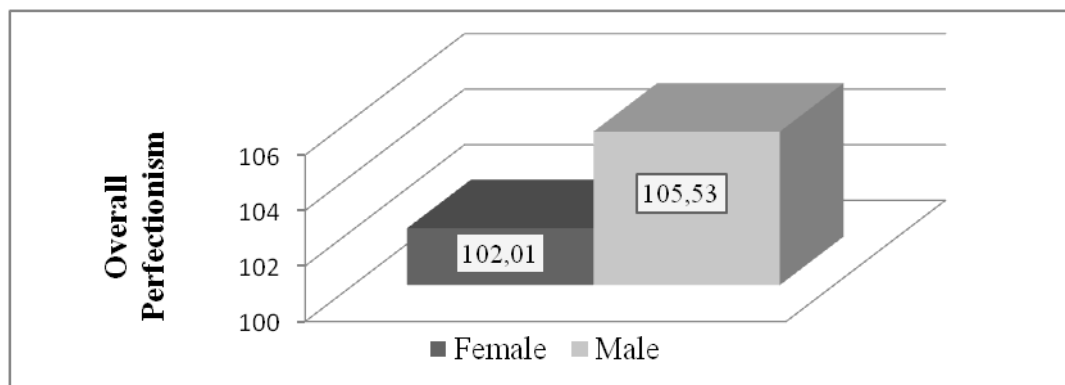
Figure 21. Mean Scores of Gender on Overall Perfectionism

3.6.1.2. Influence of Number of Siblings on Overall Perfectionism

In order to examine possible influence of Number of Siblings (High and Low) on Overall Perfectionism, independent samples t-test was employed with Overall Perfectionism serving as the dependent variable. Results revealed that Number of siblings main effect [$\underline{t}$ (798) = -2.92, $\underline{p}$> .05] was not significant.

3.6.1.3. Influence of Maternal Education Level on Overall Perfectionism

In order to examine possible influence of Maternal Education Level (High and Low) on Overall Perfectionism, independent samples t-test was employed with Overall Perfectionism serving as the dependent variable. Results revealed that Maternal Education Level main effect [$\underline{t}$ (799) = 2.51, $\underline{p}$> .05] was not significant.

3.6.1.4. Influence of Paternal Education Level on Overall Perfectionism

In order to examine possible influence of Paternal Education Level (High and Low) on Overall Perfectionism, independent samples t-test was employed with Overall Perfectionism serving as the dependent variable. Results revealed that Paternal Education Level main effect [t (799) = 1.21, p>.05] was not significant.

3.6.1.5. Influence of Family Income on Overall Perfectionism

In order to examine possible influence of Family Income (High and Low) of the participants on Overall Perfectionism, independent samples t-test was employed with Overall Perfectionism serving as the dependent variable. Results revealed that Family Income main effect [t (794) = 1.30, p> .05] was not significant.

3.6.2 Influence of Demographic Variables on Perfectionism Factors

Influence of demographic variables on more specific perfectionism dimensions namely, Organization, Concern over Mistakes, Parental Expectations, Personal Standards, Parental Criticism and Doubts about Actions were investigated.

3.6.2.1. Influence of Age and Gender on Perfectionism Factors

In order to examine possible influence of Gender and Age on Perfectionism Factors, 2 (Male, Female) x 2 (Younger, Older) between subjects MANOVA was employed with Organization, Concern over Mistakes, Parental Expectations, Personal Standards, Parental Criticism, and Doubts about Actions serving as the dependent variables.

Table 50. Gender and Age Influence on Perfectionism Factors

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate F	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate F	Univariate η^2
Gender	.95	7.00***	6, 792	.05	-	-
OR	-	-	1, 797	-	6.81	.01

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Table 50. Continued

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate F	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate F	Univariate η^2
CM	-	-	1, 797	-	3.38	.01
PE	-	-	1, 797	-	16.38***	.02
PS	-	-	1, 797	-	9.74**	.01
PC	-	-	1, 797	-	10.22***	.01
DA	-	-	1, 797	-	0.27	.01
Age	.98	3.42**	6, 792	.02	-	-
OR	-	-	1, 797	-	1.25	.01
CM	-	-	1, 797	-	0.62	.01
PE	-	-	1, 797	-	1.80	.01
PS	-	-	1, 797	-	0.58	.01
PC	-	-	1, 797	-	9.48	.01
DA	-	-	1, 797	-	1.87**	.01
Gender X Age	1.00	.41	6, 792	.00	-	-

*** p<.001; **p<.01

Note. OR: Organization, CM: Concern over Mistakes, PE: Parental Expectations, PS: Personal Standards, PC: Parental Criticism, DA: Doubts about Actions

As can be seen in Table 50, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Gender [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (6, 792) = 7.00, $\underline{p}$< .001; Wilk's Lambda = .95; partial η^2 = .05] and Age [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (6, 792) = 3.42, $\underline{p}$< .01; Wilk's Lambda = .98; partial η^2 = .01]. However, there was no significant effect for Gender X Age [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (6, 792) = .41, $\underline{p}$> .05; Wilk's Lambda = 1.00; partial η^2 = .01].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Gender main effect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Accordingly, the alpha values that are lower than .008 (i.e., .05/6) were considered as significant. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Gender for Parental Expectations [$\underline{F}$ (1, 797) = 16.38, $\underline{p}$<.001, partial η^2 = .02], Personal Standards [$\underline{F}$ (1, 797) = 9.74, $\underline{p}$< .01, partial η^2 = .01] and Parental Criticism [$\underline{F}$ (1, 797) = 10.22, $\underline{p}$< .001, partial η^2 = .01] dimensions of perfectionism.

Table 51. Mean Scores of Gender on Perfectionism Factors

	Female	Male
Parental Expectations	14.18	15.69
Personal Standards	23.84	24.99
Parental Criticism	7.13	7.92

According to the mean scores, male participants reported significantly higher standards ($\underline{M}$ = 24.99) and higher parental expectations ($\underline{M}$ = 15.69) compared to female participants ($\underline{M}$ = 23.84, $\underline{M}$ = 14.18, respectively).On the other hand, female participants ($\underline{M}$ = 7.13) reported significantly higher parental criticism than male participants ($\underline{M}$ = 7.92).
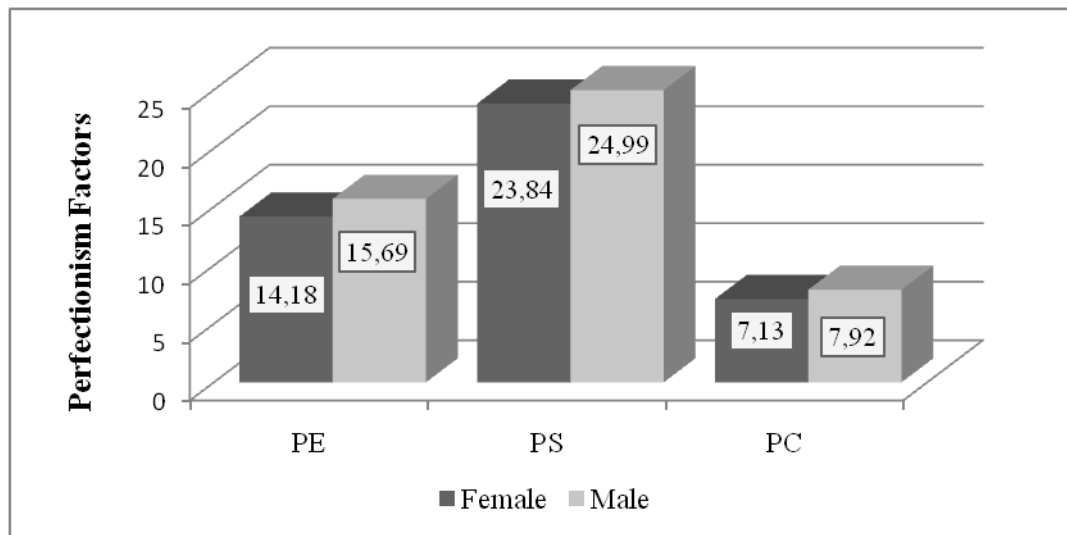
Note. PE: Parental Expectations; PS: Personal Standards; PC: Parental Criticism

Figure 22. Mean Scores of Gender on Perfectionism Factors

Table 52. Mean Scores of Age on Perfectionism Factors

	Younger	Older
Parental Criticism	7.15	7.91

According to the mean scores, older participants ($\underline{M}$ = 7.91) reported significantly higher parental criticism than younger participants ($\underline{M}$ = 7.15).

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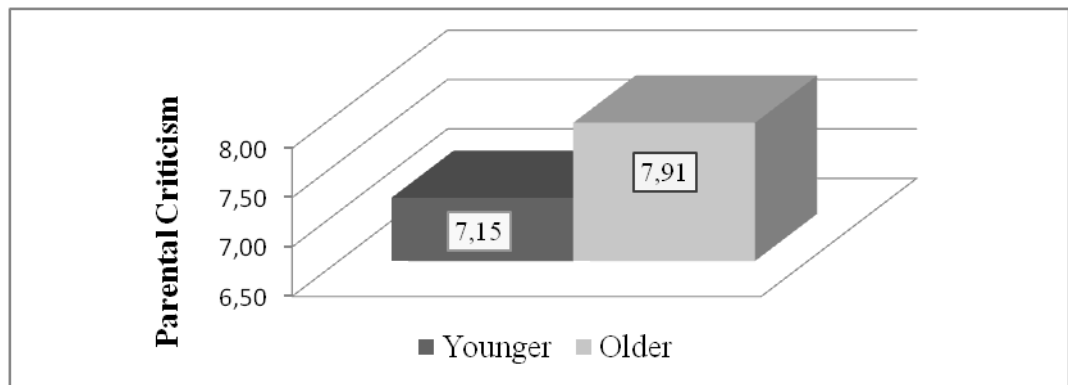
Figure 23. Mean Scores of Age on Perfectionism Factors

3.6.2.2. Influence of Number of Siblings on Perfectionism Factors

In order to examine possible influence of Number of Siblings on Perfectionism Factors, MANOVA was employed with Organization, Concern over Mistakes, Parental Expectations, Personal Standards, Parental Criticism, and Doubts about Actions serving as dependent variables.

Table 53 Number of Siblings Influence on Perfectionism Factors

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Number of Siblings	.99	1.75	6, 793	.01	-	-
OR	-	-	1, 798	-	1.85	.01
CM	-	-	1, 798	-	4.25	.01
PE	-	-	1, 798	-	5.79	.01
PS	-	-	1, 798	-	2.07	.01
PC	-	-	1, 798	-	6.28	.01
DA	-	-	1, 798	-	2.04	.01

Note.: OR: Organization, CM: Concern over Mistakes, PE: Parental Expectations, PS: Personal Standards, PC: Parental Criticism, DA: Doubts about Actions

As can be seen in Table 53, MANOVA results did not revealed significant main effect for Number of Siblings of the participants [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (6, 793) = 1.75, $\underline{p}$ > .05; Wilk's Lambda = .99; partial η^2 = .01].

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3.6.2.3. Influence of Maternal Education Level on Perfectionism Factors

In order to examine possible influence of Maternal Education Level on Perfectionism Factors, MANOVA was employed with Organization, Concern over Mistakes, Parental Expectations, Personal Standards, Parental Criticism, and Doubts about Actions serving as the dependent variables.

Table 54. Maternal Education Level Influence on Perfectionism Factors

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Maternal Education	.98	2.10[*]	6, 794	.02	-	-
OR	-	-	1, 799	-	3.88	.01
CM	-	-	1, 799	-	4.93	.01
PE	-	-	1, 799	-	0.63	.01
PS	-	-	1, 799	-	0.39	.01
PC	-	-	1, 799	-	1.18	.01
DA	-	-	1, 799	-	7.41[**]	.01

** $\underline{p}$<.01; * $\underline{p}$<.05
Note.: OR: Organization, CM: Concern over Mistakes, PE: Parental Expectations, PS: Personal Standards, PC: Parental Criticism, DA: Doubts about Actions

As can be seen in Table 54, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Maternal Education Level of the participants [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (6,794) = 2.10, $\underline{p}$<.008; Wilk's Lambda = .98; partial η^2 = .02].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Maternal Education main effect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Maternal Education Level only for the Doubts about Actions [$\underline{F}$ (1,799) = 7.41 $\underline{p}$<.008, partial η^2 = .01] dimension of perfectionism.

Table 55. Mean Scores of Maternal Education Level on Perfectionism Factors

	Low educated Mother	Highly Educated Mother
Doubts about Actions	10.84	10.09

According to mean scores, participants that have low educated mothers ($\underline{M}$ = 10.84) reported significantly more doubts about their actions than participants that have highly educated mothers ($\underline{M}$ = 10.09).
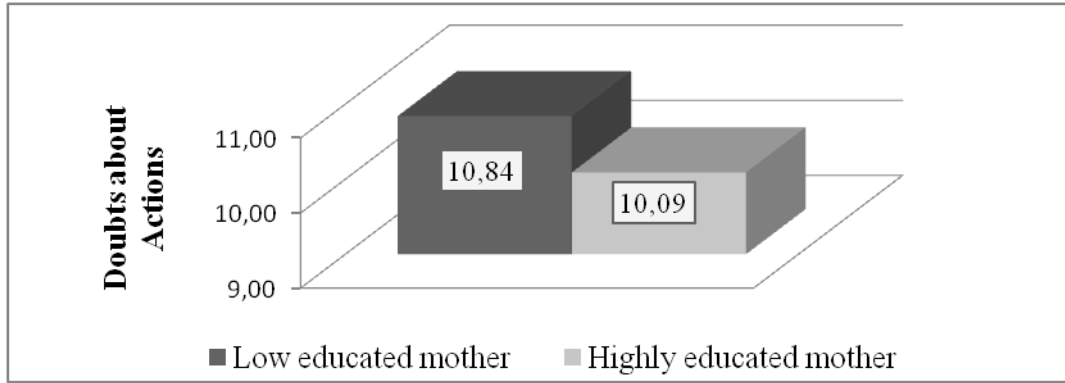
Figure 24. Mean Scores of Maternal Education Level on Perfectionism Factors

3.6.2.4. Influence of Paternal Education Level on Perfectionism Factors

In order to examine possible influence of Paternal Education Level on Perfectionism Factors, MANOVA was employed with Organization, Concern over Mistakes, Parental Expectations, Personal Standards, Parental Criticism, and Doubts about Actions serving as the dependent variables.

Table 56. Paternal Education Level Influence on Perfectionism Factors

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Paternal Education	.99	1.31	6, 794	.01	-	-
OR	-	-	1, 799	-	0.58	.01
CM	-	-	1, 799	-	1.60	.01
PE	-	-	1, 799	-	0.91	.01
PS	-	-	1, 799	-	0.79	.01
PC	-	-	1, 799	-	1.69	.01
DA	-	-	1, 799	-	1.75	.01

Note. OR: Organization, CM: Concern over Mistakes, PE: Parental Expectations, PS: Personal Standards, PC: Parental Criticism, DA: Doubts about Actions

As can be seen in Table 56, MANOVA results did not revealed significant main effect for Paternal Education Level of the participants [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (6, 794) = 1.31, $\underline{p}$> .05; Wilk's Lambda = .99; partial η^2 = .01].

3.6.2.5. Influence of Family Income on Perfectionism Factors

In order to examine possible influence of Family Income on Perfectionism Factors, MANOVA was employed with Organization, Concern over Mistakes, Parental Expectations, Personal Standards, Parental Criticism, and Doubts about Actions serving as dependent variables.

Table 57. Influence of Family Income on Perfectionism Factors

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Family Income	.97	3.78[***]	6, 789	.03	-	-
OR	-	-	1, 794	-	0.06	.01
CM	-	-	1, 794	-	3.38	.01
PE	-	-	1, 794	-	1.76	.01
PS	-	-	1, 794	-	4.37	.01
PC	-	-	1, 794	-	1.51	.01
DA	-	-	1, 794	-	7.45[**]	.01

***$\underline{p}$<.001; **$\underline{p}$<.01
Note. OR: Organization, CM: Concern over Mistakes, PE: Parental Expectations, PS: Personal Standards, PC: Parental Criticism, DA: Doubts about Actions

As can be seen in Table 57, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Family Income of the participants [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (6, 789) = 3.78, $\underline{p}$< .001; Wilk's Lambda = .97; partial η^2 = .03].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Family Income main effect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a

significant main effect of Family Income only for Doubts about Actions [$\underline{F}$ (1, 794) = 7.45 $\underline{p}$< .008, partial η^2 = .01] dimension of the perfectionism.

Table 58. Mean Scores of Family Income on Perfectionism Factors

	Low Family Income	High Family Income
Doubts about Actions	10.82	10.05

According to mean scores, participants who had low family income ($\underline{M}$ = 10.82) reported significantly more doubts about their actions than those who had high family income ($\underline{M}$ = 10.05).
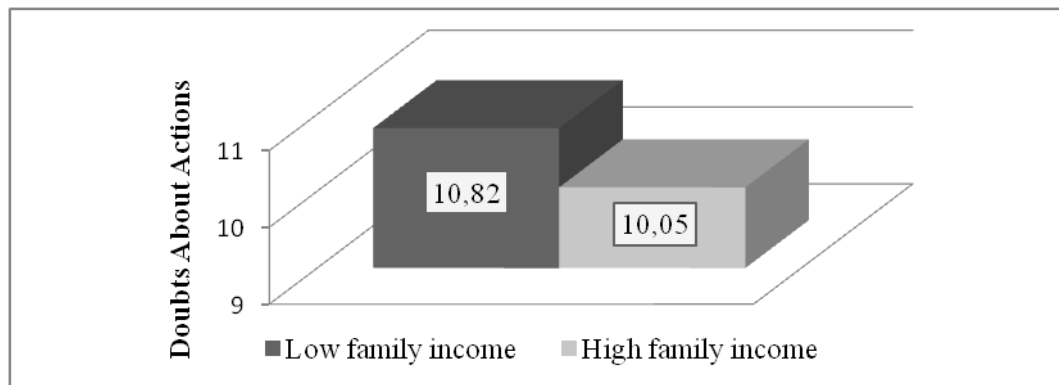
Figure 25. Mean Scores of Family Income on Perfectionism Factors

3.7. Influence of Demographic Variables on Locus of Control

Influence of demographic variables on overall external locus of control and more specific locus of control dimensions was investigated separately.

3.7.1. Influence of Demographic Variables on Overall Locus of Control

Initially, influence of demographic variables on the overall Locus of control scores of the participants were examined.

3.7.1.1. Influence of Age and Gender on Overall Locus of Control

In order to examine possible influence of Gender and Age on Overall Locus of Control, 2 (Male, Female) x 2 (Younger, Older) between subjects ANOVA was employed with Overall Perfectionism serving as the dependent variable.

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Table 59. Analysis of Variance for Overall Locus of Control

	df	SS	MS	F	η^2
Gender	1	0.61	0.61	0.00	.01
Age	1	377.10	377.10	1.13	.01
Gender X Age	1	852.25	852.25	2.54	.01
Error	797	267013,42	335.02		

As can be seen in Table 59, results did not revealed significant main effect of Gender [F (1, 797) = .00, p >.05] and Age [F (1,797) = 1.13, p>.05; partial η^2 = .00]. Additionally, the interaction effect for Gender X Age [F (1,797) = 2.54, p>.05; partial η^2 = .00] was not significant.

3.7.1.2. Influence of Number of Siblings on Overall Locus of Control

In order to examine possible influence of Number of Siblings (High and Low) on Overall Locus of Control, independent samples t-test was employed with Overall Locus of Control serving as the dependent variable. Results revealed that Number of siblings main effect [t (798) = -1.07, p>.05] was not significant.

3.7.1.3. Influence of Maternal Education Level on Overall Locus of Control

In order to examine possible influence of Maternal Education Level (High and Low) on Overall Locus of Control, independent samples t-test was employed with Overall Locus of Control serving as the dependent variable. Results revealed that Maternal Education Level main effect [t (799) = -.09, p>.05] was not significant.

3.7.1.4. Influence of Paternal Education Level on Overall Locus of Control

In order to examine possible influence of Paternal Education Level (High and Low) on Overall Locus of Control, independent samples t-test was employed with Overall Locus of Control as serving dependent variable. Results revealed that Paternal Education Level main effect [t (799) = .05, p>.05] was not significant.

3.7.1.5. Influence of Family Income on Overall Locus of Control

In order to examine possible influence of Family Income (High and Low) of the participants on Overall Locus of Control, independent samples t-test was employed with Overall Locus of Control serving as the dependent variable. Results revealed that Family Income main effect [t (794) = 1.58, p>.05] was not significant.

3.7.2. Influence of Demographic Variables on Locus of Control Factors

Influence of demographic variables on more specific locus of control factors namely, Personal Control, Relying on Luck, Meaninglessness of Striving, Fatalism, and Belief in an Unjust World was investigated.

3.7.2.1. Influence of Age and Gender on Locus of Control Factors

In order to examine possible influence of Gender and Age on Locus of Control Factors, 2 (Male, Female) x 2 (Younger, Older) between subjects MANOVA was employed with Personal Control, Relying on Luck, Meaninglessness of Striving, Fatalism, and Belief in an Unjust World serving as the dependent variables.

Table 60. Gender and Age Differences on Locus of Control Factors

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate F	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate F	Univariate η^2
Gender	.95	8.11***	5, 792	.05	-	-
PC	-	-	1, 796	-	2.46	.01
RL	-	-	1, 796	-	6.50**	.01
MS	-	-	1, 796	-	8.56**	.01
F	-	-	1, 796	-	0.07	.01
BUW	-	-	1, 796	-	14.28***	.02
Age	1.00	.28	5, 792	.00	-	-
PC	-	-	1, 796	-	0.91	.01

Table 60. Continued

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
RL	-	-	1, 796	-	0.62	.01
MS	-	-	1, 796	-	0.37	.01
F	-	-	1, 796	-	0.01	.01
BUW	-	-	1, 796	-	0.30	.01
Gender X Age	.99	.91	5, 792	.00	-	-

*** p<.001; ** p<.01

Note. PC: Personal control, RL: Relying on luck, MS: Meaninglessness of striving, F: Fatalism, BJW: Belief in an unjust world

As can be seen in Table 60, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Gender [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (5, 792) = 8.11, $\underline{p}$< .001; Wilk's Lambda = .95; partial η^2 = .05]. However, there was no significant effect of Age [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (5, 792) = 0.28, $\underline{p}$> .05; Wilk's Lambda = 1.00; partial η^2 = .01] and no significant interaction effect of Gender X Age [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (5, 792) = 0.91, $\underline{p}$> .05; Wilk's Lambda = .99; partial η^2 = .01].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Gender main effect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Accordingly, the alpha values that are lower than .01 (i.e., .05/5) were considered as significant. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Gender for Relying on Luck [$\underline{F}$ (1, 796) = 6.50, $\underline{p}$< .01, partial η^2 = .02], Meaninglessness of Striving [$\underline{F}$ (1, 796) = 8.56, $\underline{p}$< .01, partial η^2 = .01] and Belief in an Unjust World [$\underline{F}$ (1, 796) = 14.28, $\underline{p}$< .001, partial η^2 = .02] dimensions of Locus of Control.

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Table 61. Mean Scores of Gender on Locus of Control Factors

	Female	Male
Relying on Luck	32.17	31.12
Meaninglessness of Striving	21.98	23.15
Belief in an Unjust World	11.18	12.07

According to the mean scores, female participants ($\underline{M}$ = 32.17) reported themselves as being significantly more prone to relying on luck than male participants ($\underline{M}$ = 31.12). On the other hand, Male participants ($\underline{M}$ = 23.15) reported themselves as being significantly more prone to perceive striving for their goals as meaningless, compared to female participants ($\underline{M}$ = 21.98). Finally, male participants ($\underline{M}$ = 12.07) are reported themselves as being significantly more prone to believe in an unjust world than female participants ($\underline{M}$ = 11.18).
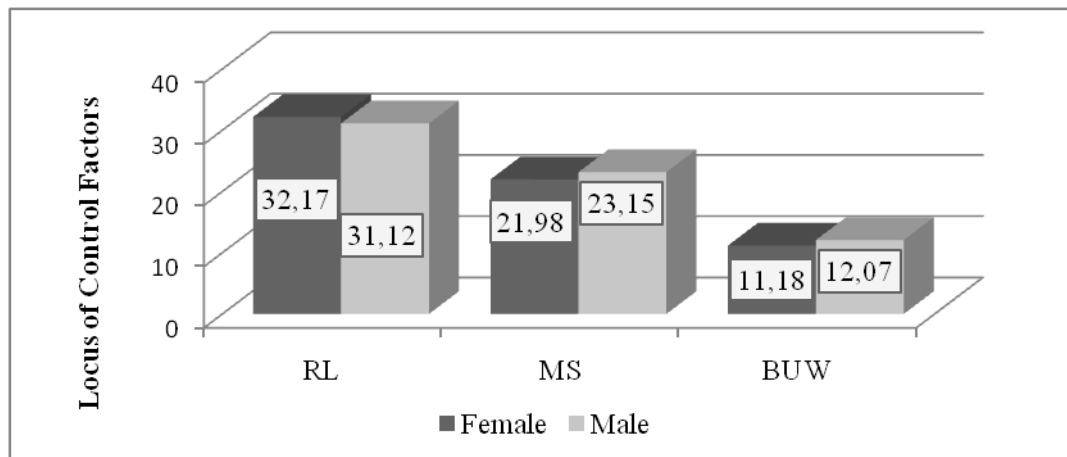
Note. RL: Relying on luck, MS: Meaninglessness of striving, BJW: Belief in an unjust world

Figure 26. Mean Scores of Gender on Locus of Control Factors

3.7.2.2. Influence of Number of Siblings on Locus of Control Factors

In order to examine possible influence of Number of Siblings on Locus of Control Factors, MANOVA was employed with Personal Control, Relying on Luck, Meaninglessness of Striving, Fatalism, and Belief in an Unjust World serving as the dependent variables.

Table 62. Number of Siblings Influence on Locus of Control Factors

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate F	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate F	Univariate η^2
Number of Siblings	.94	9.59***	5, 793	.06	-	-
PC	-	-	1, 797	-	0.36	.01
RL	-	-	1, 797	-	2.06	.01
MS	-	-	1, 797	-	0.21	.01
F	-	-	1, 797	-	33.41***	.04
BUW	-	-	1, 797	-	0.85	.01

*** p<.001

Note. PC: Personal control, RL: Relying on luck, MS: Meaninglessness of striving, F: Fatalism, BJW: Belief in an unjust world

As can be seen in Table 62, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Number of Siblings [Multivariate F (5, 793) = 9.59, p< .001; Wilk's Lambda = .94; partial η^2 = .06].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Number of Siblings main effect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Number of Siblings only for Fatalism [F (1, 797) = 33.41, p< .001, partial η^2 = .04] dimension of locus of control.

Table 63. Mean Scores of Number of Siblings on Locus of Control Factors

	Having none or one	Having two or more
Fatalism	8.42	9.65

According to the mean scores, participants who had two or more siblings (M = 8.42) reported themselves as being significantly more fatalistic than those who had one or none sibling (M = 9.65).
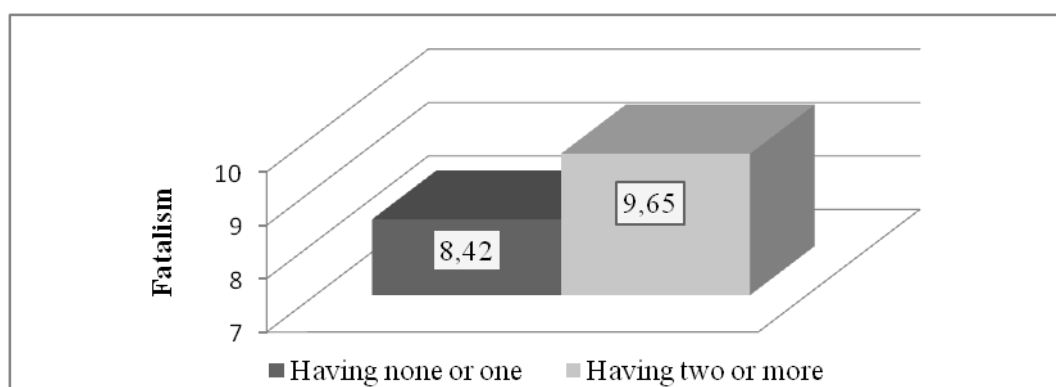
Figure 27. Mean Scores of Number of Siblings on Locus of Control Factors

3.7.2.3. Influence of Maternal Education Level on Locus of Control Factors

In order to examine possible influence of Maternal Education Level on Locus of Control Factors, MANOVA was employed with Personal Control, Relying on Luck, Meaninglessness of Striving, Fatalism and Belief in an Unjust World serving as the dependent variables.

Table 64. Maternal Education Level Influence on Locus of Control Factors

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Maternal Education Level	.95	8.88[***]	5, 794	.05	-	-
PC	-	-	1, 798	-	0.60	.01
RL	-	-	1, 798	-	5.96[**]	.01
MS	-	-	1, 798	-	0.28	.01
F	-	-	1, 798	-	26.03[***]	.03
BUW	-	-	1, 798	-	0.12	.01

*** $\underline{p}$<.001; ** $\underline{p}$<.01

<u>Note.</u> PC: Personal control, RL: Relying on luck, MS: Meaninglessness of striving, F: Fatalism, BJW: Belief in an unjust world

As can be seen in Table 64, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Maternal Education Level [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (5, 794) = 8.88, $\underline{p}$< .001; Wilk's Lambda = .95; partial η^2 = .05].

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Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Maternal Education Level main effect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Maternal Education Level for Relying on Luck [F (1,798) = 5.96, p<.01, partial η^2 = .01] and Fatalism [F (1,798) = 26.03, p<.001, partial η^2 = .03] dimensions of Locus of Control.

Table 65. Mean Scores of Maternal Education Level on Locus of Control Factors

	Low educated mother	Highly educated mother
Relying on Luck	31.34	32.37
Fatalism	9.23	8.17

According to the mean scores, participants who had highly educated mothers (M = 32.37) reported themselves as being significantly more prone to relying on luck than those who had low educated mothers (M = 31.34). On the other hand, participants who had low educated mothers (M = 9.23) reported themselves as being significantly more fatalistic than those who had highly educated mothers (M = 8.17).
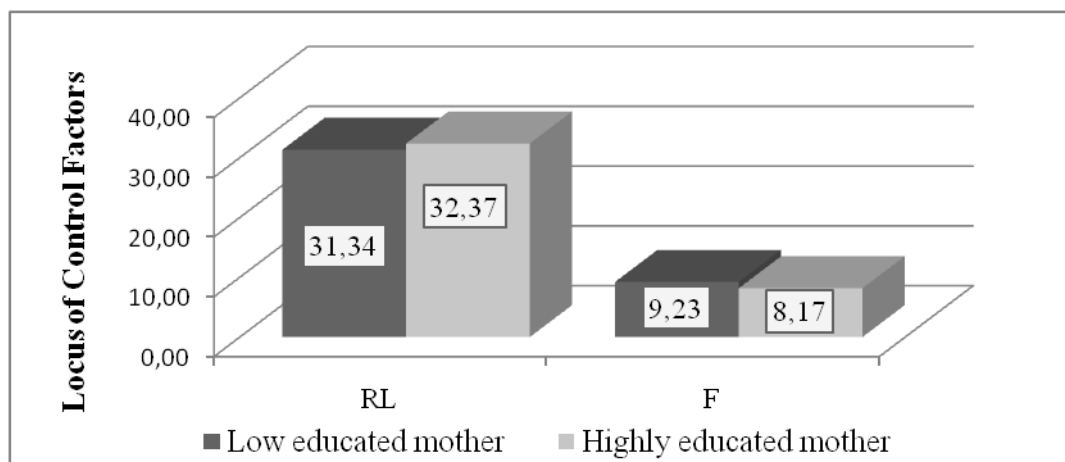
Note. RL: Relying on luck, F: Fatalism

Figure 28. Mean Scores of Maternal Education Level on Locus of Control Factors

3.7.2.4. **Influence of Paternal Education Level on Locus of Control Factors**

In order to examine possible influence of Paternal Education Level on Locus of Control Factors, MANOVA was employed with Personal Control, Relying on Luck, Meaninglessness of Striving, Fatalism, and Belief in an Unjust World serving as the dependent variables.

Table 66. Paternal Education Level Influence on Locus of Control Factors

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate $\underline{F}$	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate $\underline{F}$	Univariate η^2
Paternal Education Level	.97	5.34***	5, 794	.03	-	-
PC	-	-	1, 798	-	0.29	.01
RL	-	-	1, 798	-	3.40	.01
MS	-	-	1, 798	-	0.20	.01
F	-	-	1, 798	-	15.53***	.02
BUW	-	-	1, 798	-	0.48	.01

*** p<.001; ** p<.01
Note. PC: Personal control, RL: Relying on luck, MS: Meaninglessness of striving, F: Fatalism, BJW: Belief in an unjust world

As can be seen in Table 66, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Paternal Education Level [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (5, 794) = 5.34, $\underline{p}$< .001; Wilk's Lambda = .97; partial η^2 = .03].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Paternal Education Level main effect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Paternal Education Level only for Fatalism [$\underline{F}$ (1, 798) = 15.53, $\underline{p}$< .001, partial η^2 = .02] dimension of Locus of Control.

Table 67. Mean Scores of Paternal Education Level on Locus of Control Factors

	Low Educated Father	Highly Educated Father
Fatalism	9.26	8.46

According to mean scores, participants that have low educated fathers (M = 9.26) reported themselves as being significantly more fatalistic than participants that have highly educated fathers (M = 8.46).
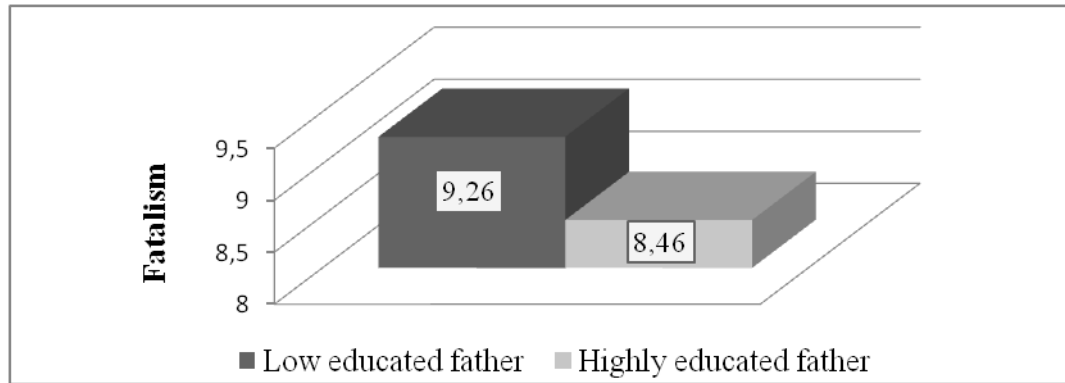
Figure 29. Mean Scores of Paternal Education Level on Locus of Control Factors

3.7.2.5. Influence of Family Income on Locus of Control Factors

In order to examine possible influence of Family Income on Locus of Control Factors, MANOVA was employed with Personal Control, Relying on Luck, Meaninglessness of Striving, Fatalism, and Belief in an Unjust World serving as the dependent variables.

Table 68. Family Income Influence on Locus of Control Factors

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	Multivariate F	df	Multivariate η^2	Univariate F	Univariate η^2
Family Income	.98	3.30**	5, 789	.02	-	-
PC	-	-	1, 793	-	0.86	.01
RL	-	-	1, 793	-	0.25	.01
MS	-	-	1, 793	-	3.04	.01
F	-	-	1, 793	-	10.84***	.01
BUW	-	-	1, 793	-	1.66	.01

*** $p<.001$; ** $p<.01$
Note. PC: Personal control, RL: Relying on luck, MS: Meaninglessness of striving, F: Fatalism, BJW: Belief in an unjust world

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As can be seen in Table 68, MANOVA results revealed significant main effect for Family Income [Multivariate $\underline{F}$ (5, 789) = 3.30, $\underline{p}$< .01; Wilk's Lambda = .98; partial η^2 = .02].

Following the multivariate analysis, univariate analyses were conducted for significant Family Income main effect with the application of Bonferroni adjustment. Results of the univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed a significant main effect of Family Income Level only for Fatalism [$\underline{F}$ (1, 793) = 10.84, $\underline{p}$< .001, partial η^2 = .01] dimension of Locus of Control.

Table 69. Mean Scores of Family Income on Locus of Control Factors

	Low family income	High family income
Fatalism	9.08	8.38

According to mean scores, participants who had low family income ($\underline{M}$ = 9.08) reported themselves as being significantly more fatalistic than those who had high family income ($\underline{M}$ = 8.38).
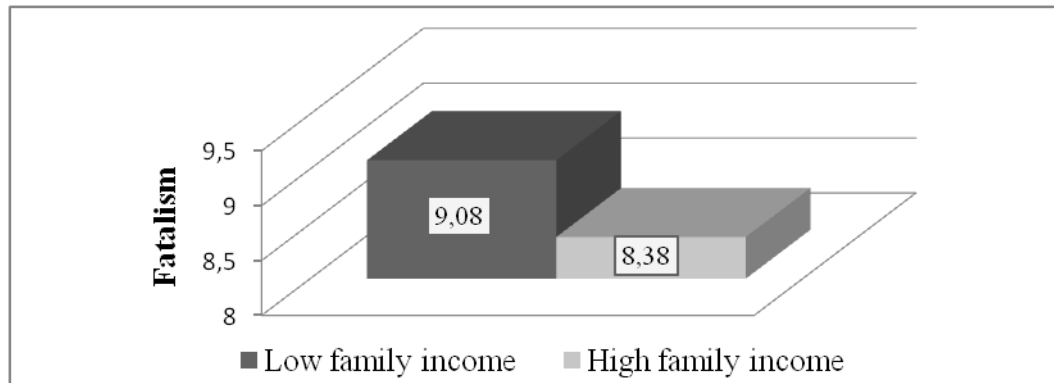
Figure 30. Mean Scores of Family Income on Locus of Control Factors

3.8. Influence of Demographic Variables on Depressive Symptoms

Influence of demographic variables on depression scores of the participants was investigated.

3.8.1. Influence of Age and Gender on Depressive Symptoms

In order to examine possible influence of Gender and Age on Depression, 2 (Male, Female) x 2 (Younger, Older) between subjects ANOVA was employed with Depression serving as the dependent variable.

Table 70. Analysis of Variance for Depressive Symptoms

	df	SS	MS	F	η^2
Gender	1	0.60	0.60	0.01	.01
Age	1	72.16	72.16	1.38	.01
Gender X Age	1	91.96	91.96	1.76	.01
Error	797	4165.04	52.262		

As can be seen in Table 70, ANOVA results did not revealed significant main effect of Gender [F (1, 797) = .01, p > .05] and Age [F (1, 797) = 1.38, p> .05; partial η^2 = .00]. Additionally, the interaction effect for Gender X Age [F (1, 797) = 1.76, p> .05; partial η^2 = .00] was not significant.

3.8.2. Influence of Number of Siblings on Depressive Symptoms

In order to examine possible influence of Number of Siblings (High and Low) on Depression, independent samples t-test was employed with Depression serving as the dependent variable. Results revealed that Number of siblings main effect [t (798) = -1.15, p> .05] was not significant.

3.8.3. Influence of Maternal Education Level on Depressive Symptoms

In order to examine possible influence of Maternal Education Level (High and Low) on Depression, independent samples t-test was employed with Depression serving as the dependent variable. Results revealed that Maternal Education Level main effect [t (799) = 0.19, p> .05] was not significant.

3.8.4. Influence of Paternal Education Level on Depressive Symptoms

In order to examine possible influence of Paternal Education level (High and Low) on Depression, independent samples t-test was employed with Depression

serving as the dependent variable. Results revealed that Paternal Education Level main effect [t (799) = 1.15, $p>$ .05] was not significant.

3.8.5. Influence of Family Income on Depressive Symptoms

In order to examine possible influence of Family Income (High and Low) on Depression, independent samples t-test was employed with Depression serving as the dependent variable. Results revealed that Family Income main effect [t (794) = 1.74, $p>$ .05] was not significant.

3.9. Influence of Demographic Variables on Trait Anxiety

Influence of demographic variables on trait anxiety scores of the participants was investigated.

3.9.1. Influence of Age and Gender on Trait Anxiety

In order to examine possible influence of Gender and Age on Trait Anxiety, 2 (Male, Female) x 2 (Younger, Older) between subjects ANOVA was employed with Trait Anxiety serving as the dependent variable.

Table 71. Analysis of Variance for Trait Anxiety

	df	SS	MS	$\underline{F}$	η^2
Gender	1	1866.45	1866.45	23.78***	.03
Age	1	176.96	176.96	2.25	.01
Gender X Age	1	67.83	67.83	.86	.01
Error	797	62558.88	78.49		

*** $p<.001$

As can be seen in Table 71, ANOVA results revealed significant main effect of Gender [$\underline{F}$ (1, 797) = 23.78, p < .001, partial η^2 = .03]. However there was no significant main effect of Age [$\underline{F}$ (1, 797) = 2.25, $p>$ .05; partial η^2 = .01] and no significant interaction effect of Gender X Age [$\underline{F}$ (1, 797) = 0.86, $p>$ .05; partial η^2 = .01].

Table 72. Mean Scores of Gender on Trait Anxiety

	Female	Male
Trait Anxiety	60.00	56.93

According to the mean scores, female participants ($\underline{M}$ = 60.00) reported significantly more trait anxiety than male participants ($\underline{M}$ = 56.93).
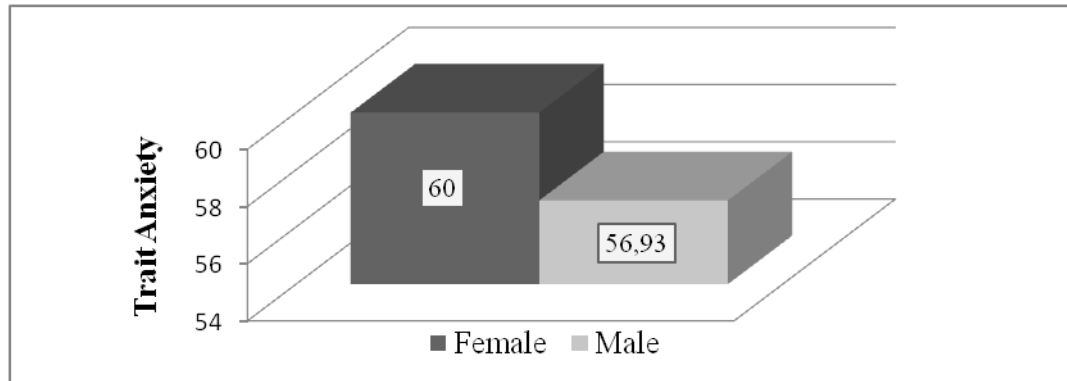
Figure 31. Mean Scores of Gender on Trait Anxiety

3.9.2. Influence of Number of Siblings on Trait Anxiety

In order to examine possible influence of Number of Siblings (High and Low) on Trait Anxiety, independent samples t-test was employed with Trait Anxiety as serving dependent variable. Results revealed that Number of siblings main effect [$\underline{t}$ (798) = -0.62, $\underline{p}$> .05] was not significant.

3.9.3. Influence of Maternal Education Level on Trait Anxiety

In order to examine possible influence of Maternal Education Level (High and Low) on Trait Anxiety, independent samples t-test was employed with Trait Anxiety serving as the dependent variable. Results revealed significant Maternal Education Level [$\underline{t}$ (799) = 0.21, $\underline{p}$< .05] differences.

Table 73. Mean Scores of Maternal Education Level on Trait Anxiety

	Low Educated Mother	Highly Educated Mother
Trait Anxiety	58.71	58.57

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According to the mean scores, participants who had low educated mothers ($\underline{M}$ = 58.71) reported significantly more trait anxiety than those who had highly educated mothers ($\underline{M}$ = 58.57).
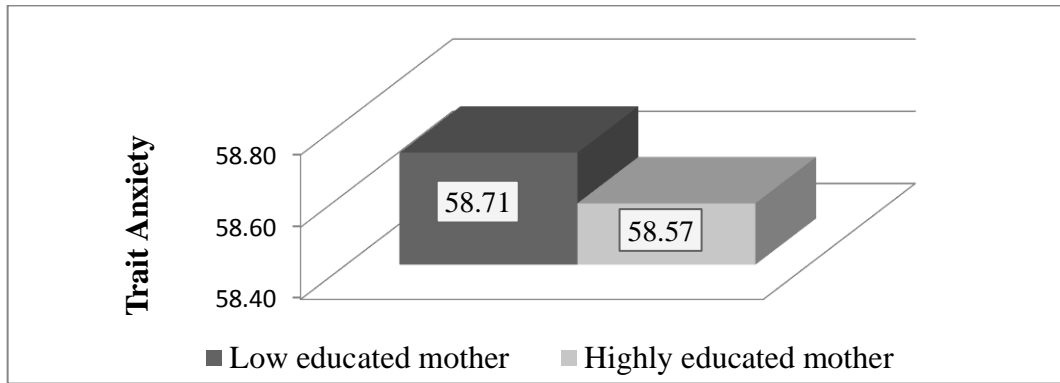
Figure 32. Mean Scores of Maternal Education Level on Trait Anxiety

3.9.4. Influence of Paternal Education Level on Trait Anxiety

In order to examine possible influence of Paternal Education Level (High and Low) on Trait Anxiety, independent samples t-test was employed with Trait Anxiety serving as the dependent variable. Results revealed significant difference for Paternal Education Level [$\underline{t}$ (799) = 0.23, p< .001].

Table 74. Mean Scores of Paternal Education Level on Trait Anxiety

	Low educated father	Highly educated father
Trait Anxiety	58.73	58.59

According to the mean scores, participants who had low educated fathers ($\underline{M}$ = 58.73) reported significantly more trait anxiety than those who had highly educated fathers ($\underline{M}$ = 58.59)
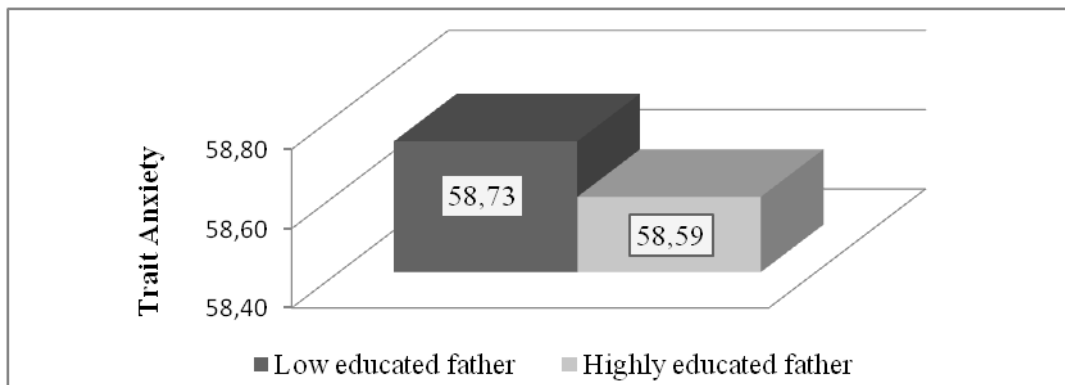
Figure 33. Mean Scores of Paternal Education Level on Trait Anxiety

3.9.5. Influence of Family Income on Trait Anxiety

In order to examine possible influence of Family Income (High and Low) on Trait Anxiety, independent samples t-test was employed with Trait Anxiety serving as the dependent variable. Results revealed significant differences for Family Income [t (794) = 2.38, p< .05] levels.

Table 75. Mean Scores of Family Income on Trait Anxiety

	Low Family Income	High Family Income
Trait Anxiety	59.23	57.63

According to the mean scores, participants who had low family income (M = 59.23) reported significantly more trait anxiety than those who had high family income (M = 57.63).
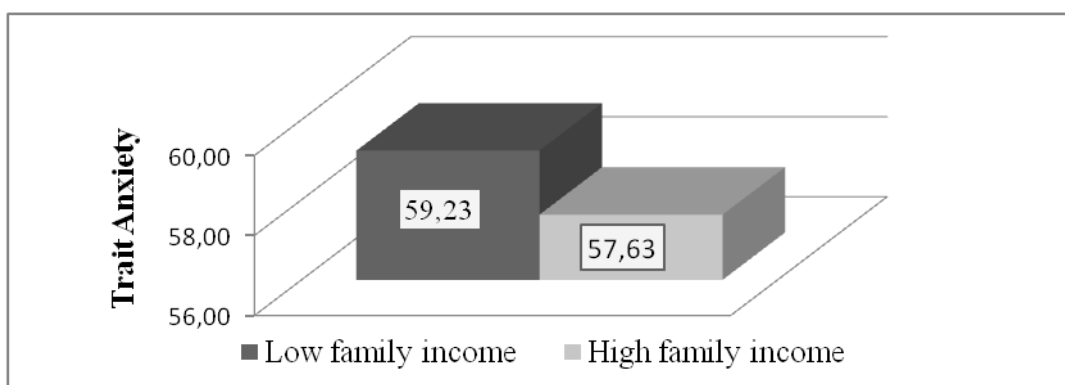
Figure 34. Mean Scores of Family Income on Trait Anxiety

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3.10. Influence of Demographic Variables on Trait Anger

Influence of demographic variables on trait anger scores of the participants was investigated.

3.10.1. Influence of Age and Gender on Trait Anger

In order to examine possible influence of Gender and Age on Trait Anger, 2 (Male, Female) x 2 (Younger, Older) between subjects ANOVA was employed with Trait Anger serving as the dependent variable.

Table 76. Analysis of Variance for Trait Anger

	df	SS	MS	F	η^2
Gender	1	33.41	33.41	1.08	.01
Age	1	9.13	9.13	0.30	.01
Gender X Age	1	.17	.17	0.00	.01
Error	796	24544.95	30.84		

As can be seen in Table 76, results did not revealed significant main effect of Gender [F (1, 796) = 1.08, p > .05, partial η^2 = .01) and Age [F (1, 796) = .30, p> .05; partial η^2 = .00]. And there was no significant interaction effect of Gender X Age [F (1, 796) = 0.00, p> .05; partial η^2 = .01].

3.10.2. Influence of Number of Siblings on Trait Anger

In order to examine possible influence of Number of Siblings (High and Low) on Trait Anger, independent samples t-test was employed with Trait Anger serving as the dependent variable. Results revealed that Number of siblings main effect [t (797) = .03, p>.05] was not significant.

3.10.3. Influence of Maternal Education Level on Trait Anger

In order to examine possible influence of Maternal Education Level (High and Low) on Trait Anger, independent samples t-test was employed with Trait Anger serving as the dependent variable. Results revealed that Maternal Education Level main effect [t (798) = 1.41, p>.05] was not significant.

3.10.4. Influence of Paternal Education Level on Trait Anger

In order to examine possible influence of Paternal Education Level (High and Low) on Trait Anger, independent samples t-test was employed with Trait Anger serving as the dependent variable. Results revealed that Paternal Education Level main effect [t (798) = .76, p>.05] was not significant.

3.10.5. Influence of Family Income on Trait Anger

In order to examine possible influence of Family Income (High and Low) on Trait Anger, independent samples t-test was employed with Trait Anger serving as the dependent variable. Results revealed that Family Income main effect [t (793) = 1.10, p>.05] was not significant.

3.11. Inter-Correlations among Major Variables of the Study

In order to examine the relationships between major variables of the study, Pearson Correlation analyses were conducted with demographics variables, Full Scale scores of both Mother and Father Forms of the Parental Acceptance-Rejection/Control Questionnaire, Subscales of Basic Personality Traits Inventory, full scale score for the Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale, full scale score for the Locus of Control Scale, depression, anxiety and anger measures of the study.

As can be seen in Table 77, Overall Maternal Rejection revealed significant positive correlation with Depression (r = .29, p < .001), Anxiety (r =.29, p < .001) and Anger (r = .22, p < .001). Similarly, Overall Paternal Rejection revealed significant positive correlation with Depression (r = .30, p < .001), Anxiety (r =.33, p < .001) and Anger (r = .27, p < .001). Apart from that, Maternal Control showed significant positive correlation with Anxiety (r =.09, p < .01) and Anger (r =.10, p < .01). Paternal Control showed significant positive correlation with Depression (r = .09, p < .01), Anxiety (r =.13, p < .001) and Anger (r = .18, p < .001). Accordingly, as the negative parental attitudes increased the psychological distress that was experienced by the participants increased whereas as positive parental attitudes

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Table 77. Inter-Correlations among Major Variables of the Study

	MC	OMR	FC	OPR	E	C	A	N	O	NV	FMPS	OLC	BDI	TAXI	TAI
GR	-.112***	.067	-.050	.086*	-.022	-.032	-.061	-.091**	.179***	.194***	.089*	-.006	.000	.036	-.174***
AG	.043	.062	.036	.079*	.022	.079*	-.004	-.005	.026	.049	.054	-.043	-.046	-.018	-.062
NS	-.003	.157***	.059	.056	-.039	.073*	-.013	-.028	.033	.113***	.103**	.038	.041	-.001	.022
FI	.007	-.072*	-.003	-.072*	.084*	-.034	.015	-.031	.070*	-.018	-.046	-.056	-.062	-.039	-.084*
MEL	-.029	-.113***	-.067	-.084*	-.017	-.130***	-.002	.008	.019	.001	-.089*	.003	-.007	-.050	-.008
PEL	-.020	-.100**	.038	-.109**	.037	-.092**	.014	-.027	.045	-.014	-.043	-.002	-.041	-.027	-.008
MC	1	.304***	.456***	.103**	.018	.040	.010	.063	-.077*	.073*	.198***	.013	.044	.104**	.093**
OMR		1	.160***	.504***	-.111**	-.122***	-.174***	.212***	-.156***	.293***	.272***	.130***	.286***	.220***	.289***
FC			1	.235***	.037	.060	.018	.135***	-.014	.080*	.301***	.101**	.095**	.183***	.127***
OPR				1	-.171***	-.135***	-.238***	.279***	-.179***	.250***	.276***	.145***	.296***	.256***	.334***
E					1	.155***	.226***	-.157***	.531***	-.197***	-.076*	-.146***	-.282***	-.004	-.438***
C						1	.282***	-.079*	.192***	-.205***	.310***	-.097**	-.184***	-.044	-.161***
A							1	-.170***	.272***	-.409***	.015	-.102**	-.104**	-.095**	-.123***
N								1	-.147***	.417***	.306***	.111**	.329***	.565***	.462***

Table 77. Continued

	MC	OMR	FC	OPR	E	C	A	N	O	NV	FMPS	OLC	BDI	TAXI	TAI
O									1	-.091[**]	-.048	-.178[***]	-.284[***]	.071[*]	-.518[***]
NV										1	.221[***]	.169[***]	.174[***]	.298[***]	.242[***]
FMPS											1	.155[***]	.275[***]	.392[***]	.373[***]
OLC												1	.256[***]	.161[***]	.279[***]
BDI													1	.275[***]	.656[***]
TAI														1	.334[***]
TAXI															1

Note.GR: Gender of the participants, AG: Age of the participants, NS: number of siblings of the participants, FI: Family Income of the participants, MEL: Maternal education level of the participants, PEL: Paternal Education Level of the participants, MC: Maternal control, OMR: Full scale score for Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire Mother Form, PC: Paternal control, OPR: Full scale score for Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire Father Form, E:Extraversion, C:Conscientiousness, A: Agreeableness, N: Neuroticism, O: Openness to experience, NV: Negative valence, FMPS: Full scale score for Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale, OLS: Overall Locus of Control, BDI: Total Beck Depression Inventory score, TAI: State-Trait Anxiety Inventory- Trait Form score, STAXI: State Trait Anger Inventory- Trait Form score.

increased, the psychological distress that was experienced by the participants decreased.

Moreover, Overall Maternal Rejection revealed significant positive correlation with Neuroticism (r =.21, p < .001), Negative Valence (r =.29, p < .001), Overall Perfectionism (r =.27, p < .001) and Overall Locus of Control (r =.13, p < .001). Similarly, Overall Paternal Rejection revealed significant positive correlation with Neuroticism (r =.27, p < .001), Negative Valence (r =.25, p < .001), Overall Perfectionism (r =.28, p < .001) and Overall Locus of Control (r =.14, p < .001). Additionally, Maternal Control showed significant positive correlation with Negative Valence (r =.07, p < .05) and Overall Perfectionism (r =.20, p < .001), and Paternal Control showed significant positive correlation with Neuroticism (r =.14, < .001), Negative Valence (r =.08, p < .05), Overall Perfectionism (r =.30, p < .001) and Overall Locus of Control (r =.10, p < .001). Accordingly, as negative parental attitudes increased, the participants' score on more maladaptive personality constructs such as Neuroticism, Negative Valence, Perfectionism, and External Locus of control increased as well.

Among personality constructs, Extraversion showed significant negative correlation with Depression (r = -.28, p < .001) and Anxiety (r = -.44, p < .001). Conscientiousness showed significant negative correlation with Depression (r = -.18, p < .001) and Anxiety (r = -.16, p < .001). Agreeableness showed significant negative correlation with Depression (r = -.10, p < .01), Anxiety (r = -.12, p < .01) and Anger (r = -.09, p < .001). Openness to experience showed significant negative correlation with Depression (r = -.28, p < .001) and Anxiety (r = -.52, p < .001). Neuroticism showed significant positive correlation with Depression (r = .32, p < .001), Anxiety (r = .46, p < .001) and Anger (r = .56, p < .001). Negative Valence showed significant positive correlation with Depression (r = .17, p < .001), Anxiety (r = .24, p < .001) and Anger (r = .30, p < .001). Overall Perfectionism showed significant positive correlation with Depression (r = .28, p < .001), Anxiety (r = .37, p < .001) and Anger (r = .39, p < .001). Similarly, Overall Locus of Control showed significant positive correlation with Depression

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($\underline{r}$ = .26, $\underline{p}$ < .001), Anxiety ($\underline{r}$ = .28, $\underline{p}$ < .001) and Anger ($\underline{r}$ = .16, $\underline{p}$ < .001). Accordingly, as participant's score on maladaptive personality constructs such as Neuroticism, Negative Valence, Perfectionism and External Locus of Control increased, their psychological distress increased as well, whereas the participant's score on more adaptive personality traits such as Extraversion, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, and Openness to Experience increased, their psychological distress decreased.

3.12. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses

Following the model presented in the introduction section, two sets of hierarchical regression analyses were conducted in order to examine associates of distinct personality constructs (i.e., Locus of Control Orientation and Perfectionism) as the first set of analyses and symptoms of psychopathology (i.e., Depression, Anxiety and Anger) as the second set of analyses.

3.12.1. Associated Factors for Locus of Control Orientation

The first hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the associates of Locus of Control. Prior to the main factors, socio-demographic variables (i.e., Gender, Age, Number of Siblings, Maternal Education Level, Paternal Education Level, and Family Income of the participants) were hierarchically entered in to the equation in the first sequence. After controlling the effects of significant socio-demographic variables, Parental Factors (i.e., Overall Maternal Rejection, Maternal Control, Overall Paternal Rejection, and Paternal Control) were hierarchically entered into the equation in the second step. Finally, Personality Traits (i.e., Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, and Negative Valence) were hierarchically entered in the equation in the last step.

As can be seen from Table 78, none of the socio-demographic variables had a significant association with locus of control. Among the Parental Factors, Overall Paternal Rejection (β = .14, $\underline{t}$ (793) = 4.13, $\underline{p}$< .001) initially entered into

the equation and explained 2% of the variance by itself ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 793] = 17.06, $\underline{p}$< .001). Subsequent to Overall Paternal Rejection, Paternal Control ($\underline{\beta}$ = .07, $\underline{t}$ (792) = 2.03, $\underline{p}$< .05) entered into the equation and explained variance increased to 3% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 792] = 4.13, $\underline{p}$< .05). After controlling for the effects of significant Paternal Factors, Personality Traits were entered into the equation in order to control the effects of broader personality constructs. Among Personality Traits, initially Openness to Experience ($\underline{\beta}$ = -.15, $\underline{t}$ (791) = -4.50, $\underline{p}$< .001) entered into equation and explained variance increased to 5% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 791] = 20.24, $\underline{p}$< .001). Later on, with the entrance of Negative Valence ($\underline{\beta}$ = .13, $\underline{t}$ (790) = -3.75, $\underline{p}$< .001), explained variance increased to 6% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 790] = 14.06, $\underline{p}$< .001).

Table 78. Associates of Locus of Control Orientation

Order of Entry		$\underline{\beta}$	$\underline{t}$	Df	FΔ	pr	R²
I.	**Demographic Variables**						
	-						
I I.	**Parental Attitudes**						
	Paternal Rejection	.14	4.13***	1,793	17.06***	.14	.02
	Paternal Control	.07	2.03*	1,792	4.126*	.07	.03
III.	**Personality Traits**						
	Openness to Experience	-.15	- 4.50***	1,791	20.24***	-.16	.05
	Negative Valence	.13	3.75***	1,790	14.06***	.13	.06

***$\underline{p}$<.001; *$\underline{p}$<.05

In the sum, four factors (i.e., Paternal Rejection, Paternal Control, Openness to Experience, Negative Valence) had a significant association with locus of control and accounted for 6% of the total variance. Accordingly, high paternal rejection, strict paternal control, low levels of openness to experience, and high levels of negative valence were identified as associates of External Locus of Control.

3.12.2. Associated Factors for Perfectionism

The second hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the associates of perfectionism. Prior to the main factors, socio-demographic variables (i.e., Gender, Age, Number of Siblings, Maternal

Education Level, Paternal Education Level and Family Income of the participants) were hierarchically entered in to the equation in the first sequence. After controlling the significant effects of socio-demographic variables, Parental Factors (i.e., Overall Maternal Rejection, Maternal Control, Overall Paternal Rejection, and Paternal Control) were hierarchically entered into the equation in the second step. Later on, Personality Traits (i.e., Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism and Negative Valence) were hierarchically entered in the equation. Finally, Locus of Control Factors (Personal Control, Relying on Luck, Meaninglessness of Striving, Fatalism, Belief in an Unjust World) were hierarchically entered in the equation.

As can be seen from Table 79, among demographic variables, initially Number of Siblings (β = .10, t (792) = 2.81, p< .01) entered into equation and explained 1% of the variance ($F\Delta$ [1, 792] = 7.88, p< .01). Subsequent to Number of Siblings, Gender (β = .08, t (791) = 2.29, p< .05) entered into equation and explained variance increased to 2% ($F\Delta$ [1, 791] = 5.24, p< .05). After controlling for the effects of significant demographic variables, among Parental Factors, firstly Overall Paternal Control (β = .30, t (790) = 9.05, p< .001) entered into equation and the explained variance increased to 11% ($F\Delta$ [1, 790] = 81.94, p< .001). With the entrance of Overall Maternal Rejection (β = .21, t (789) = 6.33, p< .001) explained variance increased to 15% ($F\Delta$ [1, 789] = 36.69, p< .001). Next, Overall Paternal Rejection (β = .13, t (788) = 3.45, p< .001) entered into equation and explained variance increased to 16% ($F\Delta$ [1, 788] = 36.69, p< .001). Among Personality Traits, Conscientiousness (β = .35, t (787) = 11.34, p< .001) entered into equation first and the explained variance increased to 28% ($F\Delta$ [1, 787] = 128.63, p < .001). Later on, Neuroticism (β = .25, t (786) = 8.16, p< .001) entered into equation and explained variance increased to 34% ($F\Delta$ [1, 786] = 66.57, p< .001). Lastly, Negative Valence (β = .10, t (785) = 2.91, p< .01) had significant association with perfectionism and explained variance increased to 34% ($F\Delta$ [1, 785] = 8.44, p< .01). Following personality traits, among Locus of Control Factors, initially Belief in an Unjust World (β = .24, t (784) = 8.07, p<

.001) entered into equation and explained variance increased to 40% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 784] = 65.09, $\underline{p}$< .001). After that, with the entrance of Personal Control (β = -.12, $\underline{t}$ (783) = -4.36, $\underline{p}$< .001) explained variance increased to 41% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 783] = 18.97, $\underline{p}$< .001). Finally, Meaninglessness of Striving (β = .16, $\underline{t}$ (782) = 8.81, $\underline{p}$< .001) entered into equation and explained variance increased to 43% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 782] = 23.14, $\underline{p}$< .001).

Table 79. Associates of Overall Perfectionism

Order of Entry	$\underline{\beta}$	$\underline{t}$	Df	FΔ	$\underline{pr}$	R²
I. **Demographic Variables**						
Number of siblings	.10	2.81**	1,792	7.88**	.10	.01
Gender	.08	2.29*	1,791	5.24*	.08	.02
I I. **Parental Attitudes**						
Paternal Control	.30	9.05***	1,790	81.94***	.31	.11
Maternal Rejection	.21	6.33***	1,789	39.69***	.22	.15
Paternal Rejection	.13	3.45***	1,788	11.90***	.12	.16
III. **Personality Traits**						
Conscientiousness	.35	11.34***	1,787	128.63***	.37	.28
Neuroticism	.25	8.16***	1,786	66.57***	.28	.34
Negative Valence	.10	2.91**	1,785	8.44**	.10	.35
IV. **Locus of Control**						
Belief in an Unjust World	.24	8.07***	1,784	65.09***	.28	.40
Personal Control	-.12	-.4.36***	1,783	18.97***	-.15	.41
Meaninglessness of Striving	.16	8.81***	1,782	23.14***	.17	.43

*** $\underline{p}$<.001; ** $\underline{p}$<.01; * $\underline{p}$<.05

Hence, eleven factors (i.e., Number of Siblings, Paternal Control, Maternal Rejection, Paternal Rejection, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, Negative Valence, Belief in an Unjust World, Personal Control, and Meaninglessness of Striving) entered into equation and accounted for 43% of the total variance for perfectionism. Accordingly, being male, having two or more siblings, strict paternal control, high maternal rejection, high paternal rejection, higher levels of conscientiousness, neuroticism and negative valence, having an unjust world belief, and considering striving for targeted goals as meaningless were positively

associated with perfectionism whereas lower levels of personal control was negatively associated with the construct.

3.12.3. Associated Factors for the Symptoms of Psychopathology

The second set of hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine associates of Depression, Anxiety, and Anger separately. Prior to the main factors, socio-demographic variables (i.e., Gender, Age, Number of Siblings, Maternal Education Level, Paternal Education Level and Family Income of the participants) were hierarchically entered in to the equations in the first sequence. After the inclusion of significant socio-demographic variables, Parental Factors (i.e., Overall Maternal Rejection, Maternal Control, Overall Paternal Rejection, and Paternal Control) were hierarchically entered into the equations in the second step. Afterwards, Personality Traits (i.e., Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism and Negative Valence) were hierarchically entered in the equations. After controlling for the effects of higher-order personality constructs, Locus of Control factors (Personal control, Relying on Luck, Meaninglessness of Striving, Fatalism, Belief in an Unjust World) were hierarchically entered in the equations. Finally, Perfectionism Factors (Organization, Concern over Mistakes, Parental Expectations, Personal Standards, Parental Criticism, and Doubts about Actions) were hierarchically entered in the equation in the last step.

3.12.3.1 Associated Factors for Depressive Symptoms

The results of the third hierarchical regression analysis for the depression are presented in Table 80. Accordingly, none of the socio-demographic variables had a significant association with depression. Among the parental factors, Overall Paternal Rejection (β = .29, $\underline{t}$ (792) = 8.65, $\underline{p}$< .001) entered into equation in the first sequence and explained 9% of the variance by itself ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 792] = 74.84, $\underline{p}$< .001). With the entrance of Overall Maternal Rejection (β = .19, $\underline{t}$ (791) = 4.83, $\underline{p}$< .001), explained variance increased to 11% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 791] = 23.29, $\underline{p}$< .001). Afterwards, among Personality Traits, firstly Neuroticism (β = .26, $\underline{t}$ (790) = 7.54,

p< .001) entered into equation and explained variance increased to 17% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 790] = 56.86, p< .001). Later on, Extraversion ($\underline{\beta}$ = -.21, $\underline{t}$ (789) = -6.40, p< .001); Openness to Experience ($\underline{\beta}$ = -.13, $\underline{t}$ (788) = -3.54, p< .001); Conscientiousness ($\underline{\beta}$ = -.09, $\underline{t}$ (787) = -2.94, p< .01), and Agreeableness ($\underline{\beta}$ = .09, $\underline{t}$ (786) = 2.55, p< .01) entered the equation respectively. Hence, increased variance was increased to 21% by the entrance of Extraversion ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 789] = 40.97, p< .001); 22%; by the entrance of Openness to Experience ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 788] = 12.56, p< .01); 23% by the entrance of Conscientiousness ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 787] = 8.66, p< .01) and 24% by the entrance of Agreeableness ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 786] = 6.48, p< .01). After controlling the effects of Personality Traits, among Locus of Control Factors, only Meaninglessness of Striving ($\underline{\beta}$ = .18, $\underline{t}$ (785) = 5.77, p< .001) entered into equation and explained variance increased to 27% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 785] = 33.31, p< .001). Among Perfectionism Factors, Concern over Mistakes ($\underline{\beta}$ = .14, $\underline{t}$ (784) = 4.05, p< .001) entered into equation and explained variance increased to 28% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 784] = 16.42, p< .001). Within the entrance of Doubts about Actions ($\underline{\beta}$ = .09, $\underline{t}$ (783) = 2.45, p< .01), explained variance increased to 29% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 783] = 6.00, p< .01).

Table 80. Associates of the Depressive Symptoms

Order of Entry	$\underline{\beta}$	$\underline{t}$	df	FΔ	pr	R²
I. Demographic Variables						
-						
I I. Parental Attitudes						
Paternal Rejection	.29	8.65***	1,792	74.84***	.29	.09
Maternal Rejection	.19	4.83***	1,791	23.29***	.17	.11
III. Personality Traits						
Neuroticism	.26	7.54***	1,790	56.86***	.26	.17
Extraversion	-.21	-6.40***	1,789	40.97***	-.22	.21
Openness to Experience	-.13	-3.54***	1,788	12.56***	-.12	.22
Conscientiousness	-.09	-2.94***	1,787	8.66**	-.10	.23
Agreeableness	.09	2.55**	1,786	6.48**	.09	.24
IV. Locus of Control						
Meaninglessness of Striving	.18	5.77***	1,785	33.31***	.20	.27
V. Perfectionism						
Concern over Mistakes	.14	4.05***	1,784	16.42***	.14	.28
Doubts about Actions	.09	2.45**	1,783	6.00**	.09	.29

*** p<.001; **p<.01

Hence, ten factors (i.e., Paternal Rejection, Maternal Rejection, Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Meaninglessness of Striving, Concern over Mistakes, and Doubts about Actions) had significantly associated with Depression and accounted for 29% of the total variance. Accordingly, high paternal and maternal rejection, higher levels of neuroticism and agreeableness, considering striving for targeted goals as meaningless, having concern over one's mistakes, and having doubts about one's actions were positively associated with depression whereas higher levels of extraversion, conscientiousness and Openness to Experience were negatively associated with depression.

3.12.3.2. Associated Factors for the Trait Anxiety

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis for the trait anxiety are presented in Table 81. Results revealed that, among demographic variables, firstly Gender ($\beta = -.18$, $\underline{t}$ (792) = -5.00, $\underline{p}< .001$) entered into equation and explained %3 of the variance ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 792] = 24.99, $\underline{p}< .001$). Subsequent to Gender, Family Income ($\beta = -.09$, $\underline{t}$ (791) = -2.51, $\underline{p}< .05$) entered into equation and explained variance increased to 4% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 791] = 6.30, $\underline{p}< .05$). After controlling for the effects of significant demographic variables, among Parental Factors, Overall Paternal Rejection ($\beta = .34$, $\underline{t}$ (790) = 10.47, $\underline{p}< .001$) initially entered into equation and explained 16% of the variance ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 790] = 109.66, $\underline{p}< .001$). Later on, with the entrance of Maternal Rejection ($\beta = .17$, $\underline{t}$ (789) = 4.46, $\underline{p}< .001$), explained variance increased to 18% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 789] = 19.89, $\underline{p}< .001$). Afterwards, among Personality Traits, Openness to Experience ($\beta = -.44$, $\underline{t}$ (788) = -14.72, $\underline{p}< .001$) entered into equation in the first place and explained variance increased to 35% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 788] = 216.73, $\underline{p}< .001$). Later on, Neuroticism ($\beta = .34$, $\underline{t}$ (787) = 12.18, $\underline{p}< .001$), Extraversion ($\beta = -.19$, $\underline{t}$ (786) = -6.14, $\underline{p}< .001$) and Agreeableness ($\beta = .11$, $\underline{t}$ (785) = 4.15, $\underline{p}< .001$) entered into equation respectively. Thus, the explained variance was increased to 45% by the entrance of Neuroticism ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 787] = 148.28, $\underline{p}< .001$); 48% by the entrance of Extraversion ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 787] = 37.64, $\underline{p}< .001$) and 49% by Agreeableness ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1,

785] = 17.25, p< .001). After controlling the effects of broader personality constructs, among Locus of Control Factors, firstly, Meaninglessness of Striving (β = .15, t (784) = 5.81, p< .001) entered into equation and explained variance increased to 50% (FΔ [1, 784] = 33.77, p< .001). Afterwards, with the entrance of Belief in an Unjust World (β = .09, t (783) = 2.93, p< .01), explained variance increased to 51% (FΔ [1, 783] = 8.61, p< .01). Subsequent to Locus of Control Factors, among Perfectionism Factors, Doubts about Actions (β = .23, t (782) = 8.43, p< .001) entered into equation in the first place and explained variance increased to 56% (FΔ [1, 782] = 71.02, p< .001). With the entrance of Concern over Mistakes (β = .14, t (781) = 4.92, p< .001), explained variance increased to 57% (FΔ [1, 781] = 24.17, p < .001). Finally, Personal Standards (β = -.09, t (780) = -2.92, p< .01) entered into the equation in the last step and explained variance increased to 58% (FΔ [1, 780] = 8.54, p< .01).

Table 81. Associates of the Trait Anxiety

Order of Entry		β	t	Df	FΔ	pr	R²
I.	**Demographic Variables**						
	Gender	-.18	-5.00***	1,792	24.99***	-.18	,03
	Family Income	-.09	-2.51*	1,791	6.30*	-.09	,04
II.	**Parental Attitudes**						
	Paternal Rejection	.34	10.47***	1,790	109.66***	.35	.16
	Maternal Rejection	.17	4.46***	1,789	19.89***	.16	.18
III.	**Personality Traits**						
	Openness to Experience	-.44	-14.72***	1,788	216.73***	-.46	.35
	Neuroticism	.34	12.18***	1,787	148.28***	.40	.45
	Extraversion	-.19	-6.14***	1,786	37.64***	-.21	.48
	Agreeableness	.11	4.15***	1,785	17.25***	.15	.49
IV.	**Locus of Control**						
	Meaninglessness of Striving	.15	5.81***	1,784	33.77***	.20	.50
	Belief in an Unjust World	.09	2.93**	1,783	8.61**	.10	.51
V.	**Perfectionism**						
	Doubts about Actions	.23	8.43***	1,782	71.02***	.29	.56

Table 81. Continued

Order of Entry	β	t	Df	FΔ	pr	R²
Concern over Mistakes	.14	4.92***	1,781	24.17***	.17	.57

*** p<.001; ** p<.01

Hence, thirteen factors (i.e., Gender, Family Income, Paternal Rejection, Maternal Rejection, Openness to Experience, Neuroticism, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Meaninglessness of Striving, belief in an Unjust World, Doubts about Actions and Concern over Mistakes) entered into equation and accounted for 58% of the total variance for the Trait Anxiety. Accordingly, being female and having low family income, high paternal and maternal rejection, higher levels of neuroticism and agreeableness, considering striving for targeted goals as meaningless, having belief in an unjust world, having doubts about one's actions, having concern over one's mistakes and having low personal standards were positively associated with trait anxiety whereas higher levels of openness to experience and extraversion, were negatively associated with the construct.

3.12.3.3. Associated Factors for the Trait Anger

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis for Trait Anger are presented in Table 82. The results did not reveal any significant association of the socio-demographic variables with trait anger. Among the Parental Factors, initially Overall Paternal Rejection ($\beta = .26$, $\underline{t}$ (791) = 7.47, $\underline{p} < .001$) entered into equation and explained 6% of the variance ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 791] = 55.74, $\underline{p} < .001$). With the entrance of Paternal Control ($\beta = .13$, $\underline{t}$ (790) = 3.71, $\underline{p} < .001$), explained variance increased to 8% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 790] = 13.78, $\underline{p} < .001$). Later on, Maternal Rejection ($\beta = .11$, $\underline{t}$ (789) = 2.74, $\underline{p} < .01$) entered into equation and increased explained variance to 9% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 789] = 7.49, $\underline{p} < .01$). After controlling for the Parental Factors, among Personality Traits, Neuroticism ($\beta = .52$, $\underline{t}$ (788) = 17.29, $\underline{p} < .001$) entered into equation and explained variance increased to 34% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 788] = 298.79, $\underline{p} < .001$). Afterwards, Openness to Experience ($\beta = .18$, $\underline{t}$ (787) = 6.08, $\underline{p} < .001$) entered into equation and explained variance increased to 37% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 787] = 37.02, $\underline{p} < .001$). Among Locus of Control Factors, firstly Belief in an

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Unjust World (β = .17, $\underline{t}$ (786) = 6.11, $\underline{p}$< .001) entered into equation by increasing the explained variance to 39% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 786] = 37.29, $\underline{p}$< .001). Next, Fatalism (β = .10, $\underline{t}$ (785) = 3.50, $\underline{p}$< .001); Personal Control (β = -.08, $\underline{t}$ (784) = -2.89, $\underline{p}$< .01) and Meaninglessness of Striving (β = .10, $\underline{t}$ (783) = 2.87, $\underline{p}$< .01) entered into equation respectively. Thus, the explained variance was increased to 40% by Fatalism ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 785] = 12.23, $\underline{p}$< .001); 41% by Parental Control ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 784] = 8.35, $\underline{p}$< .01), and 42% by Meaninglessness of Striving ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 783] = 8.26, $\underline{p}$< .01). Finally, among Perfectionism Factors, Concern over Mistakes (β = .17, $\underline{t}$ (782) = 5.59, $\underline{p}$< .001) entered into equation and explained variance increased to 44% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 782] = 30.26, $\underline{p}$< .001).

Table 82. Associates of the Trait Anger

Order of Entry	$\underline{\beta}$	$\underline{t}$	Df	$\underline{F}\Delta$	$\underline{pr}$	R^2
I. **Demographic Variables**						
-						
I I. **Parental Attitudes**						
Paternal Rejection	.26	7.47***	1,791	55.74***	.26	.06
Paternal Control	.13	3.71***	1,790	13.78***	.13	.08
Maternal Rejection	.11	2.74**	1,789	7.49**	.10	.09
III. **Personality Traits**						
Neuroticism	.52	17.29***	1,788	298.79***	.52	.34
Openness to Experience	.18	6.08***	1,787	37.02***	.21	.37
IV. **Locus of Control**						
Belief in an Unjust World	.17	6.11***	1,786	37.29***	.21	.39
Fatalism	.10	3.50***	1,785	12.23***	.12	.40
Personal Control	-.08	-2.89**	1,784	8.35**	.10	.41
Meaninglessness of Striving	.10	2.87**	1,783	8.26**	.10	.42
V. **Perfectionism**						
Concern over Mistakes	.17	5.59***	1,782	30.26***	.19	.44

*** $\underline{p}$<.001; ** $\underline{p}$<.01

Hence, ten factors (i.e., Paternal Rejection, Paternal Control, Maternal Rejection, Neuroticism, Openness to Experience, Belief in an Unjust World,

Fatalism, Personal Control, Meaninglessness of Striving, and Concern over Mistakes) were significantly associated with Trait Anger and together these variables were accounted for 44% of the total variance for the Trait Anger. Accordingly, higher levels of paternal rejection, strict paternal control, higher levels of maternal rejection, neuroticism and openness to experience, having an unjust world belief, being fatalistic, considering striving for targeted goals as meaningless, and having concerns over one's mistakes were positively associated with trait anger, whereas having lower levels of personal control was negatively associated with the construct.

3. 13. Mediation Analyses

The mediator role of Overall Perfectionism on the relationship between Parental Acceptance-Rejection/Control (Maternal Rejection, Maternal Control, Paternal Rejection, and Paternal Control) and Symptoms of Psychopathology (i.e., Depression, Anxiety, and Anger) was examined by following the procedures of Baron and Kenny (1986). According to their "casual steps" approach in testing mediation, first, variation in predictor should significantly account for variability in outcome. Second, after controlling for the predictor the mediator should significantly account for variability in outcome, and the relationship between the predictor and outcome should significantly reduce when the effects of the mediator are controlled. Additionally, the variation in predictor should significantly account for variability in mediator. Thus, these three criteria were tested through six separate mediation analyses in order to examine the mediator roles of perfectionism.

3.13.1. The Mediator Role of Perfectionism between Maternal Factors and Symptoms of Psychopathology

Three separate mediation analyses were employed to examine whether perfectionism had a significant mediator role on the relationship between "Maternal Rejection and Maternal Control" and Depression, Trait Anxiety, and Trait Anger, respectively. In this regard, multiple regression analyses were

employed. In the first step, Maternal Rejection and Maternal Control were forced to enter into the equation as predictors of the specified psychological symptom. In the second step, perfectionism was entered into equation, thus, the association between maternal factors and psychological distress were also examined on this step when the effects of perfectionism was controlled. Later on, another separate regression analysis was employed to see whether Maternal Factors have significant associations with perfectionism. Hence the relationship between significant predictor and the mediator was examined.

3.13.1.1. The Mediator Role of Perfectionism between Maternal Factors and Depressive Symptoms

The mediator role of Perfectionism between Maternal Factors (i.e., Maternal Rejection, Maternal Control) and Depression were tested via multiple regression analyses. Accordingly, in the first step, Maternal Rejection and Maternal Control were entered into the regression equation as the predictors of Depression. Among Maternal factors, Maternal Rejection ($\beta = .30$, $\underline{t}$ (798) = 8.46, $\underline{p} < .001$) has a significant association with Depression and explained 8% of the variance by itself ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [2, 798] = 36.59, $\underline{p} < .001$). On the contrary, Maternal Control did not reveal a significant association with depression level. Later on, Overall Perfectionism ($\beta = .22$, $\underline{t}$ (797) = 6.44, $\underline{p} < .001$) was entered into equation and explained variance increased to 13% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 797] = 41.44, $\underline{p} < .001$). After controlling for the Overall Perfectionism, previously observed relationship between Maternal Rejection and Depression decreased its strength ($\beta = .25$, $\underline{t}$ (797) = 6.98, $\underline{p} < .001$), and the observed decrease was confirmed to be significant by the Sobel test ($\underline{z} = 5.03$, $\underline{p} < .05$).

Finally, in order to complete the mediation analysis, Maternal Rejection should have a significant association with Overall Perfectionism in the third step. Thus, another separate regression analysis was conducted to examine relationship between Maternal Factors and Overall Perfectionism. However, since Maternal Control did not have a significant predictor role on Depression, only Maternal

Rejection ($\underline{\beta}$ = .27, $\underline{t}$ (799) = 7.99, $\underline{p}$< .001) was entered in to equation and explained 7% of variance by itself ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 799] = 63.83, $\underline{p}$< .001).

Table 83. The Summary of the Mediating Regression Analyses for Maternal Factors and Depressive Symptoms

Outcome Variable		Predictors	$\underline{\beta}$	$\underline{t}$	df	$\underline{F}\Delta$	$\underline{pr}$	R^2
Depression	1	Maternal Rejection	.30	8.46***	2,798	36.59**	.29	.08
	2	Maternal Rejection	.25	6.98***	-	-	.24	-
		Overall Perfectionism	.22	6.44***	1,797	41.44***	.22	.13
Overall Perfectionism	3	Maternal Rejection	.27	7.99***	1,799	63.82***	.27	.07

*** $\underline{p}$<.001

Thus, the two regression analysis within the further support of Sobel test indicated that Overall Perfectionism mediate the relationship between Maternal Rejection and Depression. Accordingly, Overall Perfectionism maintains the association between Maternal Rejection and Depression and accounted for the 20% of the association between Maternal Rejection and Depression.
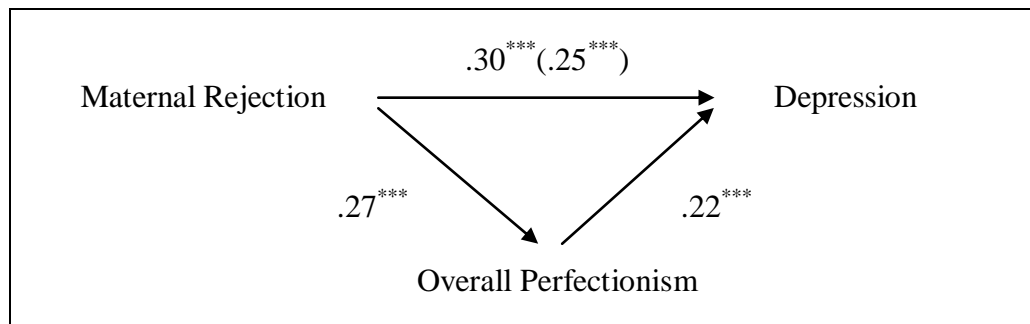

Figure 35. The Mediator Role of Perfectionism between Maternal Rejection and Depressive Symptoms

Reduced Model	Full Model
$F\Delta$ (2, 798) = 36.59, $p < .001$	$F\Delta$ (3, 797) = 39.44, $p < .001$
$R^2 = .08$	$R^2 = .13$

*** p<.001

Note. Summary of the mediation model that include standardized regression coefficients, F values and R^2's for Depression before (Reduced Model) and after (Full Model) the inclusion of the Overall perfectionism as the mediator. The standardized regression coefficient of the initial path between Maternal Rejection and Depression after controlling of the mediator is in parentheses.

Figure 35. Continued

3.13.1.2. The Mediator Role of Perfectionism between Maternal Factors and Trait Anxiety

The mediator role of Perfectionism between Maternal Factors (i.e., Maternal Rejection, Maternal Control) and Trait Anxiety were tested via multiple regression analyses. Accordingly, in the first step, Maternal Rejection and Maternal Control were entered into the regression equation as the predictors of Trait Anxiety. Among Maternal factors, Maternal Rejection (β = .29, t (798) = 8.08, $p< .001$) had a significant association with Trait Anxiety and explained 8% of the variance by itself ($F\Delta$ [2, 798] = 36.38, $p< .001$). On the other hand, Maternal Control did not have a significant association with trait anxiety. Afterwards, Overall Perfectionism (β = .32, t (797) = 9.60, $p< .001$) was entered into equation and explained variance increased to 18% ($F\Delta$ [1, 797] = 92.11, $p< .001$). After controlling for the Overall Perfectionism, previously observed relationship between Maternal Rejection and Trait Anxiety decreased its strength (β = .21, t (797) = 6.13, $p< .001$), and the observed decrease was confirmed to be significant by the Sobel test (z =6.18, p<.05).

Afterwards, in order to fulfill the last criterion to establish mediation, another separate regression analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between Maternal Factors and Overall Perfectionism. However, since Maternal Control did not have a significant predictor role on Trait Anxiety, only Maternal Rejection (β = .27, t (799) = 7.99, $p< .001$) was entered into the equation and explained 7% of variance by itself ($F\Delta$ [1, 799] = 63.83, $p< .001$).

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Table 84. The Summary of the Mediating Regression Analyses for Maternal Factors and Trait Anxiety

Outcome Variable		Predictors	β	t	df	FΔ	pr	R²
Trait Anxiety	1	Maternal Rejection	.29	8.08***	2,798	36.38***	.28	.08
	2	Maternal Rejection	.21	6.13***	-	-	.21	-
		Overall Perfectionism	.32	9.60***	1,797	92.11***	.32	.18
Overall Perfectionism	3	Maternal Rejection	.27	7.99***	1,799	63.82***	.27	.07

*** $p < .001$

Hence, these two regression analyses within the confirmation of the Sobel test indicated that, Overall Perfectionism was identified as the mediator on the relationship between Maternal Rejection and Trait Anxiety. Accordingly, the association between Maternal Rejection and Trait Anxiety is maintained by Overall Perfectionism, and Perfectionism accounted for the 30% of this association.
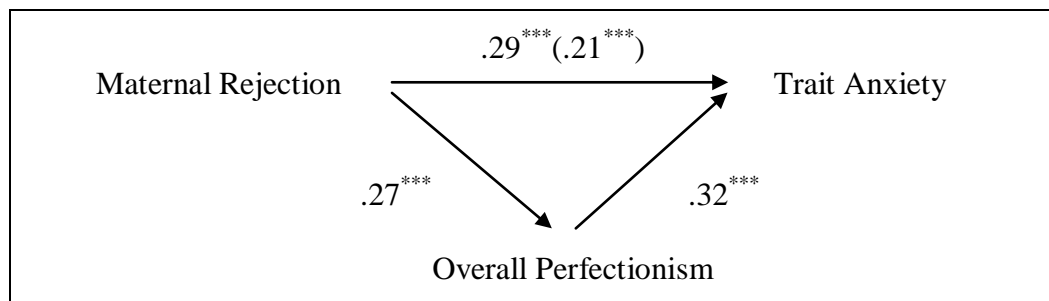
Reduced Model
FΔ (2, 798) = 36.38, p < .001
R² = .08

Full Model
FΔ (3, 797) = 57.72, p < .001
R² = .18

*** $p < .001$

Note. Summary of the mediation model that include standardized regression coefficients, F values and R^2's for Trait Anxiety before (Reduced Model) and after (Full Model) the inclusion of the Overall perfectionism as the mediator. The standardized regression coefficient of the initial path between Maternal Rejection and Trait Anxiety after controlling of the mediator is in parentheses.

Figure 36. The Mediator Role of perfectionism between Maternal Rejection and Trait Anxiety

3.13.1.3. The Mediator Role of Perfectionism between Maternal Factors and Trait Anger

The mediator role of Perfectionism between Maternal Factors (i.e., Maternal Rejection, Maternal Control) and Trait Anger were tested via multiple regression analyses. In the first regression equation, initially Maternal Rejection and Maternal Control were entered into the equation as the predictors of Trait Anger. Among Maternal factors, Maternal Rejection (β = .21, $\underline{t}$ (797) = 5.72, $\underline{p}$< .001) has a significant association with Trait Anxiety and explained 5% of the variance by itself ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [2, 797] = 20.88, $\underline{p}$< .001). On the other hand, Maternal Control did not have a significant association with Trait Anger. Later on, within the entrance of Overall Perfectionism (β = .36, $\underline{t}$ (796) = 10.60, $\underline{p}$< .001), explained variance increased to 16% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 796] = 112.30, $\underline{p}$< .001). After controlling for the Overall Perfectionism, previously observed relationship between Maternal Rejection and Trait Anger decreased its strength (β = .12, $\underline{t}$ (797) = 3.55, $\underline{p}$< .001), and the observed decrease was confirmed to be significant by the Sobel test ($\underline{z}$ =6.52, p<.05).

Later on, another separate regression analysis was conducted to examine relationship between Maternal Factors and Overall Perfectionism in order to fulfill the last criterion of mediation. However, since Maternal Control did not have predictor role on Trait Anger, only Maternal Rejection (β = .27, $\underline{t}$ (799) = 7.99, $\underline{p}$< .001) was entered in to equation and explained 7% of variance by itself ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 799] = 63.83, $\underline{p}$< .001).

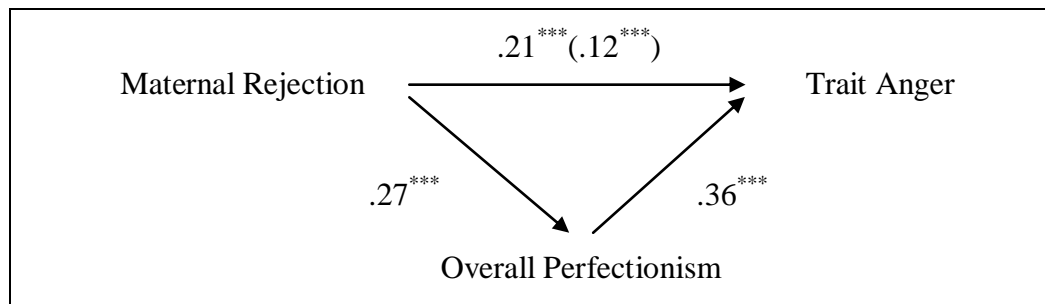**Table 85. The Summary of the Mediating Regression Analyses for Maternal Factors and Trait Anger**

Outcome Variable	Predictors	$\underline{\beta}$	$\underline{t}$	df	$\underline{F}\Delta$	$\underline{pr}$	R²
Trait Anger	**1** Maternal Rejection	.21	5.72***	2,797	20.88***	.20	.05
	2 Maternal Rejection	.12	3.55***	-	-	.12	-

Table 85. Continued

Outcome Variable		Predictors	β	t	df	FΔ	pr	R²
		Overall Perfectionism	.36	10.60***	1,796	112.30***	.35	.16
Overall Perfectionism	**3**	Maternal Rejection	.27	7.99***	1,799	63.82***	.27	.07

*** p<.001

Hence, the two regression analyses within the further support of the Sobel test, Overall Perfectionism was identified as the mediator on the relationship between Maternal Rejection and Trait Anger. Accordingly, the association between Maternal Rejection and Trait Anger is maintained by Overall Perfectionism, and Perfectionism was accounted for the 45% of this association.

Reduced Model	Full Model
FΔ (2, 797) = 20.88, p < .001	FΔ (3, 796) = 53.29, p < .001
R² = .05	R² = .17

*** p<.001

Note. Summary of the mediation model that include standardized regression coefficients, F values and R^2's for Trait Anger before (Reduced Model) and after (Full Model) the inclusion of the Overall perfectionism as the mediator. The standardized regression coefficient of the initial path between Maternal Rejection and Trait Anger after controlling of the mediator is in parentheses.

Figure 37. The Mediator Role of Perfectionism between Maternal Rejection and Trait Anger

3.13.2. The Mediator Role of Perfectionism between Paternal Factors and Symptoms of Psychopathology

Three separate mediation analyses were employed to examine whether perfectionism had a significant role in the relationship between Paternal Rejection and Paternal Control and Depressive symptoms, Trait Anxiety and Trait Anger, respectively. In the first step, Paternal Rejection and Paternal Control were forced to enter the equation as the predictors of specified psychological symptom. In the second step, perfectionism was entered into equation, thus, the association between paternal factors and symptoms of psychopathology were also examined on this step when the effects of perfectionism was controlled. Later on, another separate regression analysis was employed to see whether Paternal Factors have significant associations with perfectionism. Hence, the relationship between significant predictor and the mediator was examined.

3.13.2.1. The Mediator Role of Perfectionism between Paternal Factors and Depressive Symptoms

The mediator role of Perfectionism between Paternal Factors (i.e., Paternal Rejection, Paternal Control) and Depression were tested via multiple regression analyses. In this regard, Paternal Rejection and Paternal Control were forced to enter into regression equation as the predictors of Depression. Among Paternal Factors, Paternal Rejection ($\beta = .29$, $\underline{t}$ (798) = 8.34, $\underline{p}$< .001) had a significant association with Depression and explained 9% of the variance by itself ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [2, 798] = 38.74, $\underline{p}$< .001). However, Paternal Control did not reveal a significant association with depression level. Later, Overall Perfectionism ($\beta = .22$, $\underline{t}$ (797) = 6.09 $\underline{p}$< .001) was entered into equation and explained variance increased to 13% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 797] = 37.11, $\underline{p}$< .001). After controlling the effects of perfectionism, the previously obtained relationship between Paternal Rejection and Depression reduced and this reducement was confirmed as significant via Sobel test ($\underline{z} = 4.91$, $\underline{p}$<.05).

In order to complete the required steps to establish mediation, another separate regression analysis was conducted to examine relationship between Paternal Factors and Overall Perfectionism. However, since Paternal Control did not have predictor role on Depression, only Paternal Rejection (β = .28, t (799) = 8.11, p< .001) was entered in to equation and explained %8 of variance by itself ($F\Delta$ [1, 799] = 65.78, p< .001).

Table 86. The Summary of the Mediating Regression Analyses for Paternal Factors and Depressive Symptoms

Outcome Variable		Predictors	β	t	df	$F\Delta$	pr	R^2
Depression	1	Paternal Rejection	.29	8.34***	2,798	38.74**	.28	.09
	2	Paternal Rejection	.24	6.96***	-	-	.24	-
		Overall Perfectionism	.22	6.09***	1,797	37.11***	.21	.13
Overall Perfectionism	3	Paternal Rejection	.28	7.99***	1,799	65.78***	.28	.08

*** p<.001

Thus, mediation analysis and the Sobel test identified perfectionism as the mediator on the relationship between Paternal Rejection and Depression. Accordingly, the association between Paternal Rejection and Depression is maintained by Overall Perfectionism and Perfectionism was accounted for the 19% of this association.
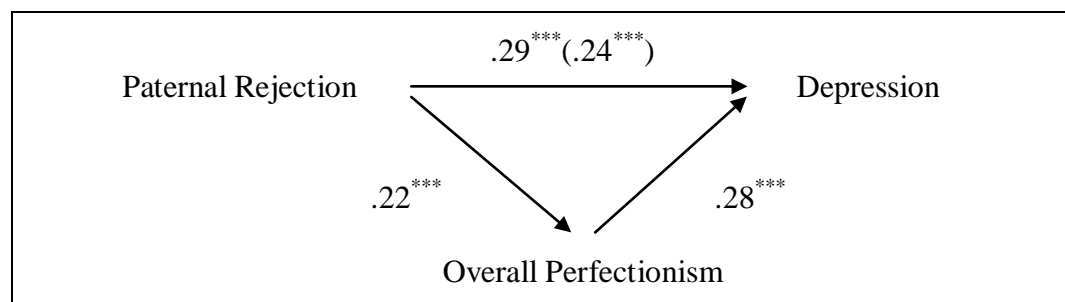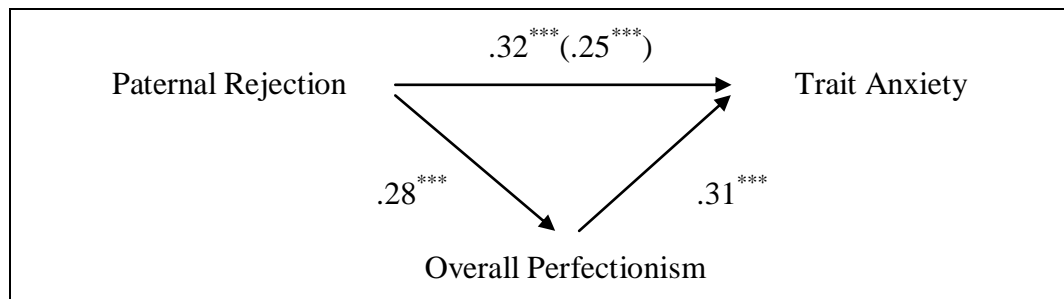

Figure 38. The Mediator Role of perfectionism between Paternal Rejection and Depressive Symptoms

Reduced Model	Full Model
$\underline{F}\Delta$ (2, 798) = 38.74, $\underline{p}$ < .001	$\underline{F}\Delta$ (3, 797) = 39.36, $\underline{p}$ < .001
R^2 = .09	R^2 = .13

*** $\underline{p}$<.001

<u>Note.</u> Summary of the mediation model that include standardized regression coefficients, $\underline{F}$ values and R^2's for Depression before (Reduced Model) and after (Full Model) the inclusion of the Overall perfectionism as the mediator. The standardized regression coefficient of the initial path between Paternal Rejection and Depression after controlling for the mediator is in parentheses.

Figure 38. Continued

3.13.2.2. The Mediator Role of Perfectionism between Paternal Factors and Trait Anxiety

The mediator role of Perfectionism between Paternal Factors (i.e., Paternal Rejection, Paternal Control) and Trait Anxiety were tested via multiple regression analyses. Accordingly, in the first step, Paternal Rejection and Paternal Control were entered into the equation as the predictors of Trait Anxiety. Among Paternal factors, Paternal Rejection (β = .32, $\underline{t}$ (798) = 9.39, $\underline{p}$< .001) has a significant association with Trait Anxiety and explained %11 of the variance by itself ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [2, 798] = 51.33, $\underline{p}$< .001). On the other hand, Paternal Control did not have a significant association with depression level. Afterwards, Overall Perfectionism (β = .32, $\underline{t}$ (797) = 9.60, $\underline{p}$< .001) was entered into equation and explained variance increased to 20% ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 797] = 83.18, $\underline{p}$< .001). After controlling for the Overall Perfectionism, previously observed relationship between Paternal Rejection and Trait Anxiety decreased its strength (β = .25, $\underline{t}$ (797) = 7.59, $\underline{p}$< .001), and the observed decrease was confirmed to be significant by the Sobel test ($\underline{z}$ =6.01, p<.05).

Later on, in order to fulfill the last criterion to establish mediation, another separate regression analysis was conducted to examine relationship between Paternal Factors and Overall Perfectionism. However, since Paternal Control did not have a significant predictor role on Trait Anxiety, only Paternal Rejection (β = .28 $\underline{t}$ (799) = 8.11, $\underline{p}$< .001) was entered in to equation and explained %7 of variance by itself ($\underline{F}\Delta$ [1, 799] = 65.78, $\underline{p}$< .001).

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Table 87. The Summary of the Mediating Regression Analyses for Paternal Factors and Trait Anxiety

Outcome Variable		Predictors	$\underline{\beta}$	$\underline{t}$	df	$\underline{F}\Delta$	$\underline{pr}$	R^2
Trait Anxiety	1	Paternal Rejection	.32	9.38[***]	2,798	51.33[***]	.32	.11
	2	Paternal Rejection	.25	7.59[***]	-	-	.26	-
		Overall Perfectionism	.31	9.12[***]	1,797	83.18[***]	.31	.20
Overall Perfectionism	3	Paternal Rejection	.28	8.11[***]	1,799	65.78[***]	.28	.07

*** $p<.001$

Hence, within the further support of Sobel test, Overall Perfectionism was identified as the mediator on the relationship between Paternal Rejection and Trait Anxiety. Accordingly, the association between Paternal Rejection and Trait Anxiety is maintained by Overall Perfectionism and Perfectionism was accounted for the 25% of this association.

Figure 39. The Mediator Role of Perfectionism between Paternal Rejection and Trait Anxiety

Reduced Model	Full Model
$F\Delta (2, 798) = 51.33$, $p < .001$	$F\Delta (3, 797) = 65.47$, $p < .001$
$R^2 = .11$	$R^2 = .20$

*** $p<.001$

Note. Summary of the mediation model that include standardized regression coefficients, F values and R^2's for Trait Anxiety before (Reduced Model) and after (Full Model) the inclusion of the Overall perfectionism as the mediator. The standardized regression coefficient of the initial path between Paternal Rejection and Trait Anxiety after controlling for the mediator is in parentheses.

Figure 39. Continued

3.13.2.3. The Mediator Role of Perfectionism between Paternal Factors and Anger

The mediator role of Perfectionism between Paternal Factors (i.e., Paternal Rejection, Paternal Control) and Trait Anger were tested via multiple regression analyses. In the first regression equation, Paternal Rejection and Paternal Control were entered into the equation initially as the predictors of Trait Anger. Among Paternal Factors, Paternal Rejection ($\beta = .23$, t (797) = 6.47, $p< .001$) had a significant association with Trait Anger. Subsequent to Paternal rejection, Paternal Control ($\beta = .13$, t (797) = 3.71, $p< .001$) had a significant relationship with Trait Anger. Thus, Paternal Factors explained 8% of the variance ($F\Delta$ [2, 797] = 35.39 $p< .001$). Later on, with the entrance of Overall Perfectionism ($\beta = .34$, t (796) = 9.72, $p< .001$), explained variance increased to 18% ($F\Delta$ [1, 796] = 94.58, $p< .001$). After controlling for the Overall Perfectionism, previously observed relationship between Paternal Rejection and Trait Anger decreased its strength ($\beta = .15$, t (797) = 4.52, $p< .001$) and the observed decrease was confirmed to be significant by the Sobel test (z =6.19, $p< .05$). Furthermore, the relationship between Paternal Control and Trait Anger was diminished ($\beta = .05$, t (797) = 1.34, $p>.05$) when the effects of Overall Perfectionism was controlled and the significance of this reducement was confirmed by the Sobel test (z =5.77, $p< .05$).

In order to fulfill the requirements of the mediation analysis, another separate regression analysis was conducted to examine relationship between

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Paternal Factors and Overall Perfectionism. Among Paternal Factors both Paternal Rejection (β = .22, t (798) = 6.41, p< .001) and Paternal Control (β = .25, t (798) = 7.37, p< .001) had significant relationships with Overall Perfectionism. Hence these two factors explained 13% of the variance ($F\Delta$ [2, 798] = 62.25, p< .001).

Table 88.The Summary of the Mediating Regression Analyses for Paternal Factors and Trait Anger

Outcome Variable		Predictors	β	t	df	$F\Delta$	pr	R^2
Trait Anger	1	Paternal Rejection	.23	6.47[***]	2,797	35.39[***]	.22	.08
		Paternal Control	.13	3.71[***]	2,797	35.39[***]	.13	.08
	2	Paternal Rejection	.15	3.55[***]	1,796	-	.16	-
		Paternal Control	.05	1.34	1,796	-	.05	-
		Overall Perfectionism	.34	9.72[***]	1,796	94.58[***]	.33	.18
Overall Perfectionism	3	Paternal Rejection	.22	6.41[***]	2,798	62.25[***]	.22	.13
		Paternal Control	.25	7.37[***]	2,798	62.25[***]	.25	.13

*** p<.001

Hence, these two regression analyses within the confirmation of the Sobel test indicated that, Overall Perfectionism was identified as the mediator on the relationship between Paternal Rejection and Trait Anger. Accordingly, the association between Paternal Rejection and Trait Anger is maintained by Overall Perfectionism and Perfectionism was accounted for the 45% of this association. Additionally, Overall Perfectionism was also identified as the mediator in the association between Paternal Control and Trait Anger. Thus, the relation between Parental Control and Trait Anger is maintained by Overall Perfectionism and Perfectionism was accounted for the 65% of this association.
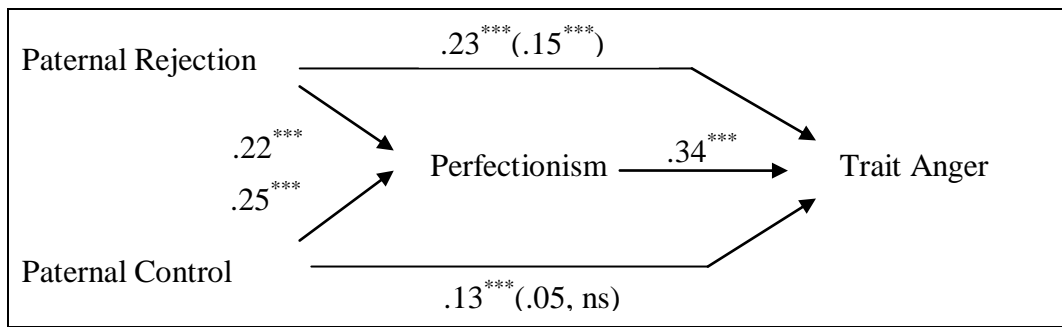
Reduced Model	Full Model
$F\Delta$ (2, 797) = 35.40, $p < .001$	$F\Delta$ (3, 796) = 57.89, $p < .001$
$R^2 = .08$	$R^2 = .18$

*** $p<.001$

Note. Summary of the mediation model that include standardized regression coefficients, F values and R^2's for Trait Anger before (Reduced Model) and after (Full Model) the inclusion of the Overall perfectionism as the mediator. The standardized regression coefficient of the initial path between Paternal Factors and Trait Anxiety after controlling for the mediator is in parentheses.

Figure 40. The Mediator Role of Perfectionism between Paternal Factors and Trait Anger

Table 89. General Summary of the Influence of Demographics on the Measures of the Study

			Socio-Demographic Variables					
			Age	Gender	Number of Siblings	Maternal Education	Paternal Education	Income
Measures of the Study	Maternal PAR/C	Overall Maternal Rejection	n.s.	n.s.	1or no< 2or more	L>H	L>H	n.s.
		M Warmth/Affection	n.s.	F>M	2or more<1 or no	H >L	H >L	n.s.
		M Hostility/Aggression	n.s.	n.s.	1or no< 2or more	L>H	n.s.	n.s.
		M Indifference/Neglect	n.s.	M>F	1or no< 2or more	L>H	L>H	n.s.
		M Undifferntiated Rejection	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	L>H	n.s.	n.s.
		M Control	n.s.	F>M	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
	Paternal PAR/C	Overall Paternal Rejection	n.s.	M>F	n.s.	L>H	L>H	n.s.
		P Warmth/Affection	Y>O	F>M	n.s.	H >L	H >L	H >L
		P Hostility/Aggression	n.s.	M>F	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
		P Indifference/Neglect	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	L>H	n.s.
		P Undifferntiated Rejection	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
		P Control	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
	Personality Traits	Openness to Experience	n.s.	M>F	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
		Conscientiousness	n.s.	n.s.	1or no< 2or more	L>H	n.s.	n.s.
		Extraversion	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
		Agreeableness	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
		Neuroticism	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
		Negative Valence	n.s.	M>F	1or no< 2or more	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.

Table 89. Continued

			Socio-Demographic Variables					
			Age	Gender	Number of Siblings	Maternal Education	Paternal Education	Income
Measures of the Study	Locus of Control	Overall Locus of Control	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
		Personal Control	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
		Relying on Luck	n.s.	F>M	n.s.	H>L	n.s.	n.s.
		Meaninglessness of Striving	n.s.	M>F	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
		Fatalism	n.s.	n.s.	2or more>1 or no	L>H	L>H	L>H
		Belief in an Unjust World	n.s.	M>F	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
	Perfectionism	Overall Perfectionism	n.s.	M>F	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
		Organization	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
		Concern Over Mistakes	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
		Parental Expectations	n.s.	M>F	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
		Personal Standards	n.s.	M>F	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
		Parental Criticism	n.s.	M>F	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
		Doubts about Actions	O>Y	n.s.	n.s.	L>H	n.s.	L>H
	Psy. Symptoms	Depression	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
		Anxiety	n.s.	F>M	n.s.	L>H	L>H	L>H
		Anger	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.

Note. Y: Younger, O: Older, H: High, L: Low, M: Male, F: Female n.s.: not significant
[a]The results of the variance analysis did not revealed any significant interaction effect.

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Table 90. General Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

		OLC	OP	BDI	TAI	TAXI
Socio-Demographic Variables	Age					
	Gender		+		-	
	Number of Siblings		+			
	Maternal Education Level					
	Paternal Education Level					
	Family Income				-	
Parental PAR/C	Maternal Rejection				+	+
	Maternal Control		+			
	Paternal Rejection	+	+	+	+	+
	Paternal Control	+	+	+		+
Personality Traits	Openness to Experience	-		+	-	+
	Conscientiousness		+	-		
	Extraversion			-	-	
	Agreeableness			+	+	
	Neuroticism		+	-	+	+
	Negative Valence	+	+			
Locus of Control	Personal Control		-			-
	Relying on Luck					
	Meaninglessness of Striving		+	+	+	+
	Fatalism					+
	Belief in an Unjust World		+		+	+
Perfectionism	Organization					
	Concern Over Mistakes			+	+	+
	Parental Expectations					
	Personal Standards				-	
	Parental Criticism					
	Doubts about Actions			+	+	
Psy. Symptoms	Depression					
	Anxiety					
	Anger					

Note. OLC: Overall Locus of Control, OP: Overall Perfectionism, BDI: Beck Depression Inventory, TAI: State-Trait Anxiety Inventory- Trait Form score, STAXI: State Trait Anger Inventory- Trait Form score.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The aim of the present study was to investigate the predictive values of parental attitudes (parental warmth, aggression, neglect, undifferentiated rejection, and control), personality traits (openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, neuroticism, and negative valence), locus of control orientation (personal control, relying on luck, meaninglessness of striving, fatalism, and belief in an unjust world) and perfectionism (concern over mistakes, personal standards, organization, parental expectations, parental criticism, and doubts about actions) on symptoms of psychopathology (depressive symptoms, trait anxiety and trait anger). More specifically, the mediating role of perfectionism on the relationship between parental attitudes and symptoms of psychopathology was studied. Furthermore, the influence of demographic variables on the measures of the study and correlations among them were investigated.

With this respect, findings of the present study were discussed in relation with the current literature findings. Later on, the limitations of the study were presented. Finally, therapeutic implications of the present study and suggestions for future research were stated.

4.1 Psychometric Quality of the Frost Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale

Recently, Frost multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (F-MPS) have been frequently used in both clinical and personality research. The fact that the importance of a detailed inspection of the scale's factor structure gains importance due to its increasing popularity was emphasized in the literature (Stöber, 1998). In this regard, current study aimed to examine the factor structure of F-MPS with Turkish university student population.

The factor structure of F-MPS was examined by Frost and colleagues (1990) with two different samples of undergraduate females. In line with their theoretical conceptualization, they recommended six-factor solution for F-MPS. Afterwards, the psychometric properties of the scale were tested via a mixed-gender sample by Parker and Adkins (1995) and in their study; they supported the factor structure of Frost and colleagues (1990). On the other hand, Stöber (1998) claimed that factor structure of F-MPS is unstable and factors display low correlations with each other and explained this instability as the results of the previous factor analyses that revealed too many components. Accordingly, a four-factor solution was recommended as more suitable instead of the six-factor structure. However, the five-factor and the six-factor solutions have gained more support in different studies with the short forms of the F-MPS (see Cox, Enns, Clara, 2002).

Although contradictive findings exist in the current literature, studies conducted with Turkish adolescent samples supported five or six dimensions. To date, Mısırlı-Taşdemir (2003) examined the factor structure of F-MPS with high school students and the six dimensional structure of the original scale was supported in their study. More recently, the factor structure was also examined by Kındap and Sayıl (2010) with an adolescent sample and their mothers. Accordingly, a five dimensional factor structure was obtained with the exclusion of the 4th, 12th, 19th, and 24th items. However, although the factor structure of the original scale was obtained with a sample of university students, Turkish adaptation studies are mainly conducted with adolescents. In this regard, current study utilized factor analysis to explore the factor structure of F-MPS with a sample of Turkish university students. Results revealed a six-factor solution and the relevant findings are consistent with the original work of Frost and colleagues (1990). Furthermore, the obtained factor structure was similar to the previously conducted standardization studies with Turkish adolescents and their parents (Kındap & Sayıl, 2010).

4.2. Findings Regarding the Influence of Socio-Demographic Variables on Measures of the Study

In this part, the influence of socio-demographic variables including gender, age, number of siblings, maternal education level, paternal education level, and family income was examined on all of the measures in the study.

4.2.1. Findings Regarding the Influence of Socio-Demographic Variables on Parental Attitudes

In this part, results related to the differences of demographic variables on overall paternal and maternal acceptance-rejection/control, and more specific factors of parental acceptance-rejection are presented.

In this respect, results regarding overall maternal rejection revealed that age, gender and family income did not reveal differences on maternal rejection, whereas number of siblings and parents' education level did. On the other hand, overall paternal rejection was influenced by gender and parents' education level, whereas age, number of siblings and family income did not have influence on paternal rejection. Thus, since age did not have an influence on the perception of parental attitudes for both parents, the findings suggest that as the individuals grow into adulthood, their perception of parental rejection remains stable. Similarly, Rohner (1986/2000) posits the fact that the detrimental effects of parental rejection extent from childhood into adulthood. Hence, Rohner's attempt to bridge childhood experience with adulthood adjustment gained support in the current study. On the other hand, gender had influence on overall paternal rejection, but not on maternal rejection, suggesting that male participants perceived their fathers as more rejecting compared to female participants. In the literature, there are conflicting evidences on this issue. Some researchers emphasize gender differences (see Akse et al., 2004), whereas others report little or no gender differences (see McLachlan, Zimmer-Gembeck, & McGregor, 2010; Varan, 2005). Although there is no clear consensus of whether gender of the individuals has an influence on parental rejection, the possible gender-of-father by gender-of-child interaction was emphasized within the

current literature (Rohner & Britner, 2002). With this respect, Dwairy (2009) claimed that parental acceptance, and especially parental rejection is related to the parent's and the child's gender. Furthermore, in line with the results of the current study, Dwairy (2009) found that male adolescents are more likely to be rejected by their fathers. In addition to that, maternal and paternal education level seems to be important for the individuals' perception of both paternal and maternal rejection. Accordingly, participants with highly educated fathers and mothers are more likely to be accepted by their parents. As regards to Burrous, Crockenberg, and Leerkes (2009), education enables parents to have a broader perspective on their lives, provide feelings of competence and mastery by improving their cognitive and language skills, and enhance their knowledge of child rearing. Hence, it can be expected that highly educated parents are more likely to display acceptance towards their children due to their abovementioned skills. Additionally, among socio-demographic variables, only gender had influence on maternal control indicating that female participants perceive more behavioral control from their mothers. These findings are consistent with the study of Harma (2008), which was conducted with Turkish adolescents. With this respect, Harma (2008) attributed this difference to the cultural norms about raising a daughter in the Turkish culture, in which parents place more emphasis on having knowledge about activities of their daughters and hence display more overprotection towards them compared to their sons.

Furthermore, demographic variables also had influence on more specific parental factors, namely parental warmth/affection, hostility/aggression, indifference/neglect and undifferentiated rejection. Among demographic variables, age had an influence on only paternal warmth. Accordingly, younger participants perceive more paternal warmth compared to older participants. Two possible explanations can be made to explain this variation. The first explanation is that younger individuals are more prone to be overprotected by their parents compared to older participants, whose independence is more likely to be supported. Thus, since parental control is associated with parental warmth in the collectivist cultures (Kim, 2005); it can be expected for older participants to perceive lower levels of

warmth. The second explanation involves the change in fatherhood concept in recent years. In this regard, although fathers have been considered as the person who rules the roost in the family for a long while, with the effects of the development and the transference of technology, their "distant breadwinner" family role was altered over time (Rohner & Veneziano, 2001). Similarly, in the last decade, the effects of these variations have become noticeable for Turkish fathers, especially those living in metropolitans. Hence, the difference between the age groups in terms of paternal warmth can be attributed to this shift in family role of fathers as well. On the other hand, gender had influence on both maternal and paternal warmth indicating that female participants perceived higher levels of warmth from their parents compared to male participants. Although the family structure has begun to grow different, Turkey is still a country that has the features of both individualistic and collectivist cultures together. Therefore, still some parents expect more obedience from daughters compared to their sons. Hence, parents valued independence for their sons but not for their daughters as a result of Turkey's collectivistic background (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005). Therefore, similar to Japanese fathers, as described by Seto, Becker and Akutsu (2006), Turkish fathers may experience an internal conflict of behaving in line with the cultural norms influenced by masculinity and sex roles or being directly involved with their children. Furthermore, fathers also avoid displaying warmth towards their children, especially their sons due to the possible criticism within their friends, relatives and other members of the related community. Therefore, rather than affectionate relationships, fathers are more likely to adopt an unaffectionate way in their relationship with their children. In addition to that, gender had an influence on maternal neglect and paternal aggression as well. Consistent with the abovementioned features of Turkish culture, sex roles of men requires them to be strong and taking care of themselves. Hence, they are more prone to be neglected by their mothers. On the other hand, since aggression towards sons is somehow more acceptable in the norms of the culture due to its emphasis on masculinity, male participants are more likely to experience more paternal aggression. Apart from that, number of siblings had influence in terms of maternal behaviors. In this regard,

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individuals who had more than two or more siblings tend to perceive lower levels of acceptance and higher levels of aggression and neglect from their mothers. This variation may be due the fact that as the number of children increases, creating sufficient time for taking care of each child becomes more challenging for mothers. Taken into account the fact that a great majority of the participants' mothers live in metropolitans, where mothers usually have a career, having two or more children can be a compelling experience. On the other hand, maternal education level had a significant influence on all maternal factors indicating that highly educated mothers tend to display higher levels of warmth and lower levels of aggression, neglect and undifferentiated rejection. Additionally, maternal education had a significant influence on paternal warmth as well. Similarly, paternal education level had influence on parental warmth and parental neglect from both mothers and fathers, suggesting that participants who had highly educated fathers perceive higher levels of paternal and maternal warmth and lower levels of paternal and maternal neglect. These findings are consistent with the literature that highly educated parents tend to display more positive attitudes towards their children while low educated parents do not because they believe that they are not capable of identifying and fulfilling their children's needs (see Kağıtçıbaşı, 1996; Erkan & Toran, 2010; Dwairy, 2009). Finally, family income had influence only on paternal warmth indicating that higher level of family income is associated with higher levels of parental warmth. Consistent with the findings of the current study, previous findings in the literature revealed the strong connection between socio-economic level of the family and perceived rejection of the individuals. For instance, Erkan and Toran (2010) found that maternal socio-economic level had an influence on maternal acceptance and proposed that mothers from high socio-economic status tend to display higher levels of acceptance towards their children.

4.2.2. Findings Regarding the Influence of Socio-Demographic Variables on Personality Traits

In this part, results related to the influence of demographic variables on personality traits, namely extraversion, conscientiousness, openness to experience, agreeableness, neuroticism, and negative valence are presented.

In this respect, among demographic variables, age did not have an influence on any of the personality traits. Since personality traits were defined as enduring and stable constructs in the literature (McCrea & Costa, 2003; Rantanen et al., 2007), this notion was supported in the present study. On the other hand, gender had an influence on openness to experience and negative valence traits representing that male participants are more prone to be open to new experiences, but at the same time they have more negative attributions about themselves compared to female participants. In the literature, femininity was strongly associated with emotional dimensions, whereas masculinity was not. Moreover, in line with the findings of the current study, masculinity was frequently associated with extraversion and openness to new experiences, whereas femininity was associated with agreeableness and conscientiousness and these findings are consistent in both individualistic cultures and collectivistic cultures (McCrae & Costa, 2003; Zheng & Zheng, 2011). On the other hand, no study regarding the association between being male and scoring high on negative valence can be found in the literature. However, some studies pointed out the strong negative relationship between masculinity and neuroticism, which is another aspect of negative affectivity like negative valence (Zheng & Zheng, 2011). But, since no gender difference was obtained for neuroticism in the present study, the relationship between gender and negative valence can be attributed to the previously mentioned sex role differences between women and men. In this regard, since women are more likely to pay attention to cultural norms and situational factors (Rantanen et al., 2007), they are more likely to rate themselves in a more socially desired way, rather than stating their deficits. Apart from that, number of siblings is another factor, which had effects on conscientiousness and negative valence indicating that participants who had more than two siblings have higher

levels of conscientiousness and negative valence than those has no or one sibling. Besides the number of siblings, educational and socio-economic factors also affect individuals' personality development. In their study Jiao, Ji and Jing (1996) proposed that, since their parents canalize all of their attention on them, only children are more egocentric, whereas children with siblings learn cooperation and taking responsibility as the requirements of communal life because they share their parents' attention with their siblings. Consistent with this notion, in the current study, the participants who have two or more siblings rated themselves as more conscientious, which refers to being orderly, responsible and dependable. On the other hand, they attributed themselves negative features as well. With this respect, since people who have a lower socio-economic level usually have more than two children, this variation may be due to the limited means of these individuals for self-development. Furthermore, maternal education had influence on conscientiousness. Accordingly, participants, who have low educated mothers, rated themselves as high in the conscientiousness dimension. This finding is somehow consistent with the characteristics of the population. Since the data of the study was collected from the leading universities in Turkey, participants from low educated families should have self-sufficiency in order to cope with requirements of their education and hence have self-discipline and responsibility.

4.2.3. Findings Regarding the Influence of Socio-Demographic Variables on Perfectionism

In this part, results related to the influence of demographic variables on overall perfectionism and more specific perfectionism factors, namely concern over mistakes, doubts about actions, organization, personal standards, parental expectations, and parental criticism are presented.

In this regard, among socio-demographic variables, only gender had significant effect on overall perfectionism. Furthermore, gender is the only demographic variable that had an effect on concern over mistakes, parental expectations, personal standards and parental criticism dimensions of perfectionism.

Consistent with the literature, male participants had more perfectionist attitudes, more concern over their mistakes, higher personal standards, higher parental expectations and parental criticism compared to female participants. For instance, Siegle and colleagues (2000) found that male adolescents have more perfectionist tendencies and adopt higher standards than female participants. Furthermore, these findings are supported with Turkish university students as well (Erözkan, 2008). This gender difference between female and male participants can be attributed to the sex-roles of individuals. In this regard, since the burden of parental expectancies is heavier for men due to the above-mentioned cultural features of Turkish Culture, male participants are more likely perceive social pressure to get their independence and hence, receive more parental criticism. This tendency can prompt male participants to set higher standards for themselves. In addition to that, participants' age, maternal education level and family income had influence on having doubts about their actions. Accordingly, older participants and participants that have highly educated mothers and high family income are more likely to have doubts about their actions. This finding is somehow different from the previous findings in the area. For instance, in the study of Hewitt and Flett (1991), it was proposed that individuals from families which have low socio-economic level try to avoid mistakes and tend to display perfectionism due to their need for acceptance and having successful relationship with other people. These results were also validated in Erözkan's (2008) study with Turkish young adults. On the other hand, Frost and colleagues (1990) postulated that perfectionist individuals consider their mistakes equivalent to failure and hence afraid to lose respect. From this point of view, as the individuals get older, they may have fears of losing the respect they have maintained up to now. As expected, these kinds of concerns become more intense for people that have high socio-economic level with more family income and highly educated parents, who can more easily notice their mistakes. Hence, due to all of these reasons, participants of the study who continue their education in leading universities can have doubts about their actions in order to avoid losing respect and disappointing the people around them by making mistakes.

4.2.4. Findings Regarding the Influence of Socio-Demographic Variables on Locus of Control

In this part, results regarding the influence of demographic variables on overall locus of control orientation and more specific factors of locus of control as personal control, relying on luck, fatalism, meaninglessness of striving, and belief in an unjust world are presented.

In this regard, of all the demographic variables, none of them had an influence on overall locus of control. On the other hand, gender had an influence on relying on luck, meaninglessness of striving and belief in an unjust world. In this regard, female participants rely on luck more than male ones, whereas male participants consider striving to achieve their goals as meaningless and believe in unjust world more than female participants. Although Dağ (2002) stated that no gender difference was obtained on overall locus of scale and its subscales in his study, which the scale was developed, the current study's findings about subscales contradict with these results. One possible explanation of this difference would be that since femininity is associated with higher levels of spiritualism (Fiory, 2006), it can be argued that women tend to believe being controlled by more notional powers like chance or faith, whereas men believe being controlled by more concrete and materialistic powers like powerful others. Considering Furnham's (1985) postulation that people who hold a just world belief tend to be more authoritarian, religious, individualistic and conforming and Fiory's (2006) findings that women display higher levels of religiosity and lower levels of internal control together, it can be expected that female participants are more likely to have a just world belief than male participants. Similarly, maternal education was found to be associated with relying on luck as well, suggesting that participants with highly educated mothers rely on luck more than those have low educated mothers. This finding is somehow consistent with the Rohner's (1986/2000) postulation that highly educated mothers more likely to display warmth towards their children and perceived warmth buffers individuals from developing a negative world belief. Hence, participants with highly educated parents are more likely to adopt a just world belief. In addition

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to that, sibling number, parental education and family income had an influence on fatalism. As Kağıtçıbaşı (1996) describes, Turkey is a country, which has religional cultural differences in attitudes regarding individualism, collectivism and religiosity. In low-socio-economic status regions, collectivist and religious attitudes are more common. Furthermore, fatalism is a commonly highlighted issue by both the collectivist culture and Islam religion. According to Fiory (2006), religiosity can be used to increase one's sense of internal control. In this regard, it can be argued that since economic woes reduce the perception of internal control of the individuals, who have low socio-economic status, these individuals are more likely to use collectivist and religious attitudes in order to increase their sense of control.

4.2.5. Findings Regarding the Influence of Socio-Demographic Variables on Symptoms of Psychopathology

In this part, results regarding the influence of demographic variables on symptoms of psychopathology as depressive symptoms, trait anxiety and trait anger are presented.

In this regard, none of the demographic variables had influence on depression and trait anger. However, these findings are not consistent with the literature that emphasizes the influence of gender and socio-economic status on psychopathology (Anlı & Karslı, 2010). One possible explanation for that since participants' scores on measures regarding psychopathological symptoms are mainly within normal boundaries, no difference can be obtained between their socio-demographic characteristics. On the other hand the same notion is not valid for anxiety. Gender, parental education level and family income had influence on trait anxiety indicating that female participants and participants who had low educated parents and low family income reported more trait anxiety. In literature, it was strongly established that females experience more anxiety than males regardless of their age. Consistent with the results of the present study, this notion is also validated in non-western cultures (Abdel-Kahlek & Alansarı, 2004). In contrast, the relationship between anxiety and socioeconomic status was not that

clear. In their study conducted with Turkish university students, Anlı and Karslı (2010) concluded that children who have families from high and low socio-economic levels display more state-trait anxiety than those who have families from middle socio-economic level. On the other hand, De Moor et al. (2009) proposed that family income displays as a concomitant stressor for women with medium or low family income. Therefore, they are more likely to develop symptoms of depression and anxiety in stress conditions.

4.3. Findings Regarding Correlation Coefficients between Groups of Variables

In the present study, Pearson's correlation analysis was conducted to investigate the correlation between demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, number of siblings, paternal and maternal education level, and family income), parental behaviors (i.e., maternal rejection, maternal control, paternal rejection, and paternal control), personality traits (i.e., extraversion, agreeableness, openness to experience, conscientiousness, neuroticism and, negative valence), overall perfectionism, overall locus of control and symptoms of psychopathology (i.e., depressive symptoms, trait anxiety, and trait anger). The correlations between demographic variables and other measures of the study displayed similar patterns as extensively discussed in part 4.2 of this chapter. Consistent with the postulations of PARTheory (Rohner & Veneziano, 2001; Rohner & Khaleque, 2010), maternal and paternal behaviors, especially paternal attitudes were strongly correlated with all of the measures in the study. Although, maternal factors were accepted to be more essential for the individuals' psychological adjustment for a long time in the literature, recent research show that paternal attitudes, especially parental love was considered as essential in the development of children and their later functioning as adults (Rohner & Veneziano, 2001). In this regard, the strong correlations between parental factors and maladaptive personality constructs and symptoms of psychopathology can be expected. Additionally, in line with the literature and hypotheses of the study, correlations between personality constructs and psychopathological symptoms have also displayed an expected pattern, which will be extensively discussed in the following parts.

4.4. Findings Regarding Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses

In the present study, two sets of hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to examine the paths of demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, number of siblings, paternal and maternal education level, and family income), negative parental attitudes (i.e. maternal rejection, maternal control, paternal rejection, and paternal control), personality constructs (i.e. overall locus of control and overall perfectionism) and symptoms of psychopathology (i.e. depressive symptoms, trait anxiety, trait anger) respectively.

In the first set of analyses, the influence of demographic variables, parental attitudes, and personality traits as broader personality constructs (i.e., extraversion, agreeableness, openness to experience, conscientiousness, neuroticism and, negative valence) on two different personality constructs (i.e., external locus of control and overall perfectionism) was examined.

In this regard, initially, the influence of demographic variables, parental attitudes, and personality traits on external locus of control were investigated. Thus, demographic variables, parental attitudes and personality traits were respectively entered into the equation via three steps. Results revealed that none of the demographic variables had an influence on external locus of control. On the other hand, paternal rejection and paternal control predicted external locus of control. Findings regarding parental attitudes largely overlap with the literature, which emphasizes the association between dominance, rejection, criticism and restrictiveness with external locus of control (Katkovski, Crandall, & Good, 1967; Kilmann, 1975). Among personality traits, having negative attribution about oneself and having low levels of openness to experience predicted external locus of control. According to Rogers and Dymond (1954), the psychological freedom is the combination on internal locus of control, openness to experience and ability to be creative. Furthermore, Hjelle (1975) found that women who have higher levels of social interest and self-actualization are more likely to have internal locus of control. Consistent with the postulations made by these researchers, openness to

experience can be associated with lower levels of external control. On the other hand, in a review of Crandall and Crandall (1983), they concluded that internally controlled people have more positive attitudes about achievement and better interpersonal relationships compared to externally controlled individuals. Hence it can be expected that one's negative attitudes about himself or herself can be associated with external locus of control. Moreover, since externally controlled individuals can attribute the responsibility of their deficits to external factors, they might be more likely to feel comfortable with rating themselves as having negative attitudes.

Later on, the influence of demographic variables, parental attitudes, personality traits, and overall locus of control orientation on perfectionism was investigated. In this regard, demographic variables, parental attitudes, personality traits, and overall locus of control were respectively entered into the equation via four steps. Results of the second set of regression analyses revealed that gender and number of siblings had an influence on perfectionism. Accordingly, male participants have higher levels of perfectionist attitudes than female participants. As discussed extensively in part 4.2.3 of this chapter, gender influence can be attributed to the requirements of sex-roles of males that require fulfilling higher expectancies. Moreover, this finding is consistent with the research of both western and non-western cultures (Siegle et. al, 2000; Erözkan, 2008). On the other hand, participants with two or more siblings displayed higher levels of perfectionism in the current study. One possible explanation of this variation might be that individuals with two or more siblings are more likely to adopt perfectionist attitudes in order to be ahead of their siblings due to sibling rivalry. Among parental variables, both maternal and paternal rejection had influence on overall perfectionism. Consistent with the literature findings which associated perfectionism with less parental warmth, affection and higher levels of control (Kawamura, Frost, & Harmatz, 2002; Enns, Cox, & Clara, 2002; Soenens, Elliot et al, 2005), results of the current study suggest that a higher level of parental rejection is associated with perfectionism. Among personality traits, conscientiousness,

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neuroticism and negative valence had an influence on perfectionism. Accordingly, participants who had perfectionist attitudes had higher levels of conscientiousness, neuroticism and negative valence. These findings greatly overlap with the current literature. To date, Stumpf and Parker (2000) proposed that maladaptive aspects of perfectionism are associated with neuroticism, whereas healthy aspects of perfectionism are related to conscientiousness. According to them, since adaptive perfectionists adopt higher standards for themselves, it is more likely for them to have higher levels of conscientiousness. Taking into consideration the fact that similar to neuroticism, negative valence is related to negative outcomes for the individuals' psychological health (Öncül, 2008), it can be expected that negative valence is associated with maladaptive aspect of perfectionism as well. Furthermore, personal control, meaninglessness of striving and belief in an unjust world factors of locus of control orientation had an influence on perfectionism indicating that having higher personal control and an unjust world belief and considering striving for targeted goals as meaningless is associated with perfectionism. These findings are somehow inconsistent with the literature that connects perfectionism with mainly internal control. Although perfectionism is associated with higher levels of personal control in the current study, external control factors, such as meaninglessness of striving and belief in an unjust world have also influenced perfectionism. In literature, Periasamy and Ashby (2002) found that both adaptive and maladaptive perfectionist had higher levels of internal locus of control. Similarly, Hamachek (1978) proposed that since both adaptive and maladaptive perfectionists strive to meet their standards, they are more likely to have internal locus of control. Furthermore, Hewitt and Flett (1991) proposed that the high standards of maladaptive perfectionists are motivated by their need for acceptance; hence, they are more likely to perceive less internal control while evaluating their efforts compared to adaptive perfectionists. On the other hand, although both adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism were associated with internal control in previous studies, Periasamy and Ashby (2002) conclude that maladaptive perfectionists had higher external control in terms of powerful others factor. Similarly, in the current study's findings, unjust world belief and meaninglessness

of striving, which both can be caused by the perception of powerful others, had predicted perfectionism. Thus, it can be argued that since participants of the study perceive that they are controlled by powerful others, they can adopt perfectionist standards to obtain approval.

The second set of regression analyses investigated the influence of demographic variables, parental attitudes, personality traits, overall locus of control orientation and overall perfectionism on symptoms of psychopathology. In this regard, demographic variables, parental attitudes, personality traits and overall locus of control and perfectionism were respectively entered into the equation via five steps.

Results of the regression analyses for depressive symptoms revealed that, none of the demographic variables analyses had an influence on depressive symptoms. On the other hand, both paternal and maternal rejection had influence on depression. In the literature, the strong connection between parental rejection and development of clinical depression and depressed affect was emphasized across cultures (Rohner & Britner, 2002; Reinherz et al., 1999). In line with the findings of the current study, parental rejection was considered as more essential for the development of depression compared to parental control in the literature (Rapee, 1997; Rohner & Khaleque, 2010). Among personality traits, neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, conscientiousness, and agreeableness had influence on depressive symptoms. Hence, individuals who had higher levels of neuroticism or agreeableness and lower levels of openness to experience, conscientiousness or extraversion had depressive symptoms. In the literature, neuroticism was the most frequently cited personality trait that contribute to the development of depression. Moreover, lower levels of extraversion and conscientiousness were also associated with depressive disorders (Kotov et al., 2010; Zinbarg, Uliaszek, & Adler, 2008). Apart from these traits, which were previously mentioned in the literature, results of the current study revealed that agreeableness and openness to new experiences should be considered as essential in the development of depressive symptoms as well. In this regard, it can be expected

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that people who are open to new experiences are more likely to be creative and hence more easily cope with their problems and experience lower levels of depression. However, the finding regarding agreeableness is one of the striking findings of the study. This variability can be explained by the postulations of Useda and colleagues (2007) who stated that since people high in agreeableness barely display negative emotions, they attract less attention from people around them and consequently, have little social support. Furthermore, in the study of Hoth and colleagues (2007) it was found that greater social support was associated with a reducement in the symptoms of depression for people who are high in agreeableness. Thus, it can be concluded that depressive symptoms of agreeable individuals can occur due to the lack of social support. Apart from broader personality traits, only meaninglessness of striving was associated with depression among locus of control factors. In this regard, it can be argued that people who consider striving to achieve their goals as meaningless are more likely to experience depression due to their learned helplessness. Furthermore, concern over mistakes and doubts about actions had influence on depression as well. In the literature, concern over mistakes and doubts about actions subscales of F-MPS are the most frequently associated factors with a variety of psychological symptoms (Enns & Cox, 1999), especially clinical depression and depressed affect (Antony et al., 1998). Hence, the findings of the current study strongly overlap with the previous findings in the area.

Results of the regression analyses for trait anxiety revealed that gender and family income had influence on trait anxiety. Accordingly, being female or having a low family income level is associated with higher levels of trait anxiety. As discussed in part 4.2.5 of this chapter, although the result regarding gender is consistent with the literature, there are contradictory findings on socioeconomic status (Anlı & Karslı, 2010; De Moor et al. 2009). Apart from that, both maternal and paternal rejection but not parental control had an influence on trait anxiety. Although Rapee (1997) associated clinical anxiety with parental rejection and parental control, Rohner and Khaleque (2010) postulated that rather than parental

control, parental acceptance is the essential dimension of parenting that actually had the effect. Thus, results of the study can be considered as expected. Among personality traits, openness to experience, neuroticism, extraversion and agreeableness had influence on trait anxiety. Concordantly, higher levels of neuroticism, agreeableness and lower levels of extraversion and openness to experience are associated with higher levels of trait anxiety. Similarly, Kotov and colleagues (2007) found that lower levels of extraversion and higher levels of neuroticism are related to higher levels of anxiety. In the current study, lower levels of openness to experience and higher levels of agreeableness were found as common personality traits that contribute to the both depression and anxiety though these traits are not frequently cited in the literature. Therefore, it can be argued that this association occurs due to the shared developmental factors that contribute to the development of both anxiety and depression. On the other hand, individuals who consider striving to meet their standards as meaningless or those who believe in an unjust world had higher anxiety level in the current study. In the literature, external locus of control is strongly associated with greater trait anxiety in different samples (Archer, 1979b). Furthermore, the same results were obtained with a Turkish university student sample as well (Arslan, Dilmaç, & Hamarta, 2009). Thus, the results of the study are in line with the related literature. Among perfectionism factors, higher levels of doubts about actions and concern over mistakes, and higher levels of personal standards predicted trait anxiety. Thus, findings regarding concern over mistakes and doubts about actions are consistent with the literature findings (see Enns & Cox, 1999). However, participants of the study who experience trait anxiety reported low personal standards though higher personal standards are generally associated with higher levels of anxiety in the literature (Hewitt & Flett, 1991). One possible explanation for this would be that highly anxious participants of the study might have lower their standards and adopted standards that are more realistic in order to avoid the disappointment caused by a failure.

Results of the regression analyses for trait anger revealed that, none of the demographic variables analyses had an influence on trait anger. However, both maternal and paternal rejection and paternal control had influence on trait anger. Consistent with these findings, current literature emphasizes the relations between less parental acceptance, harsh control and high parental rejection (Houston and Vavak, 1991; Meesters, Muris and Esselink, 1995). Moreover, individuals who have higher levels of neuroticism and higher levels of openness to experience are found to have higher levels of trait anger. According to Sanz, García-Vera, and Magán (2010), neuroticism is a personality trait, which is most frequently associated with trait anger in the literature. However, to our knowledge, openness to experience has not ever been cited as a contributing factor to the development of trait anger. Still, it can be argued that since people who are open to experience are more likely to be involved with sensation-seeking behaviors (Burger, 2004), they may encounter problems related to emotion regulation and hence experience anger. Among locus of control factors, having lower levels of personal control, having belief in an unjust world, being fatalistic, or considering striving for established goals as meaningless had influence on trait anger. Hence, findings of the current study mainly revealed that external control orientation is associated with trait anger. Since external locus of control is strongly related with hostility (Sadowski & Wenzel, 1982; Pefley, 1986), results of the present study seem to be consistent with the previous findings. On the other hand, concern over mistakes is the only perfectionism factor that had influence on trait anger in the present study. To our knowledge, no study has ever examined the relationship between perfectionism conceptualization of Frost and trait anger. However, in the study of Vallance and Dunn (2002) trait anger was highly associated with concern over mistakes factor of perfectionism. Hence, it can be possible that the individuals who have concerns over mistakes display anger due to the frustration they experience while trying to meet their standards (cited in Sinclair, 2003).

4.5. Findings Regarding Mediation Analyses

In the present study the mediator roles of perfectionism between paternal attitudes (i.e., maternal rejection, maternal control, paternal rejection, and paternal control) and symptoms of psychopathology (i.e. Depressive symptoms, trait anxiety, trait anger) were examined.

Results of the mediation analysis regarding depression revealed that both maternal and paternal rejection and perfectionism predicted depressive symptoms. However, maternal control did not have an influence on depressive symptoms of the participants. This finding is somehow consistent with the literature. The link between parental rejection and depressive symptoms are substantially emphasized in different studies (Rohner & Britner, 2002). On the other hand, the effects of parental control are accepted as dependent on culture and religiosity (Ripoll-Núñez, 2009; Rohner & Pettengil, 1985).With this respect, although higher parental control is usually associated with lack of warmth and rejection in individualistic cultures, this notion is usually reversed in collectivist cultures (Rohner & Pettengil, 1985; Kim, 2005). Hence, parental control may not be perceived as a negative parental behavior by the participants of the study because, parental control is accepted as normative in collectivistic cultures. Another possible way to explain this variation might be that since parental rejection is a much more essential dimension of parenting (Rohner & Khaleque, 2010; Rapee, 1997), parental rejection might have had the main effect on depressive symptoms rather than maternal control. On the other hand, the connection between perfectionism and depression seems to be more consistent across cultures (see Enns & Cox, 1999). Furthermore, parental attitudes had an influence on perfectionism. The predictive role of parental attitudes in the development of perfectionism is also investigated (Burns, 1980; Shafran and Mansell, 2001; Enns, Cox, & Clara, 2002, Rice, Lopez, & Vergara, 2005). The result of the mediation analyses revealed that perfectionism mediates the relationship between parental attitudes and depression. Although there is no study that investigated the mediator role of perfectionism between parental rejection and depression, Soenens, Vansteenkiste and colleagues, (2005) proposed that

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perfectionism had a mediator role on the relationship between parental psychological control and depression. Taken into account that Rohner (2010) considers psychological control as a concept, which is "confounded with significant elements of perceived rejection and behavioral control" (personal communication, December 10, 2010), it can be argued that psychological control can be viewed as a concept, which is embedded but unmeasured by the PARQ. Hence, findings of the present study are in line with the research that confirms the mediator role of perfectionism.

Results of the mediation analysis regarding trait anxiety revealed that maternal and paternal rejection, and perfectionism predicted trait anxiety. Although parental control was identified as a related construct for the development of trait anxiety by Rapee (1997), parental control did not have an influence on trait anxiety in the present study. However, since the perception of parental control can be associated with warmth rather than a negative attitude in collectivist cultures, obtained difference can be attributed to previously mentioned essentiality of the parental rejection dimension. On the other hand, findings of the study are in line with the research, which support that maladaptive aspects of perfectionism is related to trait anxiety and more serious anxiety disorders (Shafran & Mansell, 2001). Furthermore, parental attitudes predicted perfectionism tendencies in line with the literature findings (Burns, 1980; Shafran and Mansell, 2001; Enns, Cox, & Clara, 2002, Rice, Lopez, & Vergara, 2005). Thus, mediation analysis revealed that perfectionism mediates the relationship between both maternal and paternal rejection and trait anxiety. Although this relationship has not been examined directly in the literature, some researchers mention the theoretical background. According to Rice, Lopez and Vergara (2005), parental criticism and lower parental expectations lead to internalization of the parent as critical and not caring about their child's accomplishments, and hence, the child experiences anxiety due to his/her intense fears about abandonment and rejection. Moreover, Barrow and Moore (1983) suggested that if the standards are not defined clearly by the parents, the child may adopt perfectionism as the standard. Considering these two

descriptions together, it can be argued that perfectionism originated from neglect, which is an essential part of parental rejection and has a catalyzer role between the relationship of parental rejection and anxiety.

Results of the mediation analysis regarding trait anger revealed that maternal rejection, paternal rejection, paternal control and perfectionism predicted trait anger. In line with the results, lower levels of parental warmth, higher levels of control and punitiveness are associated with trait anger in the literature (Houston & Vavak, 1991; Meesters, Muris, & Esselink, 1995). Different from other psychological symptoms, paternal behavioral control had influence on only trait anger. Although the relationship between parental rejection and anger is well-established, no research emphasizing the relationship between parental control and anger in terms of PARTheory was identified in the literature. However, Helvacı (2010) viewed the construct from the Self-Determination Theory's perspective and accordingly, it was found that fathers' behavioral control is more influential than mothers' for the individuals' self regulation. Furthermore, perceived behavioral control based on conditional regard from fathers is linked to problems related to emotion-control. Under these conditions, it can be expected that the individual's ability to tolerate anger can decrease. On the other hand, mediation analyses indicate that perfectionism mediates the relationship between both paternal and maternal rejection and trait anger. Furthermore, perfectionism also mediates the relationship between paternal control and trait anger. To our knowledge, the mediator roles of perfectionism between parental attitudes and trait anger have not been examined in the literature. On the other hand, Missidline (1963) suggests that children adopt perfectionist standards in order to get acceptance and love from their parents. Thus, since paternal rejection and control is associated with individuals' hostility and aggression in nature (Rohner, 1986/2000), it is possible for these individuals to display greater anger reactions as a result of frustration caused by perfectionist standards.

4.6. Limitations and Strengths of the Study

Although parental rejection is one of the major variables in the study, consistent with the disturbance of the normal population living in Turkey, the sample of the study mainly consisted of participants who perceive acceptance from their parents. Hence, the results might be biased due to this tendency of the Turkish Culture. Moreover, in order to obtain the equal distribution of the participants, demographic variables were characterized into two groups while examining the influence of the demographic variables on the measures of the study. Therefore, the difference between more specific groups regarding number of sibling, parental education and family income (i.e., none sibling group vs. one sibling group, illiterate vs. high school graduate parents) could not be examined. Moreover, since the results of the study are completely based on retrospective self-report measures of the individuals, their responses can be biased and distorted with their current experiences. Furthermore, relying on solely on the perception of the participants can pose problems regarding reliability. On the other hand, although all of the participants are currently continuing their education in leading universities, which can be associated problems related to generalizability, the sample of 801 participants is large enough to examine the relationship between all of the measures of the study.

4.7. Clinical Implications of the Study

Although there is a growing interest in PARTheory in Turkish literature recently, the studies lack emphasizing its effects on personality development from different perspectives than Rohner (1975/2000) has identified within PARTheory. Moreover, since most of the studies focused on the warmth dimension of parenting, the control dimension, which was added to the theory later on, is usually handled as a parental behavior rather than a continuum, which ranges from permissiveness to strictness. In addition, since perception of control differs across eastern and western cultures in the literature, the examination of specific features of Turkish culture,

which has both individualist and collectivist features is also included in the current study. In this regard, the present study was the first study to attempt the examination of parental acceptance-rejection/control and symptoms of psychopathology in relation with a variety of different personality constructs with a cross-cultural point of view.

Thus, the results of the study provide evidence for the developmental origins of adaptive and maladaptive personality traits from the perspective of the Turkish Culture. In this regard, the findings of the current study support the strong connection between parental attitudes, personality traits and symptoms of psychopathology. Based on these results, parental training programs can be developed in order to provide psycho-education about the essentiality of the parental warmth dimension and teach parents how to establish affectionate relationships with their children. Moreover, in contrast with the previous understanding that mainly mothers are mainly responsible for the development of children, current study emphasizes the role of fathers who are also essential for the healthy emotional development of children suggesting that including fathers to the parent education programs is crucial in terms of children's health promotion. Furthermore, by emphasizing the role of early experiences, findings of the study provides evidence for including elements associated with the developmental origins and family interactions into therapeutic practices.

4.8. Future Suggestions

The present study represents associations between negative parental behaviors, maladaptive personality constructs and symptoms of psychology. However, replication of the findings of the study with a more representative sample is essential. With this respect, further research including different assessment techniques such as observation or interview and enhancing the data obtained from participants with different perspectives such as mothers' or fathers' would provide more reliable results rather than retrospective self-report data. Moreover, it could be

better future studies include individuals from a variety of clinical settings and lower socio-economic levels as comparison groups.

In the current study, mediating roles of personality constructs were investigated. However, since there are lots of mediating factors in the relationship between parental factors and psychopathology, personality construct only partially mediated this relationship. Thus, there might be a need to further identify more specific resilience factors in future studies.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INFORMED CONSENT FORM/GÖNÜLLÜ KATILIM FORMU

Değerli Katılımcı,

Bu çalışma, Prof.Dr. Tülin Gençöz danışmanlığında Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Psikoloji Bölümü, Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans programı öğrencisi Psikolog Duygu Yakın tarafından yürütülen bir tez çalışmasıdır. Çalışmanın amacı, katılımcıların ebeveynlerine dair algılarının, kişilik özellikleri ve psikolojik sıkıntılar üzerine etkilerini araştırmaktır. Araştırmaya katılımınız tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Araştırma sırasında sizden alınan bilgiler grup halinde değerlendirileceğinden, sizden kimlik belirleyici bilgiler istenmeyecektir. Cevaplarınız gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacı tarafından bilimsel çalışmalarda kullanılacaktır. Bu anlamda, araştırma sonuçlarından sağlıklı bilgiler edinilebilmesi için soruların samimi bir şekilde doldurulması ve boş bırakılmaması oldukça önemlidir. Anket genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık teşkil edecek soruları içermemektedir. Ancak araştırma sırasında herhangi bir nedenden dolayı rahatsızlık hissederseniz, katılımınızı sonlandırabilirsiniz.

Çalışma sırasında sizden istenen, verilen ölçeği boş madde bırakmamaya özen göstererek samimi bir şekilde doldurmanızdır. Çalışmaya katılım yaklaşık 30 dakika sürecektir. Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için Duygu Yakın'a (E-posta: duygu.yakin@hotmail.com; Tel: 05555174481) ulaşabilirsiz.

Katılımınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman katılımımı sonlandırabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı kullanımını kabul ediyorum.

Katılımcının İmzası   Tarih

Duygu Yakın
Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi
Psikoloji Bölümü

APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM/ DEMOGRAFİK BİLGİ FORMU

01. Cinsiyetiniz: ( ) Kadın   ( ) Erkek

02. Yaşınız:………..

03. Kaç kardeşsiniz?............

04. Ailenizin toplam aylık geliri ne   ( ) 1000 YTL'nin altında
kadardır?   ( ) 1000-3000 YTL arası
                                                 ( ) 3000-5000 YTL arası
                                                 ( ) 5000 YTL üstü

05. Devam etmekte olduğunuz

     Üniversite:………………………
     Aşama: ( )Üniversite öğrencisi
             ( )Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi
             ( ) Doktora Öğrencisi

06. Anneniz ( ) Hayatta ( ) Hayatta değil
         ( ) Öz   ( ) Üvey

07. Babanız ( ) Hayatta ( ) Hayatta değil
         ( ) Öz   ( ) Üvey

08.Eğer anne ve babanız hayatta ise;

     Anne ve babanız ( ) Birlikte ( ) Ayrı
     Cevabınız ayrı ise ne kadar süredir ayrılar?…………

09. Annenizin eğitim   ( ) Okur-yazar değil
                   ( ) Okur-yazar
durumu: ( ) İlkokul mezunu
                   ( ) Ortaokul mezunu
                   ( ) Lise mezunu
                   ( ) Üniversite veya yüksek okul mezunu

10. Babanızın eğitim   ( ) Okur-yazar değil
durumu: ( ) Okur-yazar
                   ( ) İlkokul mezunu
                   ( ) Ortaokul mezunu
                   ( ) Lise mezunu
                   ( ) Üniversite veya yüksek okul mezunu

11. Anne ve babanızla birlikte mi yaşıyorsunuz? ( ) Evet ( ) Hayır

     Cevabınız hayır ise ne kadar süredir ailenizden ayrı yaşıyorsunuz?.............

APPENDIX C

PARQ/C-MOTHER FORM/
EKRÖ/K-ANNE FORMU

Aşağıda annelerin çocuklarına karşı sergiledikleri davranışlarla ilgili bazı cümleler var. Her cümleyi dikkatlice okuyun ve okuduğunuz cümlenin siz çocukken annenizin size karşı göstermiş olduğu davranışları ne kadar iyi anlattığını düşünün. Cevaplarınızı çocukken annenizden beklediğiniz davranışlara göre değil, annenizin size gerçekte gösterdiği davranışlara göre verin.

ANNEM	Hemen Her zaman Doğru	Bazen Doğru	Nadiren Doğru	Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil
1. Benim hakkımda güzel şeyler söylerdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Kötü davrandığımda bana söylenir veya beni azarlardı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Sanki ben hiç yokmuşum gibi davranırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Beni gerçekten sevmezdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Neleri yapıp, neleri yapamayacağımı kesin olarak anladığımdan emin olmak isterdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Planlarımız hakkında benimle konuşur ve benim söyleyeceklerimi de dinlerdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Onun sözünü dinlemediğim zaman beni başkalarına şikayet ederdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Benimle yakından ilgilenirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Dışarıya çıkacağım zaman, eve kesin olarak saat kaçta dönmem gerektiğini bana söylerdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Arkadaşlarımı eve çağırmam için beni cesaretlendirir ve onların güzel vakit geçirmesi için elinden geleni yapardı.	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Hemen Her zaman Doğru	Bazen Doğru	Nadiren Doğru	Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil
ANNEM				
11. Benimle alay eder ve dalga geçerdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. Onu rahatsız etmediğim sürece benimle ilgilenmezdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. Kızdığı zaman bana bağırırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. Bana sürekli olarak nasıl davranmam gerektiğini söylerdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. Benim için önemli olan şeyleri ona anlatabilmemi kolaylaştırırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. Bana karşı sert davranırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. Onun etrafında olmamdan hoşlanırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. Bir çok kuralın olması ve kurallara uyulması gerektiğine inanırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. Bir şeyi iyi yaptığımda, kendimle gurur duymamı sağlardı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. Hakketmediğim zaman bile bana vururdu.	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. Benim için yapması gereken şeyleri unuturdu.	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. Beni büyük bir baş belası olarak görürdü.	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. Bana dilediğim kadar özgürlük tanırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. Beni başkalarına överdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐

ANNEM	Hemen Her zaman Doğru	Bazen Doğru	Nadiren Doğru	Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil
25. Kızdığı zaman beni çok kötü cezalandırırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
26. Sağlıklı ve doğru şeyleri yememe çok dikkat ederdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
27. Bir şeyi nasıl yapmam gerektiğini bana en ince ayrıntısına kadar söylerdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
28. Benimle sıcak ve sevgi dolu bir şekilde konuşurdu.	☐	☐	☐	☐
29. Bana hemen kızardı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
30. Sorularımı cevaplayamayacak kadar meşguldü.	☐	☐	☐	☐
31. Benden hoşlanmıyor gibiydi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
32. İstediğim her yere, ona sormadan gitmeme izin verirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
33. Hak ettiğim zaman bana güzel şeyler söylerdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
34. Çabuk parlar ve öfkesini benden çıkarırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
35. Arkadaşlarımın kim olduğuyla yakından ilgilenirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
36. Bana ne söylendiyse, aynen öyle davranmamdaısrar ederdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
37. Yaptığım şeylerle gerçekten ilgilenirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Hemen Her zaman Doğru	Bazen Doğru	Nadiren Doğru	Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil
ANNEM				
38. Bana bir sürü kırıcı şey söylerdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
39. Ondan yardım istediğimde benimle ilgilenmezdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
40. Başım derde girdiğinde, hatanın bende olduğunu düşünürdü.	☐	☐	☐	☐
41. Dilediğim her akşam dışarı çıkmama izin verirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
42. Bana istenilen ve ihtiyaç duyulan biri olduğumu hissettirirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
43. Onun sinirine dokunduğumu söylerdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
44. Bana çok ilgi gösterirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
45. Yaptığım her şeye karışmak isterdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
46. İyi davrandığım zaman benimle ne kadar gurur duyduğunu söylerdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
47. Beni kırmak için elinden geleni yapardı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
48. Hatırlaması gerekir diye düşündüğüm önemli şeyleri unuturdu.	☐	☐	☐	☐
49. Şayet kötü davranırsam, beni artık sevmediğini hissettirirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
50. Bana yapmam için bazı işler verir ve o işler bitene kadar başka hiçbir şey yapmama izin vermezdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
51. Bana yaptığım şeylerin önemli olduğunu hissettirirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐

ANNEM	Hemen Her zaman Doğru	Bazen Doğru	Nadiren Doğru	Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil
51. Bana yapmam için bazı işler verir ve o işler bitene kadar başka hiçbir şey yapmama izin vermezdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
51. Bana yaptığım şeylerin önemli olduğunu hissettirirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
52. Yanlış bir şey yaptığımda beni korkutur veya tehdit ederdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
53. Benimle zaman geçirmekten hoşlanırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
54. Canım ne isterse yapmama izin verirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
55. Korktuğumda ya da bir şeye canım sıkıldığında, bana yardım etmeye çalışırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
56. Kötü davrandığım zaman beni arkadaşlarımın önünde utandırırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
57. Benden uzak durmaya çalışırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
58. Benden şikayet ederdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
59. Yaptığım her şeyi kontrol etmek isterdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
60. Benim ne düşündüğüme önem verir ve düşündüklerim hakkında konuşmamdan hoşlanırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
61. Ne yaparsam yapayım, diğer çocukların benden daha iyi olduğunu düşünürdü.	☐	☐	☐	☐
62. Bir plan yaparken benim de ne istediğime önem verirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐

ANNEM	Hemen Her zaman Doğru	Bazen Doğru	Nadiren Doğru	Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil
63. Benim için önemli olan şeyleri, kendisine zorluk çıkarsa da, yapmama izin verirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
64. Diğer çocukların benden daha akıllı ve uslu olduğunu düşünürdü.	☐	☐	☐	☐
65. Bakmaları için beni hep başkalarına bırakırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
66. Bana istenmediğimi belli ederdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
67. Yaptığım şeylerle ilgilenirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
68. Canım yandığında veya hasta olduğumda kendimi daha iyi hissetmem için elinden geleni yapardı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
69. Kötü davrandığım zaman benden ne kadar utandığını söylerdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
70. Beni sevdiğini belli ederdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
71. Bana karşı yumuşak ve iyi kalpliydi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
72. Kötü davrandığım zaman beni utandırır veya suçlu hissettirirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
73. Beni mutlu etmeye çalışırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐

PARQ/C- FATHER FORM/
EKRÖ/K-BABA FORMU

Aşağıda annelerin çocuklarına karşı sergiledikleri davranışlarla ilgili bazı cümleler var. Her cümleyi dikkatlice okuyun ve okuduğunuz cümlenin siz çocukken annenizin size karşı göstermiş olduğu davranışları ne kadar iyi anlattığını düşünün. Cevaplarınızı çocukken annenizden beklediğiniz davranışlara göre değil, annenizin size gerçekte gösterdiği davranışlara göre verin

BABAM	Hemen Her zaman Doğru	Bazen Doğru	Nadiren Doğru	Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil
1. Benim hakkımda güzel şeyler söylerdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Kötü davrandığımda bana söylenir veya beni azarlardı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Sanki ben hiç yokmuşum gibi davranırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Beni gerçekten sevmezdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Neleri yapıp, neleri yapamayacağımı kesin olarak anladığımdan emin olmak isterdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Planlarımız hakkında benimle konuşur ve benim söyleyeceklerimi de dinlerdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Onun sözünü dinlemediğim zaman beni başkalarına şikayet ederdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Benimle yakından ilgilenirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Dışarıya çıkacağım zaman, eve kesin olarak saat kaçta dönmem gerektiğini bana söylerdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Arkadaşlarımı eve çağırmam için beni cesaretlendirir ve onların güzel vakit geçirmesi için elinden geleni yapardı.	☐	☐	☐	☐

BABAM	Hemen Her zaman Doğru	Bazen Doğru	Nadiren Doğru	Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil
11. Benimle alay eder ve dalga geçerdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. Onu rahatsız etmediğim sürece benimle ilgilenmezdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. Kızdığı zaman bana bağırırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. Bana sürekli olarak nasıl davranmam gerektiğini söylerdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. Benim için önemli olan şeyleri ona anlatabilmemi kolaylaştırırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. Bana karşı sert davranırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. Onun etrafında olmamdan hoşlanırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. Bir çok kuralın olması ve kurallara uyulması gerektiğine inanırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. Bir şeyi iyi yaptığımda, kendimle gurur duymamı sağlardı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. Hakketmediğim zaman bile bana vururdu.	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. Benim için yapması gereken şeyleri unuturdu.	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. Beni büyük bir baş belası olarak görürdü.	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. Bana dilediğim kadar özgürlük tanırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. Beni başkalarına överdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐

BABAM	Hemen Her zaman Doğru	Bazen Doğru	Nadiren Doğru	Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil
25. Kızdığı zaman beni çok kötü cezalandırırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
26. Sağlıklı ve doğru şeyleri yememe çok dikkat ederdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
27. Bir şeyi nasıl yapmam gerektiğini bana en ince ayrıntısına kadar söylerdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
28. Benimle sıcak ve sevgi dolu bir şekilde konuşurdu.	☐	☐	☐	☐
29. Bana hemen kızardı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
30. Sorularımı cevaplayamayacak kadar meşguldü.	☐	☐	☐	☐
31. Benden hoşlanmıyor gibiydi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
32. İstediğim her yere, ona sormadan gitmeme izin verirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
33. Hak ettiğim zaman bana güzel şeyler söylerdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
34. Çabuk parlar ve öfkesini benden çıkarırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
35. Arkadaşlarımın kim olduğuyla yakından ilgilenirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
36. Bana ne söylendiyse, aynen öyle davranmamdaısrar ederdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
37. Yaptığım şeylerle gerçekten ilgilenirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐

BABAM	Hemen Her zaman Doğru	Bazen Doğru	Nadiren Doğru	Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil
38. Bana bir sürü kırıcı şey söylerdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
39. Ondan yardım istediğimde benimle ilgilenmezdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
40. Başım derde girdiğinde, hatanın bende olduğunu düşünürdü.	☐	☐	☐	☐
41. Dilediğim her akşam dışarı çıkmama izin verirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
42. Bana istenilen ve ihtiyaç duyulan biri olduğumu hissettirirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
43. Onun sinirine dokunduğumu söylerdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
44. Bana çok ilgi gösterirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
47. Yaptığım her şeye karışmak isterdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
48. İyi davrandığım zaman benimle ne kadar gurur duyduğunu söylerdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
47. Beni kırmak için elinden geleni yapardı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
52. Hatırlaması gerekir diye düşündüğüm önemli şeyleri unuturdu.	☐	☐	☐	☐
53. Şayet kötü davranırsam, beni artık sevmediğini hissettirirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
54. Bana yapmam için bazı işler verir ve o işler bitene kadar başka hiçbir şey yapmama izin vermezdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
51. Bana yaptığım şeylerin önemli olduğunu hissettirirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Hemen Her zaman Doğru	Bazen Doğru	Nadiren Doğru	Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil
BABAM				
55. Bana yapmam için bazı işler verir ve o işler bitene kadar başka hiçbir şey yapmama izin vermezdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
51. Bana yaptığım şeylerin önemli olduğunu hissettirirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
53. Yanlış bir şey yaptığımda beni korkutur veya tehdit ederdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
53. Benimle zaman geçirmekten hoşlanırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
54. Canım ne isterse yapmama izin verirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
55. Korktuğumda ya da bir şeye canım sıkıldığında, bana yardım etmeye çalışırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
56. Kötü davrandığım zaman beni arkadaşlarımın önünde utandırırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
57. Benden uzak durmaya çalışırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
58. Benden şikayet ederdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
59. Yaptığım her şeyi kontrol etmek isterdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
60. Benim ne düşündüğüme önem verir ve düşündüklerim hakkında konuşmamdan hoşlanırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
61. Ne yaparsam yapayım, diğer çocukların benden daha iyi olduğunu düşünürdü.	☐	☐	☐	☐
62. Bir plan yaparken benim de ne istediğime önem verirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Hemen Her zaman Doğru	Bazen Doğru	Nadiren Doğru	Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil
BABAM				
63. Benim için önemli olan şeyleri, kendisine zorluk çıkarsa da, yapmama izin verirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
64. Diğer çocukların benden daha akıllı ve uslu olduğunu düşünürdü.	☐	☐	☐	☐
65. Bakmaları için beni hep başkalarına bırakırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
66. Bana istenmediğimi belli ederdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
67. Yaptığım şeylerle ilgilenirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
68. Canım yandığında veya hasta olduğumda kendimi daha iyi hissetmem için elinden geleni yapardı.	☐	☐	☐	☐
69. Kötü davrandığım zaman benden ne kadar utandığını söylerdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
70. Beni sevdiğini belli ederdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
71. Bana karşı yumuşak ve iyi kalpliydi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
72. Kötü davrandığım zaman beni utandırır veya suçlu hissettirirdi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
73. Beni mutlu etmeye çalışırdı.	☐	☐	☐	☐

BASIC PERSONALITY TRAIT INVENTORY/
TEMEL KİŞİLİK ÖZELLİKLERİ ÖLÇEĞİ

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

Örneğin;
Kendimi .... biri olarak görüyorum.

Hiç uygun değil	Uygun değil	Kararsızım	Uygun	Çok uygun
1	2	3	④	5

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

FROST MULTIDIMENSIONAL PERFECTIONISM SCALE/
FROST ÇOK BOYUTLU MÜKEMMELİYETÇİLİK ÖLÇEĞİ

Aşağıda <u>SİZİNLE</u> ilgili bazı ifadeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen bu ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyun ve sizin için ne kadar geçerli olduğunu size uyan rakamı daire içine alarak belirtiniz.	Hiç katılmıyorum	Pek katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Biraz katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
1. Anne-babamın benim için koyduğu hedef ve beklentiler çok yüksekti.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Plan yapmak benim için çok önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Çocukken, işleri en iyi şekilde (mükemmel) yapamadığım için cezalandırılırdım.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Kendim için yüksek standartlar belirlemezsem, ikinci sınıf bir insan olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Anne-babam hiçbir zaman hatalarımı anlamaya çalışmadılar.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Yaptığım her şeye tam anlamıyla hakim olmak benim için önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Düzenli/tertipli biriyim.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Planlı, programlı biri olmak için çaba gösteririm.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Eğer yaptığım işte başarısız olursam, kişi olarak başarısızımdır.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Eğer bir hata yaparsam üzgün olmam gerekir.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Anne-babam benim her şeyde en iyi olmamı istediler.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Birçok insana göre, daha yüksek hedeflerim vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Eğer birisi, bir işi benden daha iyi yaparsa, kendimi o işte tamamen başarısız hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Kısmen başarısız olmam; tamamen başarısız olmam kadar kötü bir şeydir.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Anne babam için sadece üstün başarı iyi bir sonuçtu.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Çabalarımı bir amaca (hedefe) doğru yöneltmede çok iyiyimdir.	1	2	3	4	5

Aşağıda <u>SİZİNLE</u> ilgili bazı ifadeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen bu ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyun ve sizin için ne kadar geçerli olduğunu size uyan rakamı daire içine alarak belirtiniz.	Hiç katılmıyorum	Pek katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Biraz katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
17. Bir işi çok dikkatli yapsam bile, sık sık, o işi çok doğru yapmadığımı hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Yaptığım şeylerde, en iyi olamamaktan nefret ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Çok yüksek hedeflerim vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Anne babam benden mükemmel olmamı beklerlerdi.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Eğer bir şeyde hata yaparsam insanlar, beni olduğumdan daha beceriksiz düşüneceklerdir.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Anne babamın beklentilerini karşılayabildiğim duygusunu hiçbir zaman hissetmedim.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Eğer bir şeyi diğer insanlar kadar iyi yapmazsam, bu benim işe yaramaz bir insan olduğum anlamına gelir.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Kendimle karşılaştırdığımda, diğer insanlar daha düşük yaşam koşullarından memnun gibiler.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Yaptığım işte her zaman iyi olmazsam insanlar bana saygı duymazlar.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Anne babamın, geleceğim hakkındaki beklentileri daima benimkilerden yüksekti.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Düzenli/tertipli biri olmak için çaba gösteririm.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Basit gündelik işleri bile iyi yaptığım konusunda sık sık kuşku duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Düzen ve tertiplilik benim için çok önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Günlük işlerimi yaparken, çoğu insana göre, kendimden daha yüksek performans beklerim.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Planlı biriyim.	1	2	3	4	5

Aşağıda **SİZİNLE** ilgili bazı ifadeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen bu ifadeleri dikkatlice okuyun ve sizin için ne kadar geçerli olduğunu size uyan rakamı daire içine alarak belirtiniz.	Hiç katılmıyorum	Pek katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum	Biraz katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
32. Yaptığım işte genellikle geri kalırım çünkü tekrar tekrar yaptığıma geri dönerim.	1	2	3	4	5
33. Bir şeyi "tam" yapmak çok zamanımı alır.	1	2	3	4	5
34. Ne kadar az hata yaparsam insanlar benden o kadar çok hoşlanacaklardır.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Anne babamın standartlarını karşılayabildiğim duygusunu hiçbir zaman hissetmedim.	1	2	3	4	5

LOCUS OF CONTROL SCALE/
KONTROL ODAĞI ÖLÇEĞİ

Bu anket, insanların yaşama ilişkin bazı düşüncelerini belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Sizden, bu maddelerde yansıtıladüşüncelere ne ölçüde katıldığınızı ifade etmeniz istenmektedir. Bunun için, her maddeyi dikkatle okuyunuz ve o maddede ifade edilen düşüncenin *sizin* düşüncelerinize uygunluk derecesini belirtiniz. Bunun için de, her ifadenin karşısındaki seçeneklerden sizin görüşünüzü yansıtan kutucuğa bir (X) işareti koymanız yeterlidir. "Doğru" ya da "yanlış" cevap diye bir şey söz konusu değildir. Tüm maddeleri eksiksiz olarak ve içtenli l e cevaplayacağınızı umuyor ve araştırmaya yardımcı olduğunuz için çok teşekkür ediyoruz.

	Hiç uygun değil	Pek uygun değil	Uygun	Oldukça uygun	Tamamen uygun
1. İnsanın yaşamındaki mutsuzlukların çoğu, biraz da şanssızlığına bağlıdır.					
2. İnsan ne yaparsa yapsın üşütüp hasta olmanın önüne geçemez.					
3. Bir şeyin olacağı varsa eninde sonunda mutlaka olur.					
4. İnsan ne kadar çabalarsa çabalasın, ne yazık ki değeri genellikle anlaşılmaz.					
5. İnsanlar savaşları önlemek için ne kadar çaba gösterirlerse göstersinler, savaşlar daima olacaktır.					
6. Bazı insanlar doğuştan şanslıdır.					
7. İnsan ilerlemek için güç sahibi kişilerin gönlünü hoş tutmak zorundadır.					
8. İnsan ne yaparsa yapsın, hiç bir şey istediği gibi sonuçlanmaz.					

	Hiç uygun değil	Pek uygun değil	Uygun	Oldukça uygun	Tamamen uygun
9. Birçok insan, rastlantıların yaşamlarını ne derece etkilediğinin farkında değildir.					
10. Bir insanın halen ciddi bir hastalığa yakalanmamış olması sadece bir şans meselesidir.					
11. Dört yapraklı yonca bulmak insana şans getirir.					
12. İnsanın burcu hangi hastalıklara daha yatkın olacağını belirler.					
13. Bir sonucu elde etmede insanın neleri bildiği değil, kimleri tanıdığı önemlidir.					
14. İnsanın bir günü iyi başladıysa iyi; kötü başladıysa da kötü gider.					
15. Başarılı olmak çok çalışmaya bağlıdır; şansın bunda payı ya hiç yoktur ya da çok azdır.					
16. Aslında şans diye bir şey yoktur.					
17. Hastalıklar çoğunlukla insanların dikkatsizliklerinden kaynaklanır.					
18. Talihsizlik olarak nitelenen durumların çoğu, yetenek eksikliğinin, ihmalin, tembelliğin ve benzeri nedenlerin sonucudur.					
19. İnsan, yaşamında olabilecek şeyleri kendi kontrolü altında tutabilir.					
20. Çoğu durumda yazı-tura atarak da isabetli kararlar verilebilir.					

	Hiç uygun değil	Pek uygun değil	Uygun	Oldukça uygun	Tamamen uygun
21. İnsanın ne yapacağı konusunda kararlı olması, kadere güvenmesinden daima iyidir.					
22. İnsan fazla bir çaba harcamasa da, karşılaştığı sorunlar kendiliğinden çözülür.					
23. Çok uzun vadeli planlar yapmak her zaman akıllıca olmayabilir, çünkü bir çok şey zaten iyi ya da kötü şansa bağlıdır.					
24. Birçok hastalık insanı yakalar ve bunu önlemek mümkün değildir.					
25. İnsan ne yaparsa yapsın, olabilecek kötü şeylerin önüne geçemez.					
26. İnsanın istediğini elde etmesinin talihle bir ilgisi yoktur.					
27. İnsan kendisini ilgilendiren bir çok konuda kendi başına doğru kararlar alabilir.					
28. Bir insanın başına gelenler, temelde kendi yaptıklarının sonucudur.					
29. Halk, yeterli çabayı gösterse siyasal yolsuzlukları ortadan kaldırabilir.					
30. Şans ya da talih hayatta önemli bir rol oynamaz.					
31. Sağlıklı olup olmamayı belirleyen esas şey insanların kendi yaptıkları ve alışkanlıklarıdır.					
32. İnsan kendi yaşamına temelde kendisi yön verir.					

	Hiç uygun değil	Pek uygun değil	Uygun	Oldukça uygun	Tamamen uygun
33. İnsanların talihsizlikleri yaptıkları hataların sonucudur.					
34. İnsanlarla yakın ilişkiler kurmak, tesadüflere değil, çaba göstermeye bağlıdır.					
35. İnsanın hastalanacağı varsa hastalanır; bunu önlemek mümkün değildir.					
36. İnsan bugün yaptıklarıyla gelecekte olabilecekleri değiştirebilir.					
37. Kazalar, doğrudan doğruya hataların sonucudur.					
38. Bu dünya güç sahibi bir kaç kişi tarafından yönetilmektedir ve sade vatandaşın bu konuda yapabileceği fazla bir şey yoktur.					
39. İnsanın dini inancının olması, hayatta karşılaşacağı birçok zorluğu daha kolay aşmasına yardım eder.					
40. Bir insan istediği kadar akıllı olsun, bir işe başladığında şansı yaver gitmezse başarılı olamaz.					
41. İnsan kendine iyi baktığı sürece hastalıklardan kaçınabilir.					
42. Kaderin insan yaşamı üzerinde çok büyük bir rolü vardır.					

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	Hiç uygun değil	Pek uygun değil	Uygun	Oldukça uygun	Tamamen uygun
43. Kararlılık bir insanın istediği sonuçları almasında en önemli etkendir.					
44. İnsanlara doğru şeyi yaptırmak bir yetenek işidir; şansın bunda payı ya hiç yoktur ya da çok azdır.					
45. İnsan kendi kilosunu, yiyeceklerini ayarlayarak kontrolü altında tutabilir.					
46. İnsanın yaşamının alacağı yönü, çevresindeki güç sahibi kişiler belirler.					
47. Büyük ideallere ancak çalışıp çabalayarak ulaşılabilir.					

BECK DEPRESSION INVENTORY/
BECK DEPRESYON ENVANTERİ

Aşağıda kişilerin ruh durumlarını ifade ederken kullandıkları bazı cümleler verilmiştir. Her madde, bir çeşit ruh durumunu anlatmaktadır. Her maddeye o ruh durumunun derecesini belirleyen 4 seçenek vardır. Lütfen bu seçenekleri dikkatle okuyunuz. Son iki hafta içindeki (şu an dahil) kendi ruh durumunuzu göz önünde bulundurarak, size en uygun olan ifadeyi bulunuz. Daha sonra, o maddenin yanındaki harfi işaretleyiniz.

1. (a) Kendimi üzgün hissetmiyorum.
   (b) Kendimi üzgün hissediyorum.
   (c) Her zaman için üzgünüm ve kendimi bu duygudan kurtaramıyorum.
   (d) Öylesine üzgün ve mutsuzum ki dayanamıyorum.

2. (a) Gelecekten umutsuz değilim.
   (b) Geleceğe biraz umutsuz bakıyorum.
   (c) Gelecekten beklediğim hiçbir şey yok.
   (d) Benim için bir gelecek yok ve bu durum düzelmeyecek.

3. (a) Kendimi başarısız görmüyorum.
   (b) Çevremdeki birçok kişiden daha fazla başarısızlıklarım oldu sayılır.
   (c) Geriye dönüp baktığımda, çok fazla başarısızlığımın olduğunu görüyorum.
   (d) Kendimi tümüyle başarısız bir insan olarak görüyorum.

4. (a) Her şeyden eskisi kadar zevk alabiliyorum.
   (b) Her şeyden eskisi kadar zevk alamıyorum.
   (c) Artık hiçbir şeyden gerçek bir zevk alamıyorum.
   (d) Bana zevk veren hiçbir şey yok. Her şey çok sıkıcı.

5. (a) Kendimi suçlu hissetmiyorum.
   (b) Arada bir kendimi suçlu hissettiğim oluyor.
   (c) Kendimi çoğunlukla suçlu hissediyorum.
   (d) Kendimi her an için suçlu hissediyorum.

6. (a) Cezalandırıldığımı düşünmüyorum.
   (b) Bazı şeyler için cezalandırılabileceğimi hissediyorum.
   (c) Cezalandırılmayı bekliyorum.
   (d) Cezalandırıldığımı hissediyorum.

7. (a) Kendimden hoşnutum.
   (b) Kendimden pek hoşnut değilim.
   (c) Kendimden hiç hoşlanmıyorum.
   (d) Kendimden nefret ediyorum.

8. (a) Kendimi diğer insanlardan daha kötü görmüyorum.
   (b) Kendimi zayıflıklarım ve hatalarım için eleştiriyorum.
   (c) Kendimi hatalarım için çoğu zaman suçluyorum.
   (d) Her kötü olayda kendimi suçluyorum.

9. (a) Kendimi öldürmek gibi düşüncelerim yok.
   (b) Bazen kendimi öldürmeyi düşünüyorum, fakat bunu yapamam.
   (c) Kendimi öldürebilmeyi isterdim.
   (d) Bir fırsatını bulsam kendimi öldürürdüm.

10. (a) Her zamankinden daha fazla ağladığımı sanmıyorum.
    (b) Eskisine göre şu sıralarda daha fazla ağlıyorum.
    (c) Şu sıralarda her an ağlıyorum.
    (d) Eskiden ağlayabilirdim, ama şu sıralarda istesem de ağlayamıyorum.

11. (a) Her zamankinden daha sinirli değilim.
    (b) Her zamankinden daha kolayca sinirleniyor ve kızıyorum.
    (c) Çoğu zaman sinirliyim.
    (d) Eskiden sinirlendiğim şeylere bile artık sinirlenemiyorum.

12. (a) Diğer insanlara karşı ilgimi kaybetmedim.
    (b) Eskisine göre insanlarla daha az ilgiliyim.
    (c) Diğer insanlara karşı ilgimin çoğunu kaybettim.
    (d) Diğer insanlara karşı hiç ilgim kalmadı.

13. (a) Kararlarımı eskisi kadar kolay ve rahat verebiliyorum.
    (b) Şu sıralarda kararlarımı vermeyi erteliyorum.
    (c) Kararlarımı vermekte oldukça güçlük çekiyorum.
    (d) Artık hiç karar veremiyorum.

14. (a) Dış görünüşümün eskisinden daha kötü olduğunu sanmıyorum.
    (b) Yaşlandığımı ve çekiciliğimi kaybettiğimi düşünüyor ve üzülüyorum.
    (c) Dış görünüşümde artık değiştirilmesi mümkün olmayan olumsuz
        değişiklikler olduğunu hissediyorum.
    (d) Çok çirkin olduğumu düşünüyorum.

15. (a) Eskisi kadar iyi çalışabiliyorum.
    (b) Bir işe başlayabilmek için eskisine göre kendimi daha fazla zorlamam
        gerekiyor.
    (c) Hangi iş olursa olsun, yapabilmek için kendimi çok zorluyorum.
    (d) Hiçbir iş yapamıyorum.

16. (a) Eskisi kadar rahat uyuyabiliyorum.
    (b) Şu sıralarda eskisi kadar rahat uyuyamıyorum.
    (c) Eskisine göre 1 veya 2 saat erken uyanıyor ve tekrar uyumakta zorluk çekiyorum.
    (d) Eskisine göre çok erken uyanıyor ve tekrar uyuyamıyorum.

17. (a) Eskisine kıyasla daha çabuk yorulduğumu sanmıyorum.
    (b) Eskisinden daha çabuk yoruluyorum.
    (c) Şu sıralarda neredeyse her şey beni yoruyor. ,
    (d) Öyle yorgunum ki hiçbir şey yapamıyorum.

18. (a) İştahım eskisinden pek farklı değil.
    (b) İştahım eskisi kadar iyi değil.
    (c) Şu sıralarda iştahım epey kötü.
    (d) Artık hiç iştahım yok.

19. (a) Son zamanlarda pek fazla kilo kaybettiğimi sanmıyorum.
    (b) Son zamanlarda istemediğim halde üç kilodan fazla kaybettim.
    (c) Son zamanlarda istemediğim halde beş kilodan fazla kaybettim.
    (d) Son zamanlarda istemediğim halde yedi kilodan fazla kaybettim.
- Daha az yemeye çalışarak kilo kaybetmeye çalışıyor musunuz?
  EVET ( ) HAYIR ( )

20. (a) Sağlığım beni pek endişelendirmiyor.
    (b) Son zamanlarda ağrı, sızı, mide bozukluğu, kabızlık gibi sorunlarım var.
    (c) Ağrı, sızı gibi bu sıkıntılarım beni epey endişelendirdiği için başka şeyleri düşünmek zor geliyor.
    (d) Bu tür sıkıntılar beni öylesine endişelendiriyor ki, artık başka hiçbir şey düşünemiyorum.

21. (a) Son zamanlarda cinsel yaşantımda dikkatimi çeken bir şey yok.
    (b) Eskisine oranla cinsel konularda daha az ilgiliyim.
    (c) Şu sıralarda cinsellikle pek ilgili değilim.
    (d) Artık, cinsellikle hiçbir ilgim kalmadı.

STATE-TRAIT ANXIETY INVENTORY-TRAIT FORM/
DURUMLUK-SÜREKLİ KAYGI ÖLÇEĞİ- DURUMLUK KAYGI FORMU

Aşağıda kişilerin kendilerine ait duygularını anlatmada kullandıkları bir takım ifadeler verilmiştir. Her ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyun, sonra da **genel olarak** nasıl hissettiğinizi, ifadelerin sağ tarafındaki rakamlardan uygun olanını işaretlemek suretiyle belirtin. Doğru yada yanlış cevap yoktur. Herhangi bir ifadenin üzerinde fazla zaman sarf etmeksizin, **genel olarak** nasıl hissettiğinizi gösteren cevabı işaretleyin.

	Hemen hiç bir zaman	Bazen	Çok zaman	Hemen her zaman
1. Genellikle keyfim yerindedir.	1	2	3	4
2. Genellikle çabuk yorulurum.	1	2	3	4
3. Genellikle kolay ağlarım.	1	2	3	4
4. Başkaları kadar mutlu olmak isterim.	1	2	3	4
5. Çabuk karar veremediğim için fırsatları kaçırırım.	1	2	3	4
6. Kendimi dinlenmiş hissederim.	1	2	3	4
7. Genellikle sakin, kendime hakim ve soğukkanlıyım.	1	2	3	4
8. Güçlüklerin yenemeyeceğim kadar biriktiğini hissederim.	1	2	3	4
9.Önemsiz şeyler hakkında endişelenirim.	1	2	3	4
10. Genellikle mutluyum.	1	2	3	4
11. Her şeyi ciddiye alır ve etkilenirim.	1	2	3	4
12. Genellikle kendime güvenim yoktur.	1	2	3	4

	Hemen hiç bir zaman	Bazen	Çok zaman	Hemen her zaman
13. Genellikle kendimi emniyette hissederim.	1	2	3	4
14. Sıkıntılı ve güç durumlarla karşılaşmaktan kaçınırım.	1	2	3	4
15. Genellikle kendimi hüzünlü hissederim.	1	2	3	4
16. Genellikle hayatımdan memnunumum.	1	2	3	4
17. Olur olmaz düşünceler beni rahatsız eder.	1	2	3	4
18. Hayal kırıklıklarını öylesine ciddiye alırım ki hiç unutmam.	1	2	3	4
19. Aklı başında ve kararlı bir insanım.	1	2	3	4
20. Son zamanlarda kafama takılan konular beni tedirgin eder.	1	2	3	4

**STATE-TRAIT ANGER INVENTORY-TRAIT FORM/
DURUMLUK-SÜREKLİ ÖFKE ÖLÇEĞİ- DURUMLUK ÖFKE FORMU**

Bu bölümde kişilerin kendilerine ait duyguları anlatırken kullandıkları bir takım ifadeler verilmiştir. Her ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyun, sonra da **genel olarak bu durumun sizin için ne kadar doğru olduğunu düşünün** ve ifadelerin sağ tarafındaki sayılar arasında sizi en iyi tanımlayan dereceyi seçerek (X) işareti koyun. Doğru yada yanlış cevap yoktur. Herhangi bir ifadenin üzerinde fazla zaman sarf etmeksizin genel olarak bunun sizi ne kadar tanımladığını gösteren cevabı işaretleyiniz.

1. Beni tanımlamıyor
2. Beni biraz tanımlıyor
3. Beni oldukça tanımlıyor
4. Beni tümüyle tanımlıyor

	Hiç	Biraz	Oldukça	Tümüyle
1. Çabuk parlarım.	1	2	3	4
2. Kızgın mizaçlıyımdır.	1	2	3	4
3. Öfkesi burnunda bir insanım.		2	3	4
4. Başkalarının hataları, yaptığım işi yavaşlatınca kızarım.	1	2	3	4
5. Yaptığım iyi bir işten sonra takdir edilmemek canımı sıkar.	1	2	3	4
6. Öfkelenince kontrolümü kaybederim.	1	2	3	4
7 Öfkelendiğimde ağzıma geleni söylerim.	1	2	3	4
8. Başkalarının önünde eleştirilmek beni çok hiddetlendirir.	1	2	3	4
9. Engellendiğimde içimden birilerine vurmak gelir.	1	2	3	4
10. Yaptığım iyi bir iş kötü değerlendirildiğinde çılgına dönerim	1	2	3	4