

SOLICITATION AND EMOTION SOCIALIZATION IN TURKISH ADOLESCENTS'
SOCIOEMOTIONAL ADJUSTMENT: A COMBINED PREDICTIVE MODEL

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SOCIOEMOTIONAL ADJUSTMENT: A COMBINED PREDICTIVE MODEL

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Zeynep Kömbe Elazab, certify that

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ABSTRACT

Solicitation and Emotion Socialization in Turkish Adolescents' Socioemotional Adjustment: A Combined Predictive Model

Previous research has indicated that parental emotion socialization (ES) and solicitation may support socioemotional adjustment especially during adolescence. However, the literature still does not have a sufficient answer to how these two parenting behaviors operate together in relation to adolescent socioemotional adjustment. This thesis comprises of two survey studies that examined how parental solicitation, supportive and nonsupportive ES separately and combined predict socioemotional adjustment in a sample of Turkish adolescents. ES practices' role as a moderator the relation between parental solicitation and adolescent outcome variables was also investigated.

The first study consisted of 183 mothers ($M_{age}=42.11$, $SD_{age}= 5.04$) who reported their parenting behaviors and their adolescents' adjustment. Results from this study indicated that when considering all parenting behaviors together, nonsupportive ES negatively predicted prosocial behaviors and positively predicted internalizing and externalizing problems significantly. Supportive ES and solicitation each significantly predicted prosocial behaviors positively. Marginally significant interactions between solicitation and nonsupportive ES in the prosocial behaviors model and solicitation and supportive ES in internalizing problem were explored. The second study consisted two socioculturally and socioeconomically representative samples of 376 ($M_{age}=40.24$, $SD_{age}= 5.34$) mothers and 323 fathers ($M_{Age}= 43.06$, $SD_{Age}= 5.48$). Results showed that solicitation was marginally significantly related to externalizing behaviors in both paternal and maternal models and significantly related to prosocial behaviors in the paternal model. Significant interactions between solicitation and supportive ES in the internalizing problems

model and solicitation and nonsupportive ES in the prosocial behaviors model for the maternal dataset. Results are discussed with regards to sociocultural and socioeconomic contexts and the self-determination theory.

ÖZET

Türk Ergenlerinin Sosyo-Duygusal Gelişiminde Ebeveyn Aktif Takip Etme ve Duygu

Sosyalleştirme Davranışları: Bir Yordama Modeli

Ergenlerin sosyo-duygusal gelişimleri için ebeveyn duygu sosyalleştirmesinin (DS) ve istek/talep davranışlarının önemli olduğu önceki araştırmalarda gösterilmiştir. Literatürde bu iki ebeveynlik davranışının birlikte ergenin dışsallaştırma, içselleştirme ve prososyal davranışlarla nasıl ilişkilendirildiğine dair yeterli çalışma yoktur. Bu tez, ebeveyn talebi, destekleyici ve destekleyici olmayan DS'nin hem ayrı ayrı hem de bir arada olmak üzere, Türk ergenlerde dışsallaştırma, içselleştirme ve prososyal davranışları nasıl yordadığını inceleyen iki anket çalışmasından oluşmaktadır. Buna ek olarak, DS uygulamalarının ebeveyn talebi ile ergenlerin dışsallaştırma, içselleştirme ve prososyal davranışları ile olan ilişkisini nasıl etkilediği araştırılmıştır.

İlk çalışma, ebeveynlik davranışlarını ve ergenlerin gelişimsel sonuçlarını bildiren 183 anneden oluşmaktadır ($Ort_{yaş}=42.11$, $SS_{yaş}= 5.04$). Tüm ebeveynlik davranışları birlikte değerlendirildiğinde, destekleyici olmayan DS'nin prososyal davranışları negatif olarak yordadığı; içselleştirme ve dışsallaştırma sorunlarını anlamlı düzeyde pozitif olarak yordadığı bulunmuştur. Destekleyici DS ve talep, prososyal davranışları anlamlı düzeyde pozitif olarak yordamıştır. Talep ve destekleyici DS arasındaki marjinal olarak anlamlı etkileşim içselleştirme modelinde, talep ve destekleyici olmayan DS arasındaki marjinal olarak anlamlı etkileşim prososyal davranışları modelinde incelenmiştir.

İkinci çalışma, 376 anneden ($Ort_{Yaş}=40.24$, $SS_{Yaş}= 5.34$) ve 323 babadan ($Ort_{Yaş}= 43.06$, $SS_{Yaş}= 5.48$) oluşan sosyokültürel ve sosyoekonomik olarak temsili iki örneklem içermektedir. Sonuçlara göre talebin hem anne hem de baba regresyon modellerinde dışsallaştırma davranışlarıyla marjinal olarak anlamlı bir şekilde ilişkili olduğu ve talebin baba modelinde prososyal davranışları pozitif

yönde anlamlı düzeyde yordadığı bulunmuştur. Talep ve DS arasındaki etkileşimler incelendiğinde anlamlı ilişkiler olduğu görülmüştür. Anne örnekleminde destekleyici DS düşük olduğunda talep, içselleştirme sorunlarını pozitif yönde yordamıştır. Ayrıca annenin talep davranışları yalnızca destekleyici olmayan DS düşük olduğunda prososyal davranışları olumlu düzeyde yordamıştır. Sonuçlar sosyokültürel, sosyoekonomik bağlamda ve öz-belirleme kuramı çerçevelerinde tartışılmıştır.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Adolescence is a period of rapid psychological change and transition during which youth gain critical cognitive and socio-emotional skills. Yet, this period also embraces impulsivity, risk taking, and adaptation to puberty-related physical changes that might increase the risks for externalizing and internalizing problems (Dahl et al., 2018; Soenens, Vansteenkiste & Beyers; 2019). During this developmental period, individuals deal with academic and employment stressors along with uncertainties and expectations about their future (Crosnoe & Johnson, 2011; Moksnes et al., 2010; Sabates, Harris, & Staff, 2011; Sun et al., 2011). The developmental period of adolescence also involves changes both in relationships with their parents (Branje et al., 2009; De Goede, Branje, & Meeus, 2008; Larson et al., 1996; Morris et al., 2007) and their expanding peer networks (Blakemore, 2018; Kilford, Garrett, & Blakemore, 2016; LaFontana & Cillessen, 2010). With an increasing need for autonomy (Costa et al., 2016), adolescents' relationships with their parents have more conflicts (Branje et al., 2009) and secrecy (Lionetti et al., 2019), along with less warmth and support (De Goede, Branje, & Meeus, 2008). Youth also go through changes in the interpersonal domain that involve new romantic relationships (Giordano, Manning, & Longmore, 2010; Madsen & Collins, 2011), and expanding peer relations (Blakemore, 2018; Kilford, Garrett, & Blakemore, 2016; LaFontana & Cillessen, 2010). Increases in peer influence during adolescence can also make them vulnerable to the effects of peer contagion and victimization (Dishion & Tipsord, 2011).

Studies have shown that regardless of changes in parent and peer relationships during adolescence, parental factors are predictive of adolescent well-being and development beyond

peer factors (Yeung & Leadbeater, 2010). Increases in risk-taking, unsupervised time (Kobak et al., 2017), and peer-orientation highlights the importance of parental surveillance and knowledge of their adolescent to prevent them from getting into dangerous endeavors. Among the many parenting behaviors present in the literature, solicitation has been widely investigated in relation with adolescent adjustment. The increase in autonomy and conflicts with parents would require parents to respond to their adolescents' emotions and track their behaviors in ways that would not further exacerbate the parent-adolescent conflict, highlighting the importance of parental acceptance and affection. In other words, adolescents' need for parental guidance is best met when parents give importance to adolescents' need for autonomy, relatedness, and competence, the basic psychological needs according to the self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Tokić Milaković, Glatz, & Pećnik, 2018).

Emotion socialization (ES), which refers to parental practices in response to child's emotions has also been receiving increasing attention considering the youth's high emotionality and low inhibitory control in adolescence (Casey, Getz, & Galvan, 2008; Casey, Jones, & Hare, 2008). The neurobiological changes in the adolescent brain have been claimed to be related to increases in emotional reactivity (Dahl & Gunnar, 2009; Forbes & Dahl, 2010), sensitivity to social rewards (Blakemore & Mills, 2013; Dahl et al., 2018), and disproportionality between emotion regulation abilities and impulsivity (Casey, Getz, & Galvan, 2008; Casey, Jones, & Hare, 2008), highlighting the need of parental assistance for emotion regulation. There is evidence for the increasing importance of parental emotion regulation support as protective factors against the development of problem behaviors in adolescence (Leussis & Andersson, 2008; Oppenheimer et al., 2016).

With regards to parenting behaviors and developmental outcomes, Darling and Steinberg (1993) have emphasized the importance of the broader parenting context when understanding the impact of more specific socialization practices. Accordingly, children and adolescents can benefit

more from positive parental practices within the context of positive parent-child relationships. For example, in a study done by Baudat et al. (2019), the combination of high solicitation with high versus low autonomy-granting had a different impact on adolescents' secrecy and lying. Adolescents whose parents were high on solicitation but low on autonomy-granting were more likely to tell lies, while adolescents whose parents were high on both solicitation and autonomy-granting were less likely to tell lies. Even though solicitation is an important component of parental structure, Rodríguez-Meirinhos et al. (2019) found when parental solicitation is combined with autonomy-thwarting parenting practices, it is not viewed as a form of structure but rather as a form of pressure by the adolescent. In other words, a parent high on both solicitation and autonomy-granting could be viewed as an involved parent, while a parent of high solicitation with low autonomy-granting could be viewed as intrusive parenting. Thus, it is important to investigate the unique and combined contributions of various parenting practices to adolescent development.

The goal of this thesis is to examine Turkish parents' solicitation, and supportive and non-supportive reactions to sadness and anger in relation to their socioemotional adjustment outcomes in a sample of youth ranging in age from 10 to 17 years. These parenting practices were chosen because they either support or threaten adolescents' sense of autonomy, relatedness, and competence. In examining parenting practices in Turkey, this thesis also relied on previously conducted qualitative interviews and elucidated statements of emotion socialization and solicitation behaviors typically endorsed by Turkish parents, some of which do not appear in the commonly used questionnaires. Inclusion of these items to the original scales enabled us to adequately reflect culturally-relevant parenting items of these parenting constructs. Thus, this study was centered on the importance of context, both family and cultural context, in parenting and adolescent socioemotional development.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Importance of the self-determination theory in adolescence

Using the developmental contextualist approach and focal model, Coleman (2010) argues that adolescents are agentic individuals who address the challenges and tasks specific to this developmental. One major developmental task of an adolescent is to acquire the necessary skills to be a well-functioning adult within his/her specific context. In accordance to this task, adolescents experience changes in school, family, and peer environments that slowly help them adapt to the environment that awaits them in adulthood. They try to gain autonomy and form a more egalitarian relationship between their parents (Smetana, 2010), handle more challenging academic requirements (Arsenio & Loria, 2014), and develop more sophisticated knowledge about sociability through peer relationships (Brown, 2004; Hitti et al., 2014). While working on these tasks, adolescents also have to deal with the biological and emotional changes they are going through due to puberty. An interaction between the societal expectations from adolescents, neurobiological developmental processes, and the adolescent's idiosyncrasies create a unique experience of this developmental period. This is consistent with Hollenstein and Loughheed's (2013) 4T (typicality, transition, temperament, and temporality) approach, in which they model how adolescent biological, environmental, and individual factors interact with each other. In this direction, it can be argued that parenting behaviors that support adolescents during this challenging developmental period are more likely to contribute to positive adolescent adjustment.

Scholars who use the self-determination theory argue that parenting behaviors that are in line with the fulfillment of adolescents' needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness are

related to youth adjustment (Cao et al., 2020; Joussemont, Landry, & Koestner, 2008; Soenens, Vansteenkiste, & Beyers, 2019; Tokić Milaković, Glatz, & Pećnik, 2018). According to Soenens, Vansteenkiste, and Beyers (2019), adolescents' need for relatedness can be met by parental involvement, warmth, support, and sensitivity, while the need for competence is met by parents' efforts to provide structure to their adolescents' lives through providing clear behavioral guidelines, monitoring them, and giving effective feedback with regards to their progress in certain activities. Therefore, it can be argued that supportive ES that involves emotional support and scaffolding is in line with adolescents' need for relatedness and for competence. Moreover, parental solicitation efforts that are done without thwarting the adolescent's need for autonomy is also an important way to foster relatedness and structure. To elaborate, through the process of parental tracking and supportive attempts to shape adolescents' emotions, parents monitor their adolescents' daily activities to detect whether the adolescent experienced an emotionally salient event and provide guidelines on how to deal with such events while regulating one's emotions. Teaching how to cope with one's emotions is one of the main goals of parental emotion socialization (Eisenberg, Cumberland, & Spinrad, 1998), and adolescents who have learned adequate coping mechanisms for emotions are more likely to be competent in various areas of their life such as academics (Arsenio & Loria 2014) and interpersonal relationships (Mavroveli et al., 2007). Also, solicitation efforts when done under autonomy-supportive contexts can be interpreted as parental involvement by the adolescent.

According to Soenens, Vansteenkiste, and Beyers (2019) and Roth, Vansteenkiste, and Ryan (2019), parents can support adolescents' need fulfillment for autonomy by accepting their emotions, supporting self-expression, understanding their perspective, encouraging them to solve their problems by themselves, which underlie supportive emotion socialization behaviors (Eisenberg, Cumberland, & Spinrad, 1998). These authors also define autonomy-thwarting parenting as invalidating adolescents' emotions and discouraging emotion-expression, which are

also the main components of parental nonsupportive emotion socialization. Therefore, a combination of solicitation and emotion socialization is a parenting behavior that taps on all three of adolescents' basic psychological needs. . To elaborate, through the process of parental tracking and supportive attempts to shape adolescents' emotions, parents monitor their adolescents' daily activities to detect whether the adolescent experienced an emotionally salient event and provide guidelines on how to deal with such events while regulating one's emotions. Teaching how to cope with one's emotions is one of the main goals of parental emotion socialization (Eisenberg, Cumberland, & Spinrad, 1998), and adolescents who have learned adequate coping mechanisms for emotions are more likely to be competent in various areas of their life such as academics (Arsenio & Loria 2014) and interpersonal relationships (Mavroveli et al., 2007). Also, solicitation efforts when done under autonomy-supportive contexts can be interpreted as parental involvement by the adolescent. The importance of satisfying these basic psychological needs is underlined in the literature. Studies have shown that adolescents whose basic psychological needs are supported are less likely to develop internalizing and externalizing problems, and are more likely to develop various social competencies (Brenning et al., 2021; Tian et al., 2018). Therefore, it can be argued that these parenting behaviors are important for adolescents' socioemotional development through different mechanisms. They support the satisfaction of the basic psychological needs, which is negatively related to the development of internalizing and externalizing problems. These parenting behaviors also serve as protective factors against the social, psychological, and physiological challenges that arise during adolescence, as it will be discussed below.

2.2 Social and emotional adjustment indicators in adolescence

2.2.1 Internalizing and externalizing problems

Externalizing problems usually encompass aggressive behaviors, delinquency, and hyperactivity (Achenbach et al., 1987). Examples of such behaviors are shoplifting, intentionally harming people physically or relationally, lying, and other violations of norms and rules. Internalizing problems is an umbrella term that encompasses issues related to emotion dysregulation problems that are directed towards the individual themselves such as depression- and anxiety-related symptoms and disorders. According to self-reports, externalizing behaviors increase throughout adolescence, often seen higher in middle adolescence than in early adolescence (Lahey et al., 2000). Danielson et al. (2018) reported rates of both externalizing and internalizing disorders combined as between 14.4% - 30.5% in four different states in the USA, while the 12-month prevalence of any CIDI-DSM-IV disorder in Dutch adolescents was 31% (Ormel et al., 2015). Merikangas et al. (2010) found prevalence rates of 31.9%, 19.1%, and 14.3% for anxiety disorders, behavior disorders (Conduct disorder, ADHD, oppositional defiant disorder), and depression, respectively in middle and late adolescence, in which the median age of onset for behavior disorders and depression were early adolescence. The prevalence rates of internalizing and externalizing problems in Turkey during middle childhood and adolescence have been reported as 8.9% and 9.3% in one study with a sample of children ages 6-18 (Simsek et al., 2007), and 24.3% and 3.5% in another study with a sample of 6-11 years old children (Husky et al., 2017). These rates suggest that adolescence is a sensitive period for developing externalizing problems (Turpyn et al., 2021). Across childhood and adolescence, the onset of major depressive disorder is 14 years by average in a Dutch sample (Ormel et al., 2015). Furthermore, epidemiological studies have shown that the 12-month prevalence of major depressive disorder and dysthymia increase with the transition from childhood to adolescence, and throughout the adolescence (Avenevoli et al., 2015; Merikangas et al., 2010).

Adolescents' vulnerability towards developing internalizing and externalizing problems is multidetermined, due to a combination of physiological, psychological, and social risk factors

that often predate the adolescence period. Yet, the unique social stressors and changes in adolescence are likely to increase the risk for psychological problems. For example, adolescents have more unsupervised time and autonomy than in earlier periods, and risk-taking tendencies reflected in neurobiological development in adolescents can increase their vulnerability for truancy, substance use, or gang involvement (Howell & Lynch, 2000; Vaughn et al., 2013; Whitesell et al., 2013). There are also increases in stressful life events for middle and late adolescents in the past decade (Jozefiak, Wallander, & Lydersen, 2022), along with a rise in technology and media usage that increase the risk of cyberbullying and insufficient social interaction (Twenge et al., 2021), all of which are related to depression and anxiety symptoms (Danneel et al., 2019; Olenik-Shemesh, Heiman, & Eden, 2012; Vanhalst et al., 2012). Adolescents' concerns and worries about current academic performance and future employment and economic opportunities are probably primary agendas for themselves and their families (Anniko, Boersma, & Tillfors, 2019; Shek, 2003; Tikkanen, 2016). Given these unique stressors of adolescence that increase the risk of psychological problems, it is important to investigate parenting factors that are relevant to such stressors and related to the development of socioemotional problems.

2.2.2 Prosocial behaviors

Prosocial behaviors are actions done in favor of another person, and have important implications for individuals and societies (Eisenberg, Fabes, & Spinrad, 2006). In the transition from childhood to adolescence, youth start to use higher level moral reasoning strategies such as reasoning based on the internalization of rules and laws and generalized reciprocity (Eisenberg et al., 1991). Furthermore, they have a wider range of diverse experiences compared to children, along with their increase in autonomy that allows them to be less dependent on their parents to behave in a prosocial manner. For example, the opportunity for volunteerism and other forms of civic

engagement usually begins in adolescence (Crocetti, Jahromi, & Meeus, 2012; Metzger & Smetana, 2010; Ranapurwala, Casteel, & Peek-Asa, 2016). Moral identity development in adolescence also makes prosocial behaviors significant for the socioemotional adjustment of youth (Carlo & Padilla-Walker, 2020).

According to a recent meta-analysis, prosocial behavior was negatively related to internalizing and externalizing problems during adolescence, leading the authors to argue that prosocial behaviors function as a protective factor against various problem behaviors (Memmott-Elison et al., 2020). The authors also point out that prosocial behaviors, externalizing behaviors, and internalizing problems rest on individuals' self-regulation skills, meaning socio-emotional adjustment indicators have a common underlying mechanism. Interestingly, trajectories of prosocial behaviors (Carlo et al., 2007; Carlo et al., 2015; Crocetti et al., 2016; Malti et al., 2015) indicate a decrease in early adolescence and a rebound in late adolescence, while adolescent negative emotionality, emotional instability, conflict with parents, and other problem behaviors are present more in early adolescence than late adolescence (De Goede, Branje, & Meeus, 2009; Holsen, Kraft, & Vittersø, 2000; Karriker-Jaffe et al., 2008; Larson & Lampman-Petratis, 1989; Maciejewski et al., 2015; McGue et al., 2005). Therefore, it is important to consider how factors predict emotional and behavioral problems along with prosocial behaviors.

2.3 Parenting and adolescent socioemotional adjustment

There have been many studies that looked at the relationships between parenting factors and externalizing and internalizing problems (Galambos, Barker, & Almeida, 2003), and prosocial behaviors (Padilla-Walker, Nielson, & Day, 2016) in adolescence. Of particular importance to the present study are parental solicitation, and emotion socialization in adolescence.

2.3.1 Parental solicitation

Parental solicitation has been defined as parental attempts to gather information about their adolescents' activities, whereabouts, and other experiences through conversing with the adolescents and other individuals close to the adolescents (Kerr & Stattin, 2000; Stattin & Kerr, 2000). Considering how adolescents are able to spend more time in places and activities that are not supervised by the parent (Borawski et al., 2003; Larson et al., 1996), it has been argued by some researchers that a parent who "monitors" these activities would keep track of any risky situation their adolescent may encounter and take the necessary precautions (Dishion & McMahon, 1998). Based on this reasoning, many studies have been conducted to show the efficacy of parental monitoring on externalizing behaviors. In spite of this excitement, many researchers argued that there was a conceptual confusion of "parental monitoring" with regards to its operationalization (Crouter & Head, 2002; Keijsers, 2016; Kerr & Stattin, 2000; Stattin & Kerr, 2000). According to these researchers, many studies have measured "parental monitoring" through parental knowledge of their adolescent's whereabouts and activities rather than specific parental tracking behaviors. Kerr and Stattin (2000) made a distinction between parental knowledge, adolescent disclosure, parental solicitation, and parental control to determine how they relate to each other and adolescent adjustment. The results indicated adolescent disclosure was a stronger predictor of parental knowledge than parental solicitation, which is comprised of parental behaviors that reflect active effort in retrieving information about their adolescents. Even though parental knowledge and adolescent disclosure predicted better adolescent outcomes, active parental effort defined in terms of control or solicitation did not have as strong of a relationship with adolescent outcomes as adolescent disclosure and parental knowledge did. To prevent any misconceptions, this thesis focused solely on studies that investigated parents' active efforts of information attainment, in which the terms "monitoring" or "solicitation" were either used. However, only the term "solicitation" will be used to prevent confusion.

Interestingly, the impact of parental solicitation on adolescent adjustment are not consistent among empirical studies. Many studies done with North American and Western European samples indicated that parental solicitation does not play a positive role in adolescent socioemotional development. For example, Kerr, Stattin, and Burk (2010) found that parental solicitation was not a longitudinal predictor of lower risk for delinquency in mid-adolescence. While some studies could not find a significant relationship between solicitation and adolescent adjustment (Criss et al. 2015; Rekker et al., 2017), some actually found positive relationship between solicitation and adolescent maladjustment (Delforterie et al., 2016; Hawk, Becht, & Branje, 2016; Hawk et al., 2008) and negative relationship with adjustment (Hessel, He, & Dworkin, 2017). In Dutch mid-adolescent samples, parental solicitation was not only viewed as invasive (Hawk, Becht, & Branje, 2016; Hawk et al., 2008), it was also positively related to substance use (Delforterie et al., 2016), and adolescent secrecy and lying (Hawk, Becht, & Branje, 2016). However, it did not have a significant relationship with delinquency in another Dutch sample (Rekker et al., 2017). Additionally, paternal solicitation in a sample from the United States negatively predicted prosocial behavior and positively predicted externalizing and internalizing problems in adolescents (Hessel, He, & Dworkin, 2017). In contrast, Criss et al. (2015) found that when considering adolescent disclosure and parental involvement, which is defined by how much the parent and adolescent spend quality time with each other, in the same model, parental solicitation was not related to adolescent antisocial behavior, substance use, and academic performance in an ethnically diverse North American sample. Another study from the United States showed that solicitation did not predict Hispanic and non-Hispanic early and mid-adolescents' conduct problems and depressive symptoms (Fernandez et al., 2020). Adolescent disclosure was also not predicted by parental solicitation in a sample of North European middle adolescents (Tilton-Weaver, 2014). However, data from other studies indicate that the relationship between this parenting behavior and adolescent outcomes may not be that simple. Most of these studies measured solicitation through the parental solicitation subscale of Kerr and Stattin's (2000)

parental monitoring questionnaire, indicating that Kerr and Stattin's work can be considered a landmark for parental solicitation studies.

Contrary to the findings presented above, there are also studies that reflect the importance of parental solicitation for adolescent externalizing outcomes. However, these studies have also indicated that the relationship between solicitation and adolescent outcomes is not simple. Interestingly, in a European American and African American sample, parental solicitation predicted less antisocial behavior in early adolescents who had more unsupervised time and believed less in the legitimacy of their parents' authority (Laird, Marrero, & Sentse, 2009). Moreover, Baudat et al. (2019) examined a significant relationship between the parental solicitation and adolescent information management with parents, and autonomy-supportive parenting as a moderator in a Swiss sample. The results showed the combination of high parental solicitation and autonomy supportive parenting predicted the least amount of adolescent lying, while the combination of low autonomy supportive parenting and high solicitation was related to increased lying (Baudat et al., 2019).

Kapetanovic and Skoog (2020) addressed the conflicting results in the literature by investigating the relationship between parental solicitation and adolescent externalizing problems within the context of family emotional climate. Their findings showed a negative relationship between parental solicitation and Swedish mid-adolescents' delinquency and conduct problems. Yet, they also found that this relationship was only significant when the family emotional climate was positive (i.e., non-overcontrolling parental attitudes and parent-adolescent connectedness). When the family emotional climate was negative, solicitation was not significantly related to adolescent outcomes. Based on this pattern of results, the authors argued that the emotional climate of a family plays a role in adolescents' differential perception of parental solicitation as either a form of privacy invasion or care. Similarly, in a study conducted with rural American early adolescents, parental solicitation was negatively related to delinquency and substance abuse

through the mediation of parental knowledge of parents who were higher on warmth, but not of parents who were lower on warmth (Lippold et al., 2014). Additionally, parental solicitation was found to predict prosocial behavior in European American early adolescents through the mediating role of perceived parent-adolescent relationship quality (Yoo, Feng, & Day, 2013). To sum it all up, it seems that the impact of parental solicitation in Western samples depends on other parental and adolescent factors.

However, studies from non-Western countries portray a different pattern compared to studies done in the Western contexts (Smetana, 2017). Li et al. (2021) found that early maturation predicted depressive symptoms through increased rumination, and solicitation moderated the relationship between pubertal timing and sadness rumination in Chinese female early and mid-adolescents. The relationship between early maturation and rumination was not significant for adolescents who had reported higher parental solicitation. Thus, the authors claimed that through solicitation, Chinese parents might prevent their daughters from developing maladaptive coping mechanisms. Furthermore, parental solicitation positively predicted late adolescent disclosure (Hawk, 2017), and self-control during middle adolescence (Li, Zhang, & Wang, 2013), and negatively predicted hopelessness during early, middle, and late adolescence (Li et al., 2015), and peer victimization during mid-adolescence (Li, Zhang, & Wang, 2013) in other Chinese samples. A study done in Turkey also found a negative relationship between solicitation and adolescents' externalizing as well as internalizing problems (Selçuk, Uçanok, & Sayıl, 2021). The authors argued that behavioral control in general was considered by Turkish adolescents as a form of involvement, attention, and care, rather than an invasion of their privacy and a threat to their autonomy.

Putting together the findings presented above once again underlines the importance of studying parenting behaviors contextualized among other parenting factors and culture. Even though the literature on parental solicitation mainly views it as a means for parental control, the

meaning of parental solicitation might be different depending on parental warmth and culture. Some parents and adolescents might see solicitation as purely a form of supervision and control, while others might see it as a form of involvement and an opportunity for connecting with each other. Parents might use this behavior to show their adolescent that they care about their experiences and perspectives, which could be interpreted by the adolescent as a form of validation. Additionally, parental solicitation also gives parents the chance to give support and guidance to adolescents when they are experiencing problems. Without knowing the adolescent's situation, the parent would not be able to choose the effective behaviors for their adjustment. Thus, the meaning of a parenting behaviors is defined not only by what the literature claims it to be, but also how each adolescent-parent dyad views it as well. The meaning the adolescent-parent dyad gives to solicitation, or any other parenting behavior, depends on other parenting behaviors found within the dyad, emotional climate of the dyad, cultural context, and other individual characteristics of the adolescent and parent.

2.3.2 Parental emotion socialization

Considering the increase in conflicts with parents during adolescence and emotional reactivity (Blakemore & Mills, 2014; Branje et al., 2009; Casey, Jones, & Somerville, 2011), adolescence is an important period to solidify emotion regulation competence. Some researchers argue that affection and acceptance within a parent-adolescent relationship do not only buffer against the negative impacts of these conflicts, but also allow adolescents to learn important adaptive socioemotional skills with regards to conflict resolution and emotion regulation (Branje, 2018; Cui et al., 2015; Smetana, Campione-Barr, & Metzger, 2006). Although adolescents share emotionally salient events with their peers, research shows that they may not always receive appropriate guidance and support from peers, who also have not developed their emotion regulation skills sufficiently yet. On the other hand, conversations with parents about emotionally

salient events have been shown to provide more emotional engagement and guidance to adolescents than conversations with peers (Miller-Slough & Dunsmore, 2016; 2021). Furthermore, adolescents may get impacted by their peers' own distress or model maladaptive coping mechanisms from their peers (Brechwald & Prinstein, 2011). These findings indicate the continuing importance of parents' role for the emotion regulation competence of adolescents.

Parental emotion socialization comprises of practices that convey attitudes regarding emotions to their adolescents in order to help them learn how to manage emotional experiences and expressions in socially appropriate ways. How parents interact with their adolescents in emotionally salient events are opportunities for adolescents to learn how to regulate and express their own emotions which in turn have important implications for their social skills (Lopes et al., 2005) and overall well-being and adjustment (Llamas-Díaz et al., 2022; Quoidbach et al., 2010). Eisenberg, Cumberland, and Spinrad (1998) have laid out a heuristic model showing the predictors of parental emotion socialization behaviors, the possible child outcomes of these behaviors, and possible moderators in this relationship. This model had three mediums of emotion socialization, namely emotional expression, responses to emotions, and emotion talk. However, specific parental reactions to adolescents' emotions are of particular importance to the present thesis. These reactions have generally been categorized into supportive and non-supportive reactions (Eisenberg, Cumberland, & Spinrad, 1998; Fabes et al., 2002). Supportive responses are comprised of parents' problem-focused responses, emotion-focused responses, and emotional expressive encouragement. Problem-focused responses entail parents' attempts in scaffolding the youth to cope with the negative emotions, while emotion-focused responses involve comforting through verbal reassurance and physical affection. Expressive encouragement refers to parental validation of the child's emotions, and acceptance for the appropriate expression of child's emotions (Fabes et al., 2002). Supportive ES responses have been generally related to positive outcomes such as decrease in conduct problems in childhood and adolescence (see Johnson et al.,

2017 for review), decreased externalizing and internalizing symptoms and increased adaptive skills in European American and Chinese cultural contexts (Yang et al., 2020), and social competence in European American cultural contexts (McElwain, Halberstadt, & Volling, 2007). On the other hand, unsupportive responses include punitive reaction, minimizing, and parental distress. Punitive reactions include scolding or power-assertive acts in response to the child's emotions, while minimizing refers to belittling the child's emotional experience (Fabes et al., 2002).

Even though the focus of the parental emotion socialization literature is on the early childhood period, the relationship between parental supportive/non-supportive responses to adolescents' emotions and socioemotional adjustment has also been explored. Non-supportive ES responses have been related to negative outcomes such as an increase in conduct problems in childhood and adolescence (see Johnson et al., 2017 for review). In a cross-sectional questionnaire study with parents and their adolescents (ages 11-16), both mothers' and fathers' supportive strategies were found to be negatively related to internalizing and externalizing problems, while non-supportive strategies were positively related to these problems (Klimes-Dougan et al., 2007). Cui et al. (2020) found longitudinal connections between maternal supportive and non-supportive emotion socialization and internalizing symptoms in the expected direction for a sample of middle and late adolescents. Buckholdt, Parra, and Jobe-Shields (2014) found cross-sectional evidence for the same relationship with a sample consisting mostly of African Americans. An observational study with mostly European American middle and late adolescents found supportive emotion socialization to be related to adolescent disclosure (Martin, Kim, & Freyd, 2018). Furthermore, an experimental study with early and middle adolescents (ages 9-14) also had findings in a similar direction for anxiety-related outcomes (Oppenheimer et al., 2016).

Aside parental responses to negative emotions in general, some researchers have looked into how parents display differential reactions to submissive (sadness, fear) and dominant (anger)

emotions (O’Neal & Magai ,2005). For example, O’Neal and Magai (2005) found that early and mid-adolescents perceived more rewarding (a mixture of emotion-focused and problem focused responses) and punishing (punitive) responses from their parents for sadness compared to anger. Even so, non-supportive responses to both submissive (Hastings et al., 2014) and dominant emotions (O’Neal et al., 2017) have been related to adolescent internalizing disorders. Differential relations of paternal and maternal ES were found by Sanders et al. (2013), in which maternal non-supportive responses to sadness and paternal non-supportive responses to anger predict depressive symptomology in early European American adolescents. However, even though the investigation of how parental responses to anger and sadness differential impacts on adolescent adjustment is a worthy endeavor, many studies combine scores into general supportive and nonsupportive ES variables due to high correlations between the responses to sadness and anger (Cui et al., 2020; Perry et al, 2020; Trevethan et al., 2021).

The relationship between parental emotion socialization and the above-mentioned outcomes can be explained through the mediating role of emotion regulation competence (Chen et al., 2020; Perry et al., 2020; Tan et al., 2020). As previously discussed, emotion regulation and reactivity have been shown to be important correlates of adolescent externalizing behaviors (Garnefski, Kraaij, & van Etten, 2005; Modecki, Zimmer-Gembeck, & Guerra, 2017), internalizing problems (Garnefski, Kraaij, & van Etten, 2005; Loughheed & Hollenstein, 2012), and prosocial behaviors (Carlo et al., 2012). Thus, within the process of parental emotion socialization, children and adolescents learn adaptive emotion regulation skills through supportive reactions. On the contrary, they gain the tendency to get more distressed through nonsupportive ES mechanism (Eisenberg, Cumberland, & Spinrad, 1998). Social learning can also explain how ES is related to adolescent socioemotional outcomes. Based on the social-learning theory, parents who express warm and supportive parenting practices towards their children model socially desirable ways of interacting with individuals (Walters, 2021), which can lead to

children/adolescents to develop prosocial behaviors (Bandura, 1997; Eisenberg et al., 2003). Other researchers agree that the context of an emotionally supportive and warm parent-child relationship catalyzes children's internalization of moral values that parents try to teach (Eisenberg et al., 2015; Grusec & Goodnow, 1994; Hoffman, 2000). Another way to explain how ES is related to adolescent outcomes is through the self-determination theory (Soenens, Vansteenkiste, & Beyers, 2019). Supportive ES practices encourage the adolescent's self-expression, support them to autonomously find solutions to their problem, show affection, and give guidance regarding emotion regulation, which are all related to the satisfaction of the basic psychological needs of autonomy, relatedness, and competence (Eisenberg et al., 1998). On the other hand, nonsupportive ES threatens the satisfaction of the basic needs by invalidating the adolescent's self-expression, belittling their experience, punishing their emotional expression, being punitive and disregarding, and not giving effective guidance to deal with emotional problems.

Results from neurobiological studies indicate that parental supportive and non-supportive responses to children's and adolescent's negative emotions are connected to differences in structure and function of brain areas that are related to emotion regulation and affective reactivity (Chen et al., 2020; Tan et al., 2020). To give an example, Chen et al. (2020) found that supportive parental emotion socialization behaviors related to a decrease in positive connectivity between the ventromedial prefrontal cortex and the amygdala in toddlers, indicating a more developed regulation of the amygdala's activities. Moreover, Whittle et al. (2009) found that non-supportive responses to adolescents' positive emotions was related to greater right amygdala size, which could imply that such responses relate to increases in emotional reactivity in adolescence. Another study found emotion-focused responses were related to an increase in neural activation of emotion regulation related systems in the brain of anxious adolescents, indicating increased emotional reactivity and recruitment of executive control processes (Butterfield et al., 2019).

Turkish students go through a very stressful period in high school while preparing for the university entrance exam. Academic and future-related concerns are of top priority for Turkish adolescents (Demir, 2020; Sahin & Sahin, 1995). The higher education and employment system in Turkey is highly competitive and puts a lot of stress on its participants. Handling high amounts of current academic burden along with dealing anxieties about future burdens could put Turkish adolescents at risk for developing socioemotional problems. With regards to internalizing disorders in Turkish culture, Cakin Memik et al. (2010) found that adolescents from low SES background had higher social anxiety levels. Furthermore, the authors compared the statistics found in their study with studies from North America (La Greca, 1999), China (Zhou et al., 2008), and Spain (Olivares et al., 2005), and found that Turkish adolescents had higher anxiety levels from that of North American adolescents, less than Chinese adolescents, and the same as Spanish adolescents. Thus, it is clear that Turkish adolescents are in need of guidance in dealing with stressors and emotional experiences.

Even though there are many studies regarding emotion socialization practices of Turkish mothers of preschool children (e.g. Altan-Aytun, Yagmurlu, & Yavuz, 2013; Corapci, Aksan, & Yagmurlu, 2012; Ersay, 2014; Okur & Corapci, 2016) only one peer-reviewed paper has been found investigating adolescents (Güven & Erden, 2017). The authors of this study examined the mediating role of nonsupportive emotion socialization in the relationship between mothers' education level and self-blame with adolescents' externalizing problems. They found that nonsupportive responses mediated the relationship maternal education and self-blame with externalizing behaviors cross-sectionally, in which lower maternal education and high maternal self-blame was positively predicted externalizing problems through nonsupportive ES.

2.4 The integrative/contextual approach to studying parenting behaviors

Another issue that needs further investigation is the contextualization of parenting behaviors within the grander scheme of parenting as a whole. In Eisenberg, Cumberland, and Spinrad's (1998) model, they considered how general parenting styles predict specific emotion socialization behaviors. Similarly, Friedlmeier, Corapci, and Cole (2011) also addressed how emotion socialization is situated within broader social values and norms that direct parenting goals and practices. However, there are other ways of contextualizing parenting behaviors. Recent research on a new term called "mindful parenting" combines five different parenting factors under this term: parental attention to child's talk, self-regulation, emotional awareness of themselves and their child, acceptance of themselves and their child, compassion for themselves and their child (Lippold et al., 2015; Yang, Deng, & Wang, 2021). Rather than exploring the impact of each of these individual parenting factors on child outcomes, these researchers believe that what constitutes a "mindful parent", which they argue is important for parent-child relationship and child outcomes, is the combination of these factors rather than just one of them. They argue that each of these factors play a significant role in fostering a healthy parent-child relationship. Furthermore, one can argue that similarly to a gestalt effect, the combined effect of all these parenting factors might be greater than the sum of each individual factor, which emphasizes the importance of studying different parenting practices together. Taking another perspective, analyzing different parenting practices within the same study can help distinguish the unique impact of each parenting behaviors on child outcomes as well. Looking at unique impacts of parenting practices compared to combined effects can illustrate the specific role of each practice. A study done by Yule, Murphy, and Grych (2020), who found that maternal emotion coaching, a combination of supportive responses to child's emotions, predicted child outcomes in high-risk preschool children beyond maternal warmth, in a sample with mostly African American participants. For example, Davidov and Grusec (2006) found that maternal responsiveness to

distress predicted child empathy and social competence while controlling for maternal warmth, which was not significant. On the other hand, maternal warmth, unlike maternal responsiveness significantly predicted social competence. This example elaborates how analyzing different parenting behaviors together in relation to different adjustment indicators can better illuminate which parenting behaviors are important for various outcomes. There is another example, as discussed previously, in which Criss et al. (2015) found that when considering adolescent disclosure and parental involvement together, parental solicitation was not related to adolescent antisocial behavior, substance use, and academic performance.

Another way of taking an integrative/contextual approach to parenting is understanding how some parenting practices may moderate the effect of other parenting practices on adolescent outcomes. As noted above, Baudat et al. (2019) studied how the impact of parental solicitation on adolescent lying and secrecy depended on parental autonomy-granting attitudes. The combinations of high and solicitation with high and low autonomy-granting had different impact of adolescent secrecy and lying, because each parenting factor shaped the meaning of the other parenting factor. A parent high on both solicitation and autonomy-granting could be viewed as an involved parent, while a parent low on both could be viewed as a neglectful parent. On the other hand, the combination of high solicitation and low autonomy-granting could be viewed as intrusive parenting. Other studies have also looked at interactions between parental knowledge and warmth and found significant effects on adolescent outcomes (Krug et al., 2016; Lowe & Dotterer, 2013). They also detected a moderating role of parental warmth on the relationship between emotion coaching and child outcomes, in which the impact of emotion coaching was only significant for when maternal warmth was high (Yule, Murphy, & Grych, 2020). Investigating another medium of emotion socialization, Cheung et al. (2018) found that maternal inconsistent discipline and emotion discussion interacted with each other in predicting internalizing symptoms in middle childhood with a predominantly European American sample, but found no such

interaction between maternal positive parenting and emotion discussion. The interaction indicated that inconsistent discipline negatively impacted children who experienced low emotion discussion with their mothers the most.

Reviewing the studies, one can see emotion socialization and parental solicitation have not been investigated in relation with each other. Parents should adjust their rearing behaviors based on what their adolescent's psychological, physical, academic, and interpersonal situation in order to have a better influence (Dishion & McMahon, 1998), thereby highlighting the importance of parental solicitation and knowledge. Through parental solicitation, a parent may initiate conversation with their adolescent and learn about emotionally salient events that happened throughout the day, which gives the parent the chance to use supportive emotion socialization behaviors to foster emotion regulation and coping skills in the adolescence. To give another example, Ding et al. (2022) combined the behaviors of emotional sharing between adolescents and parents, parental solicitation, and adolescent disclosure and formulated a new term: communication patterns of adolescents' emotional distress. The authors argue that parental solicitation and adolescent disclosure are important within the context of emotional sharing of parent-adolescents dyad, in which they give parents' the opportunity to learn about their adolescents' emotions in appropriate ways. This concept indicates that parental lack of solicitation with regards the adolescent's emotions have negative ramifications for parent-adolescent relationship and communication. This implies that emotion socialization and solicitation may interact with each other with regards to adolescent outcomes. Alongside, how each parenting behaviors is related to different adolescent adjustment indicators when studied together or their combined effects is not known. Furthermore, there are still questions how culture further contextualizes parenting practices.

2.5 The role of culture in parenting

Currently, one line of research on culture and parenting focuses on the variation and universality of parenting behaviors (Bornstein, 2012; Bornstein & Lansford, 2010; Chen, Fu, & Yiu, 2019). To explain variations in parenting behaviors, Kagitcibasi (2005; 2007) used cultural models of the self and family. According to Kagitcibasi, there are three family models: interdependence, psychological interdependence, and independence. Depending on the culturally dominant model of the self, a family will value and expect different things from their child. Accordingly, societies that promote the autonomous self model emphasize the qualities of self-reliance, individuality, assertiveness, and self-expression, while societies with the related self model value social harmony, respect, and loyalty (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Societies with the autonomous-related self model value the qualities of both independence and interdependence, in which individuals may be emotionally and psychologically interdependent but are still autonomous individuals (Kagitcibasi, 2007). Kagitcibasi and other scholars (Keller 2006, 2020) argued that parenting cognitions, goals, and behaviors in a culture are manifested to help the child achieve the culturally valuable qualities determined by the dominant model of the self. Therefore, because one of the tasks of parenting is to raise offspring that are culturally competent members of the society, parenting practices that are expected to be in line with the dominant self-model to foster valued child outcomes (Mesquita, Boiger, & De Leersnyder, 2017).

Such frameworks and approaches used in the study of culture, parenting, and developmental psychology can be reconciled with the self-determination theory of parenting. In Soenens, Vansteenkiste, and Van Petegem's (2015) discussion regarding the universality of the benefits of autonomy-supportive parenting behaviors and the negative effects of controlling behaviors, they point out that the cultural values and cognitions define adolescents' perception of parenting behaviors as autonomy-supportive or autonomy-threatening. Therefore, an important factor to consider when using frameworks that consider relativism and universality of parenting

and development across cultures, is to understand the meaning of a parenting behaviors in a specific cultural context. The basic psychological needs laid out by the self-determination theory might be universal, but the way they are achieved across cultures might be different.

This leads to another aim of the literature, which is to detect how the same parental behavior may have different or similar impacts on child development across cultures (Bornstein & Lansford, 2010; Chen, Fu, & Yiu, 2019). For example, Bornstein and Lansford discuss cross-cultural findings on the impacts of parental corporal punishment, in which its impacts on child outcomes are moderated by cultural normativeness (Lansford et al., 2005). A recently published longitudinal study conducted across 12 different countries showed that parental behavioral control had differential relations to adolescents' internalizing symptoms (Rothenberg et al., 2020). The societal expectations from parents and adolescent play an important role in defining "positive" and "negative" parenting practices in a culture. Below, the findings on cultural variation regarding the relationship between parental solicitation and ES with adolescent outcomes will be reviewed.

The different results found on the relationship between solicitation and adolescent adjustment, as discussed above, is related to whether adolescents see solicitation as a source of autonomy-thwart, structuring, or relatedness. Such differences can be due to cultural emphases on individuality and interdependence. As discussed previously, parental solicitation was perceived as invasive (Hawk, Becht, & Branje, 2016; Hawk et al., 2008), and predicted prosocial behaviors in the negative direction, yet predicted externalizing and internalizing problems in the positive direction (Hessel, He, & Dworkin, 2017) in samples from Western cultural contexts such as the Netherlands and USA. On the other hand, research with East Asian samples shows that parental solicitation predicted late adolescent disclosure (Hawk, 2017) and self-control in the positive direction (Li, Zhang, & Wang, 2013), and hopelessness in the negative direction (Li et al., 2015).

ES has also been investigated within the context of cultural differences. Friedlmeier, Corapci, and Cole (2011) reviewed cross-cultural studies of emotion socialization, coming to the

conclusion that in order to deconstruct its impact, one should map the functional meaning of an ES behavior within a culture. The authors explain that parents from different cultures socialize their children to gain relational emotional and individualistic competence. Relational emotional competence is primarily valued in collectivist cultures and pertains to parental ES practices that emphasize teaching to consider relationships, while individualistic emotional competence is primarily valued in individualistic cultures and pertains to parental ES practices that emphasize teaching to prioritize individuality and self-enhancement. These competencies have different weights of importance in various cultures, thereby moderating the impact of certain emotion socialization behaviors. Research has shown that non-supportive reactions to children's emotions have negative impact in the European American context but not the Chinese cultural context (Song et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2020). For example, Yeo, Raval, and Cheah (2022) did not replicate the positive relationship between nonsupportive ES and adolescent internalizing and externalizing problems in Chinese, Indian, and Singaporean adolescents, and argued that nonsupportive ES was culturally normative in the contexts of their sample. Moreover, in Lugo-Candelas et al.'s (2016) study, nonsupportive ES was positively related to mental health problems only in European American and African American emerging adults and did not have any significant relation to mental health problems in Chinese American and Latin American emerging adults. Furthermore, Yeo, Cheah, and Sim (2020) found that nonsupportive ES was actually positively related to emotion regulation in Chinese and Singaporean adolescents. Nonsupportive ES could function as an important parenting practice that teaches children and adolescents how to function within a society that prioritizes social harmony, communal goals, relationships, and social responsibilities over self-expression, personal goals, and individuality.

2.6 Current cultural context

As discussed above, cultural notions of self in relation to society are important factors in predicting cross-cultural differences in parenting and human development. Based on empirical studies and theoretical reviews, Kağıtçıbaşı (2005, 2012, 2013) developed the Family Change Theory to explain the related socioeconomic factors to family structures and self-construals in Turkey. According to Kağıtçıbaşı, there are three different family models: independent, interdependent, and psychologically/emotionally interdependent. A study conducted in Germany, India, and Turkey with mother-adolescent dyads revealed the differences in values, socioeconomic status, urban-rural contexts, family generations, and countries (Mayer et al., 2012). The family model of independence is more commonly found in Western cultures, urban settings, and higher SES environments. This family model is related to individualistic values (e.g., uniqueness and autonomy) and emotional (intrinsic) value of children. On the other hand, the family model of interdependence is more commonly found in non-Western cultural contexts, rural settings, and lower SES environments. Families that adhere to this model are more likely to embrace collectivistic values (e.g., obedience and social harmony) and give both emotional and material value to children. In Non-Western countries that go through modernization, urbanization, or similar forms of socioeconomic changes, a family model that is an integration of the independence and interdependence model is also common. Similar to the independence model, the psychological/emotional interdependence model values individuals' autonomy and material independence, and valuing children for emotional/intrinsic reasons. It is similar to the interdependence model in the sense that it values relatedness. The psychological/emotional interdependence model is common in Turkish urban or middle-high SES contexts, while the interdependent model is more common in rural or low-SES contexts (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005; 2012; 2013; Mayer et al., 2012). These models draw from the predominant self-construal model and sociodemographic characteristics of the society. Kağıtçıbaşı (2005, 2013) argues that the

psychological/emotional interdependence model is related to autonomous-related self-construal, in which family members are financially independent from each other (i.e., the livelihood of the family and its members is not interdependent amongst its members), family members' sense of agency is valued, and the members have great sense of relatedness among each other.

Another way of explaining the cultural context of Turkey is provided by Uskul et al. (2023), who explains the integration of interdependent and independent values in Turkey and other Mediterranean countries as “culture of honor”. Based on a cross-cultural empirical study, the authors found that Mediterranean cultures (including Turkey) give prominence to independent values such as disengaging emotions (e.g., pride), self-expression, self-reliance, and self-direction similar to Western cultures, while adhering to interdependent values such as being connected and committed to others similar to East Asian cultures. Such a combination is explained by the authors as “culture of honor”, in which individuals have to actively work through assertive behavior to gain societal acceptance and reputation in a social environment where status is unstable. This is in contrast to the interdependent environment of East Asian societies that emphasize societal role and harmony in a context of stable social hierarchies.

Based on these models and findings, it can be argued that Turkish parents of adolescents would value socializing their children to be proud, self-reliant, and expressive, while at the same time be committed and close to other members in the society. Below, findings on parenting practices during adolescence in Turkey, and how they are in line with both independent and interdependent values will be presented. Then, the findings that indicate Turkish adolescents' adherence to both independent and interdependent values in the psychosocial lives will be elaborated.

One line of research that is of particular relevance to the present thesis is parental control in Turkey as solicitation is also seen as part of parental control. For example, Kindap, Sayıl, and Kumru (2008) found maternal behavioral control to be positively related to social and academic

competencies and negatively related to internalizing and externalizing problems in Turkish early and middle adolescents. This is in contrast to the cross-cultural study conducted by Rothenberg et al. (2021), who found parental behavioral control to be positively related to adolescent internalizing and externalizing problems in the USA and Sweden. Similarly, Wijsbroek et al. (2010) also found that behavioral control to be positively related to internalizing symptoms in Dutch adolescents. Even though helicopter parenting, a parenting style defined by over-controlling attitudes and behaviors towards the child, was negatively related to autonomy supportive parenting in Western cultural contexts (Odenweller, Booth-Butterfield, & Weber, 2014), this style over-controlling parenting was positively related to autonomy supportive parenting in a survey study conducted with Turkish parents of late adolescents and emerging adults (Kömürcü-Akik & Alsancak-Akbulut, 2021). Furthermore, helicopter parenting in the Turkish culture has fewer negative impacts on adolescent outcomes compared to Western cultural contexts (Kömürcü-Akik & Alsancak-Akbulut, 2021). Thus, the positive relations of parental behavioral control to positive adjustment in Turkish adolescence could be a manifestation of the interdependent values within the culture through which parents emphasize being connected and committed to close others.

Similar to behavioral control, parental solicitation could be viewed positively by adolescents in the Turkish culture even though it is viewed as autonomy threatening in Western cultures as discussed previously. Based on adolescent self-report, Selçuk, Uçanok, and Sayıl (2021) found that Turkish middle adolescents have positive perceptions of maternal solicitation based on adolescents' self-report, which led them to argue that Turkish adolescents view it as a form of involvement, attention, and care, rather than an invasion of their privacy and a threat to their autonomy. Furthermore, they also discovered that there was a negative relationship between solicitation and adolescents' externalizing as well as internalizing problems. Similar to parental behavioral control, it can be argued that solicitation is viewed positively by adolescents and is related to positive outcomes in the Turkish culture due to the importance given to interconnection

among close ones. In another study conducted by Özçelik (2017), it was found that authoritative parents had higher levels of solicitation compared to permissive and authoritarian parents, indicating that it is within the constellation of other parenting behaviors related to the authoritative parenting style, which is related to positive adolescent outcomes in the Turkish cultural context (Cenk & Demir, 2016; Turkel & Tezer, 2008).

However, results from one available study on ES with Turkish adolescents were in line with research from Western societies. While Güven and Erden (2017) looked at the mediating role of nonsupportive emotion socialization in the relationship between mothers' education level and self-blame with adolescents' externalizing problems, they used the minimizing and punitive subscales of Fabes et al.'s (2002) Responses to Children's Negative Emotions scale. They found that lower maternal education and high maternal self-blame positively predicted externalizing problems through higher levels of non-supportive ES. This positive relationship between nonsupportive ES and negative adolescent adjustment is in line with research from Western countries, yet in contrast to the studies done with Chinese samples (Song et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2020) that reported no relationship between nonsupportive ES and socioemotional adjustment. Such differences can be explained through Kağıtçıbaşı's (2013) understanding of the autonomously-related self and Uskul's (2023) culture of honor. For example, in Dost-Gözkan (2020) study, the satisfaction of adolescents' autonomy, relatedness, and competence through their relationships with their mothers and fathers were significantly related to their life satisfaction, internalizing symptoms, and self-confidence. Uskul et al.'s (2023) study also shows that even though Turkish culture gives importance to social responsibility and being committed to others, it also values self-expression and self-direction similar to individualistic cultures, which could be the reason why nonsupportive ES was positively related to externalizing problems in Güven and Erden's study. This is in-line with the studies that show that psychological control being positively related to adolescent adjustment in the Turkish (Kindap, Sayıl, & Kumru 2008; Taşkın Sayıl,

& Erdem, 2023) and Western contexts (Costa et al., 2019; Wijsbroek et al., 2010). Parental psychological control comprises of parenting practices defined by intrusion or manipulation of the adolescent's thoughts and feelings, such as guilt induction, love withdrawal, and disregarding of the adolescent's feelings and opinions (Barber, 1996; Barber, 2002; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010). Both nonsupportive ES and psychological control are parenting practices that intrude in the inner world of adolescents through invalidating their inner experiences. They are both parenting practices that discourage adolescents' self-expression. Parental psychological control is similar to nonsupportive ES in that it disregards the satisfaction of basic psychological needs especially in social contexts that value self-expression (Davidov et al., 2021).

The findings from studies with Turkish adolescents also show that they have adopted the psychological interdependent mode of self. Researchers have found that Turkish early and middle adolescents used empathetic and others' needs based moral reasoning than Spanish adolescents, reflecting Turkish adolescents were socialized to recognize and validate other's needs more (Kumru et al., 2012). In line with the emotional interdependence family model, researchers found that school belongingness, social inclusion, and social exclusion to be significant predictors of life satisfaction, internalizing problems, and externalizing problems in early and middle Turkish adolescents (Arslan, Allen, & Ryan, 2020) and social and familial factors were important sources of Turkish adolescents' self-definition (Güner, Sümer, & Yildirim, 1999). A more vivid example of the harmony between autonomy and relatedness in Turkish adolescents is documented in a study by Güngör and Phalet (2011). With regards to Belgian and Turkish middle and late adolescents' self-construal ratings on autonomy and relatedness, they discovered a growing incompatibility between autonomy and relatedness in Belgian adolescents, whereas they found that the dimension of autonomy and relatedness become more positively related in the Turkish population, in contrast to the Belgium population. The importance of close others in Turkish adolescents' lives were further supported by other studies. Sahin and Sahin (1995) found that for

Turkish adolescents, concerns about one's future was of top priority following interpersonal concerns, indicating a balance of emphasis on individuality and relatedness. Moreover, Yildirim et al. (2015) found that the autonomous-related self construal was positively related to resilience while autonomous self-construal was negatively related to resilience in Turkish adolescent according to a survey study. All in all, it seems that Turkish adolescents value psychological interdependence with regards to friends and family members, and that autonomous-related self-construal is adaptive in the Turkish context.

2.7 Current study

Using self-determination theory perspectives on parenting (Soenens, Vansteenkiste, & Beyers, 2019), it can be argued that parental solicitation and supportive emotion socialization would satisfy an adolescent's needs for structure, relatedness, and autonomy, thereby contributing to positive adjustment. Besides examining the main effects of these parenting practices, the current study will also examine how different combinations of these parental practices might contribute to individual differences in adolescents' adjustment outcomes. Given previous evidence that parental solicitation related positively to adolescent adjustment in the context of autonomy-supportive and warm family emotional climates, one can argue that the relationships between parental solicitation and adolescent adjustment would be moderated by parental ES behaviors. For example, a parent high on non-supportive responses to emotions and solicitation can be perceived as an intrusive and controlling parent, while a parent high on supportive ES and solicitation can be perceived as highly involved and invested in their adolescent's life. This study aims to fill in three gaps within the literature. First of all, this study investigated the unique and combined roles of parental emotion socialization and solicitation on adolescent internalizing, externalizing, and prosocial behaviors.

Based on the existing literature on the interactive relations among parenting practices, solicitation has not been sufficiently studied in interaction with emotion socialization. Furthermore, examining these relations with a sample from Turkey is likely to inform us how these parenting practices would contribute to adolescent outcomes within a society that embraces psychological interdependency. Two survey studies have been conducted, one pilot study and a main study with a nationally representative sample from Turkey to test the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1a: High levels of parental solicitation would significantly predict lower levels of adolescent internalizing problem and externalizing behavior, and higher levels of prosocial behaviors, above and beyond sociodemographic variables such as maternal education, family income, and child age.

Hypothesis 1b: Higher levels of parental supportive ES responses to Turkish adolescents' sadness and anger would significantly predict lower levels of adolescent internalizing and externalizing problems, as well as higher levels of prosocial behaviors. Higher levels of non-supportive ES responses to sadness and anger would significantly predict higher levels of internalizing and externalizing problems as well as lower levels of prosocial behaviors, above and beyond sociodemographic variables.

Hypothesis 2: It is expected that parental supportive as well as non-supportive emotion socialization responses would moderate the relationship between solicitation and adolescent outcomes. Specifically, within a family context with highly supportive approach to youth's sadness and anger, the positive relationship between solicitation and prosocial behaviors, and the negative relationship between solicitation with externalizing and internalizing problems would be stronger compared to a family context where youth emotions are responded to with less supportive approach. On the other hand, within a family context of highly punitive and minimizing approach to youth emotions, the positive relationship between solicitation and prosocial behaviors, and the

negative relationship between solicitation with externalizing and internalizing problems would be attenuated.

CHAPTER 3

STUDY 1

This thesis is part of a larger project TÜBİTAK-1003 (118K050) that investigates child rearing attitudes and behaviors of Turkish parents using both qualitative and quantitative data.

Following a qualitative study that included in-depth interviews with parents, examples of culturally unique patterns of parenting were discerned. Those unique practices were included into the existing questionnaires that were then distributed to a large number of parents in a pilot study. Data from pilot study was mainly used to examine how these newly added items would contribute to the factor structure of the existing scales in order to inform the scale construction for the nationally representative data collection described in Study 2. From the large amount of parenting and child outcome measures along with family sociodemographic measures collected within the scope of the larger project, this thesis has used a subgroup of data related to parental solicitation, ES and adolescent adjustment in order to test the study hypotheses.

3.1 Method

3.1.1 Participants

Parents were recruited through the Beşiktaş District Education Directorate and social media announcements. The directorate sent the survey to parents who had children in schools within this district of Beşiktaş, while the survey link was also promoted on various social media accounts. Participants were 183 mothers ($M_{parent\ age}=42.11$ years, $SD = 5.04$) of 10–18-year-old adolescents (96 girls, 87 boys, $M=12.46$ years, $SD= 1.91$). Regarding the education level of the sample, 45.9%

of the parents had either a college or any other higher education degree, 35.5% were high school graduates, while 18.6% finished primary education. Most of the parents were married (84.7%), while 54.1% were unemployed. With regards to the monthly family income, 24.1% reported that they earned the minimum wage or below the minimum wage, while 47.6% reported an income between 2,580-8,000, and 28.4% claimed they earned above 8,000 Turkish Liras. Table 1 presents parents' sociodemographic characteristics in the sample.

Table 1. Sociodemographic Characteristics of Participants in Study 1

Variables	N	%
Marital status		
Married	155	84.7%
Divorced	24	13.1%
Widowed or single	3	1.6%
Adolescent Gender		
Male	87	47.5%
Female	96	52.5%
Highest educational level		
Elementary School	14	7.7%
Middle school	20	10.9%
High school	65	35.5%
University degree	65	35.5%
Graduate degree	19	10.4%
Employment		
Unemployed	99	54.1%
Full-time employed	73	39.9%
Part-time employed	11	0.6%
Monthly Income		
Below 2850 TL	10	5.5%
Around 2850 TL	34	18.6%
2850 TL – 6000TL	62	33.9%
6000TL – 8000TL	25	13.7%
8000TL – 10000 TL	18	9.8%
10000TL – 15000TL	15	8.2%
Above 15000TL	19	10.4%

3.1.2 Procedure

As noted above, this study is a part of a broader interdisciplinary project that aims to study parental behavior and attitudes of Turkish parents across different generations. Before the current study, the project conducted a qualitative interview study with Turkish parents to assess culturally unique aspects of Turkish parenting that has not been tapped on by scales from used in Western samples. Based on these interviews, a survey was formed by either creating new scales from the interviews or adapting existing scales through adding new items that tap on the culturally relevant parenting practices. This process was done by qualitatively coding interviews based on thematic analysis with parents on their socialization behaviors. Afterwards, the project team contacted the Besiktas District Education Directorate to distribute the survey across schools in the Besiktas district of Istanbul. The survey was conducted through the Qualtrics online software, in which parents were given links to the online consent form and survey. Participation was fully voluntary. Further data was collected by promoting the study on social media accounts, where parents could access the survey link as well.

3.1.3 Measures

Sociodemographic Information

Parents filled out a scale that asked for information regarding their income, employment status, education level, number of children, marital status, the sex and age of the child they are reporting on, migration-related experiences, home ownership, general health problems, and Covid-19 pandemic related questions

Maternal Solicitation

Kerr and Stattin's (2000) 3-item parental solicitation subscale from their parental monitoring scale was used to assess maternal solicitation. One more item based on the initial qualitative study was included (i.e., *I track my child's non-educational technology usage*) to the parental solicitation subscale given its common endorsement in the qualitative research. The items were rated on a 6-point Likert scale (1=Never, 6= Always). This scale has been used across different cultures (Fernandez, Loukas, & Pasch, 2020; Laird, Marrero, & Sentse, 2009; Li et al., 2021) including with samples from Turkey (Selçuk, Uçanok, & Sayıl, 2021) and has indicated good reliability and validity. In this dataset, the Cronbach Alpha was .70 ($\Omega = .71$).

Maternal Responses to Anger and Sadness

To assess emotion socialization, the *Emotions as a Child* (EAC) scale (O'Neal & Magai, 2005) was used, which has been adapted and used by many other researchers (Hastings & De, 2008; Klimes-Dougan et al., 2007; Zahn-Waxler et al., 2001). This scale was translated and used in the Turkish context in previous studies (Ersay, 2014) and has shown good reliability. The initial qualitative study showed that Turkish parents had ways of responding to parents that were not captured in present questionnaires. These items were developed after a thematic analysis of parents' discussions of how they responded to their child's sadness and anger was conducted. Based on the thematic analysis, common forms of responding that were not originally included in EAC were extracted, which lead to 10 new items to the EAC scale (5 items for anger and 5 items for sadness). In the adapted scale, there were 20 items for each emotion, in which 5 of them were the newly formed responses. Mothers were asked to rate how often they engaged in each of these responses using a 3-point Likert scale (1=Never, 2=Sometimes, 3=Often). The original scale had the following subscales: Reward (e.g., I comfort him/her), Magnify (e.g., I get upset too), Punish (e.g., I tell him/her he/she should be ashamed), Neglect (e.g., I neglect him/her), and Override (e.g., I tell her/him not to worry). The new items were "I waited for him/her to calm down" (in response to anger and sadness), "I gave advice" (in response to anger and sadness), "I asked

her/him to understand the person who angered/upset him/her”, “I told him/her that a person can get upset/angry sometimes”, and “I encourage him/her to solve the problem by him/herself” (in response to anger or sadness).

Exploratory factor analysis revealed a different structure than the original scale. For the anger scale, the analysis yielded two factors, one factors that pertained to supportive responses and the other pertained to non-supportive responses. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was .78 for the anger subscale and .83 for the sadness subscale, indicating that the sample was adequate for factor analysis. The Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant for the anger and sadness scales, $\chi^2 (190) = 842.64, p < .001$ and $\chi^2 (190) = 1050.33, p < .001$, respectively. This indicates that the correlation matrix is appropriate for factor analysis (Kaiser, 1974; Bartlett, 1954). The supportive responses factor had 11 items with a Cronbach's alpha of .70 ($\Omega = .72$), while the non-supportive responses factor had 8 items with a Cronbach's alpha of .79 ($\Omega = .80$). One item was discarded from the anger scale due to low factor loading on either factor (Item 1: “*I get in a bad mood*”). Similarly for the sadness scale, the analysis indicated a total of two factors, with 7 and 12 items for the non-supportive ($\alpha = .74, \Omega = .75$) and supportive subscales ($\alpha = .85, \Omega = .86$), respectively. Two items (Item 1: “*I get in a bad mood*” and Item 6: “*I started crying*”) were discarded from the sadness scale due to not loading on either factor. Table 2 and Table 3 presents the factor structure of these scales for anger and sadness, respectively. Supportive responses for anger and sadness were significantly and positively correlated, $r_{supportive} = .63, p < 0.001$. Similarly, non-supportive responses for anger and sadness were significantly and positively correlated, ($r_{nonsupportive} = .49, p < 0.001$). Therefore, it was decided to combine the scores from the anger and sadness subscales to create two variables: supportive responses to negative emotions ($\alpha = .76, \Omega = .78$) and nonsupportive responses ($\alpha = .77, \Omega = .78$) to negative emotions.

Table 2. Factor Structure for Responses to Anger

	Nonsupportive ES	Supportive ES
13. I said he/she should be ashamed.	.71	
10. I ignored how he/she felt.	.66	
6. I cried too.	.66	
9. I punished him/her	.64	
8. I got angry too	.58	
12. I didn't notice what my child was feeling.	.57	
7. I was often not with my child.	.50	
4. I tried to learn what made my child upset.	-.49	.37
15. I told my child to stop being angry.	.45	.30
11. I told my child I understood how he/she felt.	-.43	.37
3. I did something with my child that she/he to distract him/her.	-.42	.33
I waited for him/her to calm down. (reversed)	-.38	.26
18. I told my child the situation wasn't that bad		.67
17. I wanted him/her to understand the person who made him angry.		.62
I told my child there is no reason to be angry.		.58
16. I supported my child by giving advice		.58
20. I said people get angry sometimes.		.56
19. I encouraged him/her to solve this problem him/herself		.52
14. I calmed my child down		.47
1. I got in a bad mood.		
Eigenvalues	3.99	3.01
Variance Explained	19.94	15.07
KMO		.78
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	$\chi^2 (190) = 842.64, p < .001$	

Table 3. Factor Structure for Responses to Sadness

	Supportive ES	Nonsupportive ES
15. I told my child not to worry.	.72	
16. I supported my child by giving advice.	.69	
14. I calmed my child down.	.68	
4. I learned what caused my child to be upset	.61	
3. I did something my child likes to distract him/her.	.60	
18. I told my child the situation wasn't that bad.	.58	
11. I told my child I understood how he/she felt.	.56	
8. I also got sad.	.56	
19. I encouraged him/her to solve this problem himself.	.55	
17. I wanted him/her to understand the person who hurt him.	.54	
5. I told my child that you do not need to worry.	.53	
I waited for him/her to calm down.	.52	
6. I started crying.		
1. I got in a bad mood		
20. I told my child not to act like a baby.		.72
13. I told my child he/she was a cry-baby.		.70
10. I ignored how he/she felt.		.70
12. I didn't notice what he/she was feeling.		.62
7. I was often not with my child.		.58
9. I expressed my disapproval of him/her with my gaze.		.57
Eigenvalues	4.66	2.92
Variance Explained	23.27	14.58
KMO		.83
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	$\chi^2 (190) = 1050.33, p < .001$	

Socioemotional Adjustment

Adolescent socioemotional adjustment was measured based on maternal reports of the 25-item Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (Goodman, 1997) that was translated and adapted to Turkish by Güvenir et al. (2008). This scale includes hyperactivity symptoms, peer problems, prosocial behaviors, emotional difficulties, and conduct problems subscales that are all rated on a 3-point Likert scale (*1 = Not true, 3 = certainly true*). This scale has been used in different cultural contexts (Muris, Meesters, & van der Berg, 2003) including Turkish samples (Acar, Uçuş, & Yıldız, 2019). These studies have indicated that the SDQ is a reliable method of evaluating adolescent adjustment per mother report. The factor analysis conducted in the present study yielded three factors that reflected an internalizing symptom factor, an externalizing symptom

factor, and a prosocial behavior factor in line with the factor structures of Goodman et al. (2010). An exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation also yielded a similar factor structure (Table 4). The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was .81, indicating that the sample was adequate for factor analysis. The Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant, $\chi^2(300) = 1327.01$, $p < .001$, indicating that the correlation matrix is appropriate for factor analysis (Kaiser, 1974; Bartlett, 1954). The internalizing and externalizing subscales both had 10 items each with a Cronbach's alpha level of .76 ($\Omega = .77$) and .71 ($\Omega = .72$), respectively, while the prosocial subscale had 5 items with a Cronbach's alpha level of .71 ($\Omega = .71$).

Table 4. Factor Structure of Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire

	Internalizing Problems	Prosocial Behaviors	Externalizing Problems
3. Frequent complaints of headache, abdominal pain, and nausea.	.70		
13. Often unhappy, sad, or crying.	.69		
8. Has many worries and often appears worried..	.65		
19. Other kids tease or make fun of him/her..	.58		
24. Has many fears and is easily startled.	.52		
6. Is solitary and tends to play alone.	.51		
16. Nervous in new environments, clinging to parents, and does not feel secure easily.	.49		
22. Steals things from home, school, or other places.	.44		
23. Gets along better with adults than with children.	.32		
11. Has at least one close friend.	-.31		
9. It helps when someone is feeling down.		.72	
20. Often willing to help others (parents, teachers, and other children).		.68	
1. Cares about other people's feelings.		.63	
4. Shares with other children (food, toys, etc.).		.62	
17. Treats younger people well.		.43	
14. Often liked by other children.	-.35	.35	
12. Frequently fights or teases other children.		-.36	.38
15. Is easily distracted and has difficulty concentrating.			.71
25. Finishes what he/she starts and has a good attention span.			-.68
10. Constantly fidgets with his/her hands and feet or fidgets in his/her seat.			.60
5. Has frequent tantrums or is extremely irritable.			.55
21. Thinks before doing anything.		.31	-.53
18. Often lies or cheats.		-.30	.49
2. Is restless and hyperactive	.30		.48
7. Usually obeys and does the requests of his/her elders.		.30	-.42
Eigenvalues	5.6	2.24	1.70
Variance Explained	%22.4	%9.0	%6.8

3.1.4 Data Analysis Plan

While computing the variables, the computation of participants' scores who had completed at least half of the subscale/scale of the variable was allowed, to account for the missing data and preserve power in our analyses. Item mean substitution was used to handle missing data. In this method, if a participant has answered at least a certain number of items, their missing values for the remaining items are replaced with the mean value of the items they did answer (Graham, 2009). In order to make the analyses parsimonious, two composite variables with the four emotion socialization subscales as noted before: supportive responses to negative emotions (combined anger and sadness score) and non-supportive responses to negative emotions (combined anger and sadness score) was created. After computing the variables, the distributions of these variables and other related assumptions of hierarchical multiple regression were examined. Then, we centered the variables before computing interaction variables or entering them in the regression model. In order to address our hypotheses and research questions, three hierarchical regression models were conducted, with each adolescent socioemotional adjustment indicator as the outcome variable. Maternal socioeconomic status was calculated by averaging the Z scores of mother education and family income given the correlation ($r = .45, p < .001$). In the first step of each model, we included sociodemographic variables such as parent gender, parent age, parent socioeconomic status, adolescent age, and adolescent sex if they were correlated with the adolescent outcome variable. In the second step, we included the parental behavior variables: solicitation, supportive responses to negative emotions, and non-supportive responses to negative emotions. We included the interaction variables, namely solicitationXsupportive responses, and solicitationXnonsupportive responses, in the third step.

Table 5. Correlations among Variables for Study 1

		M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1.	Child Sex	1.48	.50	-	-	.06	.13	.10	.15*	-.07	-.18*	-.04	.07
				-	.07								
2.	Child Age	12.4	1.9		--	.23*	.19*	-.17*	.01	-.13	.13	-.11	-.09
		6	1			*	*						
3.	Parent Age	42.1	5.0			--	.23*	-	-.08	-.03	.12	.03	-.06
		1	5				*	.25*					
								*					
4.	SES	.00	.91				--	-.05	-.09	-	-.05	-.06	-.03
										.30**			
										*			
5.	Solicitation	5.14	.84					--	.35**	-.21**	-	-	.41**
									*		.21**	.20**	*
6.	Supportive ES	2.55	.28						--	-.10	-.10	-.16*	.46**
													*
7.	Nonsupportive ES	1.46	.31							--	.32**	.38**	-
											*	*	.27**
													*
8.	Internalizing	1.47	.34								--	.55**	-
												*	.33**
													*
9.	Externalizing	1.51	.31									--	-.44***
10.	Prosocial	2.54	.38										--

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

1 = Female, 2 = Male for child gender.

3.2 Results

3.2.1 Correlational analyses

Looking at the correlations between sociodemographic variables and parenting behaviors, mothers reported higher supportive ES to their sons ($r = .15, p < .05$), less solicitation to older adolescents ($r = -.17, p < .05$) or when they were older ($r = .23, p < .01$). On the other hand, they reported higher nonsupportive ES when their SES was lower ($r = -.30, p < .001$). Regarding the relationships between sociodemographic factors and adolescent socioemotional adjustment variables, mothers reported higher internalizing problems for their daughters ($r = -.18, p < .05$). Solicitation had significant and positive correlation with supportive ES ($r = .35, p < .001$) and negative correlation with nonsupportive responses ($r = -.21, p < .01$). Supportive and nonsupportive ES did not significantly correlate with each other. While non-supportive ES was

negatively related to prosocial behaviors ($r = -.27, p < .001$) and positively related to internalizing ($r = .32, p < .001$) and externalizing problems ($r = .38, p < .001$), solicitation showed the opposite pattern with these adolescent outcomes, $r = .41, p < .001$, $r = -.21, p < .01$, and $r = -.20, p < .01$, respectively. On the other hand, even though supportive ES was positively related to prosocial behaviors ($r = .46, p < .001$) and negatively related to externalizing behaviors ($r = -.16, p < .05$), it had no significant relationship with internalizing problems.

3.2.2 The main and interactive roles of solicitation and emotion socialization in the prediction of internalizing symptoms

Outliers were investigated to check for potential influential cases. The Cook's Distance values and standardized DFBeta values indicated that there were no influential cases. Partial regression scatterplots revealed that all predictor variables had linear relationship with internalizing problems. To check for multicollinearity, the VIF scores of the predictor variables ranged from 1.03-1.22, while the tolerance scores ranged from .82-.97, ruling out a multicollinearity problem in this model. Independence of the residual values were supported through the Durbin-Watson value (1.62). Even though the P-P plot and histogram of the residuals indicated a slightly skewed distribution of the residuals, the scatterplot of the residuals also did not reflect problem regarding homoscedasticity. These findings supported the assumptions of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis.

Results of the first regression analysis revealed that the model was significant with all the predictors, explaining 16 % of the variance in adolescents internalizing problems scores, $F(6, 176) = 5.59, p < .001$. In the first step of the model adolescent sex explained 3% of variance ($F(1,181) = 6.13, p < .05$). The second step ($F(4,178) = 7.55, p < .001$) explained an incremental 11% variance, above the adolescent sex ($\Delta F(3,178) = 7.73, p < 0.001, \Delta R^2 = .11, p < .001$), in which solicitation was a marginally significant and negative predictor ($\beta = -.13, p < .09$) and

nonsupportive ES was a significant and positive predictor ($\beta = .28, p < .001$). Finally, after controlling for the additive main effects of the predictors, only the interaction between supportive ES and solicitation in the third step was marginally significant ($\beta = .12, p < .09$) in the third step ($F(6,176) = 5.59, p < .001$; $\Delta F(2,172) = 1.57, \Delta R^2 = 0.01, p = .21$). The nature of the interaction was investigated through simple slope tests and the Johnson-Neyman test in PROCESS SPSS, which indicated that solicitation significantly negatively predicted internalizing problems when supportive ES was lower (slope, $b = -.10, p < .05$) (Figure 1). However, solicitation did not significantly predict internalizing problems when supportive ES was average (slope, $b = -.04, p = .15$) or higher (slope, $b = .003, p = .95$). Thus, the interaction indicated that solicitation negatively predicted internalizing symptoms only when supportive ES was low. Figure 1 shows how the relationship between solicitation and internalizing problems across different levels of supportive ES. The X-axis represents solicitation, and the Y-axis represents internalizing scores. The solid line represents the relationship for supportive ES scores 1 SD below the mean, the dashed line the relationship for supportive ES scores 1 SD above the mean. The slope for the solid line representing the relationship for supportive ES scores 1 SD below the mean is significant.

3.2.3 The main and interactive roles of solicitation and emotion socialization in the prediction of externalizing symptoms

Outliers were investigated to check for potential influential cases. The Cook's Distance values and standardized DFBeta values indicated that there were no influential. Partial regression scatterplots revealed that all predictor variables had linear relationship with internalizing problems. To check for multicollinearity, the VIF scores of the predictor variables ranged from 1.03-1.22, while the tolerance scores ranged from .82-.97, ruling out a multicollinearity problem in this model. Independence of the residual values were supported through the Durbin-Watson

value (1.65). The P-P plot and histogram of the residuals indicated that the model's errors were normally distributed. The scatterplot of the residuals also did not reflect problem regarding homoscedasticity. These findings supported the assumptions of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis.

Table 6. Prediction of Internalizing Symptoms from Maternal Solicitation and ES for Study 1

	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Adolescent Sex	-.12	.05	-.18*	-.10	.05	-.15*	-.10	.05	-.14*
Solicitation				-.06	.03	-.13 ⁺	-.04	.03	-.11
Supportive ES				-.01	.09	-.01	-.01	.09	-.01
Nonsupportive ES				.31	.08	.28***	.30	.08	.27***
SolicitationXSupportiveES							.18	.10	.12 ⁺
SolicitationXNonsupportiveES							-.04	.09	-.03

	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3		
	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Zero-order	Partial	Part
Adolescent Sex	-.18	-.18	-.18	-.18	-.15	-.14	-.18	-.15	-.14
Solicitation				-.21	-.13	-.12	-.21	-.11	-.10
Supportive ES				-.11	-.01	-.01	-.11	-.01	-.01
Nonsupportive ES				.32	.28	.27	.32	.28	.26
SolicitationXSupportiveES							.18	.13	.12
SolicitationXNonsupportiveES							-.08	-.03	-.03

Note: All predictor variables were centered.

+ $p < 0.09$. * $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.001$,

R^2 for Step 1 = .03, ΔR^2 for Step 2 = .11, ΔR^2 for Step 3 = .01

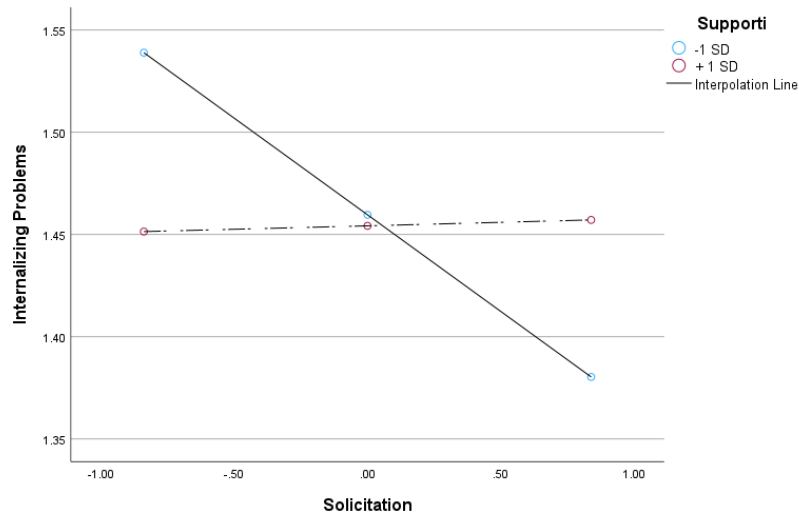


Fig. 1 The moderating role of supportive es on the relationship between solicitation and internalizing problems in study 1

Results of the second regression analysis revealed that the model was significant with all the predictors, explaining 18 % of the variance in adolescents externalizing problems scores, $F(5, 175) = 7.63, p < .001$. While predicting externalizing problems, the first step that included parenting behaviors explained 17% of variance ($F(3,179) = 11.94, p < 0.001$), with nonsupportive ES ($\beta = .35, p < 0.001$) as the only significant predictor, as it can be seen in Table 6. The second step that included the interaction terms explained only an additional 1% variance ($F(6,176) = 17.78, p < 0.001; \Delta F(2,177) = 1.12, \Delta R^2 = 0.01, p = .32$). In the last step, nonsupportive ES remained a significant predictor ($\beta = .35, p < 0.05$), while none of the interaction terms were significant.

Table 7. Prediction of Externalizing Behaviors from Maternal Solicitation and ES in Study 1

Variables	Step 1			Step 2		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Solicitation	-.03	.03	-.09	-.03	.03	-.07
Supportive ES	-.10	.08	-.09	-.09	.08	-.08
Nonsupportive ES	.36	.07	.35***	.35	.07	.35***
SolicitationXSupportive				.12	.09	.09
SolicitationXNonsupportive				-.06	.08	-.05

Variables	Step 1			Step 2		
	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Zero-order	Partial	Part
Solicitation	-.20	-.09	-.08	-.20	-.07	-.06
Supportive ES	-.16	-.09	-.08	-.16	-.08	-.08
Nonsupportive ES	.38	.36	.35	.38	.35	.34
SolicitationXSupportive				.15	.09	.09
SolicitationXNonsupportive				-.11	-.06	-.05

Note: All predictor variables were centered.

*** $p < 0.001$

R^2 for Step 1 = .17, ΔR^2 for Step 2 = .01

3.2.4 The main and interactive roles of solicitation and emotion socialization in the prediction of prosocial behaviors

Outliers were investigated to check for potential influential cases. The Cook's Distance values and standardized DFBeta values indicated that there were no influential. Partial regression scatterplots revealed that all predictor variables had linear relationship with internalizing problems. To check for multicollinearity, the VIF scores of the predictor variables ranged from 1.03-1.22, while the tolerance scores ranged from .82-.97, ruling out a multicollinearity problem in this model. Independence of the residual values were supported through the Durbin-Watson value (1.85). The P-P plot and histogram of the residuals indicated that the model's errors were normally distributed. The scatterplot of the residuals also did not reflect problem regarding homoscedasticity. These findings supported the assumptions of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis.

Results of the third regression analysis revealed that the model was significant with all the predictors, explaining 34 % of the variance in adolescents prosocial behaviors scores, $F(5, 177) = 17.59, p < .001$. The first step of regression model for prosocial behaviors included the parenting behaviors and explained 32% of variance ($F(3,179) = 28.00, p < 0.001$), with solicitation ($\beta = .25, p < 0.001$), and supportive ES ($\beta = .36, p < 0.001$), and nonsupportive ES ($\beta = -.18, p < 0.01$) having significant contributions. The second step ($F(5,175) = 17.56, p < 0.001$) explained and additional 2 % variance over and above the first step, ($\Delta F(2,177) = 1.95; \Delta R^2 = .01, p = 0.19$). In this step, the interaction between non-supportive ES and solicitation was marginally significant ($\beta = -.11, p < 0.08$). The nature of the interaction was investigated through simple slope tests and the Johnson-Neyman test in PROCESS SPSS, which indicated that solicitation significantly positively predicted prosocial behaviors when nonsupportive ES was lower (slope, $b = .17, p < .001$) and at average levels (slope, $b = .12, p < .001$). However, the positive relationship between solicitation and prosocial behaviors was marginally significant when nonsupportive ES was at high levels (slope, $b = .07, p = .09$). Thus, the relationship between solicitation and prosocial behavior became less significant as nonsupportive ES increased. Figure 2 shows how the relationship between solicitation and prosocial behaviors across different levels of nonsupportive ES. The X-axis represents solicitation, and the Y-axis represents prosocial scores. The solid line represents the relationship for nonsupportive ES scores 1 SD below the mean, the dashed line represents the relationship for supportive ES scores 1 SD below the mean. The solid line is significant, while the dashed line is marginally significant.

Table 8. Prediction of Prosocial Behaviors from Maternal Solicitation and ES in Study 1

Variables	Step 1			Step 2		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Solicitation	.11	.03	.25***	.12	.03	.26***
Supportive ES	.49	.09	.36***	.49	.09	.36***
Nonsupportive ES	-.23	.08	-.18**	-.24	.08	-.19**
SolicitationXSupportive				.01	.10	.01
SolicitationXNonsupportive				-.16	.09	-.11 ⁺

Variables	Step 1			Step 2		
	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Zero-order	Partial	Part
Nonsupportive ES	.41	.27	.23	.41	.28	.24
Supportive ES	.46	.38	.34	.46	.39	.34
Solicitation	-.27	-.21	-.18	-.27	-.23	-.19
SolicitationXSupportive				-.09	.01	.01
SolicitationXNonsupportive				-.02	-.13	-.11

Note: * $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.001$, ⁺ $p < 0.08$, R^2 for Step 1 = .32, ΔR^2 for Step 2 = .02

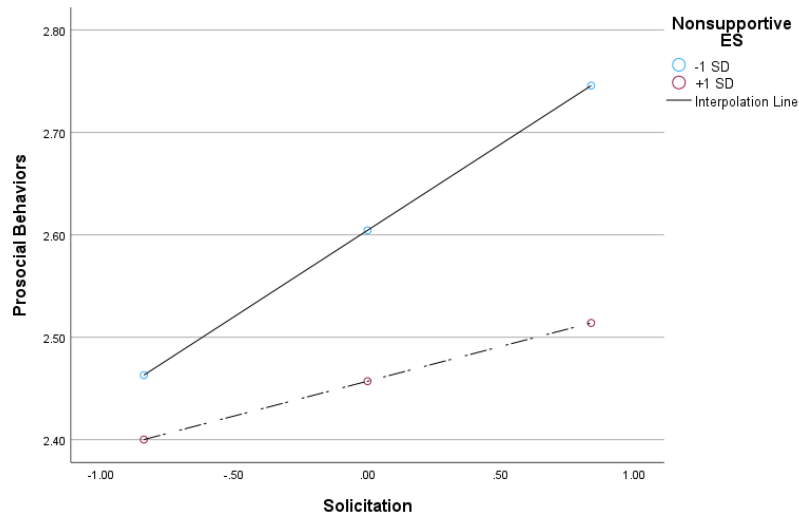


Fig. 2 The moderating role of nonsupportive es on the relationship between solicitation and prosocial behaviors in study 1

3.3 Discussion

Hypothesis 1A was supported only in the third hierarchical regression model, in which maternal solicitation positively predicted prosocial behaviors. This parallels the findings in Yoo, Feng, and Day, (2013), who also found solicitation predicted prosocial behaviors. However, in the models with externalizing behaviors and internalizing problems as the outcome variables, solicitation did not explain any significant variance. This pattern is similar to the findings in studies conducted by Rekker et al. (2017), Fernandez et al. (2020), and Kerr, Stattin, and Burk (2010), who did not find parental solicitation as a significant predictor of externalizing problems. It is even more similar to the findings by Criss et al. (2015), which showed parental solicitation to be a nonsignificant predictor of externalizing problems when controlling for parental involvement. It also contradicts the findings by Selçuk, Uçanok, and Sayıl (2021), in which there was a negative relationship between solicitation and adolescents' externalizing as well as internalizing problems in Turkish adolescents. The explanation behind this contradiction is that Selçuk, Uçanok, and Sayıl did not control for other parenting behaviors as in this study. Nevertheless, solicitation did not positively predict internalizing and externalizing problems in adolescents as it did Hessel, He, and Dworkin's (2017) study. These findings illustrate that parental solicitation plays a significant positive role in Turkish adolescents' prosocial behaviors above and beyond supportive and nonsupportive ES. On the other hand, when controlling for supportive and nonsupportive ES, solicitation does not play a significant role in Turkish adolescents' internalizing and externalizing problems. The results of our first study replicated some of the findings presented by previous research.

Hypothesis 1B was partially supported by the results, which replicated and contradicted the findings present by previous research. Specifically, nonsupportive ES negatively predicted prosocial behaviors and positively predicted internalizing and externalizing problems significantly while controlling for supportive ES and solicitation. Findings in adolescent research have also reported such relationships between nonsupportive ES with prosocial behaviors (Waslin et al.,

2023), internalizing problems (Cui et al., 2020; Klimes-Dougan et al., 2007; Sanders et al., 2013), and externalizing problems (Johnson et al., 2017; Klimes-Dougan et al., 2007). Moreover, these results are in line with the study conducted by Güven and Erden (2017) who found nonsupportive ES positively predicted Turkish adolescents' externalizing problems. This implies that nonsupportive ES consistently plays a negative role in Turkish adolescents' adjustment. However, similar to solicitation, supportive ES was only significant in the prosocial behaviors model. This is contrary to the findings by Cui et al. (2020), Klimes-Dougan et al. (2007), and Sanders et al. (2013), in which supportive ES was predictive of internalizing and externalizing problems even when controlling for nonsupportive ES. The lack of significant effects could be due to the inclusion of solicitation in the model, which previous studies have not done. Considering the correlation between the two variables ($r = .35, p < .001$), the presence of both solicitation and supportive ES may have made it difficult for each of them to be uniquely statistically significant.

In Study 1, none of the hypothesized interactions reached statistical significance. However, two interaction variables that were marginally significant were explored. One of the interaction variables were between solicitation and supportive ES in the internalizing problems model. Contrary to the expectations of hypothesis 2, solicitation negatively predicted internalizing when supportive ES was lower. Solicitation was not a significant predictor of internalizing problems when supportive ES levels were average or high. Based on the premises of the self-determination theory (Soenens, Vansteenkiste, & Beyers, 2019) and the findings of the studies conducted by Baudat et al. (2019) and Kapetanovic and Skoog (2020), an increase in supportive ES practices should strengthen the negative relationship between solicitation and internalizing problems. It was theorized that parenting practices, such as supportive ES, that fulfill adolescents basic needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence, while at the same time create a warm emotional family climate would positively define the parental behavior of solicitation in the eyes of adolescents. As Darling and Steinberg (1997) have discussed, parental behaviors are manifested

within the broader context of parenting, in which positive contexts facilitate the process in which parents influence their adolescents through different practices. Thus, it was expected that the negative relationship between solicitation and internalizing problems would strengthen as supportive ES increased. Yet, it could be argued that solicitation played a compensatory role for the lack of supportive ES. Even though solicitation was not a significant predictor in this model individually, solicitation still had a significant correlation with internalizing problems ($r = -.21, p < .01$). For example, Laird, Marrero, and Sentse, 2010 found that parental solicitation is more important when there are fewer protective factors and more risk factors for the adolescent. Therefore, it could be argued that solicitation by itself may be considered a positive parenting behavior in this sample, which could allow it to play as a compensatory parenting practice with regards to internalizing problems when other positive parenting practices are lower. Previous studies such as Li et al. (2021) and Selçuk, Uçanok, and Sayıl, (2021) have also reported that solicitation negatively predicts internalizing problems in adolescents. As these authors have argued, adolescents may view solicitation as a form of involvement by the parent. It could be that through solicitation efforts, especially when other positive parenting behaviors are low, may give the child a message that the parent cares for them, which could be related to a decrease in internalizing problems.

Another interaction variable that was explored within hypothesis 2 was the interaction between nonsupportive ES and solicitation in the prosocial behaviors model. This findings from this interaction were actually in line with hypothesis 2. The positive relationship between solicitation and prosocial behavior only existed when nonsupportive ES levels were low or average. When nonsupportive ES levels were high, solicitation no longer had a significant positive relationship with prosocial behaviors. Even though solicitation, as an individual variable, was a significant positive predictor of prosocial behaviors, a context that thwarts adolescents' psychological needs can undermine solicitation's positive influence. As stated in hypothesis 2,

nonsupportive ES weakened the relationship between solicitation and prosocial behaviors. This parallels the study conducted by Kapetanovic and Skoog (2020), who reported the negative relationship between parental solicitation and externalizing problems was only significant when the family emotional climate was positive (i.e., non-overcontrolling parental attitudes and high parent-adolescent connectedness).

Overall, the results of the regression models are mostly in line with the self-determination theory. As discussed previously, researchers have used this framework to elaborate how parenting practices that undermine adolescents' need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness are likely to be related to adolescent maladjustment (Soenens, Vansteenkiste, & Beyers, 2019). Nonsupportive ES comprises of behaviors that undermine these needs (Fabes et al., 2002). Thus, the findings from the regression regarding nonsupportive ES are in line with the expectations of the self-determination theory. Yet, the self-determination theory also proposes that parenting practices that support adolescents' psychological needs will predict adolescent adjustment. The results of the prosocial regression model in this study supported this proposal, as supportive ES and solicitation positively predicted prosocial behaviors. However, the positive parenting practices were not significant predictors in the internalizing and externalizing models. There are three possible reasons behind this inconsistency. One of the reasons have been discussed previously by Johnson et al. (2017) and Vaughan et al. (2021) in which "positive" parenting practices are more predictive of positive youth development indicators such as prosocial behaviors, while "negative" parenting practices are stronger predictors of maladjustment. In Johnson et al. (2017) meta-analysis on the relationship between ES and externalizing problems, they reported that the relationship between nonsupportive ES and externalizing problems was stronger than supportive ES and externalizing problems. Parallel to this finding, Vaughan et al. (2021) determined that parental warmth was significantly related to prosocial behaviors, while parental hostility was significantly related to externalizing problems in their studies. Similarly, Lucier-Greer et al. (2020)

found that paternal hostility, and not paternal warmth, predicted adolescent internalizing problems. Additionally, Ngai et al. (2018) found autonomy granting parenting practices to have the strongest relationship with prosocial behaviors compared to parental neglect and parental overcontrolling practices. There are other perspectives that provide reasoning for the stronger relationship between positive parenting practices and adolescent adjustment. Based on the social-learning theory, parents who express warm and supportive parenting practices towards their children model socially desirable ways of interacting with individuals (Walters, 2021), which can lead to children/adolescents to develop prosocial behaviors (Bandura, 1997; Eisenberg et al., 2003). Furthermore, emotionally supportive and warm parent-child relationship, catalyzes children's internalization of moral values that parents try to teach (Eisenberg et al., 2015; Grusec & Goodnow, 1994; Hoffman, 2000).

Another reason behind the lack of significance for solicitation and supportive ES predictors in the internalizing and externalizing models could be that the sample size was not sufficient. The final possible reason has to do with the time of data collection, which was during the height of the COVID-19 pandemic in Turkey when education was conducted virtually. During lockdown, parental solicitation may not have been that important as both adolescents and parents are at home, decreasing the number of activities adolescents do unknown to their parents. However, this reason is not relevant to supportive ES. The multitude of possible factors behind the nonsignificant effects of solicitation and supportive ES are important limitations to our study as we will discuss below.

This study has a few limitations. First of all, the sample size may not have been sufficient to detect the effects of variables, specifically the interaction variables. The lack of significance of the interaction variables necessitates further studies to be conducted to truly understand the nature of how solicitation is contextualized within ES. Another problem is related to the sample characteristics of the study. This sample only consisted of mothers from Istanbul. Furthermore,

46% of the mothers had some form of college degree, which is not representative of the Turkey's female education level, 20.9% (TUIK, 2023). Moreover, this data was collected during times of lockdown during COVID-19, which changed certain aspects of parenting. Therefore, it is not safe to make conclusions regarding how solicitation and emotion socialization function together within the Turkish culture in general. Such limitations have laid the ground for conducting study 2.

CHAPTER 4

STUDY 2

The limitations of study 1 prompted the need to conduct another study. First of all, the first study only consisted of mothers, but studies have shown that the relations between parenting behaviors and adolescent outcomes can differ across parent gender (Yaffe, 2020). It is important to consider the role both mothers and fathers play, as neither of them have a negligible role within adolescent development (Wang & Kenny, 2014; Wang et al., 2019). Investigating how solicitation and emotion socialization relate to adolescent socioemotional adjustment using only maternal reports can paint a biased picture of the role these parenting behaviors play within adolescent development. Thus, the second study aimed to recruit both mother and father participants. On the other hand, as previously discussed, the sample of the first study consisted of mainly upper-middle class mothers in Istanbul, which does not represent the Turkish society in general. There are many studies that show not only the different styles of parenting across SES, but also the differential relations of parent behaviors to adolescent outcomes across SES (Cakin Memik et al. 2010; Delforterie et al., 2016). The findings in study 1 may be relevant for parents and adolescents who come from a more privileged background in Turkey. The nature of the main and interaction effects may change using a more representative sample of Turkey. As a result, the second study aimed to recruit participants to achieve a representative sample of Turkey. Another issue has to do with the sample size of study 1, which could have made it difficult for certain variables (e.g., supportive ES and the interaction variables) to be significant. In order to prevent a type 2 error from affecting the interpretations of the study, study 2 aimed to achieve a greater sample size. Last but not least, the second study was conducted during the time when the COVID-19 pandemic started to ease.

As previously discussed, the rule and regulations during the COVID-19 impacted the dynamics between parents and adolescents, which could have distorted the role solicitation and emotion socialization had unique and in interaction with adolescent adjustment in study 1. Thus, the results of study 2 would be better able to reflect the normal nature of parenting and adolescent adjustment in Turkey. All in all, the limitations of study 1 with regards to sample size, sample characteristics, and the time of its execution may paint a biased picture of the role solicitation and emotion socialization had on Turkish adolescents' adjustment. In order to account for these limitations, a second study was conducted. As with study 1, study 2 was also conducted within the scope of the TÜBİTAK-1003 (118K050) project.

4.1 Method

4.1.1 Participants

Participants in Study 2 consisted of two separate samples of mothers and fathers. There were 376 mothers of adolescents and 323 fathers from different families of 10–17-year-old adolescents. In other words, mothers and fathers were not recruited from the same family. Participants in the mother sample were on average 40.22 years old ($SD = 5.34$) and had children who were on average 13.30 years old ($SD = 2.26$, Range = 7). Only 1.3% mothers had no formal education, whereas 30.3% graduated from primary school, 19.3 graduated from middle school and 34.7% graduated from high school, and 14.3% had a college of above degree. Participants in the father sample were on average 43.03 years old ($SD = 5.51$) and had children who were on average 13.06 years old ($SD = 2.52$, Range=7). Of all fathers, 42.6% of them finished either primary school or middle school, 38.6% had a high school diploma, while 18.8% of them had some form of higher education. Table 9 shows the sociodemographic characteristics of the mother and father samples in Study 2. A survey company recruited participants across Turkey to achieve a representative

sample of parents in this country, in which the number of participants from each NUTS1 region of Turkey based on their population density and urban-rural distribution.

Table 9. Sociodemographic Characteristics of the Mother Sample and Father Sample in Study 2

Variables	Mothers		Fathers	
	N	%	N	%
Marital status				
Single	1	0.2%	0	0%
Married	347	92.2%	308	95.4%
Divorced	20	5.2%	8	2.4%
Widowed	9	2.4%	7	2.2%
Adolescent Gender				
Male	172	47.7%	186	57.6%
Female	201	53.5%	137	42.4%
Highest educational level				
No Formal Education	5	1.3%	0	0%
Elementary School	114	30.3%	68	21.2%
Middle school	73	19.3%	69	21.4%
High school	131	34.7%	125	38.6%
Undergraduate	53	12.1%	56	17.6%
University				
Degree	1	.2%	4	1.2%
Graduate degree	114	30.3%	68	21.2%
Employment				
Unemployed	251	66.8%	12	3.7%
Full-time employed	109	29.0%	305	94.5%
Part-time employed	16	4.2%	6	1.8%
Monthly Income				
5000 TL and below	95	25.4%	46	14.2%
5001 TL – 10000 TL	167	44.0%	148	45.8%
10001 TL – 15000TL	43	11.4%	63	19.6%
15001TL – 20000TL	16	13.7%	11	3.8%
20001TL – 25000 TL	2	0.5%	10	3.4%
Above 25000TL	7	1.8%	13	4.0%
Missing	47	12.5%	32	9.2%

4.1.2 Procedure

As this study's goal was to reach a representative sample of Turkey and conduct surveys face-to-face, some of the scales from the pilot study had to be shortened to facilitate participant recruitment and data collection. From the findings in Study 1, shorter versions of the scale were created based on their predictive validity and internal reliability as detailed in the measures section. This survey study was conducted face-to-face with the participants by a research company. In order to gain a representative sample of Turkey, the research company arranged the number of participants from each NUTS1 region of Turkey based on their population density and urban-rural distribution. Participants were recruited by randomly selecting neighborhoods in each region, followed by another random selection of houses within each selected neighborhood.

4.1.3 Measures

Sociodemographic Information

Similar to Study 1, the sociodemographic questionnaire of Study 2, included items regarding income, employment status, education level, number of children, marital status, the sex and age of the child they are reporting on, migration-related experiences, home ownership, general health problems, and Covid-19 pandemic related questions.

Parental Solicitation

The same parental solicitation scale used in Study 1 was completed by Study 2 participants. The internal consistency of this 4-item measure in Study 2 was relatively low, Cronbach's Alpha was .53 ($\Omega = .54$) in the mother sample, and .52 ($\Omega = .53$) in the father sample.

Parental Responses to Anger and Sadness

Similar to the scales from Study 1, the *Emotions as a Child* (EAC) scale (O’Neal & Magai, 2005) was used to assess emotion socialization. However, scale items from Study 1 had to be shortened for Study 2 given the large number of questions in the overall project when reaching a nationally representative sample. Those items that had higher factor loadings and were more prevalently coded in the interviews of the initial qualitative study, indicating cultural relevance, were kept for Study 2. Supportive responses to anger consisted of five items (e.g., “I encouraged her to solve the problem by him/herself”, “I supported by child by giving them advice”), and the Cronbach’s Alpha was .57 ($\Omega = .56$) and .49 ($\Omega = .47$) in the mother and father samples, respectively. Supportive response to sadness consisted of six items, for example “I calmed by child down” and “I tried to understand what upset my child” (Mothers Sample’s Cronbach $\alpha = .66$, $\Omega = .65$; Fathers Sample’s Cronbach $\alpha = .56$, $\Omega = .56$), Nonsupportive responses to anger consisted of six items, such as “I yelled as well” and “I punished my child” (Mothers Sample’s Cronbach $\alpha = .66$, $\Omega = .65$; Fathers Sample’s Cronbach $\alpha = .65$, $\Omega = .65$). Nonsupportive responses to sadness consisted of five items, such as “I told my child not to act like a baby” and “I ignored what my child was feeling” (Mothers Sample’s Cronbach $\alpha = .66$, $\Omega = .65$; Fathers Sample’s Cronbach $\alpha = .59$, $\Omega = .60$). Looking at the correlation coefficients between the anger and sadness subscales for supportive ($r_{mothers} = .66$, $p < .001$; $r_{fathers} = .64$, $p < .001$) and non-supportive responses ($r_{mothers} = .66$, $p < .001$; $r_{fathers} = .60$, $p < .001$), it was decided to combine the scores from the anger and sadness subscales to create two variables: supportive responses to negative emotions (Mothers Sample’s Cronbach $\alpha = .77$, $\Omega = .77$; Fathers Sample’s Cronbach $\alpha = .68$, $\Omega = .75$) and nonsupportive responses to negative emotions (Mothers Sample’s Cronbach $\alpha = .78$, $\Omega = .77$; Fathers Sample’s Cronbach $\alpha = .75$, $\Omega = .75$), for mothers and fathers, separately.

Socioemotional Adjustment

Similar to Study 1, adolescent socioemotional adjustment was measured using the Strength and Difficulties Questionnaire (Goodman, 1997) that was translated and adapted to Turkish by

Güvenir et al. (2008). The same subscales were used as in Study 1. However, five items were discarded from the internalizing symptoms subscale for Study 2 because they had low factor loadings in Study 1 (Items that are included from the internalizing subscale: 3, 8, 13, 16, 24). In the mothers sample, the Cronbach's Alpha coefficients for the internalizing (e.g., "Frequent complaints of headache, stomach ache, and nausea."), externalizing (e.g., "Restless and excessively active"), and prosocial behavior (e.g., "Cares about other people's feelings.") subscales were .65 ($\Omega = .65$), .68 ($\Omega = .67$), and .54 ($\Omega = .54$), respectively. In the fathers sample the Cronbach's Alpha coefficients for the internalizing (e.g., "He/she has many worries and often appears anxious."), externalizing (e.g., "Frequently lies or cheats"), and prosocial behavior (e.g., "Shares with other children (food, toys, etc.)") subscales were .64 ($\Omega = .65$), .65 ($\Omega = .67$), and .59 ($\Omega = .60$), respectively.

4.1.4 Data Analysis Plan

Three hierarchical regression analyses were conducted with each of the three adolescent socioemotional adjustment indicators as the outcome variable for one of the models, we centered the variables before computing interaction variables or entering them in the regression model. In the first step of each regression model, we included sociodemographic variables such as parent gender, parent age, family income, parent education, adolescent age, and adolescent sex if they correlated with the outcome variable. In the second step, we included parental behavior predictors: parental solicitation, supportive responses to emotions, and non-supportive responses to emotions. Finally, the interaction terms that consisted of the multiplicative term of the centered solicitation and supportive responses as well as the multiplicative term of the centered solicitation and non-supportive responses were entered in the third step.

Table 10. Correlations among Variables for the Mother Sample in Study 2

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.Child Sex	1.46	.50	-	.03	.01	.03	.03	-.09	-.05	.06	.04	.04	-.004
2.Child Age	13.13	2.26	-		.34**	-	-.06	-	.02	.09	.01	.02	.004
3.Parent Age	40.22	5.34			*	.10	.12*	-.04	.04	-.02	-.07	-.06	.08
4.Education	4.36	1.20				-.04	.32**	.05	.07	-.002	.09	.02	.05
5.Income	8.16	3.63					-	.14**	-.06	-.14**	-.05	-.09	-.04
6.Solicitation	4.16	.79						-	.28**	-	-.17**	-	.22**
7.Supportive ES	2.25	.38							*	.30**	*	.28**	*
8.Nonsupportive ES	1.72	.40							-	-.14**	-	-.25**	.45**
9.Internalizing	1.74	.47									.25**	.38**	*
10.Externalizing	1.70	.35								-	.50**	.43**	-
11.Prosocial	2.31	.41									*	*	.27**
											-	.59**	-
												*	.27**
												-	.45***
													-

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

1 = Female, 2 = Male for Child Gender

4.2 Results

4.2.1 Correlational analyses

Maternal behaviors were not related to any sociodemographic factors other than solicitation's negative relation child age ($r = -.15, p < 0.05$). However, paternal nonsupportive ES was negatively related to paternal education ($r = -.18, p < 0.01$), and was more likely shown to male adolescents ($r = -.12, p < 0.05$). Paternal education was also positively related to supportive ES ($r = .13, p < 0.05$) and solicitation ($r = .19, p < 0.01$). Family income was positively related to paternal solicitation ($r = .12, p < 0.05$), but negatively related to supportive ES ($r = -.13, p < 0.05$). Regarding the relationships between sociodemographic factors and adolescent socioemotional adjustment variables, there were no significant findings in the mother dataset.

However, paternal education was negatively related to adolescent externalizing problems ($r = -.16, p < 0.01$) and internalizing problems ($r = -.15, p < 0.01$), while it was positively related to prosocial behaviors ($r = .18, p < 0.01$).

Table 11. Correlations among Variables for the Father Sample in Study 2

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.Child Sex	1.58	.49	-	.07	.10	.08	.03	.06	-.01	-.12*	-.10	-.05	.01
2.Child Age	13.16	2.25		-	.37** *	-	-.15*	-.08	-.09	.07	.05	.02	.04
3.Parent Age	43.03	5.51			-	-.25** *	-.03	-.07	-.05	-.01	-.05	-.01	-.08
4.Education	4.71	1.29				-	.31** *	.19* *	.13*	-.18**	-.15**	-.16**	.18**
5.Income	9.41	3.98					-	.12*	-.13*	-.04	-.07	-.05	-.02
6.Solicitation	4.06	.83						-	.20** *	-.26** *	-.22** *	-.26** *	.25** *
7.Supportive ES	2.18	.37							-	-.17**	-.30** *	-.29** *	.41** *
8.Nonsupportive ES	1.68	.39								-	.63** *	.59** *	-.36** *
9.Internalizing	1.71	.47									-	.60** *	-.38** *
10.Externalizing	1.72	.35										-	-.46***
11.Prosocial	2.27	.45											-

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

1 = Female, 2 = Male for Child Gender

Parenting variables generally had the expected relationships among themselves and with adolescent outcome variables in both the father and mother datasets. Solicitation had positive correlations with supportive ES ($r_{mothers} = .28, p < 0.001$; $r_{fathers} = .20, p < 0.001$) and negative correlations with nonsupportive ES ($r_{mothers} = -.30, p < 0.001$; $r_{fathers} = -.28, p < 0.001$). Supportive and nonsupportive ES were negatively correlated with each other in each dataset ($r_{mothers} = -.17, p < 0.01$; $r_{fathers} = -.14, p < 0.01$). While non-supportive ES was negatively related to prosocial behaviors ($r_{mothers} = -.27, p < 0.001$; $r_{fathers} = -.36, p < 0.001$) and positively related to internalizing ($r_{mothers} = .50, p < 0.001$; $r_{fathers} = .63, p < 0.001$) and externalizing problems ($r_{mothers} = .43, p < 0.001$; $r_{fathers} = .59, p < 0.001$), solicitation and supportive ES were positively related to prosocial

behaviors ($r_{\text{maternal solicitation}} = .22, p < 0.001$; $r_{\text{paternal solicitation}} = .25, p < 0.001$; $r_{\text{maternal supportiveES}} = .45, p < 0.001$; $r_{\text{paternal supportiveES}} = .41, p < 0.001$) and negatively related to internalizing ($r_{\text{maternal solicitation}} = -.17, p < 0.01$; $r_{\text{paternal solicitation}} = -.22, p < 0.001$; $r_{\text{maternal supportiveES}} = -.25, p < 0.001$; $r_{\text{paternal supportiveES}} = -.30, p < 0.001$) and externalizing problems ($r_{\text{maternal solicitation}} = -.28, p < 0.001$; $r_{\text{paternal solicitation}} = -.26, p < 0.001$; $r_{\text{maternal supportiveES}} = -.38, p < 0.001$; $r_{\text{paternal supportiveES}} = -.29, p < 0.001$).

4.2.2 The main and interactive roles of solicitation and emotion socialization in the prediction of internalizing problems

For both mother and father samples, outliers were investigated to check for potential influential cases. The Cook's Distance values and standardized DFBeta values indicated that there were no influential cases. Partial regression scatterplots revealed that all predictor variables had linear relationship with internalizing problems. To check for multicollinearity, the VIF scores of the predictor variables ranged from 1.09-1.12 in the Mother sample, while the VIF Scores ranged from 1.09-1.18 in the Father sample. The tolerance scores ranged from .85-.92 in the mother sample and from .84-.92 in the Father sample, ruling out a multicollinearity problem in these models. Independence of the residual values were supported through the Durbin-Watson values of 1.95 in the Mother sample and 1.91 in the Father sample. Even though the P-P plot and histogram of the residuals indicated a slightly skewed distribution, the scatterplot of the residuals also did not reflect problem regarding homoscedasticity. These findings supported the assumptions of the multiple regression analyses for both maternal and paternal data.

Mother data. Results of the first regression analysis with maternal solicitation and ES revealed that the model was significant with all the predictors, explaining 29 % of the variance in mother-reported internalizing problem scores in adolescents, $F(5, 371) = 30.67, p < .001$. In the first step in the model, which explained 28% of the variance ($F(3,372) = 7.74, p < 0.001$), supportive ES ($\beta = -.18, p < 0.001$) and nonsupportive ES ($\beta = .48, p < 0.001$) were significant

predictors. The interaction between supportive ES responses and solicitation in the second step that had an incremental variance of 1% ($\Delta F(2,371) = 2.39; p = 0.09$) was also significant ($\beta = .12, p < 0.05$). The nature of the interaction was investigated through simple slope tests and the Johnson-Neyman test in PROCESS SPSS, which indicated that solicitation marginally positively predicted internalizing problems when supportive ES was lower (slope, $b = .07, p = .05$). However, solicitation did not have significant relations to internalizing problems at average levels (slope, $b = .01, p = .59$) or higher levels (slope, $b = -.04, p = .32$). However, the positive relationship between solicitation and internalizing problems was marginally significant when nonsupportive ES was at high levels (slope, $b = .07, p = .09$). Thus, the positive relationship between solicitation and internalizing problems became nonsignificant as supportive ES increased to average and high levels (Figure 3). Figure 3 shows how the relationship between solicitation and internalizing problems across different levels of supportive ES. The X-axis represents solicitation, and the Y-axis represents internalizing scores. The solid line represents the relationship for supportive ES scores 1 SD below the mean, the dashed line represents the relationship for supportive ES scores 1 SD above the mean. The slope for the solid line representing the relationship for supportive ES scores 1 SD below the mean is marginally significant.

Father data. Results of the regression analysis with paternal solicitation and ES revealed that the model was significant with all the predictors, explaining 43 % of the variance in father-reported adolescents internalizing problems, $F(6, 316) = 38.36, p < .001$. The first step of regression model for internalizing problems included father education ($\beta = -.15, p < 0.01$) and explained 2% variance ($F(1,321) = 3.77, p < 0.01$). The second step included the parenting behaviors and explained an additional 40% of variance ($\Delta F(3,318) = 73.29; \Delta R^2 = .40, p < .001$), with and supportive ES ($\beta = -.16, p < 0.001$), and nonsupportive ES ($\beta = .59, p < 0.001$) having significant contributions. The third step uniquely explained only 0.2% variance ($\Delta F(2,316) = .55, p = 0.58$), with none of the interaction variables being significant.

Table 12. Prediction of Internalizing Symptoms from Maternal Solicitation and ES in Study 2

	Step 1			Step 2		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Solicitation	.02	.03	.03	.02	.03	.03
Supportive ES	-.22	.06	-.18***	-.22	.06	-.18***
Nonsupportive ES	.57	.05	.48***	.56	.05	.48***
SolicitationXSupportive				-.14	.07	-.10*
SolicitationXNonsupportive				-.001	.07	-.001

	Step 1			Step 2		
	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Zero-order	Partial	Part
Solicitation	-.17	.03	.03	-.17	.03	.02
Supportive ES	-.25	-.20	-.18	-.25	-.20	-.17
Nonsupportive ES	.50	.48	.46	.50	.48	.46
SolicitationXSupportive				-.12	-.11	-.09
SolicitationXNonsupportive				.04	-.001	-.001

Note: All predictor variables were centered.

* $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$,

R^2 for Step 1 = .28, ΔR^2 for Step 2 = .01

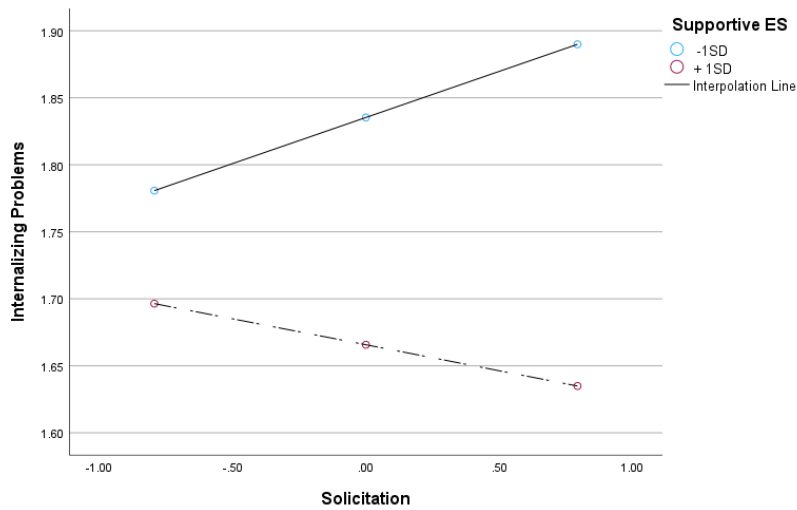


Fig. 3 The moderating role of supportive ES on the relationship between solicitation and internalizing problems in study 2

4.2.3 The main and interactive roles of solicitation and emotion socialization in the prediction of externalizing problems

For both mother and father samples, outliers were investigated to check for potential influential cases. The Cook's Distance values and standardized DFBeta values indicated that there were no influential. Partial regression scatterplots revealed that all predictor variables had linear relationship with externalizing problems. To check for multicollinearity, the VIF scores of the predictor variables ranged from 1.09-1.12 in the Mother sample, while the VIF Scores ranged from 1.00-1.12 in the Father sample. The tolerance scores ranged from .85-.92 in the mother sample and from .89-.96 in the Father sample, ruling out a multicollinearity problem in these models. Independence of the residual values were supported through the Durbin-Watson values of 1.77 in the Mother sample and 1.88 in the Father sample. Even though the P-P plot and histogram of the residuals indicated a slightly skewed distribution, the scatterplot of the residuals also did not reflect

problem regarding homoscedasticity. These findings supported the assumptions of the multiple regression analyses for both maternal and paternal data.

Table 13. Prediction of Internalizing Symptoms from Paternal Solicitation and ES in Study 2

	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Father Education	-.06	.02	-.15**	-.01	.02	-.02	-.01	.02	-.02
Solicitation				-.02	.03	-.03	-.02	.03	-.03
Supportive ES				-.20	.05	-.16***	-.21	.06	-.17***
Nonsupportive ES				.71	.05	.59***	.71	.05	.59***
SolicitationXSupportive							.03	.07	.02
SolicitationXNonsupportive							.07	.06	.04

	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3		
	Zero-order	Partial	Partial	Zero-order	Partial	Partial	Zero-order	Partial	Partial
Father Education	-.15	-.15	-.15	-.15	-.03	-.02	-.15	-.03	-.02
Solicitation			.15	-.22	-.03	-.03	-.21	-.03	-.02
Supportive ES				-.27	-.20	-.16	-.27	-.20	-.16
Nonsupportive ES				.63	.59	.56	.63	.59	.56
SolicitationXSupportive							-.001	.03	.02
SolicitationXNonsupportive							.08	.06	.04

Note: All predictor variables were centered.

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

R^2 for Step 1 = .02, ΔR^2 for Step 2 = .40, ΔR^2 for Step 3 = .002

4.2.3 The main and interactive roles of solicitation and emotion socialization in the prediction of externalizing problems

For both mother and father samples, outliers were investigated to check for potential influential cases. The Cook's Distance values and standardized DFBeta values indicated that there were no influential. Partial regression scatterplots revealed that all predictor variables had linear relationship with externalizing problems. To check for multicollinearity, the VIF scores of the predictor variables ranged from 1.09-1.12 in the Mother sample, while the VIF Scores ranged from 1.00-1.12 in the Father sample. The tolerance scores ranged from .85-.92 in the mother sample and from .89-.96 in the Father sample, ruling out a multicollinearity problem in these models. Independence of the residual values were supported through the Durbin-Watson values of 1.77 in the Mother sample and 1.88 in the Father sample. Even though the P-P plot and histogram of the residuals indicated a slightly skewed distribution, the scatterplot of the residuals also did not reflect problem regarding homoscedasticity. These findings supported the assumptions of the multiple regression analyses for both maternal and paternal data.

Mother Sample. Results of the regression analysis with maternal solicitation and ES revealed that the model was significant with all the predictors, explaining 29 % of the variance in mother-reported adolescent externalizing problems, $F(5, 371) = 32.17, p < .001$. While predicting externalizing problems, the first step that included parenting behaviors explained 29% of the variance ($F(3,372) = 4.69, p < 0.001$), with nonsupportive ES ($\beta = .36, p < 0.001$) and supportive ES ($\beta = -.30, p < 0.001$) being significant predictors. On the other hand, solicitation had marginal significance ($\beta = -.09, p < 0.06$). The second step that included the interaction variables explained and additional 1% variance ($\Delta F(2,371) = 1.67, p = 0.20$), in which the interaction variable of solicitation and supportive ES was marginally significant ($\beta = .08, p < 0.08$). The nature of the interaction was investigated through simple slope tests and the Johnson-Neyman test in PROCESS SPSS, which indicated that solicitation negatively predicted externalizing problems significantly when supportive ES was higher (slope, $b = -.07, p < .05$). It was also revealed that solicitation negatively predict externalizing problem marginally when supportive ES was at average levels

(slope, $b = -.04$, $p = .06$). However, the relationship between solicitation and externalizing problems was nonsignificant when supportive ES was at low levels (slope, $b = -.001$, $p = .79$). Thus, the negative relationship between solicitation and externalizing problems became nonsignificant as supportive ES decreased to low levels (Figure 4). Figure 4 shows how the relationship between solicitation and externalizing problems across different levels of supportive ES. The X-axis represents solicitation, and the Y-axis represents externalizing scores. The solid line represents the relationship for supportive ES scores 1 SD below the mean, the dashed line represents the relationship for supportive ES scores 1 SD above the mean. The slope for the dashed line representing the relationship for supportive ES scores 1 SD above the mean is significant.

Table 14. Prediction of Externalizing Problems from Maternal Solicitation and ES in Study 2

Variables	Step 1			Step 2		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Solicitation	-.04	.02	-.09 ⁺	-.04	.02	-.09 ⁺
Supportive ES	-.28	.04	-.30***	-.28	.04	-.30***
Nonsupportive ES	.33	.04	.36***	.32	.04	.36***
SolicitationXSupportive				-.09	.05	-.08 ⁺
SolicitationXNonsupportive				-.03	.06	-.03

Variables	Step 1			Step 2		
	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Zero-order	Partial	Part
Solicitation	-.28	-.10	-.08	-.28	-.10	-.08
Supportive ES	-.38	-.32	-.29	-.38	-.32	-.29
Nonsupportive ES	.43	.38	.35	.43	.38	.34
SolicitationXSupportive				-.10	-.09	-.08
SolicitationXNonsupportive				.02	-.03	-.02

Note: All predictor variables were centered.

*** $p < 0.001$, ⁺ $p < 0.08$

R^2 for Step 1 = .17, ΔR^2 for Step 2 = .01

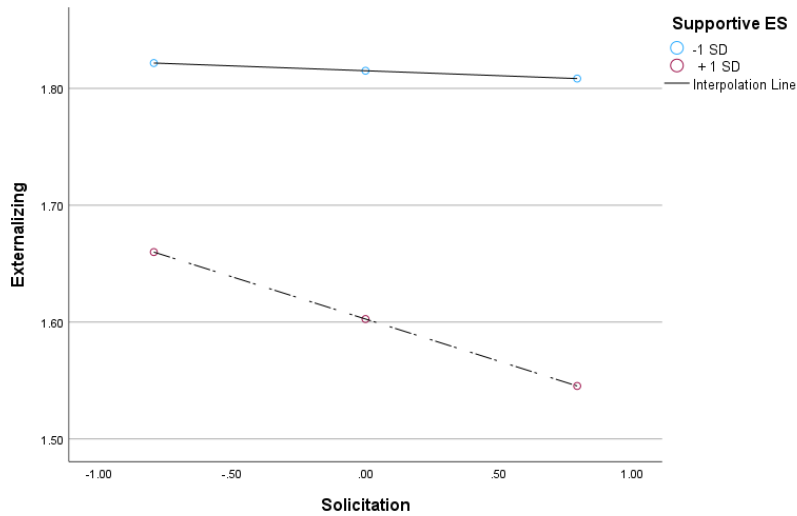


Fig. 4 The moderating role of supportive es on the relationship between solicitation and externalizing problems in study 2

Father sample. Results of the regression analysis with paternal solicitation and ES revealed that the model was significant with all the predictors, explaining 39 % of the variance in father-reported adolescent externalizing problems, $F(6, 316) = 33.34, p < .001$. While predicting externalizing problems, the paternal education ($\beta = -.16, p < 0.01$) in the first step explained 2% of the variance ($F(1,321) = 8.16, p < 0.01$). In the second step, which explained an additional 37% of variance, nonsupportive ES ($\beta = .53, p < 0.001$) and supportive ES ($\beta = -.18, p < 0.001$) were significant predictors ($\Delta F(3,318) = 63.07, p < .001$). On the other hand, solicitation had marginal significance ($\beta = -.08, p = 0.07$). The third step that included the interaction variables explained a total of .01% variance ($\Delta F(2,316) = .19, p = 0.82$), in which none of the interaction variables were significant.

Table 15. Prediction of Externalizing Problems from Paternal Solicitation and ES in Study 2

	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Father Education	-.04	.02	-.16**	-.01	.01	-.02	-.01	.01	-.02
Solicitation				-.04	.02	-.08 ⁺	-.04	.02	-.09 ⁺
Supportive ES				-.17	.04	-.18***	-.17	.04	-.18***
Nonsupportive ES				.48	.04	.53***	.47	.04	.53***
SolicitationXSupportive							.03	.05	.03
SolicitationXNonsupportive							-.01	.05	-.01

	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3		
	Zero-order	Partial	Partial	Zero-order	Partial	Partial	Zero-order	Partial	Partial
Father Education	-.16	-.16	-.16	-.16	-.03	-.02	-.16	-.03	-.02
Solicitation				-.26	-.10	-.08	-.26	-.10	-.08
Supportive ES				-.29	-.22	-.18	-.29	-.22	-.18
Nonsupportive ES				.59	.54	.50	.57	.54	.50
SolicitationXSupportive							.01	.03	.02
SolicitationXNonsupportive							.03	-.01	-.01

Note: All predictor variables were centered.

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

R^2 for Step 1 = .02, ΔR^2 for Step 2 = .39, ΔR^2 for Step 3 = .001

4.2.4 The main and interactive roles of solicitation and emotion socialization in the prediction of prosocial behaviors

For both mother and father samples, outliers were investigated to check for potential influential cases. The Cook's Distance values and standardized DFBeta values indicated that there were no influential cases. Partial regression scatterplots revealed that all predictor variables had linear relationship with prosocial behaviors. To check for multicollinearity, the VIF scores of the predictor variables ranged from 1.09-1.18 in the Mother sample, while the VIF Scores ranged from 1.00-1.12 in the Father sample. The tolerance scores ranged from .84-.92 in the mother sample and from .89-.96 in the Father sample, ruling out a multicollinearity problem in these models. Independence of the residual values were supported through the Durbin-Watson values of 1.88 in the Mother sample and 1.93 in the Father sample. Even though the P-P plot and histogram of the residuals indicated a slightly skewed distribution, the scatterplot of the residuals also did not reflect problem regarding homoscedasticity. These findings supported the assumptions of the multiple regression analyses for both maternal and paternal data.

Mother sample. Results of the regression analysis with maternal solicitation and ES revealed that the model was significant with all the predictors, explaining 26 % of the variance in adolescent prosocial behaviors, $F(5, 371) = 25.71, p < .001$. The first step of regression model for prosocial behaviors included the parenting behaviors and explained 24% of variance ($F(3,373) = 39.18, p < 0.001$), with and supportive ES ($\beta = .40, p < 0.001$), and nonsupportive ES ($\beta = -.20, p < 0.01$) having significant contributions. The second step explained an extra 2% variance ($\Delta F(2,371) = 3.57, p < .05$), with the interaction between non-supportive ES and solicitation being significant ($\beta = -.12, p < 0.01$). The nature of the interaction was investigated through simple slope tests and the Johnson-Neyman test in PROCESS SPSS, which indicated that solicitation positively predicted prosocial behaviors significantly when nonsupportive ES was lower (slope, $b = .06, p < .05$). However, the relationship between solicitation and prosocial

behaviors was not nonsignificant when nonsupportive ES was at average levels (slope, $b = .02$, $p = .43$) or higher levels (slope, $b = -.05$, $p = .20$). Thus, the positive relationship between solicitation and prosocial behaviors became nonsignificant as nonsupportive ES increased to average or high levels (Figure 5). Figure 5 shows how the relationship between solicitation and prosocial behaviors across different levels of nonsupportive ES. The X-axis represents solicitation, and the Y-axis represents prosocial behaviors. The solid line represents the relationship for nonsupportive ES scores 1 SD below the mean, the dashed line represents the relationship for nonsupportive ES scores 1 SD above the mean. The slope for the solid line representing the relationship for nonsupportive ES scores 1 SD above the mean is significant.

Table 16. Prediction of Prosocial Behaviors from Maternal Solicitation and ES in Study 2

Variables	Step 1			Step 2		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Solicitation	.02	.03	.05	.02	.03	.04
Supportive ES	.44	.05	.40***	.43	.05	.40***
Nonsupportive ES	-.20	.05	-.20***	-.21	.05	-.20***
SolicitationXSupportive				-.02	.06	-.02
SolicitationXNonsupportive				-.17	.07	-.12**

Variables	Step 1			Step 2		
	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Zero-order	Partial	Part
Nonsupportive ES	.22	.05	.04	.22	.04	.03
Supportive ES	.45	.41	.39	.45	.41	.38
Solicitation	-.27	-.21	-.19	-.27	-.22	-.19
SolicitationXSupportive				.04	-.02	-.02
SolicitationXNonsupportive				-.14	-.13	-.12

Note: All predictor variables were centered.

** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$,

R^2 for Step 1 = .24, ΔR^2 for Step 2 = .02

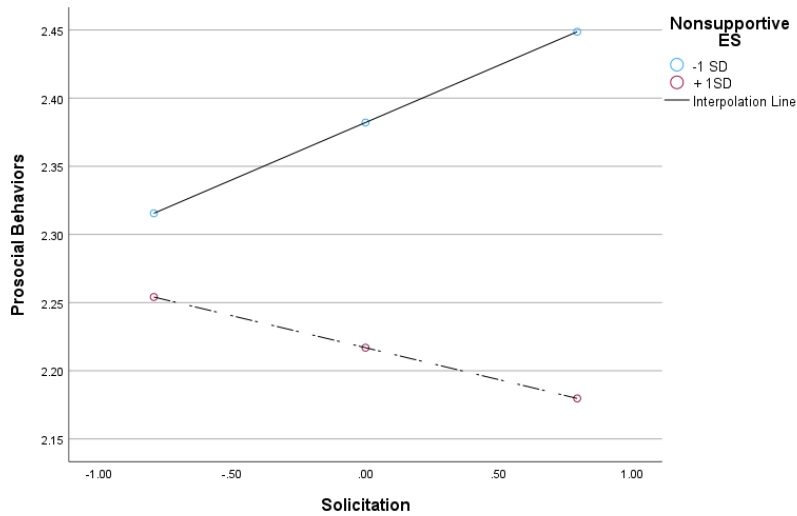


Fig. 5 The Moderating role of Nonsupportive ES on the Relationship between Solicitation and Prosocial Behaviors in Study 2

Father sample. Results of the regression analysis with paternal solicitation and ES revealed that the model was significant with all the predictors, explaining 27 % of the variance in adolescent prosocial behaviors, $F(6, 316) = 19.35, p < .001$. While predicting prosocial behaviors, paternal education ($\beta = .18, p < 0.001$) in the first step explained 3% of the variance ($F(1,321) = 10.63, p < 0.001$). In the second step, which explained an additional 24 % of variance ($\Delta F(3,318) = .79, p < .001$), paternal solicitation ($\beta = .10, p < 0.05$), nonsupportive ES ($\beta = -.26, p < 0.001$) and supportive responses ($\beta = .33, p < 0.001$) were significant predictors. The third step that included the interaction variables explained an extra .04% of variance above the second step ($\Delta F(2,316) = .79, p = 0.46$), in which none of the interaction variables were significant.

Table 17. Prediction of Prosocial Behaviors from Paternal Solicitation and ES in Study 2

	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3		
	B	SE	B	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Father Education	.06	.02	.18***	.02	.02	.07	.02	.02	.07
Solicitation				.05	.03	.10*	.05	.03	.10*
Supportive ES				.40	.06	.33***	.41	.06	.34***
Nonsupportive ES				-.30	.06	-.26***	-.29	.06	-.25***
SupportiveXSolicitation							-.08	.07	-.05
NonsupportiveXSolicitation							-.06	.07	-.04

	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3		
	Zero-order	Partial	Partial	Zero-order	Partial	Partial	Zero-order	Partial	Partial
Father Education	.18	-.18	-.18	.18	.08	.07	.18	.08	.07
Solicitation				.25	.11	.10	.248	.11	.10
Supportive ES				.41	.35	.32	.41	.36	.33
Nonsupportive ES				-.35	-.28	-.25	-.35	-.27	-.24
SupportiveXSolicitation							.01	-.06	-.05
NonsupportiveXSolicitation							-.05	-.05	-.04

Note: All predictor variables were centered.

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

R^2 for Step 1 = .03, ΔR^2 for Step 2 = .23, ΔR^2 for Step 3 = .004

4.3 Discussion

The results of Study 2 did partially support the hypothesis about the expected predictions of maternal and paternal solicitation for adolescent outcomes. First, neither maternal nor paternal solicitation was not a significant predictor of adolescent internalizing problems. Additionally,

paternal rather than maternal solicitation predicted adolescent prosocial behavior such that higher levels of paternal solicitation contributed to higher prosocial behaviors. Finally, paternal and maternal solicitation marginally predicted externalizing problems suggesting higher levels of maternal and paternal solicitation contributing to lower levels of externalizing problems. This could be potential partial support to Selçuk, Uçanok, and Sayıl's (2021) study who have found that parental solicitation to negatively predict externalizing problems in Turkish adolescents. It is important to note that the bivariate correlations between solicitation and externalizing as well as internalizing problems were statistically significant, both in the mother and father samples. Yet, when solicitation was considered together with the ES responses, supportive ES and nonsupportive ES contributed to larger variance in relation to internalizing and externalizing problems. Thus, when considering solicitation as parenting behavior among ES practices, only paternal solicitation has a unique contribution to the prediction of prosocial behaviors. The social-learning theory explains how parents who express warm and supportive parenting practices towards their children model socially desirable ways of interacting with individuals (Walters, 2021), which can lead to children/adolescents to develop prosocial behaviors (Bandura, 1997; Eisenberg et al., 2003). Furthermore, emotionally supportive and warm parent-child relationship, catalyzes children's internalization of moral values that parents try to teach (Eisenberg et al., 2015; Grusec & Goodnow, 1994; Hoffman, 2000).

The results in study 2 supported the expectations in relation to the relations between ES and adolescent outcomes. Both maternal and paternal supportive ES predicted lower levels of internalizing and externalizing problems, yet higher levels of prosocial behaviors, over and above solicitation. This provides contrasts to the findings in study 1, in which supportive ES was not a significant predictor of internalizing and externalizing problems. Likewise, nonsupportive ES was as significant negative predictor of prosocial behaviors, and positive predictor of internalizing and externalizing problems, similar to the findings in study 1. These findings are all in line with the

literature that found supportive ES to be a negative predictor of internalizing (Cui et al., 2020; Klimes-Dougan et al., 2007; Sanders et al., 2013) and externalizing (Johnson et al., 2017; Klimes-Dougan et al., 2007) problems, while being a positive predictor of prosocial behaviors (Waslin et al., 2023), along with the literature that found nonsupportive ES to be a positive predictor of internalizing (Cui et al., 2020; Klimes-Dougan et al., 2007; Sanders et al., 2013) and externalizing problems (Johnson et al., 2017; Klimes-Dougan et al., 2007), while being a negative predictor of prosocial behaviors (Waslin et al., 2023).

A plethora of research from the self-determination research tradition has shown how parenting practices that threaten adolescents' basic psychological needs through intruding in their inner world, belittling their experience, undermining emotional connectedness, and denying their self-expression (Joussment, Landry, & Koestner, 2008; Soenens, Vansteenkiste, & Beyers, 2019). Even though nonsupportive ES has been consistently negatively related to adolescent adjustment in western contexts (Cui et al., 2020; Klimes-Dougan et al., 2007; Oppenheimer et al., 2016), studies conducted with Chinese samples could not find a significant relationship between nonsupportive ES and adjustment, prompting researchers to argue that the cultural value of interdependence redefines the meaning of nonsupportive ES for children to not be viewed as a form of hostile parenting (Song et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2020). However, the nature of interdependence is different in the Turkish culture compared to the Chinese culture. Despite the fact that the psychological interdependent self-construal is related to increase in importance given to relatedness, the Turkish culture also gives importance to values related to autonomy (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2013). For example, even though Uskul et al. (2023) found individuals within the Turkish culture to value being connected and committed to others, they also value self-direction and self-expression, which are values that reflect independent self-construal. This could be the reason why Güven and Erden (2017) found nonsupportive ES to be positively related to externalizing problems in the Turkish culture, similar to the findings in this study.

In correspondence to the findings in study 1, the standardized betas for nonsupportive ES were greater than the standardized betas for supportive ES in internalizing and externalizing models, while the standardized betas for supportive ES in prosocial behaviors model was greater than the standardized betas for nonsupportive ES. These findings are further support for the argument that positive parenting practices are more predictive of adjustment, while negative parenting practices are more predictive of maladjustment (Lucier-Greer et al., 2020; Ngai et al., 2018; Johnson et al., 2017; Vaughan et al., 2021; Yang, Schlomer, & Lippold, 2022).

The standardized beta scores of fathers' nonsupportive ES scores were higher than mothers' nonsupportive ES standardized beta scores in relation to internalizing and externalizing problems. Looking at the R-squared in the internalizing and externalizing models, paternal parenting behaviors explained more variance than maternal behaviors. Paternal behaviors explained 40% and 39% of variance in the internalizing and externalizing models respectively, while maternal behaviors explained 28% and 17%, respectively. The literature regarding the relative influence of maternal and paternal negative parenting practices are conflicting. As this is not the main topic of this paper, only a brief outline of the literature will be given. To give an example, some studies have found that maternal hostility was significantly related to adolescent internalizing and externalizing problems while paternal hostility was not (Thomas et al., 2018; Richmond Stocker, 2008). These authors have argued that since mothers are more involved in adolescents' lives, their parenting has more influence on adolescent outcomes. However, Wang and Kenny (2014) found that maternal and paternal harsh verbal discipline to have same level of positive relationship with externalizing problems. Yet, Wang et al. (2015) found paternal harsh discipline to have stronger prediction to adolescent internalizing problems than maternal harsh discipline. On the other hand, the meta-analysis conducted by (Kawabata et al., 2011) showed both maternal positive parenting and paternal negative parenting practices to significantly related to relational aggression at similar levels. Another perspective of this issue that is in-line with Wang

et al.'s (2015) finding is that fathers tend to practice less positive parenting behaviors in general compared to mothers, thus making their negative parenting practices more influential on adolescent outcomes (Yaffe, 2020). However, more studies need to be conducted to fully understand the differential impacts of paternal and maternal parenting practices on adolescent outcomes.

As with study 1, the findings in study 2 could only partially support hypothesis 2. It was expected that supportive ES would strengthen the negative relationship between solicitation and internalizing outcomes and the positive relationship between solicitation and prosocial behaviors. Furthermore, it was also expected that nonsupportive ES would weaken the aforementioned relationships. To start with, none of the interactions were significant in the paternal models. With regards to the maternal models, there were two statistically significant and one marginally significant interaction variables. In the internalizing problems model, the interaction between supportive ES and solicitation was significant. The positive relation between solicitation and internalizing problems was only significant when supportive ES was lower, and nonsignificant when supportive ES was at average or high levels. This finding can be interpreted with the self-determination theory (Soenens, Vansteenkiste, & Beyers, 2019). Specifically, within the context of low autonomy-granting and relatedness enhancing responses to youth emotions, solicitation might have been seen as a form of invasion by adolescents, similar to Baudat et al.'s (2019) study. Baudat et al. found that even though solicitation negatively predicted to adolescent maladjustment in the context of high autonomy granting behaviors, solicitation positively predicted adolescent maladjustment when autonomy-granting behaviors were low.

The other significant interaction revealed that solicitation positively predicted prosocial behaviors only when nonsupportive ES was low. Yet, the positive relation between solicitation and prosocial behaviors was not significant when nonsupportive ES was at average or higher levels. As previously discussed in study 1, this finding is also in line with the expectations of the

self-determination theory, and parallels the study conducted by Kapetanovic and Skoog (2020), who reported the negative relationship between parental solicitation and externalizing problems was only significant when the family emotional climate was positive (i.e., non-overcontrolling parental attitudes and high parent-adolescent connectedness). Correspondingly, Lippold et al.'s (2014) study, in which parental solicitation was not negatively related to externalizing problems only if parents were low on warmth, even though it was negatively related to externalizing problems when parental warmth was high. The absence of a warm emotional climate or the satisfaction of the adolescent's basic psychological needs weakens the positive influence solicitation can have on adolescent positive adjustment. According to Kağıtçıbaşı's (2013) model of psychological interdependent self-construal and Selçuk, Uçanok, and Sayıl's (2021) findings on solicitation, it was hypothesized that solicitation would generally be perceived as a positive parenting practice by adolescents and would be positively related to adjustment. Thus, nonsupportive ES would only weaken the positive relations it would have with adjustment. In both studies, maternal solicitation positively predicted prosocial behaviors only when nonsupportive ES was low, in which the positive relationship between solicitation and prosocial behaviors was not significant when nonsupportive ES was high. This implies that even though solicitation may be beneficial for Turkish adolescents' prosocial behaviors, a context defined by nonsupportive ES can diminish its positive role in youth development. Previous studies have also shown the importance of emotional climate or the satisfaction of basic psychological needs when understanding the role solicitation has on adolescent outcomes (Baudat et al., 2019; Kapetanovic & Skoog, 2020).

The final interaction that was explored was between supportive ES and solicitation in the externalizing model, which was marginally significant. The nature of this interaction was supported the expectations of hypothesis 2. To clarify, solicitation positively negatively predicted externalizing problems when supportive ES we higher. It was marginally significant when

supportive ES was average, and non-significant when supportive ES was lower. This finding also corresponds to the studies conducted by Kapetanovic and Skoog (2020) and Lippold et al. (2014). Interestingly, the same interaction variable had a very different nature in the internalizing problems model mentioned above. With regards to internalizing problems, it could be that when mothers solicitate often in the context of low supportive ES, they may pave the path for adolescents ruminate and do other maladaptive emotion coping. As discussed previously, adolescents need parental guidance in learning emotion coping skills in the face of new stressors they may face in life. When parents open conversations about their daily life experiences, which is highly possible that emotionally salient events are included, it is important for the parent to teach their adolescent to cope with the difficulties they may be facing in a supportive manner. An increase in rumination with their parents might predict higher internalizing symptoms for the adolescent, as the study done by Ioffe et al. (2020) implies. On the other hand, many researchers who study parental solicitation have argued for its importance as it is a source of parental knowledge, which is an important protective factor against such externalizing problems (Laird, Marrero, & Sentse, 2009; Lippold et al., 2014). Even though a warm emotional family climate and the satisfaction of psychological needs may contextualize solicitation to foster adolescents' acceptance of parental guidance and direction with regards to externalizing problems, solicitation may still give parents the chance to intervene in adolescents externalizing problems regardless of the emotional climate. This could be a possible explanation behind the nature of the interaction between solicitation and supportive ES.

Overall, the results of the regression models are mostly in line with the self-determination theory. Nonsupportive ES negatively predicted prosocial behaviors and positively predicted internalizing and externalizing problems, while supportive ES positively predicted prosocial behaviors and negatively predicted internalizing and externalizing problems. However, solicitation was only uniquely related to prosocial behaviors in the paternal model. The interaction

variables were also consistent with the self-determination theory, in which nonsupportive ES and lack of supportive ES weakens the positive influence of solicitation, and supportive ES strengthen the positive influence of solicitation.

As with study 1, this study also presents some limitations. One limitation was that the scales were shortened in order to achieve a greater sample size. This could have been the reason behind another limitation, which was the low interrater reliability of some scales. Even though one of the strengths of this study over study 1 was the inclusion of fathers, the fathers and mothers of this study were not from the same family, which prevented analyzing the relative importance of maternal and paternal behaviors for adolescents in the same model.

CHAPTER 5

5.1 Limitations

An important limitation of this study is that it is cross-sectional and correlational, which does not allow us to make assumptions regarding the causality of the relationships we discovered. The relationships could have a bidirectional nature. The design also relies on maternal or paternal self-report only. The obtained correlations could be inflated due to common-rater variance. Another limitation is that the ES scales and SDQ scales used in Study 1 and Study 2 were slightly different due to shortened versions in Study 2. This might have caused the differences in some of the findings. However, looking at the correlations and main effects of each parenting variable, the variables in study 1 and study 2 underlie the same concepts. It is more likely that the differences in study 1 and study 2 are related to the difference in sample characteristics.

5.2 Future directions

Future studies utilizing both longitudinal and cross-sectional methods need to be conducted to replicate these findings. In addition, it may be valuable for future studies to utilize the longer version of the scales rather than the shortened versions that were used in study 2. It is especially important for future studies to look into the interactions between solicitation and ES, as the findings from this study were not sufficient to develop broad conclusions regarding the nature of their interaction. Moreover, researchers can give importance to recruiting both mothers and fathers from the same family in order to analyze the relative importance of maternal and paternal behaviors within the same family.

5.3 Conclusion

All in all, this study provides the literature further insight in studying parenting behaviors contextualized within other parenting behaviors. It also demonstrated the importance of combining the self-determination theory and cultural psychology theories when understanding the relations of different parenting behaviors on adolescent adjustment. It further showed the importance of using a representative data, and how the results may change due to sample characteristics. Future studies may use sequential models to understand the cross-sectional and longitudinal relations of paternal and maternal solicitation and ES practices with regards to adolescent outcomes in different cultural contexts.

APPENDIX A

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

T.C.
BOĞAZİÇİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL VE BEŞERİ BİLİMLER İNSAN ARAŞTIRMALARI ETİK KURULU
KATILIMCI BİLGİ ve ONAM FORMU

Araştırmayı destekleyen kurum: TÜBİTAK

Araştırmanın adı: Türkiye’de Çocuk Yetiştirme Tutumlarının Sosyo-Kültürel ve Psikolojik Öncüllerinin ve Sonuçlarının Kuşaklararası, Kuşak içi ve Gelişim Dönemleri Temelinde İncelenmesi

Proje Yürütücüsü/Araştırmacının adı:

E-mail adresi:

Telefonu:

Değerli Ebeveynler,

Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü öğretim üyesi Prof. Dr. Feyza Çorapçı, “*Türkiye’de Çocuk Yetiştirme Tutumlarının Sosyo-Kültürel ve Psikolojik Öncüllerinin ve Sonuçlarının Kuşaklararası, Kuşak içi ve Gelişim Dönemleri Temelinde İncelenmesi*” isimli bir araştırma projesi yürütmektedir. Bu çalışmanın temel amacı ülkemizdeki çocuk yetiştirme tutum ve davranışlarını kapsamlı bir şekilde inceleyerek çocuğun psikolojik gelişimi üzerindeki etkilerini araştırmaktır.

Katılmayı kabul ederseniz, sizden çocuk yetiştirme deneyiminize, ailenizdeki tutumlar ve ilişkilerinize, ebeveynlik rolündeki yetkinliğinize, destek kaynaklarınıza, ev ortamınıza ve kuşaktan kuşağa aktarılan ve değişen ebeveynlik davranışlarına dair görüşleriniz hakkında 30-35 dakika sürecek bir ankete cevap vermeniz istenmektedir. Konunun geniş kapsamı nedeniyle anket görece uzun olmasına karşın, ebeveynlere kendi davranış ve tecrübelerini değerlendirme ve gözden geçirme fırsatı vermesi bakımından çok faydalı olabilmektedir. Katılımınız karşılığında bir ücret veya başka bir ödül verilmemektedir.

Çalışmaya katılım tamamen gönüllük esasına dayanmaktadır. Katıldığınız takdirde çalışmanın herhangi bir aşamasında herhangi bir sebep göstermeden onayınızı çekmek hakkına da sahipsiniz. Çalışmadan çekilmeniz durumunda sizden toplanan veriler yok edilecektir. Ankette yer alan istemediğiniz sorulara cevap vermek zorunda değilsiniz. Ancak araştırmada sağlıklı veriler toplanabilmesi ve araştırma sonuçlarının yansız olması için, vereceğiniz bilgilerin mümkün olduğu kadar tam olması ve sizin gerçek duygu ve düşüncelerinizi yansıtması çok önemlidir.

Bu araştırma bilimsel bir amaçla yapılmaktadır ve sizden kimlik belirleyici hiçbir bilgi istenmemektedir. Cevaplarınız tamamıyla gizli tutulacak, sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecektir. Katılımcıların isimleri kendilerinden alınan verilerle eşleştirilmeyecek ve toplanan veriler bireysel olarak değil, toplu olarak değerlendirilip yayınlanacaktır.

Araştırma projesi hakkında ek bilgi almak istediğiniz takdirde lütfen yukarıda iletişim bilgileri yer alan Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü Öğretim Üyesi Prof. Dr. Feyza Çorapçı ile temasa geçiniz. Araştırmayla ilgili haklarınız konusunda Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu’na da danışabilirsiniz.

Eğer bu araştırma projesine katılmasını kabul ediyorsanız, lütfen bu formu imzalayın.

Ben, (katılımcının adı), yukarıdaki metni okudum ve katılmam istenen çalışmanın kapsamını ve amacını, gönüllü olarak üzerime düşen sorumlulukları tamamen anladım. Çalışma hakkında soru sorma imkanı buldum. Bu çalışmayı istediğim zaman ve herhangi bir neden belirtmek zorunda kalmadan bırakabileceğimi ve bıraktığım takdirde herhangi bir olumsuzluk ile karşılaşmayacağımı anladım. Bu koşullarda söz konusu araştırmaya kendi isteğimle, hiçbir baskı ve zorlama olmaksızın katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

Formun bir örneğini aldım / almak istemiyorum (bu durumda araştırmacı bu kopyayı saklar).

Katılımcının Adı-Soyadı:.....

Araştırmacının

Adı-

Soyadı:.....

İmzası:.....

İmzası:.....

Tarih (gün/ay/yıl):/...../.....

Tarih

(gün/ay/yıl):

...../...../.....

APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHICS QUESTIONNAIRE

Cinsiyet: Kadın/Erkek

Doğum Yılıınız: _____

Eğitim Durumunuz:

- Okuryazar değil
- Diplomasız okur
- İlkokul mezunu
- İlköğretim/ortaokul mezunu
- Lise mezunu
- Üniversite mezunu
- Yüksek lisans/doktora

Eşinizin Doğum Yılı: _____

Eşinizin Eğitim Durumu

- Okuryazar değil
- Diplomasız okur
- İlkokul mezunu
- İlköğretim/ortaokul mezunu
- Lise mezunu
- Üniversite mezunu
- Yüksek lisans/ doktora

Hanede Yaşayan Kişi Sayısı (Tüm Yetişkin Ve Çocuklar): ____

Kalıcı ve sürekli tedavi gördüğünüz bir sağlık sorununuz var mı? Varsa, nedir?

- Hayır/Evet (Lütfen yazınız.)

Eşinizin kalıcı ve sürekli tedavi gördüğü bir sağlık sorunu var mı? Varsa, nedir?

- Hayır/Evet (Lütfen yazınız)

Kaç çocuğunuz var?

- 1/2/3/4/5 veya daha fazla

Çocuklarınızın Doğum Yılı ve Cinsiyeti:

Çocuk 1:

Cinsiyet (Kız veya Erkek yazınız.):

Doğum Yılı:

Çocuk 2:

Cinsiyet (Kız veya Erkek yazınız.):

Doğum Yılı:

Çocuk 3:

Cinsiyet (Kız veya Erkek yazınız.):

Doğum Yılı:

Çocuk 4:

Cinsiyet (Kız veya Erkek yazınız.):

Doğum Yılı:

Çocuk 5:

Cinsiyet (Kız veya Erkek yazınız.):

Doğum Yılı:

Okula başlamamış çocuğunuz var mı?

- Evet/Hayır

Kaç tane okula başlamamış çocuğunuz var?

- 0 /1 /2 /3 /4 /5

Çocuğunuza kim bakıyor? Aşağıda uygun olanları seçiniz:

- Anne/ Baba/ Büyükanne/ Büyükbaba/ Bakıcı/ Kreş

Çocuğunuzun gittiği kreş devlet mi özel mi?

- Devlet/Özel

Okula giden çocuklarınız özel okula mı devlet okuluna mı gidiyor?

- Devlet/ Özel/ Okula giden çocuğum yok.

Doğduğunuz yerde mi yaşıyorsunuz?

- Evet/Hayır

Nerede doğdunuz? _____

Şu an nerede yaşıyorsunuz? _____

Göç etme nedeniniz nedir?

- İş/Eğitim/ Evlilik Nedeniyle/Sağlık/Ailem göç ettiği için/Diğer (belirtiniz)

Şu an yaşadığınız yere göç ettiğinizde kaç yaşındaydınız? ____

Şu an yaşadığınız yere göç ettiğinizde evli miydiniz?

- Evet/Hayır

Şu an yaşadığınız yere göç ettiğinizde çocuğunuz var mıydı?

- Evet/Hayır

Şu an yaşadığınız yere geldiğinizde çocuğunuzun yaşı kaçtı? ____

Hayatınızda toplam kaç kere şehir değiştirdiniz? ____

Evde konuştuğunuz dil: _____

Çalışma Durumunuz

- Kendi hesabıma tam zamanlı çalışıyorum
- Kendi hesabıma yarı zamanlı çalışıyorum
- Ücretli tam zamanlı çalışıyorum
- Ücretli yarı zamanlı çalışıyorum
- Çalışmıyorum

Aşağıdaki seçeneklerden hangisi işinizi tanımlıyor? Uygun seçenek yoksa diğer kutucuğuna yazınız.

- Tek başına çalışan (dükkan sahibi, esnaf, taksi şoförü)
- İşyeri sahibi (1-5 çalışanı olan)
- Serbest nitelikli uzman (doktor, avukat, öğretmen, mimar, mühendis vs.)
- Çiftçi (kendi başına/ailesiyle çalışan)
- Seyyar- kendi işi (freelance dahil)
- İşyeri sahibi (6-10 çalışanı olan)
- İşyeri sahibi (11-20 çalışanı olan)
- Diğer (yazınız)

Aşağıdaki seçeneklerden hangisi işinizi tanımlıyor? Uygun seçenek yoksa diğer kutucuğuna yazınız.

- İşçi/hizmetli-düzenli işi olan (maaş)
- Yönetici olmayan memur/teknik eleman/uzman vs.
- İşçi, hizmetli-parça başı işi olan (yevmiye)
- Ustabaşı/kalfa (kendi bağlı işçi çalışan)

- Ücretli nitelikli uzman (doktor, avukat, öğretmen, mimar, mühendis vs.)
- Yönetici (1-5 çalışanı olan)
- Yönetici (6-10 çalışanı olan)
- Yönetici (11-20 çalışanı olan)
- Yönetici (20'den fazla çalışanı olan)
- Diğer (yazınız)

Aşağıdaki seçeneklerden hangisi sizi tanımlıyor?

- Ev hanımıyım
- Öğrenciyim
- Sağlık durumundan dolayı çalışamaz durumdayım
- İşsizim (iş arıyorum)
- Uzun zamandır iş bulamadığım için artık arasam da iş bulamayacağımı düşünüyorum (iş aramayı bıraktım)
- Doğum izindeyim
- Emekliyim

COVID-19 salgını nedeniyle evden çalışma zorunluluğu dışında, çalışma durumunuzda bir değişiklik oldu mu?

- Evet/Hayır

Aşağıdakilerden hangisi yaşadığınız değişikliği tanımlıyor?

- Ücretsiz izne çıkarıldım
- İşyerim geçici olarak kapatıldı
- Kısa çalışma uygulamasına geçirildim
- Kanuni engeller ve sağlık nedeniyle bu dönem çalışmıyorum.
- Artan çocuk/yaşlı bakımı sorumlulukları nedeniyle ara verdim.
- Çalışmıyordum, Covid'den sonra işe başladım.

Konut sahibi misiniz?

- Evet / Hayır

Sahip olduğunuz/ oturmakta olduğunuz konutun tipi

- Gecekondu/dış sıvasız apartman
- Müstakil, geleneksel ev
- Apartman dairesi
- Site içinde apartman dairesi
- Site içinde villa
- Diğer (yazınız)

Aylık hane geliri:

- 2850 TL'den az (asgari ücret altı)
- 2850 TL (asgari ücret civarında)
- 2580 TL-6000TL

- 6001 TL-8000 TL
- 8001 TL-10000 TL
- 10001 TL-15000 TL
- 15 000TL ve üzeri

Covid sonrası eve giren gelir durumunuz deęiřti mi?

- Deęiřmedi/Yarıya yakın azaldı/Arttı

APPENDIX C

PARENTAL SOLICITATION SCALE

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6
Hiçbir zaman Nadiren Bazen Ara sıra Sık sık Her zaman

1. Çocuğumun ödevlerini takip eder, farklı derslerdeki durumunu bilirim.
2. Çocuğumun arkadaşları geldiğinde onlarla sohbet ederim.
3. Çocuğuma okulda gününün nasıl geçtiğine ilişkin sorular sorarım.
4. Çocuğumun eğitim dışı teknoloji kullanımını takip ederim.

APPENDIX D

PARENTAL RESPONSES TO ADOLESCENT'S EMOTIONS

Geçtiğimiz son iki ay içinde çocuğunuz kızgın/ üzgün hissettiğinde aşağıdaki davranışları ne sıklıkta yaptın

0= Hiç 1= Bazen 2 = Sık Sık

Çocuğum kızgın hissettiğinde...	Çocuğum üzgün hissettiğinde...
1.Keyfim kaçar.	1.Keyfim kaçar.
2.Sakinleşmesini bekledim.	2.Sakinleşmesini bekledim.
3.Kafasını dağıtmak için çocuğumla sevdiği bir şey yaptım.	3.Kafasını dağıtmak için çocuğumla sevdiği bir şey yaptım.
4.Bu duyguya neden olan şeyi öğrendim.	4.Bu duyguya neden olan şeyi öğrendim.
5.Çocuğuma sinirlenmene gerek yok dedim.	5.Çocuğuma üzölmene gerek yok dedim.
6.Ben de bağırdım.	6.Ağlamaklı oldum.
7.Çoğu kez çocuğumun yakınında değildim.	7.Çoğu kez çocuğumun yakınında değildim.
8.Ben de öfkelen dim.	8.Ben de üzöldüm.
9.Ceza verdim.	9.Onu onaylamadığımı bakışım la belirttim.
10.Ne hissettiğini görmezden geldim.	10.Ne hissettiğini görmezden geldim.
11.Ne hissettiğini anladığımı söyledim.	11.Ne hissettiğini anladığımı söyledim.
12.Ne hissettiğini fark etmedim.	12.Ne hissettiğini fark etmedim.
13.Utanmalısın dedim.	13.Sulugöz dedim.
14.Çocuğumu sakinleştirdim.	14.Çocuğumu sakinleştirdim.
15.Çocuğuma kızgınlığına son ver artık dedim.	15.Çocuğuma endişelenmemesini söyledim.
16.Nasihat vererek çocuğuma destek oldum.	16.Nasihat vererek çocuğuma destek oldum.
17.Onu kızdıran kişiyi anlamasını istedim.	17.Onu üzen kişiyi anlamasını istedim.
18.Durumun o kadar kötü olmadığını söyledim.	18.Durumun o kadar kötü olmadığını söyledim.
19.Bu sorunu kendisi çözmesi için onu teşvik ettim.	19.Bu sorunu kendisi çözmesi için onu teşvik ettim.
20.Bazı durumlara insan kızar dedim.	20.Çocuğuma bebek gibi davranmamasını söyledim.

APPENDIX E

STRENGTHS AND DIFFICULTIES QUESTIONNAIRE

Lütfen çocuğunuzun **son 6 ay içindeki davranışlarını göz önüne alarak** aşağıdaki her bir ifadeyi çocuğunuzu en doğru yansıtabilecek şekilde "*Doğru Değil*", "*Kısmen Doğru*", "*Tamamen Doğru*" seçeneklerinden birini işaretleyiniz.

1. Diğer insanların duygularını önemser.
2. Huzursuz ve aşırı hareketlidir.
3. Sıkça baş ağrısı, karın ağrısı ve bulantı şikayetleri olur.
4. Diğer çocuklarla paylaşır (yiyecek, oyuncak, vs.).
5. Sıkça öfke nöbetleri olur ya da aşırı sinirlidir.
6. Daha çok tek başınadır, yalnız oynama eğilimindedir.
7. Genellikle söz dinler, büyüklerin isteklerini yapar.
8. Birçok kaygısı vardır, sıkça endişeli görünür.
9. Kendini kötü hisseden birine yardımcı olur.
10. Sürekli elleri ayakları kıpır kıpırdır ya da oturduğu yerde kıpırdanıp durur.
11. En az bir yakın arkadaşı vardır.
12. Sıkça diğer çocuklarla kavga eder ya da onlarla alay eder.
13. Sıkça mutsuz, üzgün ya da ağlamaktadır.
14. Genellikle diğer çocuklar tarafından sevilir.
15. Dikkati kolayca dağınık, dikkatini toplamakta güçlük çeker.
16. Yeni ortamlarda gergindir, anne/babasına yapışır, kendini kolayca güvende hissetmez.
17. Kendinden küçüklere iyi davranır.
18. Sıkça yalan söyler ya da hile yapar.
19. Diğer çocuklar ona takarlar ya da onunla alay ederler.
20. Sıkça başkalarına (anne baba, öğretmen, diğer çocuklar) yardım etmeye istekli olur.
21. Bir şeyi yapmadan önce düşünür.
22. Ev, okul ya da başka yerlerden bazı şeyleri aşırır.
23. Büyüklerle çocuklarla anlaştığından daha iyi anlaşır.
24. Pek çok korkusu var, kolayca ürker.
25. Başladığı işi bitirir, dikkat süresi iyidir.

APPENDIX F

ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 12.04.2023-122516

T.C.
BOĞAZİÇİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL VE BEŞERİ BİLİMLER YÜKSEK LİSANS VE DOKTORA TEZLERİ ETİK İNCELEME
KOMİSYONU
TOPLANTI KARAR TUTANAĞI

Toplantı Sayısı : 43
Toplantı Tarihi : 12.04.2023
Toplantı Saati : 14:00
Toplantı Yeri : Zoom Sanal Toplantı
Bulunanlar : Prof. Dr. Feyza Çorapçı, Doç.Dr. Arhan S. Ertan, Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Yasemin Sohtorik İlkmen,
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ayşegül Metindoğan
Bulunmayanlar : Doç. Dr. Senem Yıldız

Zeynep Kömbe-Elazab

Psikoloji

Sayın Araştırmacı,

Daha önce "The Role of Maternal Warmth, Solicitation, and Emotion Socialization on Turkish Adolescents'

Socioemotional Adjustment" başlık ve SBB-EAK 2022/65 sayı ile onay almış, içerik değişmeden yeni başlığı

"Solicitation and Emotion Socialization in Turkish

Adolescents' Socioemotional Adjustment: A Combined Predictive Model" olan başvurunuz SBB-EAK 2023/42 sayı

ile komisyonumuz tarafından 12 Nisan 2023 tarihli toplantıda incelenmiş ve uygun bulunmuştur.

Bu karar üyelerin toplantıya çevrimiçi olarak katılımı ve oy birliği ile alınmıştır. Onay mektubu üye ve raportör olarak Yasemin Sohtorik İlkmen tarafından toplantıya katılan bütün üyeler adına e-imzalanmıştır.

Saygılarımızla, bilgilerinizi rica ederiz.

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Yasemin
SOHTORİK İLKMEN
Öğretim Üyesi

e-imzalıdır
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Yasemin Sohtorik
İlkmen
Öğretim Üyesi
Raportör

SOBETİK 43 12.04.2023

Bu belge, güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.

APPENDIX G

ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL FOR REVISION

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 04.06.2022-69056

T.C.
BOĞAZİÇİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL VE BEŞERİ BİLİMLER YÜKSEK LİSANS VE DOKTORA TEZLERİ ETİK İNCELEME
KOMİSYONU
TOPLANTI KARAR TUTANAĞI

Toplantı Sayısı : 32
Toplantı Tarihi : 26.05.2022
Toplantı Saati : 10:00
Toplantı Yeri : Zoom Sanal Toplantı
Bulunanlar : Prof. Dr. Ebru Kaya, Prof. Dr. Feyza Çorapçı, Doç. Dr. Arhan S. Ertan, Doç. Dr. Senem Yıldız,
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Yasemin Sohtorik İlkmen
Bulunmayanlar :

Zeynep Kömbe-Elazab
Psikoloji

Sayın Araştırmacı,

"The Role of Maternal Warmth, Solicitation, and Emotion Socialization on Turkish Adolescents' Socioemotional Adjustment" başlıklı projeniz ile ilgili olarak yaptığınız SBB-EAK 2022/65 sayılı başvuru komisyonumuz tarafından 26 Mayıs 2022 tarihli toplantıda incelenmiş ve uygun bulunmuştur.

Bu karar tüm üyelerin toplantıya çevrimiçi olarak katılımı ve oybirliği ile alınmıştır. COVID-19 önlemleri kapsamında kurul üyelerinden ıslak imza alınmadığı için bu onay mektubu üye ve raporör olarak Yasemin Sohtorik İlkmen tarafından bütün üyeler adına e-imzalanmıştır.

Saygılarımızla, bilgilerinizi rica ederiz.

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Yasemin
SOHTORİK İLKMEN
Öğretim Üyesi

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Yasemin SOHTORİK
İLKMEN
ÜYE

e-imzalıdır
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Yasemin Sohtorik
İlkmen
Öğretim Üyesi
Raporör

SOBETİK 32 26.05.2022

Bu belge, güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.

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