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ADOLESCENTS' SELF-DISCLOSURE TO MOTHER: LINKS TO  
ATTACHMENT ANXIETY, AVOIDANCE AND PERCEIVED PARENTING  
STYLE OF THE MOTHER

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Adolescents' Self-Disclosure to Mother: Links to Attachment Anxiety and Avoidance  
and Perceived Parenting Style of the Mother

Ergenlerin Kendilerini Annelerine Açması: Bağlanma Kaygısı ve Kaçınması ile  
Anneden Algılanan Ebeveynlik Tutumu Arasındaki Bağlantılar

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

<b>QAM:</b>	Quartet Attachment Model
<b>SDI:</b>	Self-Disclosure Inventory
<b>PAS:</b>	Parental Attitudes Scale
<b>ECR-RC:</b>	The Experiences in Close Relationships Scale Revised - Middle Childhood Mother Form
<b>SD:</b>	Self-Disclosure
<b>SD-TO:</b>	Self-Disclosure about Thoughts and Opinions
<b>SD-S:</b>	Self-Disclosure about Sexuality
<b>SD-FTA:</b>	Self-Disclosure about Free Time Activities
<b>SD-RL:</b>	Self-Disclosure about Romantic Relationship



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## **ABSTRACT**

Self-disclosure has been found to be the most important source of parental knowledge. The primary aim of this study was to investigate the relationship between perceived parenting style of the mother, attachment anxiety and avoidance and adolescents' self-disclosure to their mothers. The second aim was to examine adolescents' disclosure preferences about various topics to different targets. To accomplish these aims, 108 high school students, from 10<sup>th</sup> and 11<sup>th</sup> grades participated in this study. The demographic information form, Self-Disclosure Inventory, Parental Attitudes Scale and Experiences in Close Relationships Scale Revised - Middle Childhood Mother Form were used as instruments. Multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine how strongly the perceived parenting styles and dimensions of attachment predicted self-disclosure to mother. Results showed that democratic parenting style and attachment avoidance were significant positive predictors of self-disclosure to mother while authoritarian and protective-demanding parenting style and attachment anxiety were not significant predictors of self-disclosure to mother. For exploratory purposes, mediational analyses were conducted. Results revealed a significant indirect effect of democratic mother on total self-disclosure to mother via attachment avoidance and a significant effect of authoritarian mother on self-disclosure to mother via attachment avoidance. Furthermore, two-way repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to investigate how adolescents differ in their self-disclosure on different topics toward different targets. Results showed that adolescents prefer to make disclosures mostly to mother and same-sex friends and the least to fathers about different topics except the topic about "Free-Time Activities". Specifically, on topics about "Sexuality" and "Romantic Relationship" adolescents of both genders preferred same-sex friendships to make self-disclosure. Limitations of the study and future recommendations were discussed.

*Keywords:* Self-Disclosure, Adolescence, Parenting Styles, Attachment Anxiety, Attachment Avoidance

## ÖZET

Kendini açma ebeveynlerin bilgi sahibi olmasının en önemli kaynağıdır. Bu çalışmanın temel amacı annenin algılanan ebeveynlik stili, bağlanma kaygısı ve kaçınması ve ergenlerin kendilerini annelerine açmasını arasındaki bağlantıların incelenmesidir. Çalışmanın ikinci bir amacı da ergenlerin çeşitli konularda farklı hedeflere kendilerini açmaya yönelik nasıl tercihlerinin olduğunu belirlenmesidir. Bu amaçları gerçekleştirmek için, çalışmaya 10. ve 11. Sınıfa giden 108 lise öğrencisi katılmıştır. Demografik bilgi formu, Kendini Açma Envanteri, Ebeveyn Tutumları Ölçeği, Yakın İlişkilerde Yaşantılar Envanteri-Orta Çocukluk ve Erken Ergenlik Dönemi Ölçeği uygulanmıştır. Algılanan ebeveynlik tutumları ve bağlanma boyutlarının anneye açılmayı ne kadar güçlü bir şekilde öngördüğünü belirlemek amacıyla çoklu regresyon analizleri uygulanmıştır. Elde edilen sonuçlara göre, demokratik ebeveynlik stili ve bağlanma kaçınması anneye açılmayı olumlu olarak öngören anlamlı değişkenler olarak bulunurken, otoriter ve koruyucu-istekçi ebeveynlik stilleri ve bağlanma kaygısı anneye açılmayı öngören anlamlı değişkenler olarak bulunmamıştır. Keşifsel nedenlerle, mediasyon analizleri uygulanmıştır. Sonuçlar, annenin demokratik ve otoriter ebeveynlik stillerinin bağlanma kaygısı aracılığıyla anneye kendini açma üzerinde dolaylı etkisinin anlamlı olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Ek olarak, ergenlerin farklı konular hakkında farklı hedeflere kendilerini açarken nasıl değişiklik gösterdiğini incelemek amacıyla iki faktörlü ANOVA analizi uygulanmıştır. Sonuçlar ergenlerin farklı konularda, en çok annelerine ve aynı cins arkadaşlarına açılmayı tercih ettiğini ve “Boş Zaman Aktiviteleri” konusu hariç diğer bütün konularda en az babalarına açılmayı tercih ettiğini göstermektedir. Özellikle “Cinsellik” ve “Romantik İlişki” konularında her iki cinsiyetteki ergenler de kendilerini açmak için aynı cins arkadaşlarını tercih etmişlerdir. Çalışmanın kısıtlılıkları ve gelecek araştırmalar için öneriler tartışılmıştır.

*Anahtar Kelimeler:* Kendini Açma, Ergenlik, Ebeveyn Stili, Bağlanma Kaygısı, Bağlanma Kaçınması

## **INTRODUCTION**

Adolescence is described as a development period that has distinct characteristics, together with psychological changes including increasing autonomy and accelerated changes in cognitive, physical and social areas (Steinberg, 2007).

In adolescence, improved logical thinking, increased idealistic thinking, changes in friendships and increased motivation to gain independence affect the quality of the adolescent-parent relationship importantly (Santrock, 2012). The child-parent relationship is reshaped in adolescence by the adolescent's autonomy desires (Collins, Gleason, Sesma, 1997; Collins, Laursen, Mortensen, Luebker and Ferreira, 1997). As a result, child-parent conflicts increase in adolescence (McKinney and Renk, 2011). Parents' attitudes toward their growing adolescent is crucial at this point. While providing enough physical and psychological space to their adolescents in order to let them fulfill autonomy desires which will affect their own identity, parents should be aware of the fact that their adolescents are not mature enough to do everything on their own (Pathak, 2012). Since they are not yet fully mature and their emotionality level is high, they may be vulnerable to problems such as drug addiction, juvenile delinquency and sexual harassment (Pathak, 2012). Parents who have open lines of communication with their adolescents and thereby have accurate knowledge of their activities may be able to help avert some of these problems.

## **2. LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1. SELF-DISCLOSURE**

Literature says there are three ways for parents to learn their adolescents' life (Kerr & Stattin, 2000 as cited in Pathak, 2012). The first way is parental control in which parents impose rules and restrict their adolescent's freedom without asking them. The second way is parental monitoring in which parents ask their children and

their children's friends for information about their activities. The third way is child disclosure in which the child spontaneously tells them about their free time, school work, secrets, close relationships and whereabouts. Before Stattin and Kerr's study (2000), which showed that child disclosure is the most important source of parents' knowledge, studies focused on parents' monitoring attempts to obtain information about their adolescents' outside life. Since that study, the monitoring literature has changed its focus.

Since "self-disclosure" is one of the most important factors in terms of the clarity, development and sustainability of an interpersonal relationship, it has been a topic of research for many years for social psychologists, clinical psychologists, interpersonal communication experts and others.

### **2.1.1. Definitions of Self-Disclosure**

"Self-disclosure" as a concept was first discussed by Jourard (1958). He indicated that directly conveying feelings, thoughts and wishes is the best way to introduce oneself to another. According to Jourard, the ones who did not disclose to at least one person ignored an opportunity for their personal development and they avoided being known.

As a humanistic psychologist Jourard (1971) states that self-disclosure is a necessity to sustain psychological health. Jourard described self-disclosure, which includes mutually sharing private and personal information, as a behavior that is developed within family and an important part of relationships in adolescence and adulthood (Howe et al, 2000). According to Jourard (1964) in the process of self-disclosure voluntariness is important.

Self-disclosure concept has been expressed in different terms by different scientists. For example, Ricker-Ovsiankina (1956) used "Social Accessibility", and Goffman (1959) used "Verbal Accessibility". These terms are basically similar (Ekebaş, 1994, s.22).

Derlega & Chaiken (1989) describe self-disclosure as an important interactional process in which one person lets another person be recognized (as cited in Kökdemir, 1995).

Self-disclosure was seen earlier as a personality tendency, but later self-disclosure has come to be understood as mutual exchange experience (Çakır, 1994).

Disclosure can be defined as (a) revealing a secret about unacceptable emotions, thoughts and behaviors (Georges, 1995), or (b) without focusing on only traumatic events, revealing information about one's life, emotions, and thoughts. In this study, disclosure is discussed with its second meaning; disclosing about adolescent's life, emotions, and thoughts without necessarily indicating a traumatic or troubling event.

Devito (1995) said self-disclosure can range from more important topics (for example stating depressive mood) to trivial ones (for example telling horoscope). Disclosing about important subjects means that the person feels safe with the other person.

### **2.1.2. Appropriateness of Self-Disclosure**

The quality of the self-disclosure was discussed and it was defended that self-disclosure should be healthy and appropriate. Jourard, (1971) mentioned "indiscriminate self-disclosure" in which a person does not filter thoughts and feelings before revealing them and as a result a person can feel degraded and be harmful toward oneself. So, within interpersonal relationships self-disclosure does not mean expressing all private situations in evidently and in addition if a person does this it can be called "exhibition". As a result, in healthy self-disclosure, a person is expected to disclose an appropriate amount of personal information to appropriate people in an appropriate time and place.

Luft (1969) indicated that appropriate self disclosure should be: reciprocal, a function of a persistent relationship, done appropriate to what happens at that time,

relevant to things happening interpersonally and personally at that time and increasing in small amounts.

### **2.1.3.Theories of Self-Disclosure**

There are theories that explain the role of self-disclosure in the development of interpersonal relationships. These explanations are based on Social Interaction Theory, Social Penetration Theory, Relational Dialectics Theory and Johari Window (Cüceloğlu, 1992).

#### **2.1.3.1. Social Exchange Theory**

According to Social Exchange Theory (Homans, 1958), self-disclosure includes mutual exchange of personal information between individuals. Mutual relationship satisfaction provides relationship stability. So, in the context of continuing relationships, self-disclosure is considered as a social exchange (Emerson, 1976). Hinde (1979) viewed interpersonal relationships as a series of interactions. The focus is not individuals but influences of individuals on each other. Thus, relationships are created by their participants' interactions (Hortaçsu, 2003).

According to this theory, there can be expected and unexpected probable effects of self-disclosure. There is an reciprocal tie between self-disclosure and relationship development. Self-disclosure requires giving meanings to messages, understanding, perceiving and approaching within the limits of expectation that rules change within the relationship in the light of messages. So, as self-disclosure affects the definition, direction, intensity and the nature of the relationship, the nature of the relationship also affects the meaning and consequences of the self-disclosure (Fisher, 1987; Hartley, 1999). At the same time, self-disclosure is a complex process. The greatest reward of self-disclosure is seen in close relationships where both individuals mutually feel understood and see value in the relationship. But sometimes self-disclosure brings risks



of feeling of rejection and insensitivity (Dizmen, 2006). Herolol and Way (1988) indicated that when individuals believe that with the self-disclosure they obtain more positive solutions, they disclose more. Homans (1961) conceptualized social behavior as a “balance” between the “rewards” and the “costs” that interaction provides to the individuals (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1983).

### **2.1.3.2. Social Penetration Theory**

Social Penetration Theory was developed by Altman and Taylor (1973). According to this theory, self-disclosure leads relationships systematically from superficial knowing relationships toward close intimate relationships. Personality is likened to the onion whose core is surrounded by layers, and layers are surrounded by other layers. These layers are divided into three levels according to the personal level: general, semi-private, and private. The outermost layer includes general informations about the person which can be seen by other people. Self-disclosure means others discovering the inner layers of that person which was hidden from others. Interpersonal communication, based on the shared topics, is divided into two dimensions: depth and breadth. The breadth of the topics includes diversity of the spoken topics, while the depth of the topics includes personal levels of the topics. Self-disclosure is mutually increasing from general topics to private ones, from outside to inside, from width to depth (Altman ve Taylor, 1973; Ağlamaz 2006). The width and depth dimensions of self-disclosure behavior that occur between individuals reflect developing closeness (Taylor, 1979; Dizmen, 2006). Individuals who disclose about private and intimate topics are perceived as friendly by others (Aker, 1996).

### **2.1.3.3. Relational Dialectics Theory**

Relational Dialectics Theory claims that relationships include opposing views. From that view, theory approaches openness and closeness, meaningfulness, and protectiveness within the relationship as a dialectical tension. According to this

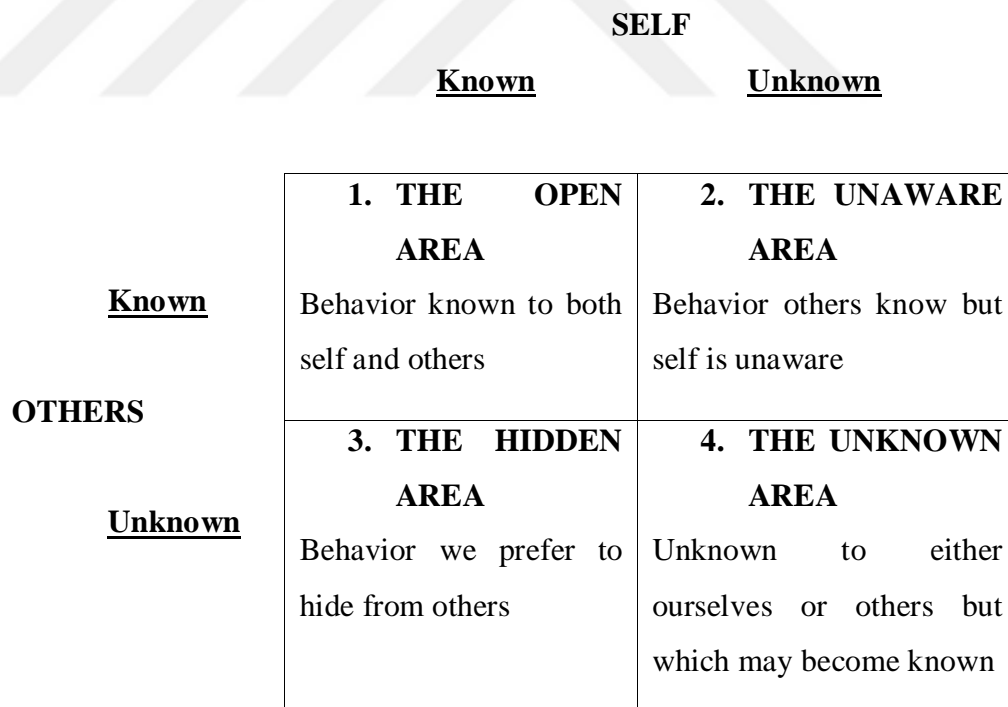
theory, self-disclosure opens the doors to vulnerabilities. To prevent hurting each other, individuals must use protective measures. So, contradiction between open and closed implies individuals' decisions to hide or disclose personal information (Tardy & Dindia, 1997). When communicating, individuals need a balance between privacy need and self-disclosure. By maintaining confidentiality, the degree of being open and closed can be adjusted at a certain level of happiness (Petronio, 2002). This theory emphasizes the necessity of self-disclosure in interpersonal relationships to provide intimacy and trust. In addition, this theory reveals that in self disclosure, awareness of feelings, self, and needs brings trust in high levels (Derlega & Berg, 1987).

Self-disclosure includes dual border which are relationship border and self border and according to these borders, self-disclosure decision is dependent on the individuals' perceived risk level. Rawlins (1983) claimed that if the desire for self-disclosure low and feeling of trust is less, individual fronts to hide himself. So, in self-disclosure behaviors, determination of boundaries, control of information exchange, amount of trust and privacy are related in a complex way.

#### **2.1.3.4. Johari Window**

The "Johari Window" model was developed in the 1950s by American psychologists Joseph Luft (1916-2014) and Harry Ingham (1916-1995). The model has become widely used in counseling to help people understand the relationships that they have and to help improve communication. The model likens knowledge of self and other to a window through which communication flows as we give and receive information about ourselves and from others. It is a framework that includes two dimensions: information that a person knows or does not know about himself and information that others know or do not know about that person. According to this view, personal information is and expressed in the four regions defined by who is aware of the information. Cüceloğlu (2000) argues that humans cannot know everything about themselves because they are trying to get to know themselves and making discoveries

about themselves throughout their lifetime. So, Cüceloğlu called the Johari Window the “Self-Knowledge Window” and explained the openness and the hiddenness of personal information according to the four regions shown in Figure 1. The first part is the “OPEN” area that includes features of individuals known both by himself and others. The second part is the “UNAWARE” area that includes features of the individual not known by himself but known by others. The third part is the “HIDDEN” area that includes features of the individual known by himself but not known by others. The fourth part is the “UNKNOWN” area that include features of individuals not known by himself or by others. As self-disclosure increases, the size of the the “OPEN” field increases. If self-disclosure behavior decreases, the “HIDDEN” area can grow (Cüceloğlu, 2000; Fisher, 1987; Ören, 1981)



**Figure 2.1** Johari Window (Luft, & Ingham, 1955)

#### **2.1.4. The importance of Self-Disclosure**

Jourard (1971) asserted that for psychological health, people should open themselves to others. He also stated that, lower levels of self-disclosure were related to heightened tension and heightened tendency to see others as threats.

Derlega and Chaikin (1975) likewise mentioned that low and high levels of self-disclosure were related to poor adjustment while moderate levels of disclosure were positively related to mental health of individuals. Darlega and Chaikin (1975) also showed in their research that self-disclosure increased self-awareness which in turn helped to have a better view of the person's inner self in the process of describing oneself to others.

Disclosure is considered to be advantageous for many reasons. For providing a chance to gain insight about the experience, obtaining concrete and emotional support, signifying and regulating emotions that are negative, removing negative emotions affects by repeating and exposing, and acting to finish the unpleasant situation via disclosure (Lepore, Greenberg, Bruno, & Smyth, 2002; Sloan & Marx, 2004). In addition, adolescent disclosure to parents is strongly linked to better external adjustment (i.e. less delinquency, and substance use) and internal adjustment (i.e. depressive symptoms) (Hamza & Willoughby, 2011; Keijers, Branje, VanderValk, & Meeurs, 2010).

#### **2.1.5. Research on Self-Disclosure**

Research examining self-disclosure can be classified in two groups a) close relationship researchers who study the sharing of personal feelings and opinions with a variety of close relationship partners (e.g. best friends, romantic partners, family members; Reis & Shaver, 1988; Rotenberg, 1995) and b) parent–adolescent researchers who are interested in what adolescents do (and do not) share with parents about their activities. While the first research group views disclosure as promoting closeness in a

social relationship (Reis & Shaver, 1988), the second type of research interested in parent– adolescent relationship has focused on adolescents’ information management strategies in terms of autonomy development (Darling, Cumsille, Caldwell, & Dowdy, 2006; Finkenauer, Engels, & Meeus, 2002; Finkenauer, Frijns, Engels, & Kerkhof, 2005; Marshall, Tilton-Weaver, & Bosdet, 2005; Smetana, Metzger, Gettman, & Campione-Barr, 2006).

#### **2.1.6. Topics and Targets of Self-Disclosure**

Smetana et al. (2006) conducted a study to investigate adolescents’ disclosure and secrecy with parents about different domains. They found that adolescents felt more compelled to disclose to parents about prudential issues (issues related to an individual’s safety, comfort, or health such as smoking or drinking), and felt less compelled to disclose to parents about personal issues (issues related to an individual’s privacy and preferences that are not controllable by others such as private diaries) than conventional (issues related to social norms such as table or bedtime rules), moral (issues related to others’ welfare and rights such as stealing or hitting) and multifaceted issues (issues that overlap between domains for example tidiness of a teen’s room).

Fişek’s (1995) study showed that disclosures about self and decision were made mostly to father, whereas disclosure about emotions were mostly made to mother.

Gültekin (2000) investigated the relationship between self-disclosure behaviors and identity development of high-school students. Results of the study revealed that girls disclosed more than boys and girls disclosed to same-sex friend and mother more than boys. There were no significant gender differences in disclosing to father and opposite-sex friend. Generally, students disclose more to mother and same-sex friends and about topics such as “pleasure and interests” and “opinions and thoughts” while disclosing less about “sexuality”.

### **2.1.7. Self-Disclosure to Mother**

Research conducted by Guilamo-Ramos, Jaccard, Dittus and Bouris (2006) demonstrated that young adolescents' perceptions of their mothers' availability and reliability were associated with high levels of communication between child and parent. Martin, Kim and Freyd (2017) examined the link between maternal distress, emotion validation and adolescent disclosure of distressing experiences. They found that adolescents can moderate what information and the amount of detail they share with mothers depend on their mothers' abilities to listen to their disclosures without becoming irritated. When adolescents think that their mothers would be less confirming and approving of their disclosure, they concealed the most important parts of the event from their mothers.

Hare, Marston and Allen (2011) conducted a study to show that maternal acceptance is predictive of emotional disclosure over time. They found that, during early adolescence, adolescents who perceive their mothers as more accepting display greater relative increases in both self-reported emotional communication and observed emotional disclosure to their mothers 3 years later. Their results suggest that mother-adolescent relationship is not only associated with adolescents' information sharing about their everyday activities and whereabouts, but also important for promoting adolescents to share emotional issues too.

Chaparro and Grusec (2003) found that mothers who discuss mildly distressing or anxiety provoking experiences with their children have children who are more prone to discuss their own negative experiences with their mothers.

Uraloğlu (2017) investigated the relationship between adolescents' disclosure and secrecy behaviors and their psychological well-being. She found that higher disclosure to mother predicted higher life satisfaction but lower problem solving confidence. More disclosing and less secrecy were linked to spending leisure time with the family (Keijsers et al., 2010) and good relationships with the mother (Solis, Smetana, & Comer, 2015).

Research done by Almas, Grusec and Tackett (2011) revealed that maternal anger was related to secrecy whereas encouraging communication, taking the child's perspective and being sensitive to wishes and needs were positively linked to child's disclosure. In addition, in the authoritarian family environment, adolescents can not find suitable climate that encourages sharing with support and therefore they disclose less.

### **2.1.8. Self-Disclosure in Friendships**

Bowker, Thomas, Norman, and Spencer (2011) revealed that the most significant relationships for adolescents are friendships, when compared to other relationships with siblings, parents and others. In adolescence, due to benefits of friendships such as being a source of emotional support and secure base for identity formation and self-exploration (Buhrmester, 1990; Parker & Gottman, 1989), lack of intimate friendships may create stress as the youngster may feel devoid of an important source of coping, cooperation and social support (Parker, Rubin, Price, & DeRosier, 1995; Sullivan, 1953).

In adolescence, self-disclosure has been identified with several favorable friendship features and skills, like emotional closeness (Camarena, Sarigiani, & Petersen, 1990; McNelles & Connolly, 1999; Rose, 2002), friendship satisfaction (Reisman, 1990), and friendship quality (Rose, 2002), friendship initiation skills (Buhrmester, Furman, Wittenberg, & Reis, 1988), and emotional support (Simpkins, Parke, Flyr, & Wild, 2006). Buhrmester & Prager (1995) showed that adolescents see mutual disclosure of intimate topics as an indication of value in a friendship. Fidelity, mutual commitment and trust are important factors for developing intimacy in friendships and being able to self-disclose is helpful in making friends (Laursen, 1993).

Adolescents who characterized their friendships as humane, fulfilling and disclosing, reported being more friendly, more adequate, less hostile, less anxious and depressed, and having higher self-esteem when compared to peers engaged in less intimate friendships (Buhrmester, 1990).

In 2013, Frijns, Finkenauer, and Keijsers's research investigated the importance of friends' role in sharing secrets. Results showed that adolescents mostly had shared secrets, and they preferred to share their secrets with their friends and friends as advisors. Parents were told secrets after friends.

It was found that while both girls and boys disclose more to same-sex friends compared to opposite-sex friends, girls also disclose more to same-sex friends than boys, and they disclose more on topics that are related to personality and interests while boys disclose more on topics that are related to attitudes and opinions (Mulcahy, 1973 as cited in Öz, 1999).

## **2.2. ATTACHMENT**

### **2.2.1. Bowlby's Attachment Theory**

From the evolutionary perspective, attachment is an evolved psychological mechanism that helps human babies to survive during the time they need care (Robertson and Bowlby 1952, Bowlby 1973). Survival of offspring means protecting the individual's own genes so caregiving is essential for these vulnerable babies. With the investigation of the relationship between mother and baby, scientists firstly assumed that a child feels emotionally connected to the mother based on the experience of feeding, but later it was understood that the baby needs to experience a close, warm and dependable relationship with the mother (Bowlby, 1952, 1988). Bowlby (1952) stated that in that special relationship, both mother and child should experience joy and pleasure. Ainsworth (1967) stated that emotional closeness between mother and a baby occurs as a consequence of the relationship they form in the home. Bowlby called these feelings of closeness "attachment" (Bowlby, 1973,1980). Attachment is a strong desire to search for closeness or to build a relationship with a figure when the person is scared, tired or sick (Bowlby 1980,1982).

Attachment has three main functions called "closeness", "safe base", and "safe shelter". When babies get frightened or feel vulnerable they want to maintain physical



closeness with the attachment figure, increasing the sense of security. Babies need an attachment figure as a safe shelter when they try to explore around the environment and when they feel scared. When a baby has a safe shelter to return to in dangerous or threatening situations, he/she feels comfortable in exploring the environment.

Bowlby's attachment theory is based on several assumptions:

1. The attachment relationship begins to be formed at the moment of birth; this is valid for all people. Baby and a caregiver both have tendencies that make it easier to begin and develop the relationship.
2. Attachment is a feature of the relationship, not the individuals.
3. The attachment relationship is a bond that is established all over the world but which shows differences in different social and physical environments.
4. If the attachment relationship is disrupted, negative consequences occur.
5. An individual has not only one attachment relationship but also other attachment relationships. However, the first attachment relationship is qualitatively different than others.
6. An individual forms an inner working model from that first attachment relationship which shapes all other future relationships (Hortaçsu, 2003)

### **2.2.2. Mary Ainsworth's Contributions and Attachment Styles**

Mary Ainsworth investigated the development of attachment among twenty-six Ugandan babies (Bretherton, 2003). Every two weeks for a period of nine months, she observed babies and their mothers for two hours and found that attachment is associated with maternal sensitivity. She found that babies who had sensitive mothers tended to be securely attached; whereas mothers of insecurely attached babies behaved less sensitively (Bretherton, 2003).

Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters and Wall (1978) developed the Strange Situation Test and applied it to 12-18 months old babies to understand and evaluate the relationship between babies and the primary caregiver and babies' reactions to separating and reunifying situations with that person. In the end they described three attachment styles called secure, anxious-ambivalent and avoidant. Babies with a secure attachment style exhibited discomfort and unhappiness when they were separated from their mothers but when reunited they could immediately and easily relax. Babies who with an anxious-ambivalent attachment style constantly exhibited crying, anger and refusal of others when separated from their mothers but when reunited they showed anger and rage toward their mothers. Babies with an avoidant attachment style showed heedless attitudes toward their mothers when they were together and when they separated from their mothers they did not show any reaction to this situation. When reunited, the babies stayed away from their mothers and focused their attention on the environment.

### **2.2.3. Inner Working Models**

With the development of the child, cognitive representations of the primary caregivers and these attachment styles were internalized and the child's "inner working models" started to develop (Bowlby, 1969). Based on the primary caregiver's feedback, cognitions about self and others develop within the inner working models. Later, Bowlby also suggested that if the caregiver was available when infant needed and these needs answered in a satisfying way, the infant would develop an internal model in which the self is seen as worthy and love is valued. If the caregiver was not available when the infant was in need and these needs were ignored or rejected, the infant would develop an internal model with a lack of self-worth and self-confidence. Inner working models constantly develop from childhood to adolescence. By the end of adolescence, these models get more resistant to change and are used in close relationships (Bowlby, 1973). Since the quality of interactions between two individuals remains stable, working models are generally thought to be constant within a

relationship over time (Bowlby, 1973; Fraley & Shaver, 2000). Even though they are constant, working models are also considered as dynamic representations that can be elaborated, revised or replaced as life events change (Bowlby, 1973; Hazan & Shaver, 1987).

#### **2.2.4. Attachment in Adolescence**

Bowlby's original papers about attachment theory indicated that attachment relationships were crucial across the lifetime (Bowlby, 1973, 1980, 1982). Attachment styles that have developed in infancy in the adaptation to close relationships continue their effects in later periods of life. However, this does not mean that attachment behaviors are identical for all developmental stages. Just like other developmental gains, attachment continues evolving in later developmental stages. The most important function of attachment in infancy is protecting the vulnerable child from dangers and consequently physically ensuring that child's survival. Also, an infant needs an attachment figure for affect regulation. In adolescence, since physical threats can be handled more independently in contrast to infancy, an adolescent mostly needs an attachment figure for affect regulation (Allen and Manning, 2007). In adolescence, inner working models that have been enhanced from childhood, became more resistant to change and give direction to social relationships.

As in many other psychological aspects, adolescence is a transitional stage in terms of attachment. In this stage, an adolescent makes a huge effort to become less dependent on the first attachment figure. Even though friendships and romantic relationships are the main figures in attachment processes in adolescence, attachments to parents are still important. Although some research showed that adolescents prefer spending more time with their peers compared to their family and in terms of seeking closeness they were more peer-oriented (Hazan & Zeifman, 1994), other studies showed that for some of the attachment needs, adolescents continue to lean on their parents and secure attachment with parents predicts adolescents' well being until young adulthood (Furman and Buhrmester 1992; Nikerson and Nagle 2005).

### **2.2.5. Quartet Attachment Model**

Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) extended Bowlby's work, studying the role of attachment in the close relationships of adolescents and adults, and created a new model called the "Quartet Attachment Model" (QAM; see Figure 2). This model includes four attachment styles, as defined by their position on two basic dimensions, positive versus negative view of self, and positive versus negative view of the other: secure, preoccupied, fearful and dismissive.

Securely attached adolescents are less likely to seek others' approval, they develop intimacy with others easily, and they can stay self-sufficient. They view themselves as loveable and also they have a judgment that others are accessible and trustable.

Individuals who have preoccupied attachment style do not view themselves as loveable and they see others as fully positive. They are obsessive with their relationships. They fear being abandoned by others in their relationships (Cooper, Shaver, & Collins, 1998).

Individuals with fearful attachment style have a tendency to believe that they are worthless and others are not trustable. In their relationships they seek closeness but as a result of not trusting others and to decrease the possibility of being rejected they avoid social relationships (Sümer and Güngör, 1999).

Individuals who have dismissive attachment style have a tendency to view themselves as precious and their behaviors toward others are negative. They avoid close relationships, value their freedom, and think that close relationships are not significant (Sümer & Güngör, 1999).

		<b>MODEL OF SELF (Dependence)</b>	
		<b>Positive (Low)</b>	<b>Negative (High)</b>
<b>MODEL OF OTHER (Avoidance)</b>	<b>Positive (Low)</b>	<b>SECURE</b> Comfortable with intimacy and autonomy	<b>PREOCCUPIED</b> Preoccupied with relationships
	<b>Negative (High)</b>	<b>DISMISSING</b> Dismissing of intimacy and counter-dependent	<b>FEARFUL</b> Fearful of intimacy and socially avoidant

**Figure 2.2** Quartet Attachment Model (QAM) (Bartholomew and Horowitz, 1991)

### 2.2.6. Dimensional Approach to Attachment

Hazan and Shaver's (1987) categorical model was the first effort to measure adult attachment. Based on the attachment styles explaining infant–mother attachment (Ainsworth et al., 1978), they tried to measure attachment styles in adulthood in terms of romantic relations. According to Brennan, Clark, and Shaver (1998), there are two underlying dimensions of adult attachment: attachment-related anxiety, which indicates degree to which a person experiences fear of rejection and abandonment, and attachment-related avoidance, which indicates the degree to which a person experiences displeasure with closeness and depending on others.

Individuals with high levels of attachment anxiety tend to be needy, clingy, angry, jealous and controlling when their attachment system is triggered; whereas individuals with high levels of attachment avoidance tend to withdraw from their partners under

relationship stress (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2011). A high score on one or both of these two dimensions reflects greater attachment insecurity whereas low scores on both dimensions reflect greater attachment security (Brennan et al., 1998; Fraley, Heffernan, Vicary, & Brumbaugh, 2011; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007).

Since the dimensional model of attachment has been found to give more reliable outcomes than the categorical models (Brennan et al., 1998; Fraley et al., 2011; Fraley, Hudson, Heffernan, & Segal, 2015; Sümer, 2006) and preferred much more than categorical models in terms of understanding attachment behavior, in this study attachment styles of the adolescents are investigated using a scale which is designed according to the dimensional model.

#### **2.2.7. Effects of Attachment on Adolescents**

Adolescents who are securely attached to their parents pass the search for autonomy and role testing periods in a healthier way when their parents provide a safe base and safe shelter (Sümer, 2006).

Kırimer, Akça and Sümer (2014) found a positive and significant relationship between secure attachment to parents, attachment to friends, sense of self and friendship quality and life satisfaction. Rice (1990) found that social-emotional competence levels of the securely attached adolescents were higher than for insecurely attached adolescents. It was also found that securely attached adolescents were less aggressive than insecurely attached adolescents.

Nikiforou, Georgiou and Stavriniades (2013) showed that insecure attachment to the parents predicts bullying victimization especially in girls. Pamir-Arikoglu (2003) found that secure individuals reported low distress, low attachment-related anxiety and low avoidance, high negative mood regulation and high self-control. When compared with the preoccupied and dismissing-avoidant ones, they also reported higher repressive defensiveness. Dismissing individuals were low in attachment-related anxiety and high in avoidance and low in self-control, low in negative mood regulation

as compared to those classified as secure. Preoccupied ones reported high distress, high attachment related anxiety and low avoidance, low self-control and poor negative mood regulation. The fearful avoidant ones were high in distress, high in attachment related anxiety and high in avoidance, and low in negative mood regulation.

Doğan (2016) investigated the attachment of adolescents to their parents according to geographical regions in Turkey and gender, revealing that adolescents with secure feelings toward their parents make more appropriate transitions in their search for identity, which is the most important developmental task of this stage. Also, securely attached adolescents expect their parents to obey the reciprocity rule and treat them like an adult, but insecurely attached adolescents are prone to internalizing (such as anxiety and depression) and externalizing (such as antisocial behaviors and substance abuse) disorders as a result of adolescence transformations merging with identity and socializing pressure. With regard to gender, studies demonstrated that girls show more attachment than boys toward their parents (Kenny and Donaldson 1991, Allen et al. 2003, Song et al. 2009, Imtiaz and Naqvi 2012) and that mothers were mostly preferred as an attachment figure (Fraley and Davis 1997, Doyle et al. 2009).

Morsünbül (2009) revealed that adolescents who have a negative view of self show more risk taking behaviors than adolescents who have a positive view of self.

### **2.2.8. Relationship of Attachment to Self-Disclosure**

Aron, Melinat, Aron and Bator (1997) conducted two studies and found that university students who have dismissing-avoidant attachment style made less disclosure than students with other attachment styles.

Mikulincer and Nachshon (1991) investigated the relationship between attachment styles and patterns of self-disclosure. They found that secure and ambivalent individuals made more self-disclosure than avoidant individuals because they felt better in the interaction. Secure individuals aim to be intimate and emotionally close to others in their interactions, so they are prone to reveal self-information to others and

also they are responsive to others' disclosures. For ambivalent individuals, merging with others and reducing the fear of being disliked probably cause them to disclose more.

With regards to adolescents' relationships with friends, Bauminger, Finzi-Dottan, Chason and Har-Even (2008) found relationship with adolescent's sense of security (i.e. low levels of avoidant and anxious attachment) and their capacity to build a close relationship with a peer.

Tan, Overall, and Taylor (2012) investigated the relationship between attachment avoidance and anxiety and self-disclosure within romantic relationships. Since individuals with high attachment avoidance tend to have cold communication style while having discussions with their partners (Guerrero, 1996; Tucker & Anders, 1998) they made less self-disclosure and showed less disclosure intimacy (Mikulincer & Nachson, 1991; Pietromonaco & Barrett, 1997; Welch & Houser, 2010).

Studies using a categorical approach to measure attachment have tended to show a common pattern of anxiously attached individuals disclosing more than avoidantly attached ones but nearly the same as securely attached individuals, despite with a greater predisposition toward disclosing randomly and extremely to others (Mikulincer & Nachson, 1991; Pietromonaco & Barrett, 1997; Tidwell, Reis, & Shaver, 1996).

Insecure attachment can be expected to interfere with self disclosure; from this point of view, any type of attachment insecurity would be hypothesized to be negatively related to self-disclosure. However, in the attachment security model based on the dimensions of attachment-related anxiety and attachment-related avoidance, some studies discussed above found that specifically attachment anxiety may be positively related to self-disclosure. In the present study, the general hypothesis of a negative relation between attachment security and self-disclosure will be examined; whether or not there is a difference in the effects of anxiety and avoidance will also be explored.



## **2.3. PARENTING**

### **2.3.1. The context of family**

Family plays an important role in the development of children's personality. According to Williamson and Campell (1985) family is primarily important in adolescents socializing process and Hanımoğlu (2010) revealed that what adolescents learn from their family depends on parental attitudes. In addition, family relationships determine adolescent's problem solving skills when faced with problems. Healthy family relationships also help adolescents to go through the adolescence process in a healthy way.

Since the parenting process is seen as a reciprocal pattern in which both children and parents are actively involved (Chapman, 1986) in addition to parents' reports, child's perception of rearing was seen as important for the evaluation of parental rearing (Markus, Lindhout, Boer, Hoogendijk & Arrindell, 2003). In this study, rather than actual behavior, the perception of the adolescent about how their mothers treat them was considered more significant.

### **2.3.2. Factors Affecting Parenting**

Parenting can differ from one society to another or even in the same society it may differ from one family to another. In child rearing practices, there are cultural and sub cultural differences at the macro level and differences between families and individuals at the micro level.

Child's age is one of the factors that affect parenting. Since parental expectations change depending on the child's age, the attitude toward the same behavior may change due to the child's age (Dönmezer, 1999). Parenting attitudes that parents experienced when they were children may also affect their parenting attitudes. Parents who were raised in an extreme authoritarian context may use the same methods that they learned

from their parents. In some cases, by contrast, some parents who were raised with pressure show very permissive attitudes (Yavuzer, 2005).

Socioeconomic status may also affect parenting. Parents from high socioeconomic status often show more egalitarian and democratic attitudes toward their children and give importance to their development and freedom as an individual than parents from low socioeconomic status (Dönmezer, 1999).

### **2.3.3. Approaches to Parenting Styles**

Darling & Steinberg (1993, p.488) defined parenting styles as “a constellation of attitudes towards the child that are communicated to the child and that, taken together, create an emotional climate in which the parent’s behaviors are expressed”.

Previous work on parenting styles has used the dimensional approach. Different dimensions of parenting were suggested such as love/hostility and autonomy/control (Schaefer, 1959); emotional warmth/hostility and detachment/involvement (Baldwin, 1948); and warmth and indulgent/strictness (Sears, Macoby, & Levin, 1957). Although these dimensions are labeled somewhat differently, they have similar meanings.

Later on, Baumrind (1966, 1971) started to investigate parenting styles by using typological approach and according to two dimensions called demandingness (control) and responsiveness (warmth), revealed three major parenting styles: authoritarian, permissive and authoritative. Based on Baumrind’s (1966, 1971) study, Maccoby and Martin (1983) formed the most commonly used taxonomy of parenting types and described four parenting styles: authoritative (high demandingness and responsiveness) authoritarian (high demandingness but low responsiveness), indulgent (low demandingness but high responsiveness), and neglectful (low demandingness and responsiveness) (Darling and Cumsille, 2003; Steinberg et al., 2006). The demandingness dimension is represented by discipline, intrusion and restriction. The responsiveness dimension is represented by care, acceptance and affection.

### **2.3.3.1 Authoritative Parenting Style**

The authoritative parenting style is found to be associated with more favorable child outcomes and thus is often seen as the most appropriate parenting style for children's personality development due to its balanced combination of unconditional respect and love toward children and high levels of control. Authoritative parents have high demands for self-control and maturity from their children but at the same time show high levels of involvement, emotional warmth, and sensitivity. Self-discipline rather than external discipline is important. While authoritative parents avoid giving advice to their children, they openly state what they expect as a behavior and act as a good model for children. In this kind of family, there is a love climate between spouses and they treat each other with warmth and respect. They have a common attitude toward the child. In addition, rules are not only valid for children but also valid for parents. In the family, parent and children possess the same rights. Sense of responsibility can be developed because these parents allow their children to grow without restriction, show their talents and consequently children have higher self-esteem and lower social anxiety levels and feel less lonely (Çelenk, 2003; Kuzgun, 1973; Leary, Kowalsky, 1995).

### **2.3.3.2. Authoritarian Parenting Style**

The authoritarian parenting style, which is common in traditional Turkish culture, has been associated with poorer outcomes for children. Parents who use the authoritarian parenting style expect their children to behave according to their wishes, and when the children do not behave in this way they punish them, ignore their desires and do not allow expression of feelings like anger. Authoritarian parents assert control, demand, obedience and provide minimal emotional support. They have high demands for self-control but low levels of sensitivity. These parents assume that they know the best for the child and they do not give opportunity to their child for talk. A child who is raised with this kind of style, can be quiet, kind, honest and cautious, weak,

submissive and very sensitive (Yavuzer, 2005). These parents avoid rewarding any positive behavior that child displays and fear that their child will get spoiled if they show love. These children are frequently exposed to exclusion, rejection and punishment (Kulaksızoğlu, 2011). Parents' anxiety about discipline causes them to use this parenting style. They want their children to be exactly what they want and they do not show respect for their children's opinions, goals and aims. Authoritarian parenting style is associated with fearful attachment, suicide, depressive mood, increased social anxiety and smoking levels and pessimistic views of self and world (Çelenk, 2003; Haktanır et al., 1998; Keskin & Çam, 2008; Özen et al., 2007 as cited in Kolburan et al, 2012).

#### **2.3.3.3. Indulgent Parenting Style**

The indulgent parenting style is characterized by low expectations of discipline and self-control in the context of high warmth and sensitivity. These parents do not apply any control or discipline method toward the child. When a child displays wrong behavior, no sanction imposed. The child, who gets the same reactions for both positive and negative behaviors, can not discriminate what is right and what is wrong. The child is not expected to behave in accordance with age and social rules are not given much consideration. The indulgent attitude is often seen in parents who have a child late in life or who have a single child (Dönmezer, 1999). Studies claim that the continuation of this attitude negatively affects the child's ability to control emotions and impulses when needed, and can lead to aggressive behaviors. Children from these families show more self-esteem but often show less self-control (high rates of school misconduct and drug use) (Yazdani & Daryei, 2016).

#### **2.3.3.4. Neglectful Parenting Style**

The neglectful parenting style is associated generally with unfavorable child outcomes, such as high rates of smoking, depression, psychosocial development and poor academic achievement (Yazdani & Daryei, 2016). Neglectful parenting is

characterized by low levels of both sensitivity and demands for self-control. There is a disconnection in communication between child and parents. This kind of parents can leave their child alone or exclude him/her. Parent who are irrelevant to their child are inadequate to supply material and non-material needs and show love. They do not discipline the child and leave the child on his/her own. These kind of parents see their child as a obstacle for their work and plans. This parenting style is mostly seen in poor and large families (Karataş, 2009; Yavuzer, 2005).

Many studies of parenting attitudes and practices have been carried out using the dimensions and typologies discussed above. However, in the present study, in addition to the two high-control styles discussed by Maccoby and Martin (democratic/authoritative and authoritarian), a third high-control style known as the “protective/demanding” style is also considered.

#### **2.3.3.5. Protective/Demanding Parenting Style**

Parents who have protective parental attitude have trouble separating from the child. They take full responsibility for their children and as a result they raise individuals who are dependent and cannot decide on their own (Parker, 1983). These parents can be described as cautious and they try to always protect their children from dangers. Their children when faced with a stressful situation experience anxiety (Carducci & Zimbardo, 1995). Protective parents believe that they fulfill their parenting duties by behaving like this and in turn they want the child to feel gratitude toward them. A child’s behaviors toward becoming an individual are not welcomed (Kulaksızoğlu, 2011). In Turkish culture, it was found that with the social expectations of the mother role, mothers are more protective than fathers. Especially children that are born to older parents, the youngest child in the family, only children, and children who are physically more beautiful and more successful than other siblings are protected more (Çağdaş & Seçel, 2006, as cited in Koralp, 2013).

#### **2.3.4. Parenting in Turkish Culture**

Western cultures known as “individualistic” while Turkish culture known as “collectivistic” (Hofstede, 1980) which is later defined by Kağıtçıbaşı (1985, 1996) as a “culture of relatedness.” In the collectivistic cultures, people tend to think of themselves as interdependent with their groups like family, country, teams and others. They give priority to group goals over their personal goals.

The traditional Turkish family is characterized by both material and emotional interdependence within and between generations. Children have to obey the authority of the parents especially the father’s, give priority to the need of others in the family group and show loyalty.

As Kagiticibasi stressed (1982; 1990), economic interdependency also characterizes the traditional Turkish family. Also, “enmeshment” rather than individuation of family members is common in Turkish families. Kagiticibasi and others favored the term “close-knit” in describing Turkish families.

Kagiticibasi (1990, 1996, and 2007) stated that, like many other urban middle class “majority world” cultures, Turkish urban middle class families started to provide a family climate which combines emotional interdependence of the traditional family with independence of modern “culture of separateness” in which an “autonomous-relational” self can emerge. This kind of child-rearing is related with high control, high relatedness and encouragement of autonomy.

In the Turkish family context, there is an obvious hierarchical organization in which male superiority is the norm since the Turkish culture is male-dominated: it is patrilineal, patrilocal, and patriarchal system (Fişek, 1982, 1993; Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982; Kandiyoti, 1988; Kiray, 1976; Sunar, 2002). So, patriarchy is a basic feature of the both Turkish family and society (Fişek, 1991, 1992, 1995). In adolescence, there is usually noticeable distance from the father in terms of communication. Recent research shows that, adolescents are much more likely to reveal feeling emotionally close to their

mothers than to their fathers (Sever, 1985; Sunar, 2002), and that they are more likely to communicate with their mothers than with their fathers (Hortaçsu, 1989).

Fişek (1991) investigated differences in closeness to mother and father and found that knowledge about decisions and self were shared to a larger extent in father-child pairs, while mother-child pairs had more touching and emotional sharing. In addition, mothers frequently show their affection honestly, both by physical means (like hugging and kissing the child) and verbally, and they motivate the child to reciprocate (Kağıtçıbaşı, Sunar, & Bekman, 1988).

Sunar (2002) investigated the change and continuity in three generations of Turkish middle class families. She found that all three generations report parental behaviors which encourage the importance of the family over the individual. Furthermore, all three generations report substantial emotional closeness in the family, especially between mothers and children. This context of closeness is accompanied by flexibility, low levels of parent-child conflict, and avoidance of rigid rules and physical punishment. While daughters are more closely controlled, sons are given more autonomy. Over three generations, psychological value of children gained importance as compared to material value. Parental authoritarian control decreased with the increasing use of rewards and reasoning as ways of discipline. Encouragement of emotional expression across generations increased although suppression of negative emotions within the family continues.

### **2.3.5. Effects of Parenting on Children and Adolescents**

As noted above, many studies indicate favorable outcomes for authoritative parenting. However, other parenting styles are frequently found to be associated with various negative outcomes, ranging from anxiety and depression to delinquency.

Peterson, Becker, Shoemaker, Luria and Helmer (1961) found that children whose parents are authoritarian tend to show negative characteristics like being withdrawn and afraid of society, and sometimes delinquency. Hatunoğlu (1994) examined the

relationship between parenting styles and delinquency among high-school students. It was found that students who were raised with either authoritarian or dismissive (neglectful) parenting styles are more likely to be delinquent.

Parker's (1983) study revealed that extreme protectiveness toward children can cause emotional problems and depression in the future and extreme restriction toward children prevent the sense of independence.

Yılmaz (2009) investigated the relationship between parenting styles and self understanding of the university students. In the end, it was found that female students perceive their parents' styles as democratic while male students perceive parenting styles as protective and authoritarian. Hacıomeroglu and Karanci (2013) conducted a study and found that individuals who perceive parenting style of the mother as refusing and father's as lack of warmth have high levels of depressive symptoms.

### **2.3.6. Attachment and Parenting**

Attachment relationship with mother and parenting style of mother considered main variables in this study. Understanding how these variables interact with each other is important to discuss their relationship with the self-disclosure concept.

Bowlby (1980) mentioned the importance of sensitiveness and responsiveness in parenting style in building normal growth during childhood, suggesting that caregivers' parenting behaviors are associated with the child's attachment styles. Positive parenting practices include parental warmth and openness, support, constant monitoring, optimal level of autonomy, availability and setting clear rules with limits. These parental practices are similar for both secure attachment figure and authoritative style (high responsiveness and high demandingness). Supplying both safe haven and secure base is a crucial element of authoritative parenting, which includes a warm, child-centered approach, but with clear boundaries and democratic rules (Robinson, Mandelco, Olsen, & Hart, 1995). Attachment security and the capacity to be a responsive caregiver provide not only a safe haven in times of threat, but also as a



secure base from which to explore. Thus, when the parent is responsive to the needs of the child, secure attachment occurs allowing the child to explore the environment safely and with confidence and to regulate his/her own emotions (Mikulincer, Shaver, & Pereg, 2003; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2004).

Parents with authoritative parenting style and resulting secure attachment, are sensitive to their child's needs and avoid using punishment; instead, they treat their child in a very kind, warm and intimate way. However, parents with both authoritarian parenting style and avoidant attachment styles, use strict behaviors to control their children's behavior (Kochanska, 1993). Also, parents with both permissive parenting style and ambivalent attachment, are generally carefree, inconsistent in parenting and avoid punishment. Fang (2004) conducted a study on a sample from China and found a positive significant relationship between authoritative parenting style and secure attachment and negative significant relationship between authoritarian parenting style and secure attachment.

Controlling parents may diminish adolescents' expressions of individuality, which might make it difficult for adolescents to develop a sense of closeness with significant others (Cai, Hardy, Olsen, Nelson and Yamawaki, 2013). In both Western and Eastern cultures, adolescents in controlling family climates have less trust and communication with their parents (Barber, 1996; Smetana & Daddis, 2002).

Adolescents who are repeatedly exposed to power assertive discipline are also presumed to develop less secure attachment-related internal working models, which will lead them to turn less to their parents for support when experiencing anxiety (Wu, 2007). Observed parental strict punishment has been associated with attachment insecurity (Bender, Allen, McElhaney, Antonishak, Moore, O'Beirne-Kelly and Davis, 2007) and insecurely attached teens are prone to have representations of more punishing parents (Levy, Blatt, & Shaver, 1998).

Sümer and Güngör (1999) conducted a study and found that authoritarian and permissive-indulgent parenting styles were the most commonly used parenting styles in Turkish parents. In addition, as compared to individuals from authoritarian and

neglectful families, individuals from authoritative and indulgent families were more likely to have secure attachment, high levels of self-confidence, and low levels of trait anxiety. In this study, parenting dimensions perceived from mothers found mostly related to attachment variables whereas parenting dimensions which were perceived from fathers found mostly related with the self-variables. This result may prove that attachment system should be analyzed within the context of mother child interaction more than father child interaction.

Pursuant to Gezer (2001), adolescents who were raised in a family climate with high cohesion were classified with a secure attachment style while adolescents who were raised in a family climate with low levels of family coherence were classified as having fearful or preoccupied attachment styles. In the same study, significant relationships were found between authoritarian style and fearful and preoccupied attachment, between inconsistent style and dismissive-avoidant attachment, and between democratic style and secure attachment.

Keskin (2007) investigated the relationship between adolescent's mental states and attachment styles and effects of parenting styles on attachment styles. According to the results, a positive relationship between individuals with fearful attachment style and pressure and discipline dimensions was found. Also, a negative relationship between individuals with preoccupied attachment style and democratic parenting style was found.

Karavasilis, Doyle and Markiewicz (2003) conducted a study to examine associations between parenting style and attachment to mother in middle childhood and adolescence and found that parenting style (i.e. warm parental involvement, behavioral monitoring and psychological autonomy granting) favorably differentiated between secure and insecure attachment. Moreover, they also found that parenting that provides loving support and responsiveness and/or respects children's individuality may also facilitate children's positive internal representation of self as lovable and positive view of mother as available as characterized by secure attachment.

Strayer and Preece (1999) revealed that in adolescence, fearful-avoidant attachment was negatively associated with parental caring and positively associated with parental invasive control, whereas the reverse pattern was detected for secure attachment.

### **2.3.7. Relationship of Parenting Style to Self-Disclosure**

Kerr and Stattin (2000) asserted that parenting plays an important role in building an open and welcoming family environment that increases the likelihood an adolescent will freely reveal information about their activities to a parent.

In the study of Fletcher et al. (2004), it was found that responsive and warm parents who simultaneously try to actively manage the child's behavior establish a family environment in which self-disclosure is supported, and as a consequence greater parental knowledge is obtained. In addition, Kerr and Stattin (2003) argued that the relational side of parenting can be specifically predictive of adolescents' self-disclosure.

Soenens, Vansteenkiste, Luyckx, and Goossens (2006) examined relations between three parenting dimensions (behavioral control, psychological control and responsiveness) and self-disclosure. Behavioral control was associated with active parental strategies to provide structure to the child's behavior. Psychological control was associated with parental behaviors that intrude on the child's psychological world. Responsiveness was associated with a warm and emotional relationship between adolescents and their parents. Although the results demonstrate that each of three parenting dimensions separately predicts self-disclosure, when compared with the effects of behavioral control and psychological control, the effect of responsiveness was seen to be twice as large.

It was found that adolescents keep fewer secrets and disclose more when they perceive their parents as supportive (Tilton-Weaver, 2013; Tokić & Pećnik, 2011). Parent who are responsive to the child's needs would be expected to build secure attachment and secure attachment and a stronger parent-child interaction (Bowlby,

2008; Karavasilis, Doyle, & Markiewicz, 2003; Reis, 2007). Thus, the research shows that adolescents' self-disclosure can be predicted by parenting practices.

Roth, Ron and Benita (2009) investigated the mediating role of adolescent's self-disclosure to their mother with respect to their mistakes in class activities and learning from mistakes in class. The results showed that parents confirming their children's experiences and giving importance to their opinions can be crucial for sharing problems with parents, and this provides a good base for children's disclosing their difficulties in school. Mother's love withdrawal and not supporting autonomy can cause inhibition of self-disclosure.

It was shown that adolescents that have authoritative parents were less likely to lie and more likely to disclose conflict (Caldwell & Dowdy, 2006 as cited in Tokic & Pecnik, 2010). (Kerr, Stattin & Trost, 1999 as cited in Tokic & Pecnik, 2010) revealed that adolescents who were disclosing much more perceived their parents as more trusting of them and less likely to behave negatively when they spontaneously disclose something.

Tokic & Pecnik (2010) examined parental behaviors that are relevant to adolescents' self-disclosure and made a categorization of parental behaviors that inhibit or facilitate (invite) adolescent self-disclosure. Some of the parental inhibitors are; negative affective state, unavailability, intrusive questioning, teasing, lack of understanding and punishment. Some of the parental facilitators are; positive affective state, availability, recognizing adolescent's emotional state, understanding and emotional support.

To sum up, studies in literature reveal that parents' attitudes and behaviors play an important role in adolescent's self-disclosure process. Adolescent-parent relational dynamics predicts adolescent's self-disclosure preferences.

## **2.4. CURRENT STUDY**

### **2.4.1. The Purpose of the Study**

The primary purpose of this study is to investigate the relationships among perceived maternal parenting style, attachment anxiety and avoidance and self-disclosure behaviors of adolescents to their mothers. Compatible with previous studies (e.g., Smetana, Crean, & Daddis, 2002; Smetana & Daddis, 2002) in this study the target is adolescents' relationships with mothers rather than both parents, because of past research suggesting that teens generally disclose more to their mothers compared to their fathers.

This study will make it possible to understand which attachment dimensions (avoidance and anxiety) and which perceived parenting styles (democratic, authoritarian or protective) are most closely associated with the self-disclosure to mother. Additionally, this study will allow us to learn adolescents' disclosure preferences about various topics to different targets.

### **2.4.2. Hypotheses**

The hypotheses of the current study are the following:

1) Perceived parenting style of the mother will be related to adolescents' self-disclosure.

1a. Democratic/authoritative parenting style will be positively related to self-disclosure to mother.

1b. Authoritarian parenting style will be negatively related to self-disclosure to mother.

1c. Protective-demanding parenting style will be negatively related to self-disclosure to mother.

2) Attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance will be related to self-disclosure to mother.

2a. Attachment anxiety will be negatively related to self-disclosure to mother.

2b. Attachment avoidance will be negatively related to self-disclosure to mother.



### 3. METHOD

#### 3.1. PARTICIPANTS

A total of 108 students, 63 female (58.3%) and 45 male (41.7%) from 10<sup>th</sup> and 11<sup>th</sup> grades in high school participated in this study. Participants were between the ages of 15-18 ( $M = 16.15$ ,  $SD = 0.59$ ). Detailed demographic information about the sample is presented in Table 1.

**Table 3.1.**  
*Demographic Information of the Sample*

Variables	Categories	<i>N</i>	%
Age	15	11	10.2
	16	71	65.7
	17	25	23.1
	18	1	0.9
Grade	10th	69	41.7
	11 <sup>th</sup>	39	58.3
Marital Status of the Parents	Divorced	13	12
	Married	95	88
Living with...	both parents	98	90.7
	Mother	10	9.3
	Father	0	0
Number of Siblings	0	17	15.7
	1	58	53.7
	2	28	25.9
	3	5	4.6
Romantic Relationship	Yes	17	15.7
	No	91	84.3

## **3.2. MEASURES**

Demographic Information Form (Appendix E), Self-Disclosure Inventory (SDI) (Appendix F), Parental Attitudes Scale (PAS) (Appendix G), and Turkish adapted version of the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale - Revised for Children and Adolescents (ECR-RC) (Appendix H) were used in this study.

### **3.2.1. Demographic Information Form**

The demographic form included questions about participants' gender, age, school, class, romantic relationship status, household composition, and number of siblings. The form also included questions about participants' parents such as whether or not they are alive, their biological relation to the participant, and their marital status.

### **3.2.2. Self-Disclosure Inventory (SDI)**

Seçuk (1988) developed this scale for determining participants' self-disclosure patterns. The questionnaire was based on the Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire (JSDQ) developed by Jourard (1958) and the "Inventory of Self-Disclosure" developed by Flanders (1976) and adopted to Turkish by Baymur (1971). The original questionnaire consists of 48 items asking about level of self-disclosure to six different targets (mother, father, same-sex friend, opposite-sex friend, teacher and psychological counselor) on six sets of topics (thoughts and opinions, family, school, sexuality, personality, and pleasure and interests). In addition to the original six topics, items about further topics added: free time activities and romantic relationships. Although original scale included mother, father, same-sex friend, opposite-sex friend, teacher and psychological counselor as targets, in the present study four targets (mother, father, same-sex friend, and opposite-sex friend) were used in order to assess adolescents' self-disclosure preferences within close relationships (parents and friends). Teacher and counselor targets were not included in the questionnaire.

Responses are on a 3-point scale; 0 (no disclosure on that topic to that target), 1 (superficial or evasive disclosure on that topic to that target, or 2 (easy, full disclosure



on that topic to that target). Three disclosure scores are calculated: the overall total, topic totals, and target totals. High scores indicate high disclosure levels and low scores indicate low disclosure levels.

Internal consistency coefficient of the SDI was found to be .68 (Selçuk, 1988) and test-retest coefficient was found to be .82 (Çakır, 1994). In this present study, total score of SDI was used and showed good internal consistency for the targets of mother, father, same-sex friend, and opposite sex friend ( $\alpha = 0.84$ ,  $\alpha = 0.96$ , and  $\alpha = 0.92$ ,  $\alpha = 0.95$ , respectively).

### **3.2.3. Parental Attitudes Scale (PAS)**

PAS was originally developed by Kuzgun (1972) and Eldeklioğlu (1996) to measure perceived parental attitudes and was later revised by Kuzgun and Eldeklioğlu (2005). In this study, the scale was used to determine the adolescents' perception of maternal parenting style. The inventory has three main subscales: Democratic Parental Attitude, Authoritarian Parental Attitude, and Protective-Demanding Parental Attitude.

The inventory comprises 40 items: Democratic (15 items), Protective /Demanding (15 items) and Authoritarian (10 items). It is a 5-point Likert-format scale (1 = completely disagree, 5 = completely agree). Scores of Democratic, Protective and Authoritarian attitudes are measured separately. Scoring high in the scale means that perceived parental attitude is high in the given subscale. Internal consistency coefficient of the Parental Attitude Scale was found to be .89 for the democratic subscale, .82 for the protective-demanding subscale and .78 for the authoritarian subscale and test-retest reliability coefficients were .92, .75, and .79 respectively (Kuzgun & Eldeklioğlu, 2005). In the current study, PAS exhibited good internal consistency for democratic, protective and authoritarian parental attitude subscales ( $\alpha = 0.92$ ,  $\alpha = 0.84$ ,  $\alpha = 0.73$ , respectively).

### **3.2.4. The Experiences in Close Relationships Scale Revised - Middle Childhood Mother Form (ECR-RC)**

The Experiences in Close Relationships Scale II was originally developed by Fraley, Waller and Brennan (2000) to measure adult attachment dimensions and Brenning, Soenens, Braet, and Bosman (2011) adapted the original scale for middle childhood and early adolescence. Items in The Experiences in Close Relationships Scale II were simplified and organized to refer to the parent-child relationship. Kırımer, Akça, & Sümer (2014) adapted the ECR-RC into Turkish. The ECR-RC measures two dimensions in relationship to the mother and father: attachment anxiety and avoidance. In this study, participants were given only the mother form since the focus is the mother-adolescent relationship.

The scale consists of 18 Attachment Anxiety items reflecting feelings of fear of abandonment and strong wishes for interpersonal merger (e.g., “I worry about being abandoned by my mother”) and 18 Attachment Avoidance items reflecting feelings of discomfort with dependence, closeness, and intimate self-disclosure (e.g., “I prefer not to show to my mother how I feel deep down”). Items were rated on a seven-point Likert-format scale ranging from not at all (= 1) to very much (= 7).

Both subscales have strong internal consistency and validity (Brenning et al., 2011). Kırımer, Akça, & Sümer (2014) also investigated psychometric quality of the Turkish adopted version of the ECR-RC and found that internal consistency coefficient was .90 for the avoidance and .78 for the anxiety subscale. The correlation between the two factors was significantly positive ( $r = .49, p < .01$ ). In the current study, ECR-RC showed good internal consistency for both attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance scales ( $\alpha = 0.82, \alpha = 0.90$ , respectively).

### **3.3. PROCEDURE**

The ethics approval of the current study was obtained from Istanbul Bilgi University Ethics Committee before the data collection (Appendix A) As the target

sample was 10th and 11th grade high school students in Istanbul, consent from the Ministry of Education was taken (Appendix B). The Ministry of Education required elimination of some items within the “sexuality” topic from the Self- Disclosure Scale since they found these items inappropriate. The requested revision received approval. Participants were selected from Suadiye Hacı Mustafa Tarman Anatolian High School. As participants were under the age eighteen, parental informed consent was obtained (Appendix C).

With the help of the psychological counselor in the school, target classrooms were determined randomly within all of 10th and 11th classes and parental consent forms were given to these students. Students were informed about the study and asked to take permission from their parents. Data collection was completed in two separate days in the psychological counselling classes. Only forms of participants whose parents signed the consent forms were included in the analysis. In order to prevent feelings of exclusion, participants whose parents did not give consent were allowed to fill out the questionnaires like their peers if they wanted to, but their answers were not used in the analysis process. After the parental consent forms were taken back, each student signed an informed consent form (Appendix D). Participants voluntarily attended the study. To protect confidentiality, no identifying information was asked to participants.

The demographic form, the Self-Disclosure Inventory, the Parental Attitudes Scale (PAS), and the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale Revised - Middle Childhood Mother Form (ECR-RC) were given to the students during their counseling class hour. Filling of questionnaires took approximately thirty five to forty minutes.

### **3.4. DESIGN**

In this study, there were two primary independent variables: (1) perceived parenting style of the mother and (2) attachment styles of the adolescents. The first variable was measured by the Parental Attitudes Scale (PAS) which included three dimensions, namely democratic, authoritarian and protective/demanding parenting styles. The second variable was measured by using The Experiences in Close

Relationships Scale Revised- Middle Childhood Mother Form (ECR-RC) which included two dimensions: attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance. The dependent variable of the study was the level of adolescents' self-disclosure to the mother. This variable was measured by the Self- Disclosure Inventory (SDI).



## **4. RESULTS**

This section presents analyses of data from the scales and questionnaires. The findings of the present study will be demonstrated in five parts. First, descriptive characteristics of the dependent variables with mean, standard deviation and range will be shown. Second, Pearson correlation analyses will show the relationships among variables. Third, comparison of total self-disclosure to mother and father will be conducted using repeated measures ANOVA. Fourth, results of multiple linear regression analyses will be shown, to demonstrate the degree to which the independent variables (types of perceived parenting styles and attachment dimensions) predict the self-disclosure to mother. Fifth, further analyses (mediation analyses and the effect of target and adolescents' gender on self-disclosure in different topics) will be shown to present relationships among variables.

### **4.1. Descriptive Characteristics of the Dependent Variables**

Means, standard deviations and ranges of the continuous variables used in the present study are presented in Table 2.

**Table 4.1.***Means, Standard Deviations and Ranges of Variables*

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Range</i>
Age	16.15	0.59	15 - 18
SD Total (Mother)	65.51	16.64	6 - 88
SD Total (Father)	53.73	20.33	0 - 88
SD Total (Same-Sex)	65.24	13.72	16 - 88
SD Total (Opposite-Sex)	57.76	18.86	1 - 88
Democratic Mother	60.07	11.39	23 - 75
Protective-Demanding Mother	35.25	9.05	15 - 61
Authoritarian Mother	19.83	6.13	9 - 40
Attachment Anxiety	38.40	15.07	18 - 82
Attachment Avoidance	41.58	17.24	18 - 96

*Note.* *N* = 108. *SD* = self-disclosure, targets of self-disclosure are presented in parentheses.

#### **4.2. Correlations Among Variables**

Correlations among the variables used in the study presented in Table 3.

**Table 4.2.**  
*Correlations among variables*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Gender	-	0.42	-0.19	0.12	-0.14	-0.05	-0.10	0.10	0.30**	0.21*	0.17
2. Age		-	-0.06	-0.07	0.01	-0.02	0.22**	-0.05	0.06	0.04	0.07
3. SD Total (Mother)			-	0.62**	0.36**	0.36**	0.59**	-0.18	0.46**	-0.17	0.65**
4. SD Total (Father)				-	0.45**	0.47**	0.41**	-0.17	0.34**	-0.18	0.30**
5. SD Total (Same-Sex)					-	0.84**	0.29**	-0.23*	0.32**	0.39**	-0.04
6. SD Total (Opposite-Sex)						-	0.30**	-0.18	0.33**	0.36**	-0.09
7. Democratic Mother							-	0.30**	0.62**	0.35**	0.66**
8. Protective-Demanding Mother								-	0.65**	0.32**	0.15
9. Authoritarian Mother									-	0.48**	0.54**
10. Attachment Anxiety										-	0.28**
11. Attachment Avoidance											-

*Note.*  $N = 108$ ,  $SD =$  self-disclosure, targets of self-disclosure are presented in parentheses. Gender is coded as 0 = female, 1 = male. \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ .

### **4.3. The Comparison of Total Self-Disclosure across Different Targets**

The present study expected that total SD to mother will be higher than total SD to father. In order to test this expectation, a two-way repeated measures ANOVA with Greenhouse-Gaisser correction was conducted. Additionally, SD to same-sex and opposite sex friends together with the effect of participant's gender was included in the analysis for comparison.

Results indicated that participants reported different levels of SD to mother, father, same-sex friend and opposite-sex friend,  $F(2.35, 248.94) = 25.59, p < .001$ . Post hoc tests with Bonferroni correction showed that SD to mother ( $M = 65.50, SD = 16.63$ ) was higher than father ( $M = 53.73, SD = 20.33$ ) ( $p < .001$ ) in accordance with this expectation. Furthermore, SD to mother was higher than SD to opposite-sex friend ( $M = 57.75, SD = 18.86$ ) ( $p = .002$ ) but was not different from SD to same-sex friend ( $M = 67.89, SD = 13.81$ ). SD to father was significantly lower than SD to same-sex friend ( $p < .001$ ) but was not different from SD to opposite-sex friend. Finally, SD to same sex friend was higher than SD to opposite-sex friend ( $p < .001$ ).

Gender differences between participants did not have a main effect on SD; however, interaction between target of SD and gender of the participant was significant,  $F(2.35, 248.94) = 3.99, p = .017$ . This interaction indicates that compared to male participants, female participants scored higher on SD to mother, same-sex friends, and opposite-sex friends while scoring lower on SD to father. In other words, although overall SD was similar among the genders, the patterns of SD to various targets were distinct between genders.

### **4.4. Prediction of Total Self Disclosure to Mother: Perceived Parenting Styles and Dimensions of Attachment as Predictor Variables**



Multiple linear regression analyses were conducted in order to assess how strongly the perceived parenting styles and dimensions of attachment predicted total SD to mother. In these analyses, the predictor variables were perceived parenting styles and attachment anxiety and avoidance; while the criterion variable was the amount of total SD to mother. At first, multiple regression analyses were conducted after controlling for the effect of gender and age of the adolescent. Neither gender nor age was associated with SD to mother, therefore these variables are excluded from the final analyses reported in following sections.

#### 4.4.1. The Prediction of Total Self Disclosure to Mother by Perceived Parenting Styles

It was hypothesized that perceived parenting style of the mother will be related to adolescents' SD. The regression equation was significant,  $F(3,104) = 20.39, p < .001$  with an  $R^2$  of 0.37. Only the democratic mother predicted total SD to mother ( $\beta = .47, p < .001$ ). The results are presented in Table 4.

**Table 4.3.**

*Summary of regression for total SD to mother by prediction of perceived parenting styles*

Independent Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>
Democratic Mother	0.69	0.47	0.15	<b>4.68</b>
Protective-Demanding Mother	0.22	0.12	0.19	1.15
Authoritarian Mother	-0.66	-0.24	0.34	-1.92

*Note.*  $N = 108$ .  $B$  = unstandardized coefficient of slope,  $\beta$  = standardized coefficient of slope,  $SE$  = standard error,  $t$  =  $t$  score. Statistically significant predictors are printed in bold type.

#### 4.4.2 The Prediction of Total Self Disclosure to Mother by Dimensions of Attachment

It was hypothesized that attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance will be related to SD to mother. The regression equation was significant,  $F(2,103) = 37.18$ ,  $p < .001$  with an  $R^2$  of 0.42. Only attachment avoidance negatively predicted total SD to mother ( $\beta = -.65$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The results are presented in Table 5.

**Table 4.4.**

*Summary of regression for total SD to mother by prediction of attachment dimensions*

Independent Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>
Attachment Anxiety	0.01	0.01	0.08	0.15
Attachment Avoidance	-0.61	-0.65	0.73	<b>-8.33</b>

Note.  $N = 108$ .  $B$  = unstandardized coefficient of slope,  $\beta$  = standardized coefficient of slope,  $SE$  = standard error,  $t$  =  $t$  score. Statistically significant predictors are printed in bold type.

#### 4.5. Further Analyses

In order to investigate nature of the relationships between the variables that were not specified in hypotheses of the present study, further analyses were conducted.

##### 4.5.1. Mediation Analyses

A series of mediation analyses were conducted with PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2013). Independent variables were three subscales of perceived parenting styles; democratic mother, protective mother and authoritarian mother. Mediators were subscales of dimensions of attachment to mother; attachment anxiety and attachment

avoidance. Dependent variables were total scores of SD to mother, father, and friends. Because the correlation between total SD to same-sex friend and opposite-sex friend was strong ( $r = .84, p < .001$ ), mean scores of these two variables used as total SD to friends. Results were similar even if total SD to same-sex friend and opposite-sex friend were analyzed separately. Mediators and dependent variables were controlled for effects of gender and age of the adolescents. The bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals of indirect effects were provided using bootstrap estimation with 5000 samples. In total, 9 different mediation tests were conducted, and significant indirect effects were reported.

Analyses showed that the indirect effect of democratic mother on total SD to mother via attachment avoidance was significant,  $b = .404, SE = .108, 95\% CI [.220,.653], p < .05$ ; meaning that higher scores on democratic mother were associated with higher scores on total SD to mother through the mediation of attachment avoidance. Also, the indirect effect of authoritarian mother on total SD to mother via attachment avoidance was significant,  $b = -.780, SE = .203, 95\% CI [-1.226,-.406], p < .05$ ; that is, higher scores on authoritarian mother were associated with lower scores on total SD to mother through the mediation of attachment avoidance.

The indirect effects considering total SD to father as dependent variable were not significant. Furthermore, the indirect effects of democratic mother on total SD to friends through attachment anxiety,  $b = .149, SE = .061, 95\% CI [.054,.300], p < .05$ ; and attachment avoidance,  $b = -.256, SE = .123, 95\% CI [-.550,-.051], p < .05$  were significant, meaning that higher scores on democratic mother were associated with higher scores on SD to friends through the mediation of attachment anxiety, and associated with lower SD to friends with the mediation of attachment avoidance.

Moreover, the indirect effect of protective mother on total SD to friends through attachment anxiety was significant,  $b = -.192, SE = .077, 95\% CI [-.391,-.074], p < .05$ ; indicating that higher scores on protective mother were associated with lower scores on total SD to friends through the mediation of attachment anxiety.

Finally, the indirect effects of authoritarian mother on total SD to friends through attachment anxiety,  $b = -.334$ ,  $SE = .144$ , 95%  $CI [-.699, -.120]$ ,  $p < .05$  was significant. Higher scores on authoritarian mother were associated with lower scores on total SD to friends through the mediation of attachment anxiety.

#### **4.5.2. Prediction of Total Self Disclosure to Father and Friends: Perceived Parenting Styles and Dimensions of Attachment as Predictor Variables**

Multiple linear regression analyses were conducted to test how strongly the perceived parenting styles and dimensions of attachment predicted total SD to father and friends. Since the association between total SD to same-sex friend and opposite-sex friend was strong ( $r = .84$ ,  $p < .001$ ), mean scores of these two variables were used as total SD to friends. Results were in the same direction when total SD to same-sex friend and opposite-sex friend were analyzed separately. First, multiple regression analyses were conducted after controlling for the effect of gender and age of the adolescent. Only gender was associated with total SD to father, therefore it was retained in the following analyses. Neither gender nor age had association with total SD to friends, as a result these variables are excluded from the analyses considering total SD to friends.

Both regression models predicting total SD to father were significant. Perceived parenting styles predicted total SD to father with an  $R^2$  of 0.23,  $F(4,103) = 7.54$ ,  $p < .001$ ; and dimensions of attachment had an  $R^2$  of 0.14,  $F(3,102) = 5.30$ ,  $p = .002$ . Summary of the both model's results are presented in Table 6 and Table 7.

**Table 4.5.**

*Summary of regression for total SD to father by prediction of perceived parenting styles*

Independent Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>
Gender	9.12	0.22	3.79	<b>2.41</b>
Democratic Mother	0.51	0.29	17.65	<b>2.51</b>
Protective-Demanding Mother	0.18	0.08	0.26	0.69
Authoritarian Mother	-0.93	-0.28	0.50	-1.88

Note. *N* = 108. *B* = unstandardized coefficient of slope,  $\beta$  = standardized coefficient of slope, *SE* = standard error, *t* = *t* score, SD = self-disclosure.

**Table 4.6.**

*Summary of regression for total SD to father by prediction of attachment dimensions*

Independent Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>
Gender	7.93	0.19	3.90	<b>2.04</b>
Attachment Anxiety	-0.19	-0.14	0.13	-1.48
Attachment Avoidance	-0.34	-0.29	0.11	<b>-3.01</b>

Note. *N* = 108. *B* = unstandardized coefficient of slope,  $\beta$  = standardized coefficient of slope, *SE* = standard error, *t* = *t* score, SD = self-disclosure.

Attachment avoidance scores made a statistically significant contribution to the model ( $\beta = -.29$ ,  $p < .001$ ), indicating that higher attachment avoidance was associated with lower self-disclosure to father.

Both regression equations predicting total SD to friends were significant. Perceived parenting styles had an  $R^2$  of 0.13,  $F(3,104) = 5.31$ ,  $p = .002$ ; and dimensions of attachment predicted an  $R^2$  of 0.15,  $F(2,103) = 9.19$ ,  $p < .001$ . However, none of

the perceived parenting styles significantly predicted total SD to friends. Summary of the both models' results are presented in Table 8 and Table 9.

**Table 4.7.**

*Summary of regression for total SD to friends by prediction of perceived parenting styles*

Independent Variable	<i>B</i>	$\beta$	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>
Democratic Mother	0.22	0.16	0.16	1.38
Protective-Demanding Mother	-0.02	-0.01	0.21	-0.09
Authoritarian Mother	-0.59	-0.23	0.38	-1.56

Note. *N* = 108. *B* = unstandardized coefficient of slope,  $\beta$  = standardized coefficient of slope, *SE* = standard error, *t* = *t* score, SD = self-disclosure.

**Table 4.8.**

*Summary of regression for total SD to friends by prediction of attachment dimensions*

Independent Variable	<i>B</i>	$\beta$	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>
Attachment Anxiety	-0.41	-0.40	0.10	<b>-4.21</b>
Attachment Avoidance	0.04	0.04	0.09	0.40

Note. *N* = 108. *B* = unstandardized coefficient of slope,  $\beta$  = standardized coefficient of slope, *SE* = standard error, *t* = *t* score, SD = self-disclosure.

Attachment anxiety scores made a statistically significant contribution to the model ( $\beta = -.40, p < .001$ ), indicating that higher attachment anxiety was associated with lower self-disclosure to friends.

#### **4.5.3. Comparisons Among Subscales of SDI Across Different Targets Considering the Effect of the Participants' Gender**

In order to compare topics of SD across different targets (mother, father, same-sex friend, opposite-sex friend) considering the effect of participants' gender, two-way repeated measures ANOVA with Greenhouse-Gaisser correction was conducted for each topic. These topics were the subscales of SDI, namely (1) thoughts and opinions, (2) family, (3) school, (4) sexuality, (5) personality, and (6) pleasure and interests. Only the results of (1) thoughts and opinions (SD-TO); and (4) sexuality (SD-S) are reported, as gender had a significant main or interaction effect only on these variables.

Results indicated that participants reported different scores of SD-TO to different targets,  $F(2.31, 244.93) = 10.79, p < .001$ . Post hoc tests with Bonferroni correction showed that SD-TO to mother ( $M = 13.23, SD = 2.81$ ) was higher than father ( $M = 11.89, SD = 4.11$ ) ( $p < .001$ ) and opposite-sex friend ( $M = 12.13, SD = 3.94$ ) ( $p = .007$ ) but was not different from same-sex friend ( $M = 13.54, SD = 2.63$ ). Father was significantly lower than same-sex friend ( $p < .001$ ) but was not different from opposite-sex friend. Finally, same sex friend was higher than opposite-sex friend ( $p < .001$ ). Gender differences between participants had a significant main effect on SD-TO  $F(1, 106) = 4.07, p = .046$ . In general, female participants reported more SD-TO compared ( $M = 13.13, SD = 0.33$ ) to males ( $M = 12.09, SD = 0.40$ ). However, the interaction effect was not significant.

For SD-S, results revealed that participants reported different levels of SD-S across different targets,  $F(2.38, 252.50) = 92.55, p < .001$ . Post hoc tests with Bonferroni correction showed that SD-S to mother ( $M = 6.21, SD = 3.33$ ) was higher than father ( $M = 3.46, SD = 3.21$ ) ( $p < .001$ ) lower than same-sex friend ( $M = 8.85, SD = 1.93$ ) ( $p < .001$ ) but not different from opposite-sex friend ( $M = 7.12, SD = 2.90$ ). Father was significantly lower than same-sex friend ( $p < .001$ ) and opposite sex friend ( $p < .001$ ). Finally, same sex friend was higher than opposite-sex friend ( $p < .001$ ). Gender differences between participants did not have a main effect on SD-S; however, interaction between targets of SD-S and gender was significant  $F(2.38, 252.50) = 8.01, p < 0.001$ . This interaction indicated that compared to each other, females self-

disclosed more to the mother and males self-disclosed more to the father in terms of sexuality.

#### **4.5.4. Comparisons among added topics to SDI across different targets considering the effect of the participants' gender**

In order to compare two added topics of SD across different targets (mother, father, same-sex friend, opposite-sex friend) taking into account the effect of participants' gender, two-way repeated measures ANOVA with Greenhouse-Gaisser correction was conducted for each topic. Two additional topics were SD about free time activities (SD-FTA) and romantic relationships (SD-RL).

For SD-FTA, results revealed that participants reported different scores across different targets,  $F(1.99,210.36) = 11.55, p < .001$ . Post hoc tests with Bonferroni correction showed that SD-FTA to mother ( $M = 1.76, SD = 0.46$ ) was higher than father ( $M = 1.48, SD = 0.68$ ) ( $p < .001$ ) and opposite-sex friend ( $M = 1.37, SD = 0.31$ ) ( $p < .001$ ) but not different from same-sex friend ( $M = 1.65, SD = 0.55$ ). Father was not different from than same-sex and opposite-sex friend. Finally, same-sex friend was higher than opposite-sex friend ( $p < .001$ ). Gender differences between participants did not have a main effect on SD-FTA. Interaction between targets of SD-FTA and gender was significant  $F(1.99,210.36) = 1.19, p = 0.011$ . This interaction indicated that compared to each other, males scored higher on SD-FTA to father and mother, while females scored higher for same-sex and opposite-sex friends.

For SD-RL, results indicated that participants reported different scores across different targets,  $F(2.49,264.34) = 52.24, p < .001$ . Post hoc tests with Bonferroni correction showed that SD-RL to mother ( $M = 1.07, SD = 0.90$ ) was higher than father ( $M = 0.45, SD = 0.74$ ) ( $p < .001$ ) lower than same-sex friend ( $M = 1.55, SD = 0.75$ ) ( $p < .001$ ) but not different from opposite-sex friend ( $M = 1.12, SD = 0.88$ ). Father was lower than both same-sex and opposite-sex friend ( $p < .001$ ). Finally, same sex friend was higher than opposite-sex friend ( $p < .001$ ). Gender did not have a main effect on SD-RL. There was a significant interaction between targets of SD-RL and gender



$F(2.49, 264.34) = 7.50, p < 0.001$ . This interaction shows that compared to each other, females self-disclosed more to the mother, same-sex friends and opposite sex-friends while males self-disclosed more to the father in terms of romantic relationships.



## 5. DISCUSSION

The main purpose of the present study was to investigate the relationship between perceived parenting style of the mother, attachment anxiety and avoidance and adolescents' self-disclosure to their mothers. The secondary purpose was to examine adolescents' disclosure preferences about various topics to different targets. In this section, considering the hypotheses, the results of the present study are evaluated in detail in the light of existing literature. Moreover, limitations, strengths and contributions of the study and suggestions for future research are presented

### 5.1. Prediction of Self-Disclosure to Mother by Perceived Parenting Styles

The first hypothesis addressed the question of whether there would be a relation between perceived parenting style of the mother and self-disclosure to mother. More specifically, it was expected that (a) adolescents who perceived their mothers as more democratic would be more likely to make self-disclosure to their mothers while (b) adolescents who perceived their mothers as more authoritarian or protective-demanding would be less likely to make self-disclosure to their mother.

In order to test these hypotheses, multiple regression analyses were done. Findings revealed that democratic parenting style positively predicts adolescents' self-disclosure to their mother, while there was no significant association between authoritarian and protective-demanding parenting styles and self-disclosure to the mother. The existing literature partially support and partially contradict these findings.

In the parenting literature, democratic parenting style is found to be associated with more favorable child outcomes such as high self-esteem, low social anxiety levels and less loneliness (Çelenk, 2003; Kuzgun, 1973; Leary, Kowalsky, 1995). Parents who use democratic parenting style would be expected to respect their adolescent's information management strategies about their private life which probably facilitates adolescent's self-disclosure behaviors that is found to be the most important source of

parents' knowledge about their children (Statin and Kerr, 2000). It was stated that warm and responsive parents obtain greater parental knowledge about their adolescent's whereabouts (Fletcher et al., 2004) and when adolescents perceive their parents as supportive they disclose more and keep fewer secrets (Tilton -Weaver, 2013; Tokic & Pecnik, 2011). Parents who respond in a supportive manner to their children's anxieties also encourage disclosure because children would know that the subject of that disclosure would be welcomed with acceptance and support (Fabes, Poulin, Eisenberg, & Madden-Derdich, 2002).

Availability, positive affective state, giving importance to adolescent's emotional state, understanding and emotional support were parental dynamics that facilitate adolescent self-disclosure (Tokis & Pecnik, 2010). All of these dynamics are characteristics of democratic parenting. These findings in literature were congruent with the significant result of the present study, that democratic parenting style positively predicts adolescents' self-disclosure to their mothers.

In the self-disclosure literature, parental characteristics that are related to authoritarian and protective-demanding parenting styles were associated with low self-disclosure behaviors of adolescents. For both of these parenting styles, "parental control" is crucial. In one study, which examined how parenting dimensions (behavioral control, psychological control and responsiveness) affect self-disclosure, it was found that high responsiveness, high behavioral control, and low psychological control are each independent predictors of self-disclosure (Soenens, Vansteenkiste, Luyckx, and Goossens, 2006). Also, it was found that mother's love withdrawal and not supporting autonomy can cause inhibition of self-disclosure (Roth, Ron and Benita, 2009). Also, Tokic and Pecnik (2010) found that unavailability, negative affective state, intrusive questioning, teasing, lack of understanding and punishment were parental behaviors that inhibit adolescent self-disclosure (Tokic & Pecnik, 2010). However, these findings in the literature would lead to the expectation that authoritarian and protective-demanding parenting style would be negatively related to

the adolescent's self-disclosure, which is not supported by the nonsignificant relationships found in the present study.

In order to investigate nature of the relationships between the variables that were not specified in hypotheses of the present study but thought to be related according to the existing literature, further mediational analyses were conducted.

A significant indirect effect of authoritarian mother on self-disclosure to mother via attachment avoidance was found, indicating that higher scores on authoritarian mother were associated with higher scores on attachment avoidance and lower scores on self-disclosure to mother, so that attachment style mediated the relationship. So, even though authoritarian parenting style of the mother does not directly predict adolescents' self-disclosure to mother alone, with increasing attachment avoidance, it decreases self-disclosure to mother. Results of the Fang's study (2004) revealed a negative significant relationship between authoritarian parenting style and secure attachment which is in accordance with the present finding. This finding is consistent with the literature. Engels, Finkenauer, and van Kooten (2006) found that parents who described the parent-child relationship as including less communication, less trust and more alienation had adolescents who were more secretive. Tilton-Weaver, Kerr, Pakalniskeine, Tokic, Salihovic and Stattin (2010) showed that adolescents whose parents were perceived to be cold and dismissing in response to adolescents' disclosure felt extremely controlled one year later and reported being more secretive the next year.

In addition, a significant indirect effect of democratic mother on self-disclosure to mother via attachment avoidance was found, indicating that higher scores on democratic mother were associated with higher scores on self-disclosure to mother through the mediation of (reduced) attachment avoidance. As discussed above, democratic parenting was already found to positively predict self-disclosure to mother alone, but showing the mediating role of attachment avoidance is an important finding. Results of the Fang's study (2004) revealed a positively significant relationship

between authoritative parenting style and secure attachment which is in accordance with the present finding.

This shows us the important role of democratic mothering for both attachment security and self-disclosure through reduction of attachment avoidance.

Protective-demanding parenting style is the only parenting style which is not found to be related with self-disclosure to mother even with the mediation analyses. One possible reason for this non-significant finding could be the adolescents' traditional perception of protectiveness with regard to their parental relationships. In the traditional Turkish family unit, close monitoring and control may be perceived as assuring their security and wishing a better future for them. According to this, controlling and protective behaviors applied by the parents might be perceived as a sign of their concern and love, with the result that there is little variance in the effect on self-disclosure to the mother; differences among adolescents in this category of parenting are probably due to other factors. While in Western cultures, overprotective parenting attitudes perceived as negatively and have negative outcomes on children, in Turkey and other Asian cultures (Shek, 1989) protective attitudes generally perceived as positive and therefore do not have negative outcomes on children. For example, in Asian culture control perceived as a sign on parental attention and care (Balaguru, 2004).

## **5.2. Prediction of Self-Disclosure to Mother by Dimensions of Attachment**

The second hypothesis was that there would be a relation between attachment anxiety and avoidance and self-disclosure to mother. More specifically, it was expected that (a) adolescents who have high attachment anxiety would be less likely to make self-disclosure to their mothers and (b) adolescents who have high attachment avoidance would be less likely to make self-disclosure to their mother. To test this prediction, multiple regression analyses were done. Findings revealed that attachment avoidance negatively predicted adolescents' self-disclosure to their mother, that is,

more avoidance predicted less self-disclosure. However, attachment anxiety was not significantly associated with adolescents' self-disclosure to their mother. These findings were partially congruent with and partially contradicted by the existing literature.

The limited existing literature about how attachment predicts self-disclosure was examined and it was found that secure and ambivalent individuals made more self-disclosure than avoidant individuals because they felt better in the interaction (Mikulincer and Nachshon, 1991). Also, Aron, Melinat, Aron and Bator (1997) found that university students who have dismissing-avoidant attachment style made less disclosure than students with other attachment styles.

Tan, Overall and Taylor (2012) found that individuals with high attachment avoidance made less self-disclosure toward their partners. This result is consistent with attachment theory that individuals with high levels of attachment avoidance are more prone to think that others will not be responsive if they disclose their feelings or opinions. In addition, people high on attachment avoidance seek emotional and psychological distance from others. They tend to rely on themselves, and not to go to others for support when they become emotionally distressed (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2009). These findings in the literature were congruent with the significant result of the present study showing that attachment avoidance negatively predicts adolescents' self-disclosure to their mothers.

With regard to attachment anxiety, studies have found a general pattern that anxiously attached individuals disclose (a) more than avoidantly attached individuals but (b) approximately the same as securely attached individuals, although with a greater tendency toward disclosing randomly and excessively to others (Mikulincer & Nachson, 1991; Pietromonaco & Barrett, 1997; Tidwell, Reis, & Shaver, 1996). Bradford, Feeney and Campbell (2002) found no significant associations between anxiety and self-reported disclosure intimacy, amount or focus. In addition, Bauminger et al., (2008) showed that avoidant attachment style negatively predicted self-disclosure, whereas anxious attachment style did not significantly predict it.

Mikulincer & Shaver (2003) investigated the role of attachment anxiety and avoidance on self-disclosure in romantic relationships and found that anxiously attached people use self-disclosure as a means of merging with others and decreasing their fear of abandonment rather than as a means of maintaining mutual closeness. Even though anxious people were found to have increased desire to make self-disclosure, they were prone to make random self-disclosure to individuals who were not ready for intimate communication (e.g. strangers and partners who disclose less). These findings in the literature can help to explain the result of the present study, that attachment anxiety is not related to adolescents' self-disclosure to their mothers.

### **5.3.Prediction of Self-Disclosure to Father and Friends by Perceived Parenting Styles and Dimensions of Attachment**

As a follow up analysis, multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine whether self-disclosure to father and friends were predicted by perceived parenting style of the mother and dimensions of attachment. Even though the present study included same-sex and opposite sex friends separately, the association between same-sex and opposite sex friends was strong and therefore the mean of these two variables was used as a single variable.

Findings revealed that self-disclosure to father was negatively predicted by attachment avoidance and positively predicted by democratic mothering. One possible reason for this can be that, Bumpus (2000) found perceived parental support (e.g., maternal and paternal warmth) may lead to a crossover effect in which adolescents' perceptions of warmth from one parent may evoke disclosure to the other parent. Attachment avoidance is an important negative predictor for self-disclosure to both mother and father. This finding is thought to be very important because when an adolescent tends to avoid both parents, how can self-disclosure occur? According to the view that adolescents' self-disclosure is the most important source of parental knowledge (Statin & Kerr ,2000), when avoidance is high, self-disclosure cannot occur

and parents may try to use other information gathering techniques to learn about adolescents' private life which are not as effective as self-disclosure of adolescents. Avoidant persons have been found to experience lack of security with attachment figures (Bowlby, 1982; Shaver & Hazan, 1988) and to deal with attachment discomfort by getting distance from others and as a consequence lack of self-disclosure behavior occurs.

The indirect effects considering self-disclosure to father as dependent variable were not significant. So, attachment avoidance and anxiety did not mediate self-disclosure to father. One possible reason is that research showed that fathers are less chosen for an attachment function than mothers and best friends (Doyle et al., 2009).

Literature shows that parents affect the development of adolescents' relationships with friends (Domitrovich & Bierman, 2001; Updegraff, MaddenDerdich, Estrada, Sales, & Leanord, 2002). For example, higher parental psychological control has been related with lower quality peer relationships (Dekovic & Meeus, 1997; Soenens, Vansteenkiste, Duriez, & Goossens, 2008) and higher parental hostility has been related with lower quality friendships (Domitrovich & Bierman, 2001; Engels, Dekovic, & Meeus, 2002). In the present study, none of the perceived parenting styles significantly predicted self-disclosure to friends. However, with the mediation of attachment avoidance and anxiety significant indirect effects of perceived parenting styles on self-disclosure to friends were found. Bowlby's (1973) studies revealed that attachment styles that have developed in infancy in the adaptation to close relationships continue their effects in later periods of life. Adolescents' self-disclosure behaviors in friendships can be a result of their attachment patterns in the family.

Although the second hypothesis of the present study was only partially supported, since attachment anxiety was not found to predict self-disclosure to mother, when the targets are friends, attachment anxiety negatively predicts self-disclosure. However, in the literature anxious people were found to have increased desire to make self-disclosure. One possible explanation for this can be anxious one's ambivalence in



their close relationships with “push and pull” attitudes to draw attention. Their strategies to cope with risks of abandonment may not be fully work when it is about self-disclosure. In order to prevent the risk of being abandoned, they may hesitate to make self-disclosure to friends which are more easily lost than mothers. Another possible explanation can be that mother–adolescent anxious attachment relationship mainly affects behaviors in romantic relationships but not friendships (Bowlby, 1969/1982). Therefore, negative relationship between attachment anxiety and self-disclosure to friends might not be so illuminating.

Specifically, higher scores on authoritarian and protective parenting styles were associated with lower scores on self-disclosure to friends with the mediation of attachment anxiety. This finding indicates that authoritarian and protective parenting styles increase attachment anxiety and as a consequence self-disclosure to friends decreases. Protective parents tend to worry about their children and friends can be viewed as strangers and talking about issues with friends can be perceived as dangerous by these mothers. As a consequence, adolescents with protective mothers may tend to make less self-disclosure to friends. It was found that controlling parents may diminish adolescents’ expressions of individuality, which might make it difficult for adolescents to develop a sense of closeness with significant others (Cai, Hardy, Olsen, Nelson and Yamawaki, 2013).

Generally results were similar for same-sex and opposite-sex friends, except for the significant indirect effect of authoritarian mother on self-disclosure to same-sex friend via attachment avoidance. Specifically, higher scores on authoritarian parenting styles of the mother associated with lower scores on self-disclosure to friends with the mediation of attachment avoidance.

A study done by Nunes and Mota (2017) found that using behaviors marked by punishment, harshness, and weak affective responsiveness appears to increase the development of insecure bonds with caregiver figures, which in turn, may increase the danger of suicidal ideation; while using democratic behaviors within the family promotes the quality of the emotional bond established with caregiver figures, which

in turn, may decrease the danger of suicidal ideation. Similar to this study's finding, in the present study mother's authoritarian parenting attitudes which probably include punishment, harshness and weak affective responses, and protective parenting attitudes which include cautiousness and problems about separating from the child in order to prevent child from possible dangers may cause attachment anxiety and avoidance which are characteristics of attachment insecurity (e.g., Fraley & Spieker, 2003) and in turn leads to decrease in self-disclosure to friends.

The relationship between democratic parenting style of the mother and self-disclosure to friends is interesting. Results showed that democratic mothering decreases both attachment anxiety and avoidance but the decrease in attachment avoidance is associated with decreased self-disclosure to friends while decrease in attachment anxiety is associated with increased self-disclosure to friends. These findings appeared contradictory to the previous literature which show that attachment anxiety positively predicts self-disclosure while attachment avoidance negatively predicts self-disclosure. One possible reason for this can be that adolescents rank mothers and romantic partners as the top two attachment relationships (Fraley & Davis, 1997) and the relevance of maternal attachment to emotion regulation is greater than friend or romantic attachments (Ratto, Doyle, and Markiewicz, 2016). So, adolescents' feelings of less avoidance may facilitate their self-disclosure to mothers rather than friends. One possible reason for why attachment anxiety negatively predicted self-disclosure to friends with this mediational relationship can be democratic mother's responsiveness to the adolescents' need and building a secure attachment (low levels of attachment anxiety) which affect adolescents' friendships and peer relationships and in turn, increases self-disclosure to friends. Since democratic parenting allows adolescents to grow without restrictions, they might feel comfortable to disclose themselves to friends in addition to their mothers.

#### **5.4. Gender, Topics and Interpersonal Targets of Self-Disclosure: Who Discloses to Whom About What?**

In order to find answer to the question of how adolescents differ in their self-disclosure on different topics (their thoughts and opinions, school, family, sexuality, personality, pleasure and interests, free time activities and romantic relationships) toward different targets (mother, father, same sex friend and opposite sex friend), two-way repeated measures ANOVA was conducted for each topic. The original Self-Disclosure Inventory (SDI) included only the first six topics which were noted above. In this study, it was thought that adding topics about free time activities and romantic relationships will extend our understanding of the adolescents' self-disclosure preferences. So, in the analysis process two added topics were investigated in addition to the other original topics.

In the current literature, studies showed that teens generally disclose more to their mothers compared to their fathers. (e.g., Smetana, Crean, & Daddis, 2002; Smetana & Daddis, 2002). In line with this view, this study is mainly focused on the adolescent-mother relationship dynamics in terms of self-disclosure. So, the main target is mother. Nonetheless, this study also aimed to investigate self-disclosure preferences of adolescents to different interpersonal targets such as fathers, same-sex friends and opposite-sex friends. With that investigation, a comparison between self-disclosure to mother and other interpersonal targets can be made to understand the importance of mothers as a target. In this study, adolescents were expected to make more self-disclosure to mothers when compared to other interpersonal targets.

Two-way repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to test this expectation. The results of the present study show that, in general, adolescents mostly prefer to disclose to mother and same-sex friends and they least prefer to disclose to father about different topics. Gültekin's (2000) study also indicated that students generally preferred mother and same-sex friends for making self-disclosure. Specifically, adolescents made more self-disclosure to their mothers than their fathers. This result supports

Smetana, Metzger, Gettman, and Campione-Barr's (2006) suggestion that mothers may be more likely to have knowledge of their adolescents' behavior because adolescents were more willing to disclose to mothers than to fathers. Karataş, Mercan, & Düzen (2006) made a qualitative research about perceptions of Turkish adolescents' relationships with parents and showed that adolescents described their relationship with mothers as "good" and their fathers as "not good", related to their perceptions that their mothers enable sharing about lots of issues while their fathers are strict and cold. With regards to friendships, it is found that adolescents made more self-disclosure to same-sex friends than opposite-sex friends which supports Mulcahy's (1973) findings that both girls and boys disclose more to same-sex friends compared to opposite-sex friends. In this age, preference for same-sex friendships is common. So, these results are understandable. Particularly in middle childhood and early adolescence, teens are more likely to disclose to same-sex friends than other-sex friends or parents (Buhrmester and Prager 1995).

Regarding "thoughts and opinions" and "free time activities," adolescents prefer to make more self-disclosure to mother and same-sex friends. About "Free time activities" girls disclosed to friends of both genders while boys disclosed more to mother and father. This is congruent with Bowman's (2009) findings that boys generally found it distressing to label their same-sex friendships as intimate. Since self-disclosure brings intimacy, this may be why boys are prone to disclose little in their friendships. In contrast to boys, especially in adolescence girls are found to be more likely to practice intimacy and disclosure in friendships (Berndt 1982; Cohn and Strassberg 1983; Cooper and Ayers-Lopez 1985).

Specifically about "Thoughts and opinions" girls disclosed more than boys. One possible reason for that can be girls display more social-evaluative concerns than boys (Maccoby 1990). Revealing "thoughts and opinions" to others can be explained by girls' intention to learn others' evaluations.

Fathers were preferred less than other targets for different self-disclosure topics except the free time activities topic. One possible reason for this, mothers spend more

time with their adolescents and are more likely to be involved in communications about personal and impersonal issues (Youniss & Smollar, 1985) while fathers prefer to engage more in leisure activities with their adolescents (Collins & Russell, 1991).

In the literature, gender influence on adolescent self-disclosure was examined (Crouter, Bumpus, Davis, & McHale, 2005; Keijsers, Branje, Frijns, Finkenauer, & Meeus, 2010; Smetana et al., 2009; Soenens et al., 2006; Stattin & Kerr, 2000). In general, middle school and high school adolescent girls tend to disclose more than boys, boys tend to avoid talking about personal topics more than girls, and unlike girls who disclose information fully or partially to parents, boys try to avoid talking about topics with parents (Smetana et al., 2009; Soenens et al., 2006; Stattin & Kerr, 2000). Possible reasons for this can be boys' anxiety about negative interpersonal responses if they show vulnerability by talking about problems (Pollack, 1998; Pollack & Shuster, 2000); boys ignore vulnerability and give importance to firmness (Eder & Parker, 1987; Schofield, 1981) and independence more than girls (Cross & Madson, 1997).

Studies found that adolescents often think that they are more obligated to share information with their parents about prudential moral, and conventional issues, but are less obligated share when they believe issues are personal (Cumsille et al., 2010; Darling et al., 2006; Smetana, 2011, Smetana et al., 2006). Also, Rotenberg and Sliz (1998) revealed that adolescents prefer to disclose more intimate information to friends than nonfriends. So, in line with these findings, the results of the present study indicate that adolescents of both genders preferred to make more self-disclosure to same-sex friends and less self-disclosure to fathers about "sexuality" and "romantic relationships". "Sexuality" and "romantic relationship" topics can be considered as more personal issues which creates "arena of privacy" (Buhrmester and Prager, 1995). So, it is understandable that adolescents' preferences tend toward same-sex friendships when topics are more personal.

On topics about "Sexuality" and "Romantic Relationship" girls preferred mothers and boys preferred fathers to self-disclose. Crouter et al. (2005) found that girls would often disclose more to their mothers and boys would generally disclose

more to their fathers. They also found that adolescents of both genders tended to disclose more to their mothers than fathers since fathers depend on mothers for information about their children. Additionally, both mothers and fathers tend to know more about their same-gender children (i.e., mothers-daughters, fathers-sons) than about their opposite gender children (Crouter, Helms-Erikson, Updegraff, & McHale, 1999) which can be explained by parents spending more time in shared activities with children of their same gender, which leads to more chances to get knowledge about their child.

### **5.5. Strengths, Limitations and Future Recommendations**

Before discussing the limitations of the study, the strengths of the study should be underlined. Firstly, this study was a first in terms of examining the effects of perceived parenting style of the mother and attachment avoidance and anxiety on adolescent self-disclosure to mother. Secondly, there are not enough studies in Turkey about adolescent disclosure specifically focusing on the mother-adolescent relationship, and this study will contribute to existing literature in terms of Turkish public high school population.

Regarding limitations, first one is about the generalization of data since it is collected from only one public high school in Istanbul. Another limitation is the homogeneity and the size of sample. It could be possible to suggest more meaningful results with a larger sample and other demographic contexts (e.g., different private and public high schools from different districts of Istanbul). In addition, information about participants SES and parental education level would be helpful to understand demographic features of the sample.

Second limitation concerns the single-source data which includes adolescents' reports only. Previous studies have shown that adolescents' perceptions of their family context may be more essential than parents' viewpoints for predicting adolescent

outcomes (Jaccard, Dittus, & Gordon, 1998). Future research might include parents' perspectives in addition to adolescents' perceptions for comparison.

Third limitation is that adolescents participating in the present study were between the ages of 15 and 18 years. This age range is similar to other parental monitoring studies but with the increase in age freedoms expand (e.g., earning the permission to drive), and these freedoms may have meanings for the monitoring process for older adolescents. Therefore, studies which focus on self-disclosure of university students are needed.

Fourth limitation is that the study of parenting styles was limited to mothers. Since fathers have been shown to react to their children's emotions in less supportive ways than mothers (Klimes-Dougan et al., 2007; Stocker et al., 2007), it is also important to understand paternal factors that facilitate adolescent disclosure of distressing experiences. Future research would also benefit from a detailed examination of peer, father and romantic partner influence on adolescent self-disclosure.

Fifth limitation is although self-disclosure about different topics was included in the present study, all topics were about daily issues of adolescents' life. Previous work (e.g., Hasebe, Nucci, & Nucci, 2004; Smetana, Campione-Barr, & Daddis, 2004; Smetana & Daddis, 2002; Smetana, Villalobos, Tasopoulos-Chan, Gettman, & Campione-Barr, 2009) suggest that adolescent disclosure and parental monitoring differ by domain. For example, according to these studies parents believe they have more legitimacy to control information about prudential domains like using drugs, than about personal domains like how adolescents prefer to dress. Therefore, it would be interesting to include different domains in future studies. In addition, the present study did not include self-disclosure on traumatic events, but only specified revealing information about one's life, emotions, and thoughts. In future, a further study could focus on self-disclosure of traumatic events such as sexual abuse.

A final limitation is that present study did not investigate the effects of self-disclosure on adolescents' life. In future, investigating how self-disclosure provides benefits for adolescent's life (i.e. psychological well being, life satisfaction, academic

performance) will be important to improve self-disclosure literature and prove the importance of self-disclosure especially in adolescence.

To sum up, in spite of several limitations, the present study identified some of the aspects of the mother-adolescent relationship that predict teens' willingness to disclose. In addition, this study investigated adolescents' disclosure preferences about various topics to different targets. More specifically, findings of the present study made important contributions to the self-disclosure literature by emphasizing the effects of both parenting styles and attachment dimensions on adolescent's self-disclosure processes in a Turkish sample. In the Turkish adolescence literature, the self-disclosure concept is seldom investigated no previous study has explored this concept in relation with parental and attachment related dynamics. Looking at these dynamics simultaneously expanded our understanding about what adolescents need for disclosing themselves to their parents and significant others. Comparing different targets and topics is also very crucial to understand adolescent's different preferences and using these findings while being a parent or practitioner who works with adolescents and families.

This study is important for practitioners who work with adolescents and their families. Practitioners can use this study's outcomes, which demonstrate the importance of the mother's parenting style for adolescents' self-disclosure, to make mothers more informed about the importance of adolescents' disclosure behaviors regarding their whole life. They can also invite mothers to encourage their adolescent's disclosures. Parenting interventions for promoting skills which are associated with authoritative parenting to improve the overall relationships may be particularly beneficial in increasing adolescent self-disclosure. Knowing the importance of attachment avoidance which is an important determinant of self-disclosure is also crucial for increasing adolescent self-disclosure. Adolescents who may seem to be avoidant in close relationships should not be underestimated and should be encouraged to share thoughts and emotions by parents or significant others. Also, knowing what topics adolescents prefer to share with different people in their life, especially with



their friends, will help to understand that they have preferences in their life and they deserve respect. The outcomes of this study will be important to see adolescents' disclosure preferences about various topics to different people and therefore practitioners and parents can form realistic expectations of disclosure from them. According to findings of this study, adolescents give nearly as much importance to same-sex friendships as to their mothers and when the subject is personal and intimate (for example sexuality or romantic relationships) they prefer to talk with their same-sex friends rather than their parents. So, practitioners who work with adolescents should also explain to parents the importance of friendships in this age and even if their adolescents feel comfortable to make self-disclosure to them, preference toward friendships when disclosing more personal issues should be seen as normal. Practitioners should also inform parents that when they use harsh discipline techniques, the emotional bond with their adolescents gets harmed too. Also, results of the present study indicated that there is no significant relationship between mothers' protectiveness and self-disclosure of adolescents. So, Turkish protective mother's efforts to control their adolescents were found to be not related with adolescent self-disclosure. Explaining this finding to mothers which are overprotective toward their adolescents would be beneficial for both mother and adolescents. High school's psychological counseling services should organize programmes in order to improve friendships especially same-sex friendships which is more preferable to disclose personal issues.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A: Bilgi University Ethical Committee Approval Form

#### ETİK KURUL DEĞERLENDİRME SONUCU/RESULT OF EVALUATION BY THE ETHICS COMMITTEE

(Bu bölüm İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurul tarafından doldurulacaktır /This section to be completed by the Committee on Ethics in research on Humans)

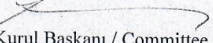
**Başvuru Sahibi / Applicant:** Dilay Celasun

**Proje Başlığı / Project Title:** Adolescents' Self-Disclosure to Mother: Links to Attachment Style and Perceived Parenting Style of Mother

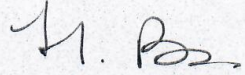
**Proje No. / Project Number:** 2018-20024-07

1.	Herhangi bir değişikliğe gerek yoktur / There is no need for revision	XX
2.	Ret/ Application Rejected Reddin gerekçesi / Reason for Rejection	


Değerlendirme Tarihi / Date of Evaluation: 19 Ocak 2018

  
Kurul Başkanı / Committee Chair

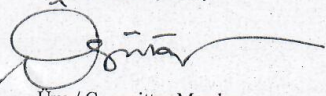
Doç. Dr. İtir Erhart

  
Üye / Committee Member


Prof. Dr. Hale Bolak

  
Üye / Committee Member


Prof. Dr. Koray Akay

  
Üye / Committee Member


Doç Dr. Ayhan Özgür Toy

  
Üye / Committee Member

Prof. Dr. Aslı Tunç


  
Üye / Committee Member

Prof. Dr. Turgut Tarhanlı

  
Üye / Committee Member

Prof. Dr. Ali Demirci

## APPENDIX B: Ministry of Education Consent Form



T.C.  
İSTANBUL VALİLİĞİ  
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 59090411-20-E.4832062  
Konu : Anket ve Araştırma İzin Talebi

07/03/2018

VALİLİK MAKAMINA

İlgi: a) 14.02.2018 tarihli ve 3160281 Gelen Evrak No'lu dilekçe.  
b) MEB. Yen. ve Eğ. Tk. Gn. Md. 22.08.2017 tarih ve 12607291/2017/25 No'lu Gen.  
c) Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü Araştırma ve Anket Komisyonunun 06.03.2018 tarihli tutanağı.

İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü yüksek lisans öğrencisi Dilay CELASUN'un "**Ergenlerin Annelerinden Algıladıkları Bağlanma ve Ebeveynlik Stillerinin Kendilerini Annelerine Açmaları Üzerindeki Etkisi**" konulu tezi kapsamında, ilimiz Kadıköy ilçesinde bulunan resmi-özel liselerde öğrenim gören öğrencilere; demografik bilgi formu, kendini açma envanteri, anne-baba tutum ölçeği ve yakın ilişkilerde yaşantılar envanterini uygulama istemi hakkındaki ilgi (a) dilekçe ve ekleri Müdürlüğümüzce incelenmiştir.

Araştırmacının söz konusu talebi; bilimsel amaç dışında kullanılmaması, **uygulama sırasında bir örneği müdürlüğümüzde muhafaza edilen mühürlü ve imzalı veri toplama araçlarının kurumlarımıza araştırmacı tarafından ulaştırılarak uygulanması, katılımcıların gönüllülük esasına göre seçilmesi, araştırma sonuç raporunun müdürlüğümüzden izin alınmadan kamuoyuyla paylaşılmaması koşuluyla, okul idarelerinin denetim, gözetim ve sorumluluğunda, eğitim-öğretimi aksatmayacak şekilde ilgi (b) Bakanlık emri esasları dâhilinde uygulanması, sonuçtan Müdürlüğümüze rapor halinde (CD formatında) bilgi verilmesi kaydıyla Müdürlüğümüzce uygun görülmektedir.**

Makamlarınızca da uygun görülmesi halinde olurlarınıza arz ederim.

Ömer Faruk YELKENCİ  
Millî Eğitim Müdürü

OLUR  
07/03/2018

Ahmet Hamdi USTA  
Vali a.  
Vali Yardımcısı

Ek:1- Genelge  
2- Komisyon Tutanağı

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Tel: (0 212) 455 04 00-239  
Faks: (0 212)455 06 52

Bu evrak güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır. <https://evraksorgu.meb.gov.tr> adresinden 28aa-58ea-38f5-92c0-9263 koda ile teyit edilebilir.

## APPENDIX C: Parent Informed Consent Form

Sayın Veli,

Çocuğunuzun İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi klinik psikoloji bölümü yüksek lisans öğrencisi Dilay Celasun'un "Ergenlerin Kendilerini Başkalarına Açması" konulu tez çalışmasında katılımcı olması istenmektedir.

Bu çalışmaya lise ikinci ve lise üçüncü sınıf öğrencisi olan bireyler katılabilecektir. Öğrenciler, yaklaşık 35- 40 dakika sürecek olan anket formlarını kendileri dolduracaklardır. Çocuğunuz eğer araştırmaya katılmaya devam etmek istemezse, istediği yerde çalışmayı bırakma hakkı kendisine tanınacaktır.

Katılımcı olarak çocuğunuzun kimliği gizli kalacaktır. İsim ve soy ismini sadece onam formunun üstüne imzalarken yazması gerektir ve araştırmanın hiçbir yerinde kullanılmayacaktır. Bu araştırmadan elde edilen bilgiler grup olarak değerlendirilecektir. Bu çalışmaya katılım gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır.

Çalışmayla ilgili sorularınız olursa araştırmacı Psk. Dilay Celasun'a 532 608 37 99 numaralı telefondan ya da dilaycelasun@hotmail.com e-posta adresinden ya da çalışmanın danışmanı olan Prof. Dr. Diane Sunar'a [dsunar@bilgi.edu.tr](mailto:dsunar@bilgi.edu.tr) adresinden ulaşabilirsiniz. Araştırmaya değerli katkılarınız için şimdiden çok teşekkür ederim.

Araştırmanın şartlarını okudum ve çocuğumun bu çalışmaya katılmasına **izin veriyorum**

Araştırmanın şartlarını okudum ve çocuğumun bu çalışmaya katılmasına **izin vermiyorum**

İsim:

Soy isim:

İmza:

**Not: Çocuğunuzun bu çalışmaya katılmasına izin vermemeniz durumunda, çocuğunuz anketleri dolduracak fakat doldurduğu anketler veri analizinde kullanılmayacaktır.**

## APPENDIX D: Participant Informed Consent Form

Değerli Katılımcı,

İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi klinik psikoloji bölümü yüksek lisans öğrencisi Dilay Celasun'un "Ergenlerin Kendilerini Başkalarına Açması" konulu tez çalışmasına katılımınızı rica ediyorum.

Bu çalışmaya lise ikinci ve lise üçüncü sınıf öğrencisi olan bireyler katılabilir. Formun doldurulması 35-40 dakika sürer. Araştırmanın güvenilirliği açısından bütün soruları boş bırakmadan cevaplamanız beklenmektedir. Bu çalışmaya katılım gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Eğer araştırmaya katılmaya devam etmek istemezseniz, istediğiniz bir yerde çalışmayı bırakma hakkınız vardır.

Katılımcı olarak kimliğiniz gizli kalacaktır. İsim ve soy isminizi sadece onam formunun üstüne imzalarken yazmanız gerekmektedir. Bu form, araştırmanın soru kısmından ayrı olarak dağıtılacaktır ve sonrasında da ayrı olarak saklanacaktır. Araştırmanın başka herhangi bir yerinde isim veya soy isim yazmanız gerekmemektedir. İsim ve soy isminiz araştırmanın hiçbir yerinde kullanılmayacaktır. Bu araştırmadan elde edilen bilgiler grup olarak değerlendirilecektir. Soruların doğru veya yanlış bir cevabı yoktur. Eğer çalışmaya katılmaya gönüllü olursanız lütfen bütün soruları olabildiğince samimi bir şekilde kendi yaşantınız doğrultusunda cevaplamaya çalışın.

Çalışmayla ilgili sorularınız olursa araştırmacı Psk. Dilay Celasun'a 532 608 37 99 numaralı telefondan ya da dilaycelasun@hotmail.com e-posta adresinden ya da çalışmanın danışmanı olan Prof. Dr. Diane Sunar'a [dsunar@bilgi.edu.tr](mailto:dsunar@bilgi.edu.tr) adresinden ulaşabilirsiniz. Araştırmaya katılarak yaptığımız değerli katkı ve ayırdığımız zaman için çok teşekkür ederim.

Araştırmanın şartlarını okudum ve katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

Araştırmanın şartlarını okudum ve katılmayı kabul etmiyorum.

İsim:

Soy isim:

İmza:

## APPENDIX E: Demographic Information Form

Değerli öğrenciler,

Bilimsel bir araştırma yapmak amacıyla size yönelik bazı sorular hazırlanmıştır. Sizden istenen, her maddeyi dikkatlice okuyarak kendi durumunuza en uygun olacak şekilde yanıtlamanızdır. Vereceğiniz içten ve doğru cevaplar, bu araştırmaya önemli katkılar sağlayacaktır. Cevaplarınız gizli tutulacak ve sadece bu araştırma için kullanılacaktır.

Lütfen cevaplanmamış soru bırakmayınız. Yardımlarınız için teşekkür ederim.

Dilay CELASUN

İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü

Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

1. **Cinsiyetiniz:** Kız \_\_\_\_\_ Erkek \_\_\_\_\_
2. **Yaşınız:** \_\_\_\_\_
3. **Okulunuz:** \_\_\_\_\_
4. **Sınıfınız:** \_\_\_\_\_
5. **Sizin için uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz.**
  - a) Annem ve babam hayatta
  - b) Annem hayatta, babam hayatta değil
  - c) Babam hayatta, annem hayatta değil
  - d) Annem ve babam hayatta değil
6. **Anne ve babanızın medeni durumu:**
  - a) Evli
  - b) Boşanmış
  - c) Ayrı yaşıyor
  - d) Yeniden evlenmiş / Anne \_\_ Baba\_\_
7. **Kim veya kimlerle birlikte yaşıyorsunuz?**
  - a) Annem ve babamla
  - b) Yalnızca annemle
  - c) Yalnızca babamla
  - d) Diğer \_\_\_\_\_
8. **Sizin için uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz.**
  - a) Annem Öz \_\_\_\_\_ Üvey \_\_\_\_\_
  - b) Babam Öz \_\_\_\_\_ Üvey \_\_\_\_\_
9. **Ailede kaç kardeşsiniz? (siz hariç) (Lütfen kardeşlerin cinsiyetini ve yaşını belirtiniz.)** \_\_\_\_\_
10. **Romantik bir ilişkiniz var mı? Varsa süresini belirtiniz.**
  - a) Evet \_\_\_\_\_
  - b) Hayır \_\_\_\_\_

## APPENDIX F: Self-Disclosure Inventory (SDI)

Bu envanter sizin çevrenizdeki bazı bireylere karşı kendinizi açma davranışlarınızı ölçmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Envanterdeki ifadeleri dikkatle okuyun. Bu ifadelerde belirtilen konularda annenize, babanıza, aynı cins ve karşı cins arkadaşınıza ne ölçüde içinizi dökebileceğinizi, düşünce ve duygularınızı açıklayabileceğinizi düşünün.

Eğer bir konuyu bu bireylerden herhangi birine olduğu gibi **rahatlıkla anlatabiliyorsanız** ilgili boşluğa “2” rakamını yazın. Eğer aynı konuyu rahatlıkla anlatamıyor ve **yüzeysel olarak geçiştiriyorsanız** ilgili boşluğa “1” rakamını yazın. Yine aynı konuyu o bireyle bu konuda hiç konuşmuyorsanız, ona bu konuda bir şey **anlatmıyorsanız** ilgili boşluğa “0” rakamını yazın. Lütfen bu işlemi her bir ifade ve her bir birey için yapın.

	İFADELER	ANNE	BABA	AYNI CİNS ARKADAŞ	FARKLI CİNS ARKADAŞ
0.0.	Kadın – erkek eşitliği ile ilgili düşüncelerim				
0.1.	Günlük siyasal konularla ilgili düşüncelerim				
0.2.	Paranın insan hayatındaki yerine ilişkin görüşlerim				
0.3.	Yeni ve değişik yollara karşı tavrım				
0.4.	Çevremizdeki insanlar hakkındaki düşüncelerim				
0.5.	Günlük hayatında dinin yeri				
0.6.	Ana-baba, çocuk ilişkilerinin nasıl olması gerektiğine ilişkin görüşlerim				
0.7.	İnsanların nasıl daha mutlu olacağına ilişkin görüşlerim				
1.0.	Sınavlardaki başarım				
1.1.	Derslerin hoşuma giden ve gitmeyen yanları				
1.2.	Öğretmenlerimle olan ilişkilerimdeki problemlerim				
1.3.	Aldığım kırık notlar				



1.4.	Sınıf arkadaşlarımla olan ilişkilerimdeki problemlerim				
1.5.	Okullardaki kuralların gerekliliği veya gereksizliği				
1.6.	Sınav zamanlarına ilişkin problemlerim				
1.7.	Ailemin sosyal ve kültürel özellikleri				
2.0.	Annemle olan ilişkilerimin iyi ve kötü yanları				
2.1.	Babamla olan ilişkilerimin iyi ve kötü yanları				
2.2.	Ailemin maddi durumu				
2.3.	Kardeşlerimle olan ilişkilerim				
2.4.	Ailemin beni desteklediği konular.				
2.5.	Ailemin beni engellediği konular				
2.6.	Anne veya babamın benimle ilgili düşünce ve isteklerim				
2.7.	Ailemin sosyal ve kültürel özellikleri				
3.0.	Karşıt cinsten biri ile olan arkadaşlık ilişkilerim				
3.1.	Karşıt cinsten bireylere nasıl davrandığım				
3.2.	Kız- erkek arkadaşlığının sınırları konusundaki düşüncelerim				
3.3.	Karşıt cinsle ilgili güzellik veya yakışıklılık standartları				
3.4.	Karşı cinsten ilgi duyduğum bireyle ilgili düşünce ve duygularım				
4.0.	Beğendiğim kişilik özelliklerim				
4.1.	Huyularım ve alışkanlıklarım				

4.2.	Kişiliğimin beni kaygılandıran yanları				
4.3.	Kendimi suçladığım konular				
4.4.	İnsanların beğenisini kazanmak için neler yaptığım				
4.5.	Günlük duygusal değişimlerim				
4.6.	Gizli sırlarım				
4.7.	Başka insanların beni nasıl gördükleri				
5.0.	Okuduğum kitaplar				
5.1.	Hoşlandığım müzik türü				
5.2.	Sevdiğim sinema, tiyatro eserleri ve televizyon programları				
5.3.	Giyimle ilgili zevklerim				
5.4.	Boş zaman uğraşlarım				
5.5.	Ne tür arkadaşlardan hoşlandığım				
5.6.	Hoşlandığım sportif faaliyetler				
5.7.	İlgimi çeken insanlar ve olaylar				
6.0.	Hafta sonları neler yaptığım, nereye gittiğim ve kimlerle olduğum				
6.1.	Okul çıkışlarında neler yaptığım, nereye gittiğim ve kimlerle olduğum				
6.2.	Romantik ilişkim				

## APPENDIX G: Parental Attitudes Scale (PAS)

Size, ana babaların çocuklarını hangi yöntemlerle yetiştirdiğini, çocuklarına toplumsal davranışlar kazandırırken nasıl davrandığını ifade eden cümlelerden oluşan bir liste verilmiştir. Sizden istenen, bu cümleleri okuyup bunların **annenizin** sizi eğitirken genellikle benimsediği davranışlara ne derecede benzediğini, onların tutumuna ne kadar uyduğunu düşünerek “**Hiç Uygun Değil**” ibaresinden “**Tamamen Uygun**” ibaresi arasında beşli dereceleme yaparak maddelerin karşısına seçeneklerden en uygun bulduğunuzu işaretlemenizdir.

		<b>Hiç Uygun Değil</b>	<b>Pek Uygun Değil</b>	<b>Biraz Uygun</b>	<b>Çok Uygun</b>	<b>Tamamen Uygun</b>
<b>1</b>	Bana her zaman güven duygusu vermiş ve beni sevdiğini hissettirmiştir					
<b>2</b>	Çok yönlü gelişmem için beni olanakları ölçüsünde desteklemiştir.					
<b>3</b>	Her yaptığım isin olumlu yanlarını değil kusurlarını görmüş ve beni eleştirmiştir.					
<b>4</b>	Her zaman basıma kötü bir şey gelecekmiş gibi beni koruyup kollamaya çalışır.					
<b>5</b>	Aramızdaki ilişki ona içimi açmaya cesaret edemeyeceğim kadar resmidir.					
<b>6</b>	Arkadaşlarımı eve çağırma izin verir, geldiklerinde onlara iyi davranırdı.					
<b>7</b>	Elinden geldiği kadar, her konuda benim fikrimi almaya özen gösterir.					
<b>8</b>	Çevremizdeki çocuklarla beni karşılaştırır, onların benden daha iyi olduklarını söylerdi.					
<b>9</b>	Bana hükmetmeye çalışır.					

10	Bugün bile alışverişe çıkacağım zaman, kandırılacağımı düşünerek benimle gelmek ister.					
11	Benden her zaman gücümün üstünde başarı beklemiştir.					
12	Fiziksel ve duygusal olarak kendisine yakın olmak istediğim zaman soğuk ve itici davranırdı.					
13	Sorunlarımı onunla rahatlıkla konuşabilirim.					
14	Neden bazı şeyleri yapmam ya da yapmamam gerektiğini bana açıklar.					
15	Birlikte olduğumuz zamanlar ilişkimiz çok arkadaşçıdır.					
16	Kendi istediği mesleği seçmem konusunda beni zorlamıştır.					
17	Sevmediğim yemekleri, bana yarayacağı düşüncesi ile zorla yedirirdi.					
18	Sınavlarda hep üstün başarı göstermemi istemiştir.					
19	Kendimi yönetebileceğim yaşlarda bile gittiği her yere beni de götürür, benim evde yalnız kalmamdan kaygılanırdı.					
20	Evde bir konu tartışılırken görüşlerimi söylemem için beni teşvik eder.					
21	Küçük yaşımdan itibaren ders çalışma ve okuma alışkanlığı kazanmam konusunda bana yardımcı olmuştur.					
22	Küçüklüğümde bana yeterince vakit ayırır; parka, sinemaya götürmeyi ihmal etmezdi.					

23	Benim gibi bir evladı olduğu için kendini bahtsız hissettiğini sanıyorum.					
24	Okulda başarılı olmam konusunda beni zorlar, düşük not aldığımda beni cezalandırırdı.					
25	Beni kendi emellerine ulaşmak için bir araç olarak kullanırdı.					
26	Beni daima yapabileceğimden fazlasını yapmaya zorlar.					
27	Paramı nerelere harcadığımı ayrıntılı bir biçimde denetler.					
28	Her zaman, her iste kusursuz olmam gerektiği inancındadır.					
29	Ona yakınlaşmak istediğimde bana sıcak bir şekilde karşılık verir.					
30	Bana önemli ve değerli bir kişi olduğum inancını aşmıştır.					
31	Cinsellik konusunda karşılaştığım sorunları kendisine anlatmak istediğimde hep ilgisiz kalmıştır.					
32	Benim iyiliğimi istediğini, benim için neyin iyi olduğunu ancak kendisinin bileceğini söyler.					
33	Her zaman nerede olduğumu ve ne yaptığımı merak eder.					
34	İyi bir iş yaptığımda beni övmekten çok daha iyisini yapmam gerektiğini söyler.					
35	Cinsel konularda çok tutucu olduğu için onun yanında bu konulara ilgi gösteremem.					
36	Aile ile ilgili kararlar alınırken benim de fikrimi öğrenmek ister					

<b>37</b>	Beni olduğum gibi kabul etmiştir.					
<b>38</b>	Başkalarına benden daha çok önem verir ve onlara daha nazik davranır.					
<b>39</b>	Günlük olaylar hakkında anlattıklarımı ilgi ile dinler ve bana açıklayıcı cevaplar verir.					
<b>40</b>	Benimle genellikle sert bir tonda ve emrederek konuşur.					

**Appendix H: Turkish adapted version of the Experiences in Close Relationships Scale - Revised for Children and Adolescents (ECR-RC)**

Aşağıdaki maddeler **annenizle olan ilişkinizde** hissettiğiniz duygularla ilgilidir. Bu araştırmada sizin annenizle olan ilişkinizde yalnızca şu anda değil, genel olarak neler olduğuyula ya da neler yaşadığınızla ilgilenilmektedir. Her bir maddenin annenizle olan ilişkinizdeki duygu ve düşüncelerinizi ne oranda yansıttığını karşılardaki 7 aralıklı ölçek üzerinde, ilgili rakam üzerine çarpı (X) koyarak gösteriniz.

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7  
Hiç Kararsızım/ Tamamen katılmıyorum  
fikrim yok katılıyorum

1. Annem artık beni sevmeyecek diye korkuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Gerçekte ne hissettiğimi anneme söylemekten hoşlanmıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Annemin beni terk edebileceğinden korkuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Anneme, ne düşündüğümü ve ne hissettiğimi kolaylıkla söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Annemin beni gerçekten sevmediğinden korkuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Annemin yardımına ihtiyacım olduğunu kabul etmekte zorlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Annemin, benim onu sevdiğim kadar beni sevmediğinden endişe ediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Anneme yakın olmak, ona sarılmak konusunda rahatımdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Benim annemi sevdiğim kadar annemin de beni sevmesini isterim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Kendim hakkındaki birçok şeyi anneme söylemekte zorlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Annemle olan ilişkimiz hakkında kaygılanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Annemle çok yakın olmayı tercih etmem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

13. Annemi görmediğim zamanlarda beni artık düşünmüyor diye endişeleniyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Annem bana çok fazla sarılıp kucakladığında rahatsız olurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Anneme sevgimi gösterdiğimde, onun beni aynı derecede sevmeyeceğinden korkarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Kendimi anneme her zaman yakın hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Annemin beni terk edeceğinden pek korkmam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Anneme yakın olmak benim için hiç de zor değildir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Annemin söylediği ve yaptığı bazı şeyler kendimden şüphe etmeme neden olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Sorunlarım ve endişelerim hakkında annemle konuşurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Annemin beni terk edeceğinden korkmuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde annemle konuşmak beni rahatlatır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Annemin bazen, benim istediğim kadar yakın olmak istemediğini hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Anneme hemen hemen her şeyi anlatırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Bazen annemin bana olan duygularının sebepsiz yere değiştiğini düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Her şeyi olduğu gibi annemle konuşurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. Kendimi anneme çok yakın hissetmek istediğim halde, onun bundan hoşlanmayacağından korkuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Annem bana çok yakın olmayı istediği zamanlarda kendimi rahatsız ve gergin hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Gerçekten ne düşündüğümü ve hissettiğimi bilirse annemin artık beni sevmeyeceğinden korkuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Annemden kolaylıkla yardım isteyebilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



31. Annemden istediğim kadar sevgi ve destek göremediğim için ona kızgınım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. Anneme kolaylıkla güvenebilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. Annemin diğer çocukları düşündüğü kadar beni düşünmeyeceğinden korkarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. Anneme olan sevgimi göstermek benim için kolaydır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. Ancak bir sorun çıkardığımda annemin dikkatini çekebildiğimi düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. Annemin beni çok iyi anladığını hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7