

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTAL PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTROL
AND PRESCHOOLERS' SOCIAL-EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE

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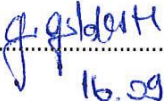
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ABSTRACT

The Relationship between Parental Psychological Control and Preschoolers' Social-Emotional Competence

The present research investigated the concurrent associations between maternal and paternal psychologically controlling parenting and preschoolers' social-emotional competence in terms of anger-aggression, anxiety-withdrawal, and social competence, or positive social adaptation. The sample consisted of 136 mothers of preschoolers, 124 fathers, and teachers. Preschoolers' age ranged from 48 to 78 months ($M_{age} = 66.32$ months, $SD = 7.97$ months, 51.5% boys). Considering the cultural debate of universalist and culture-specific perspectives in the literature regarding the adverse effects of psychological control, maternal as well as paternal psychological control are examined both as a global construct, and as distinct forms of relational and hostile psychological control. Results revealed that maternal global psychological control was significantly related only with preschoolers' decreased social competence skills, and increased anger-aggression, whereas paternal global psychological control was not related to children's social-emotional competence. When psychological control was examined as distinct forms, relational psychological control did not have significant adverse relations with children's social-emotional competence, while hostile psychological control was negatively related to children's social competence, and positively related to their anger-aggression. In general, the findings of the study have provided evidence supporting the culture-specific perspective on psychologically controlling parenting.

ÖZET

Ebeveynlerin Psikolojik Kontrol Davranışları ve Anaokulu Çocuklarının Sosyal-Duygusal Yeterlilikleri Arasındaki İlişkiler

Bu çalışma, anne ve babaların psikolojik kontrol davranışları ve anaokulu çocuklarının sosyal yetkinlik, kırgınlık-saldırganlık ve anksiyete-içe dönüklük olmak üzere sosyal-duygusal becerileri arasındaki ilişkileri incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Çalışmaya anaokulu çocuklarının anneleri (n = 136), babaları (n = 124) ve öğretmenleri katıldı. Çocukların yaş ortalaması 66.32 aydır (ranj = 48-78, S = 7.97) ve çocukların %51.5'i erkektir. İlgili alanyazındaki psikolojik kontrol ebeveynlik tarzının negatif etkileri ile ilgili olarak süregelen kültürel tartışma dikkate alınarak, bu çalışmada anne ve babaların psikolojik kontrol davranışları, toplam psikolojik kontrol ve psikolojik kontrol alt formları (ilişkisel ve düşmanca) olmak üzere ayrı ayrı incelenmiştir. Annelerin toplam psikolojik kontrol ebeveynlik tarzı ile çocukların sosyal yetkinlik puanları arasında anlamlı bir negatif ilişki ve çocukların kırgınlık-saldırganlık puanları arasında anlamlı bir pozitif ilişki bulunmuştur. Babaların toplam psikolojik kontrol ebeveynlik tarzı ve çocukların sosyal-duygusal becerileri arasında ise anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmamıştır. Psikolojik kontrol, ilişkisel ve düşmanca olmak üzere ayrı alt formlar olarak incelendiğinde ise, ilişkisel psikolojik kontrol, çocukların sosyal-duygusal becerileri ile ilişkili bulunmazken, düşmanca psikolojik kontrol formunun çocukların sosyal yetkinlik puanları ile negatif, kırgınlık-saldırganlık puanları ile pozitif ilişkili olduğu

görülmüştür. Genel olarak, çalışma bulguları psikolojik kontrol ebeveynlik tarzının kültürel bağlamda incelenmesinin önemini desteklemektedir.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Social-emotional competence plays an integral part in healthy development across different stages of life (Burt, Obradovic, Long, & Masten, 2008; Ladd, 1999; Parker, Rubin, Erath, Wojslawowicz, & Buskirk, 2006; Rubin, Bukowski, & Parker, 2006; Sroufe, Egeland, & Carlson, 1999). Social-emotional competence can generally be defined as successful functioning within social surroundings (Rose-Krasnor & Denham, 2009; Stump, Ratliff, Wu, & Hawley, 2009). It is a multifaceted construct encompassing a variety of skills (Dodge, 1985; Rose-Krasnor & Denham, 2009; Stump, Ratliff, Wu, & Hawley, 2009; Zsolnai, 2005). Preschool period is especially important regarding the development of social-emotional competence skills since children start to spend more time with their peers during these years (Hartup, 1983; Parker et al., 2006; Schindler, Moely, & Frank, 1987). A developmental task view can be adapted to better clarify the range of skills necessary for social-emotional competence during the preschool age period (Rose-Krasnor & Denham, 2009). "Forming and maintaining positive relationships with others" and "regulating experience and expression of emotions" are seen as two significant developmental skills of this period (Parker & Gottman, 1989; Rubin, Bukowski & Parker, 2006; as also cited in Rose-Krasnor & Denham, 2009). Social-emotional competence of a preschooler, therefore, should reflect these two central accomplishments; forming and maintaining positive relationships by

sharing, helping, turn taking, cooperating with others along with successful emotion regulation (Howes, 1987; Rose-Krasnor & Denham, 2009; Waters & Sroufe, 1983).

Previous literature has consistently demonstrated the concurrent and long-term predictive value of early social-emotional competence, thus developmental and clinical researchers have increasingly focused attention on this construct (Burt et al., 2008; Rose-Krasnor & Denham, 2009; Stump et al., 2009). Social-emotional competence has been associated with positive outcomes such as less loneliness, more acceptance by peers, more positive attitude towards school, school-readiness and better academic performance, as well as higher self-esteem (Carlton & Winsler, 1999; Coolahan, Fantuzzo, Mendez, & McDermott, 2000; Denham et al. 2003; Trentacosta & Izard, 2007). Likewise, failures in social-emotional competence have been associated with adverse outcomes like social isolation, peer rejection, psychological distress, and lower self-esteem, internalizing and externalizing behavior problems (Beauchamp & Anderson, 2010; Gazelle & Ladd, 2003; Parker et al., 2006). While externalizing problems refer to undercontrolled behaviors including aggression and conduct problems (Campbell, Shaw & Gilliam, 2000), internalizing problems refer to internal states like depression, anxiety, and withdrawal (Mesman, Bongers & Koot, 2001). Additionally, previous research demonstrated a positive correlation between internalizing and externalizing forms of behavior problems (as also stated in Achenbach et al., 2016).

Considering the long-term predictive value of social-emotional competence in later functioning, it is significant to further explore the pathways leading to children's social-emotional development, or to the lack thereof. The contribution of parent-child relationship to the development of social-emotional competence has been especially

emphasized in prior research (Luecken, Roubinov & Tanaka, 2013). Besides, early childhood is of profound significance as children's development has been demonstrated to be more affected by parenting practices in early childhood compared to later periods of development (Collins, Maccoby, Steinberg, Hetherington, & Bornstein, 2000; Nelson, Yang, Coyne, Olsen, Hart, 2013; Verhoeven, Dekovic, Bodden, & van Baar 2017). As culture is an important context according to which parenting practices and socialization goals show variability (Slaughter-Defoe, 1995; as stated in Sen, Yavuz-Muren, & Yagmurlu, 2014), the present study adapts the developmental niche model perspective. The developmental niche model proposes a culturally-embedded framework to elucidate child outcomes (Super & Harkness, 1986; 1997). According to the model, children develop in the context of an integrated system which is affected by outside factors through three culturally-shaped subsystems. These subsystems are the everyday physical and social settings provided for the child, community-based child care practices, and caregivers' psychology which encompasses parental ethnotheories, parents' beliefs and expectations about child development and parenting (Super & Harkness, 1986; 1997).

In light of the developmental niche model, the present study aims to investigate the relationship between maternal and paternal psychologically controlling parenting and preschoolers' social-emotional competence development by taking cultural considerations into account. Therefore, parental psychological control will be examined as distinct forms of relational and hostile psychological control as these two forms have been demonstrated to have differential roles across cultures (Fung & Lau, 2012; Rudy, Carlo, Lambert & Awong, 2014), as well as a unified, global construct of psychological

control as is the way it has largely been examined in the literature (Nelson, Yang, Coyne, Olsen, & Hart, 2013; Yu, Cheah, Hart, Sun, & Olsen, 2014). Preschoolers's social-emotional competence will be assessed in terms of both emotional and behavioral problems of anger-aggression and anxiety-withdrawal, and children's positive adjustment as social competence.

1.1 Social-emotional competence

A thorough framework to understand the multifaceted nature of social-emotional competence has been proposed by Rose-Krasnor (1997), and further detailed by Rose-Krasnor and Denham (2009), as a prism model. A wide range of skills including but not limited to self-regulation, social problem solving and prosocial orientation abilities form the base of the prism. The middle of the prism reflects the intra- and interpersonal aspects of social-emotional competence as success in group status, relationship qualities and self-efficacy, which are supported by the wide range of skills at the base. At the top of the prism, social-emotional competence is conceptualized as "effectiveness in interaction". The depth dimension, on the other hand, refers to social contexts; as social-emotional competence may require different set of skills from the base of the prism, depending on different social contexts (e.g., family, school etc.). Thus, social-emotional competence prism captures the complex nature of social-emotional competence by defining it by levels and depth so that social effectiveness at the top of the prism is seen as a result of balancing intra- and interpersonal goals with a variety of skill-sets across contexts.

A brief review of the links between children's social-emotional competence, as social competence, anger-aggression and anxiety-withdrawal, as conceptualized in the present study, and children's gender and age will be provided to present a broader understanding of some basic social-emotional competence correlates. The details of the relationship between children's social-emotional competence and parenting will be discussed separately.

Previous research has provided ample evidence regarding age trends and gender differences in social-emotional competence of preschoolers across diverse cultures (Bigras & Dessen, 2002; Chen & Jiang, 2002; Fabes et al., 1999; LaFreniere & Dumas, 1996). Specifically, in a recent and extensive cross-cultural study, LaFreniere et al. (2002) demonstrated gender and age differences across Australian, Brazilian, Canadian, Chinese, Italian, Russian, Japanese and American preschoolers. Girls were shown to have higher social competence, and lower anger-aggression scores compared to boys in all cultures. On the other hand, girls and boys were reported not to differ in their anxiety-withdrawal scores significantly, except for Chinese sample. As for age trends, social competence was demonstrated to increase with age across all cultures. However, age trends for behavior problems were noted to differ across cultures. While anger-aggression scores decreased with age only in Australian, Italian and American samples, anxiety-withdrawal scores decreased only in Italian and American samples. Consistent with studies conducted with diverse cultures, Turkish preschoolers' social competence has been shown to increase as their age increased. Girls have been reported to have higher social competence and lower anger-aggression scores compared to boys, while no

gender difference was specified for children's anxiety-withdrawal (Bayindir, Guven, Sezer, Aksin-Yavuz, & Yilmaz, 2017; Corapci et al. 2010).

1.2 Parenting and social-emotional competence

In this section, the association between social-emotional competence and parenting practices will be reviewed. The relationship between social-emotional competence and psychologically controlling parenting will be detailed after introducing psychological control.

Previous literature consistently demonstrated the positive contribution of parental warmth (e.g. parental acceptance, responsiveness, emotional expressiveness) to preschoolers' social-emotional skills (e.g., Eisenberg et al., 2001; Spinrad et al, 2007; Whiteside-Mansell, Bradley & McKelvey, 2009). Warm parenting is argued to help improve social-emotional competence through providing children with opportunities to attend to others' needs as it decreases self-concerns of children, and also through being a model to children to be responsive to others (Hastings, Zahn-Waxler, Robinson, Usher, & Bridges, 2000; Hoffman, 2000). Likewise, harsh, or hostile, parenting practices like corporal punishment, yelling, and spanking have been noted to impede social functioning, leading to problems like peer rejection, externalizing and internalizing behaviors (Dekovic & Janssens, 1992; Ladd & Sechler, 2012; Whiteside-Mansell et al, 2009). Parental supervision, arrangement of social opportunities, parental advice and direct intervention in case of social problems have been documented to promote social

skills of young children (Ladd & Pettit, 2002; Lollis, Ross, & Tate, 1992; McDowell & Parke, 2009).

The relationship between parenting behavior and children's social-emotional competence has also been demonstrated with Turkish preschoolers. Maternal and paternal warmth/affection have been positively associated with preschoolers' acceptance among peers, or peer popularity, while both maternal and paternal hostility/aggression, indifference/neglect, undifferentiated rejection have been negatively associated with it (Gulay-Ogelman & Ucar-Cabuk, 2013). Likewise, a positive relationship between maternal warmth/affection and responsiveness and preschoolers' social competence (as measured by social competence subscale of Social Competence Behavior Evaluation-30) has been displayed (Bayindir et al., 2017; Orta, Corapci, Yagmurlu & Aksan, 2013). Social problem solving abilities of preschoolers have been associated with maternal acceptance and rejection levels; showing that accepting, warm mothering behaviors contribute positively to children's social problem solving abilities while hostile, rejecting mothering deteriorates them (Tepeli & Yilmaz, 2013).

On the other hand, in their 3-year longitudinal study starting with 4-year-old Turkish children, Laible et al. (2017) examined the relationships among child's temperament (as reactivity and sociability), parenting (maternal warmth and inductive reasoning) and child's prosocial behaviors of sharing, cooperating, helping and comforting, and did not find any direct links between mother's warmth and inductive reasoning and child's prosocial behaviors. Only maternal warmth was found to have an indirect effect on child's helping behavior through decreasing child's reactivity.

In another recent study, Gulseven-Ogelman and Ucar-Cabuk (2018) found that mother's daily hassles (measured when the child was at preschool-age) were longitudinally related to diminished maternal warmth and increased maternal physical punishment two years later. Warmth and physical punishment, in turn, were associated with increased prosocial behaviors and aggressive behaviors, respectively, one year later. Overall, research on the relationship between parenting and Turkish preschoolers' social-emotional competence abilities has been in line with Western literature.

1.3 Psychological control

Psychological control can generally be described as intrusive parenting practices that undermine child's sense of self, invalidate child's perspective, impair child's socio-emotional development, and foster dependency through manipulating child's emotions, thoughts and attachment to the parent by using ways such as love withdrawal, guilt induction and shaming (Barber 1996; Barber & Harmon, 2002; Marusak, Thomason, Sala-Hamrick, Crespo, & Rabinak, 2018; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010).

1.3.1 History and scope of psychologically controlling parenting

The term psychological control was initially coined by Schaefer in 1965, although there were others before him mentioning the construct with different names (e.g. Becker, 1964). Schaefer (1965) took an important step to capture the complex nature of parental control by pointing out to the presence of more than one form of control as he revealed

three factors of parenting behavior as acceptance versus rejection, psychological control versus psychological autonomy, and firm versus lax control. Schaefer defined psychological control as “covert, psychological methods of controlling the child's activities and behaviors that would not permit the child to develop as an individual apart from the parent” (1965, p. 555), and developed the first measure to assess it, "Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory", conceptualizing psychological control as love withdrawal, directiveness, and guilt induction in a unidimensional fashion.

However, it was only almost thirty years later, during the 1990s, that parental psychological control gained attention of researchers (Barber & Harmon, 2002; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010). The lack of interest in psychological control in the meanwhile is interpreted as a result of the mainstream typological approach to parenting practices (Barber & Harmon, 2002; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010; Steinberg, 2005) and the “passive and insidious” (p. 4) nature of psychological control compared to the overt nature of behavioral control (Barber, 2002). Typological approach formed parenting categories of authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and neglecting parenting as combinations along two axes: parental warmth and control, or responsiveness and demandingness, respectively (e.g. Baumrind, 1971; Maccoby and Martin, 1983). Although typological approach provided valuable insight about parenting and its associated child outcomes, its contribution remained restrained in the sense that parenting was investigated as a combination of parenting practices, and the effects of the individual components of the categories were left underexplored (Smetana, 2017).

A dimensional approach, or variable approach, to parenting, deconstructing parenting categories into dimensions in order to better understand the unique

contribution of particular dimensions of parenting to developmental outcomes, has been adopted since 1990s (Power, 2013; Silk et al., 2013; Smetana, 2017; Stone et al., 2013). The distinction between psychological and behavioral forms of control was highlighted again (Barber, 1996; Steinberg, 1990), and it has proven to be useful since the two constructs have been found to be associated with different outcomes for child development (Steinberg, 2005). Behavioral control encompasses parenting practices that regulate and monitor children's behavior by setting limits and expectations (Barber, 1996; Steinberg, 1990), and it has been generally related to positive child outcomes such as increased academic achievement and self-esteem, and decreased externalizing problems (Barber, 1996; Fletcher, Pettit, Laird, Dodge, Bates, & Criss, 2001; Steinberg & Williams-Wheeler, 2004; Soenens & Beyers, 2012; Steinberg, 1990).

In 1996, building on Schaefer's work, Barber also pointed to the destructive effects of psychologically controlling parenting through undermining children's development of self, which is especially relevant during the adolescence period, as identity development is a developmental task of this period (Erickson, 1968). He defined psychologically controlling parenting as "socialization pressure that is nonresponsive to the child's emotional and psychological needs, that stifles independent expression and autonomy, and that does not encourage interaction with others" (p. 3299). Barber (1996) conceptualized psychological control as a multidimensional construct with six dimensions as invalidating feelings, love withdrawal, guilt induction, personal attack, erratic emotional behavior and constraining verbal expressions, and developed a 16-item "Psychological Control Scale-Youth Self-Report" to assess it. Finding Schaefer's directiveness to be vaguely defined regarding whether it reflected

behavioral or psychological forms of control, Barber (1996) excluded this dimension from the definition and assessment of the construct. As a result of the factor analysis, Barber (1996) retained eight items only representing three subdimensions as invalidating feelings, love withdrawal and constraining verbal expressions. Barber's scale has been rather consistently utilized in the literature to assess psychological control. However, further research drew attention to the particular relevance of guilt induction and negative criticism, like disappointment and personal attack, especially for Eastern cultures, in which these child rearing practices are widely used (Fung, 1999; Yu et al., 2014).

Barber and Harmon (2002) further detailed the nature of psychological control construct in their extensive review. Higher order or defining characterizations of psychological control are noted as psychological and intrusive, because of the use of psychological methods and the intrusive nature of psychological control to the child's psychological world. As lower order or more specific characterizations, manipulative, constraining and miscellaneous forms have been specified as three main types of parental psychological control. Three main strategies have been further listed under manipulative psychological control: guilt induction, love withdrawal and instilling anxiety. On the other hand, constraining control has been conceptualized as parental constraint of child's verbal expressions. Miscellaneous forms refer to other characterizations such as parental high expectations, erratic emotional behavior and personal attack.

Barber, Xia, Olsen, McNeely and Bose (2012) proposed a broader interpretation of psychological control by conceptualizing it as disrespect for individuality. Instead of theoretically developing a scale, they asked adolescents from five different cultures

“Sometimes parents do things or say things that make us as children feel like they don’t respect us as individuals; like we’re not worthy of being our own person. I wonder if that happens in your family, and, if so, what kinds of things do your parents say or do that make you feel that way?”, and they labeled the eight categories of content analyses as “ridiculing, ignoring, comparing to others, excessive expectations, guilt, violation of privacy, invalidating and embarrassing in public” (Barber et al. 2012). Accordingly, they developed an 8-item Psychological Control - Disrespect Scale to measure this broader interpretation of psychologically controlling parenting (Barber et al. 2012).

1.3.2 Psychological control and theoretical underpinnings

Parental psychological control literature has been noted to progress in a mainly bottom-up fashion, leading to a need for further clarification at the conceptual level and for a top-down approach to better comprehend the mechanisms through which psychological control gives rise to malfunctioning in children (Barber & Xia, 2013; Barber & Harmon, 2002; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010). Accordingly, a number of attempts have been made recently to lay the ground for theoretical underpinnings of psychologically controlling parenting (as also cited in Barber & Xia, 2013). Attachment theory, social learning theory, social-information processing theory, social domain theory and self-determination theory are the theories used in the literature to interpret the associations between psychologically controlling parenting and child outcomes. Although they elucidate different theoretical grounds and working mechanisms, these theories are not necessarily exclusive, but rather, intertwined. Thus, the present study will investigate

psychologically controlling parenting from attachment theory and self-determination theory perspectives to provide a more comprehensive framework.

According to the attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969; 1988), the bond between child and caregiver is fundamental for optimal development, and it sets the stage for later functioning. The attachment figure, that is, the caregiver, has two primary roles as providing a “secure base” for the child from which the child feels free to explore around, as well as a “safe haven” for the child such that the child seeks comfort in the caregiver when distressed (Bowlby, 1969). A representation of self, or internal working model, develops in the context of children’s attachment with their caregivers, and these working models further shape one’s reactions to and interpretations of situations (Sroufe & Fleeson, 1986, as stated in Sroufe, 2017). Although attachment is conceptualized in theory around two behaviors of exploring around and seeking comfort, parental sensitivity has been central to the attachment literature, and parenting practices promoting children’s exploration has been underemphasized (as also stated in Whipple, Bernier & Mageau, 2010). Parental sensitivity, caregiver’s consistent positive responsiveness to child’s needs, has been robustly linked to the quality of attachment such that children whose mothers are sensitive and accessible have secure attachment, while insecure and disorganized attachment patterns are observed with unavailable or inconsistent mothers (Ainsworth et al., 1978; NICHD, 1997; as also stated in Ryan, Deci, & Vansteenkiste, 2006).

Secure attachment has been further associated with optimal child outcomes in diverse areas of functioning, while insecure and disorganized attachment are associated with adverse outcomes including later psychopathologies (see Barlow et al., 2016, for a

review). Prior research has provided ample evidence that attachment security promotes children's social, emotional and behavioral adjustment through a number of mechanisms (Sroufe, 2017; for a meta-analysis, see Cooke, Stuart-Parrigon, Mohaved-Abtahi, Koehn, & Kerns, 2016). A secure attachment provides the child with a rewarding social experience and a feeling of relatedness, which shapes the child's expectations from and approach to future relationships. It provides support the child needs to explore around, and enjoy play. The attachment relationship itself is a framework through which the child learns emotion regulation (as stated in Sroufe, 2017).

Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Deci & Ryan, 2008), on the other hand, was proposed as a comprehensive theoretical ground to explain the working mechanisms of psychologically controlling parenting by Soenens and Vansteenkiste (2010). Self-determination theory is a broad theory of motivation, well-being and development, emphasizing the need for autonomy, relatedness and competence as three basic psychological needs to be fulfilled for optimal functioning. The need for autonomy, placed at the heart of the theory, refers to the feeling of volition in one's actions and choices. The need for relatedness refers to one's desire to feel connected with important others. The need for competence points out one's desire to feel competent, efficient and effective in the things they are engaged. Self-determination theory asserts that these needs are universal, that is, not bound by culture, and relevant regardless of one's age. From a self-determination theory perspective, psychologically controlling parenting practices undermine the development of the self through disrupting these basic and universal needs of autonomy, relatedness and competence, and thus lead to maladjustment (Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010). Placing

the need for autonomy in the center, self-determination theory highlights the significance of autonomy-related parenting practices besides parental sensitivity in attachment. According to self-determination theory, the attachment between parent and child is beyond just physical comfort and security, but encompasses support for child's autonomy and self-expression (as also stated in Ryan et al., 2006).

Overall, from attachment and self-determination theory perspectives, the use of manipulative, invalidating and constraining parenting practices as psychological control, has been proposed to lead to maladjustment by disturbing the universal needs for autonomy, relatedness and competence, and the attachment between parent and child (Nelson et al., 2013; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010).

1.3.3 Psychological control and child outcomes

Previous research has both concurrently and longitudinally related psychological control to adverse child outcomes such as low self-esteem, increased self-criticism, increased anxiety, depression and internalized distress, lower peer support, higher social anxiety, increased negative emotions, higher physical and relational aggression, poor academic performance, problematic eating behaviors, substance use and risky cyber engagement (Aunola, Ruusunen, Viljaranta, & Nurmi, 2015; Barber & Harmon, 2002; Barber & Xia, 2013; Berman et al., 2018; Bleys, Soenens, Claes, Vliegen, & Luyten, 2018; El-Sheikh, Hinnant, Kelly, & Erath, 2010; Leon-del-Barco, Mendo-Lazaro, Polo-del-Rio & Lopez-Ramos, 2019; Nanda, Kotchick, & Grover, 2012; Romm & Metzger, 2018; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010).

1.3.4 Fathering and psychological control

The fact that fathers play a significant role in shaping child outcomes across diverse domains of development, and age groups has been well-established (Lamb & Lewis, 2010). The history of research on fathering can be summarized as displaying a shift from quantitative aspects to qualitative aspects of fathering, as fathers' role in child rearing has evolved from breadwinner to coparent (Pleck, 2010; Sarkadi, Kristiansson, Oberklaid & Bremberg, 2008). While fathering was mainly investigated in terms of paternal absence and presence, and the amount of time father spent with the child initially, contemporary research investigates diverse dimensions of fathering. For instance, positive father involvement, conceptualized as father's accessibility (presence), engagement (direct contact with the child like play), and responsibility (active participation in child-care-related decisions) has been repeatedly associated with children's psychological well-being, both concurrently and longitudinally, across different age groups including early childhood and extending to adulthood (Allgood & Beckert, 2012; Flouri & Buchanan, 2004; Van Wel, Linssen, Abma, 2000). Paternal engagement and sensitivity has been linked to reduced child behavior problems, psychological problems, and enhanced cognitive functions (for a review of longitudinal studies, see Sarkadi et al., 2008).

A meta-analysis of Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory has shown that, like maternal acceptance, paternal acceptance had a significant relationship with children's psychological adjustment in diverse areas including self-esteem, emotional stability, and positive worldview (Khaleque & Rohner, 2012). Likewise, a recent study demonstrated the longitudinal effect of paternal acceptance-rejection on children's internalizing,

externalizing problems, prosocial behaviors, and school performance across diverse cultures in China, Colombia, Italy, Jordan, Kenya, Sweden, Thailand, United States and the Philippines (Putnick et al., 2015). Fathers' sensitivity to children's emotions has been shown to predict children's social competence three years later (Gottman, Katz & Hooven, 1997). Taking these diverse findings regarding paternal contribution to child development into account, previous research has highlighted the significance of including fathering in parenting research, rather than focusing only on one care-giver (Barker, Iles, & Ramchandani, 2017). Nevertheless, research keeps focusing predominantly on mothers, probably because it is generally rather difficult to reach fathers, and collect data regarding their parenting (Mitchell et al., 2007).

Similarly, growing research on the effects of paternal psychological control during early childhood, to be detailed under social competence and psychological control section, provides evidence regarding the significant and differential effects of maternal and paternal psychological control, hence points to the importance of further incorporating fathers' use of psychologically controlling practices while investigating child outcomes (Verhoeven, Junger, van Aken, Dekovic, & van Aken, 2010; Xing et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2004; Zarra-Nezhad, Kaisa, Kiuru, Mullola, & Moazami-Goodarzi, 2015). Within this frame, this study aims to contribute to the literature by examining children's social competence in relation to both maternal and paternal psychological control.

1.3.5 Psychological control and social-emotional competence

Research on the relationship between psychologically controlling parenting and children's social functioning has largely focused on maladaptive developmental outcomes as internalizing and externalizing problem behaviors (Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010). In this section, previous literature exploring the link between psychological control and social functioning during early childhood will be reviewed. Taking the aforementioned complexity regarding the dimensionality and scope of psychological control into consideration, the way psychological control was conceptualized across the studies will also be detailed.

In their extensive cross-cultural study, Olsen and her colleagues (2002) investigated mother-reported psychological control and teacher-reported internalizing and externalizing behaviors of preschoolers in China, Russia and the United States. Psychological control was measured using both Barber's 16-item scale (1996) and newly developed 17-item scale, tapping constraining verbal expressions, invalidating feelings, erratic emotional behavior, love withdrawal, guilt induction and personal attack sub-domains. The items which were related to child behavior in at least one culture were retained and as a result, psychological control were conceptualized uniformly as personal attack, erratic emotional behavior, guilt induction and love withdrawal. The data was analyzed both as gender-differentiated, and boys and girls together. When girls and boys were analyzed together, psychological control was positively related to internalizing and externalizing behavior in the US sample, and only to externalizing in Russia, and no links were identified with maternal psychological control and child behavior in China. On the other hand, gender-differentiated associations were more

complex. For American girls and Russian boys, maternal psychological control was related to both internalizing and externalizing problems. It was related to externalizing problem for Russian girls and Chinese boys, while for Chinese girls, internalizing behavior was a risk. The researchers point to a need of further investigation of psychological control across gender and different cultures.

Verhoeven, Junger, van Aken, Dekovic and van Aken (2010) pointed out to the relevance of psychological control even during toddler years. They assessed psychological control uniformly as love withdrawal and inclination towards raising one's voice while reacting to child's misbehavior. In line with the literature with older children, they found a positive association between both maternal and paternal psychological control and externalizing behavior of 3-year-old toddler boys.

The relationship between children's prosocial behavior and behavior problems (indicated by emotional symptoms, conduct problems, hyperactivity and peer relationship) and maternal and paternal psychological control was investigated with a large sample of Chinese children aged between two and five years (Xing et al. 2017). Mothers and fathers separately reported their psychologically controlling behaviors uniformly in terms of guilt induction, love withdrawal and authority assertion with a measure developed by Wang et al. (2007). According to the findings, fathers reported more psychological control compared to mothers, and controlling for social status and child's gender, while maternal psychological control was related to behavioral problems positively and prosocial behavior negatively; paternal psychological control was significant only for behavioral problems, and only in interaction with maternal psychological control such that behavior problems were predicted if the child had one

highly psychologically controlling parent. Overall, the results highlighted the differential effects of maternal and paternal psychological control.

Stone et al. (2013) examined the association between psychological control and internalizing and externalizing problems in early childhood, with a sample of five to eight year old children. Psychological Control Scale - Youth Self-Report (Barber, 1996), uniformly tapping constraining verbal expressions, invalidating feelings and love withdrawal sub-domains, was adapted to be used with the Berkeley Puppet Interview technique. According to the results, psychological control was positively associated both with externalizing and internalizing problems, even after controlling for gender, age, behavioral control and responsiveness.

In their longitudinal study, Zarra-Nezhad et al. (2014) investigated the effects of children's social withdrawal, and maternal and paternal psychological control on children's prosocial, internalizing and externalizing behaviors by starting to follow children at kindergarden and through first, second and third grades. Psychological control was assessed only as guilt induction. According to results, children's social withdrawal level, characterized as high and low, moderated the effects of psychologically controlling parenting, in both expected and unexpected ways. For children with a high level of social withdrawal, maternal psychological control predicted higher internalizing behavior, and unexpectedly predicted higher prosocial behavior and lower externalizing behavior. Likewise, paternal psychological control predicted higher internalizing problem behavior only for children with a high level of social withdrawal. For children with low level of social withdrawal, paternal psychological control

predicted decreased internalizing problems. Overall, the study points to the fact that the effects of psychologically controlling parenting may depend on child's characteristics.

Hart et al. (1998), conceptualizing psychological control uniformly as love withdrawal and guilt induction, found a significant relationship between maternal psychological control and overt aggression of Russian preschoolers, while no significant association was observed for relational aggression.

Nelson et al. (2013), on the other hand, adapted a dimensional approach to psychological control while examining Russian preschoolers' physical and relational aggression in relation to psychological control. Constraining verbal expressions, erratic emotional behavior, love withdrawal, guilt induction, invalidating feelings and negative criticism (shame, disappointment, personal attack) were covered as critical/rejecting sub-domains of psychological control. According to factor analysis, some items and erratic emotional behavior were dropped. Some of the remaining five sub-domains (constraining verbal expressions, love withdrawal, guilt induction, invalidating feelings and negative criticism) were highly correlated; however, a five-factor model of psychological control was superior, supporting the multidimensional nature of the construct. Four separate dimensions of psychological control (constraining verbal expressions, guilt induction, love withdrawal, negative criticism) were significantly associated with both relational and overt aggression of Russian preschoolers. Yet, invalidating feelings dimension was not related to any form of aggression.

Likewise, Casas and his colleagues (2006), by introducing psychological control sub-domains simultaneously to the regression analyses separately for mothers and fathers, examined the relations between maternal and paternal psychological control sub-

domains and girls' and boys' relational and physical aggression with a sample of 122 preschoolers. Their regression analyses revealed significant associations between girls' relational aggression and both mothers' and fathers' use of psychological control, such that maternal love withdrawal, erratic emotional behavior and guilt induction, and paternal erratic emotional behavior, invalidating feelings, directiveness and guilt induction predicted girls' relational aggression. While girls' physical aggression was predicted by maternal guilt induction significantly, other relations were only significant at correlational level.

Taken together, previous literature has provided evidence regarding three critical issues. Firstly, it has demonstrated that negative effects of parental psychological control on child development are not specific to adolescent period, but rather extend to younger ages. Secondly, the conceptualization of psychological control has been observed to vary across studies, and to be rather broad. So, a clear definition and distinction of psychological control dimensions is needed in order to compare the findings in a healthy way, and to understand the inconsistent results.

Lastly, to summarize the relative effects of maternal and paternal psychological control on children's social functioning, the role maternal psychological control plays in child outcomes is well-established, and has consistently been documented as having unique predictive power over child outcomes. Paternal psychological control, on the other hand, has been observed to be significant largely for sub-groups of children, such as only for father-son dyads (e.g., Nelson et al., 2013; Verhoeven et al., 2010), or father-daughter dyads (e.g., Casas et al., 2006), only for temperamentally difficult children (e.g., Zarra-Nezhad et al., 2015), or only in interaction with maternal psychological

control (e.g., Xing et al., 2017). The additive effect of paternal psychological control, controlling for maternal use of psychological control, has been identified as generally losing its significance (e.g., Brook, Zheng, Whiteman, & Brook, 2001; Verhoeven et al., 2010). However, although with a different developmental period, a recent longitudinal work provided evidence for the unique predictive power of paternal psychological control on adolescents' internalizing problems (Lansford et al., 2014). So, the role of paternal psychological control on children's outcomes is more inconsistent compared to the role of mothers' psychological control.

1.3.6 Psychological control in cultural context

Although psychologically controlling parenting has been associated with children's aforementioned maladjustment in diverse domains of development, the literature hosts a cultural debate, which can be summarized under universalist and culture-specific perspectives (Chen, Soenens, Vansteenkiste, Van Petegem, Beyers, 2016; Pomerantz & Wang, 2009). According to universalist perspective, psychological control is unhealthy regardless of culture, since it disturbs the universal needs of autonomy, relatedness and competence (e.g., Barber, Stolz & Olsen, 2005; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010). Culture-specific perspective, on the other hand, proposes that the effects and children's perception of relational forms of psychological control may be shaped depending on the cultural context (Fung & Lau, 2012; Pomerantz & Wang, 2009). As collectivistic cultures (e.g., Asian and Latino cultures) are characterized with an interdependent self-concept, as encouraging and valuing interdependence and confirming to society over the

self (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Oyserman, Coon, & Kimmelmeier, 2002), the use of guilt induction, for instance, may have mild attributes as nurturing cultural values of connectedness in collectivistic cultures. Many studies conducted with Chinese samples have highlighted that practices like love withdrawal, guilt induction and shaming express collectivistic parents' concern for their children's adjustment to society, and are part of common parenting practices of Chinese parents (Chao & Tseng, 2002; Fung, 1999; as also cited in Yu et al., 2014). Individualistic cultures (e.g., American and European cultures), on the other hand, are marked by an independent self-concept, giving importance to the individual over the society, fostering independence and individual's needs and desires before society (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Oyserman, Coon, & Kimmelmeier, 2002). Accordingly, the use of guilt induction would contrast with individualistic cultures' values, and imply parental lack of concern for the child, or parental intrusion into the child's autonomy. Supporting this line of reasoning, Chen, Soenens, Vansteenkiste, van Petegem and Beyers (2016), for instance, demonstrated that Chinese and Belgian adolescents' perception of guilt induction differed, such that while Belgian adolescents perceived guilt-induction as harsh as general controlling behavior, Chinese children's perception was reported as more moderate. The two perspectives, however, converge on the detrimental effects of harsh/hostile psychological control tactics (such as invalidating feelings and personal attack) regardless of cultural variations, since they imply parental negativity, a lack of warmth and support for the child.

Within this frame, Fung and Lau (2012) used factor analysis to differentiate between relational and hostile forms of psychological control, to investigate their

relations with 7- to 10-year-old Chinese and American children's behavior problems. Relational psychological control consisted of guilt induction, love withdrawal, and social comparison, while hostile psychological control encompassed erratic behavior, invalidating feelings, and personal attack domains. According to the results, the relationships between relational psychological control and internalizing and externalizing behaviors were not significant in either culture, and hostile psychological control was positively predictive only of American children's internalizing and externalizing behaviors. Importantly, the positive correlation between relational and hostile forms of psychological control was significantly more powerful for American parents compared to Chinese parents, and hostile psychological control was positively related to rejection in both cultures. Rejection, in turn, was predictive of both internalizing and externalizing problems in both cultures.

Notably, another recent study supported differential effects of psychological control depending on culture. The relationship between undergraduate Indian and American students' self esteem and psychological control they perceived from their parents as they were raised was investigated (Rudy et al.,2014). They assessed psychological control distinguished as relationship-oriented guilt induction and harsh psychological control tactics (conceptualized as love withdrawal, invalidating feelings and personal attack). Because of its expected relevance with cultural variations, guilt induction was specified as relationship-oriented guilt induction (excluding other forms of guilt induction such as "When I get a poor grade, my parents make me feel guilty"). The results indicated that harsh psychological control and relation-oriented guilt induction were both negatively related to American students' self-esteem, whereas only

harsh psychological control was negatively associated with Indian students' self-esteem. Surprisingly, Indian students' self-esteem was observed to benefit from relation-oriented guilt induction. These findings were discussed as providing evidence that dimensions of psychological control are not equally unhealthy, and their effects may vary across cultures.

The psychology literature investigating cultural differences mostly focuses on North American and East Asian samples (Heine, 2010). This pattern is also observed for psychologically controlling parenting literature (e.g. Olsen et al. 2002). However, Heine (2010) draws attention to the significance of investigating psychological functioning in diverse cultures, above and beyond the two major poles of cultural orientations, to better understand the working mechanisms of the constructs. According to Hofstede (2010), Turkish culture ranks almost in the middle of individualistic-collectivistic scale, having a ranking of 37, out of 93 countries (as cited in Sen, Yavuz-Muren, & Yagmurlu, 2014). Kagitcibasi's categorization of family models depending on the basic human needs of autonomy and relatedness, draws an accurate picture of Turkish culture in this sense. Kagitcibasi described three distinct family models as family models of independence, interdependence, and emotional interdependence (Kagitcibasi, 2005). While family models of independence and interdependence refer to individualistic and collectivistic cultural orientations respectively, the family model of emotional interdependence is a combination of the other two models, emphasizing both relatedness and autonomy at the same time (Kagitcibasi, 2005).

So, emerging evidence draws attention to the fact that the effects of some parental psychological control forms may be moderated by the socialization goals of

collectivistic and individualistic cultures. Therefore, these cultural implications also denote the importance of examining psychological control as distinct forms to clarify the influence of different forms on child outcomes across cultures and developmental areas.

1.3.7 Psychological control research in Turkey

Past research conducted in Turkey on psychological control has predominantly focused on the adolescent period (Kindap, Sayil & Kumru, 2008; Kindap Tepe & Sayil, 2012; Ozdemir, 2012; Sayil & Kindap, 2010), with one exception examining it with 3-year-old toddlers (Akcinar & Baydar, 2014). Psychologically controlling parenting has been associated with Turkish adolescents' increased aggression, loneliness, antisocial behavior, and depression, and decreased life satisfaction and positive friendship quality (Kindap, Sayil, & Kumru, 2008; Kindap-Tepe & Sayil, 2012; Kocak, Mouratidis, Sayil, Kindap-Tepe, & Ucanok, 2017; Mouratidis, Sayil, Kumru, Selcuk & Soenens, 2019). The only study examining psychologically controlling parenting with a younger Turkish population is Akcinar and Baydar's (2014) research with 3-year-old toddlers. Toddlers' observed and maternally reported externalizing behaviors were examined in relation to observed maternal physical, psychological and behavioral control, and warmth. Maternal behaviors and children's externalizing behaviors were coded during a 10-minute semi-structured task. This study conceptualized psychological control in a broad manner by uniformly tapping guilt induction, love withdrawal, shaming, negative criticism (like insulting, blaming the child for not being good at the task), and emotionally isolating the child by not responding to them. The results yielded non-

significant relationships between maternal psychological control and children's observed and reported externalizing behavior. However, an interaction effect was found such that psychological control was associated with increased reported externalizing behavior when maternal warmth was low.

These findings can be interpreted in light of Kagitcibasi's (2005, 2007) family model of psychological interdependence. Kagitcibasi argues that the Turkish culture represents a mixture of individualistic and collectivistic values. In this family model, both autonomy granting and relatedness, which involves warmth and order-setting control, are central to caregivers' socialization practices. Indeed, growing research suggests that Turkish mothers balance between relatedness- and autonomy-orientation (Corapci et al., 2017).

In conclusion, the research conducted in Turkish context is consistent with Western literature in three aspects. Firstly, it points to the adverse effects of psychologically controlling parenting (operationalized as a global construct) on development. Secondly, psychological control is investigated largely with adolescents. Lastly, in line with the global trend in literature, the research in Turkey has mainly focused on mothers, hence lacks an emphasis on fathers (Sen, Yavuz-Muren & Yagmurlu, 2014).

1.4 The present study

Psychological control literature appears to have three main limitations that need further attention of researchers. Firstly, it has mainly focused on the adolescence period,

and only recently started to cover earlier ages such as the toddlerhood and preschool periods (as also cited in Barber 2002, Barber, Bean & Erickson, 2002; Doan et al., 2016; Olsen et al., 2002; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010; Xing et al. 2017). The reason of this predominant focus on the adolescence period may be that it has been deemed especially relevant in the light of the developmental task of the adolescence period: developing a sense of self, or identity development (as also cited in Barber, 1996; Erickson, 1968; Stone et al., 2013). Secondly, research with respect to paternal use of psychologically controlling practices is rather limited (Verhoeven et al., 2010; Xing et al., 2017; Zarra-Nezhad et al., 2015).

Lastly, although psychological control is conceptualized as a multidimensional construct in theory, it has often been studied in a unidimensional fashion (e.g., Hart, Nelson, Robinson, Olsen, & McNeilly-Choque, 1998; Nelson, Hart, Yang, Olsen, & Jin, 2006; Xing et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2004). Aggregating different dimensions of psychological control has its drawbacks. Besides using a unified approach, previous studies differ in their ways of conceptualizing psychological control, as a result, the unique associations between psychological control forms and child outcomes have remained underexplored (Soenens & Beyers, 2012; Yu et al., 2014). Research from both unidimensional and multidimensional, although quite few in number, approach to psychological control provides evidence that the relationships between different dimensions of psychological control and developmental outcomes may vary across cultures and developmental periods (Rudyet al., 2014; Yu et al., 2014).

The current research aims to investigate the role of maternal and paternal psychological control on preschoolers' social-emotional competence skills. While doing

so, psychological control will be examined both as total psychological control (operationalized uniformly as consisting of love withdrawal, guilt induction, invalidating feelings, personal attack, constraining verbal expressions, and erratic emotional behavior sub-domains), and as distinct forms of relational psychological control (consisting of love withdrawal and guilt induction sub-domains) and hostile psychological control (consisting of invalidating feelings, personal attack, constraining verbal expressions, and erratic emotional behavior sub-domains). The following hypotheses are suggested in line with previous literature.

Hypothesis 1: The relationship between total psychological control and children's social-emotional competence is expected to be negative. Specifically, both maternal and paternal total psychological control are expected to have a negative bivariate correlation with children's social competence, and to have positive bivariate correlations with children's anger-aggression and anxiety-withdrawal scores (Olsen et al. 2002; Stone et al. 2013; Xing et al. 2017).

Hypothesis 2: The relations between distinct psychological control forms and child outcomes are expected to differ. Taking a cultural perspective and recent findings into account (Fung & Lau, 2012; Rudy et al., 2014), hostile psychological control (invalidating feelings, erratic emotional behavior, personal attack, constraining verbal expressions) is expected to have significant negative links with children's social-emotional competence, while relational psychological control (guilt induction and love withdrawal) is not expected to relate to children's social-emotional competence.

Hypothesis 3: The present study also aimed to test the unique and combined effects of maternal and paternal psychological control. It was explored whether paternal

psychological control would add significantly to the prediction of child outcomes over and above the contribution of maternal psychological control.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1 Participants

Data were collected from one public and four private preschools (49 public, 87 private preschoolers) located in Istanbul, Turkey, based on convenience sampling. A total of 157 families were invited to take part in the study, and with an acceptance rate of 87%, 136 families accepted to participate. The sample consisted of 136 mothers and 124 fathers of preschoolers, and their teachers. Preschoolers' age ranged from 48 to 78 months ($M_{age} = 66.32$ months, $SD = 7.97$ months, 51.5% boys). Majority of the families (98.5%) were intact. A total of 67.4% of the mothers and 65% of the fathers completed at least 2-year college education. More than half of the mothers (54.8%) were working mothers, either part- or full-time. Table 1 provides demographic information on mothers and fathers.

2.2 Procedure

Necessary permissions to conduct the study were obtained from The Ethics Committee for Master and PhD Theses in Social Sciences and Humanities (SOBETIK), Bogazici University, and the Ministry of Education. Afterwards, data were collected from both private and public preschools in Istanbul, between April 2019 and June 2019.

Questionnaire sets were delivered to school headmasters, who in turn delivered them to

preschool teachers to be sent to parents. Of those families willing to participate in the study (see Appendix A for the parent consent form), mothers filled out demographic information form, and both mothers and fathers reported their psychologically controlling parenting with a questionnaire. After parents sent back the questionnaire sets to preschool teachers, information on children’s social-emotional competence was obtained from their teachers with a questionnaire, only for those children whose families agreed to take part in the study.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for Mother and Father Demographic Information

Demographic variables	<i>n</i>	%
Intact family	135	98.5
Maternal education	135	
Less than high school		10.4
High school		22.2
College or above (incl. 2-year college education)		67.4
Paternal education	134	
Less than high school		11.9
High school		23.1
College or above (incl. 2-year college education)		65
Maternal employment	135	
Unemployed		45.2
Part-time employed		9.6
Full-time employed		45.2
Paternal employment	133	
Unemployed		1.5
Part-time employed		3.0
Full-time employed		95.5
Monthly income (TL)	128	
1000-3000		10.9
3001-5000		21.1
5001-7000		21.1
7001-10000		24.2
> 10000		22.7

2.3 Measures

2.3.1 Family demographic form

Information regarding child's age, gender, number of siblings, and maternal and paternal marital status, education, occupation and income level were obtained through demographic forms filled out by parents (see Appendix B).

2.3.2 Social-emotional competence

Social Competence and Behavior Evaluation Scale-Short Form (SCBE-30) (LaFreniere & Dumas, 1996) is a widely utilized instrument for both research and clinical purposes (LaFreniere et al., 2002). The Turkish version of the scale (Corapci, Aksan, Arslan-Yalcin & Yagmurlu, 2010) was used in the present study to assess preschoolers' social-emotional competence in terms of social competence, anger-aggression, and anxiety-withdrawal (see Appendix C). The measure consists of three 10-item subscales designed to measure 3- to 6 year-old children's social competence, anger-aggression and anxiety-withdrawal. Social competence subscale evaluates children's positive social adaptation through a wide range of skills representing calm, prosocial (e.g., comforts or assists another child in difficulty), socially integrated, joyful and cooperative (e.g., accepts compromises when reasons are given) behaviors. The anger-aggression subscale measures externalizing problems such as oppositional, angry, and aggressive behaviors (e.g., screams or yells easily). Anxiety-withdrawal subscale measures internalizing

problems such as anxious, sad, depressed, and isolated behaviors (e.g., remains apart, isolated from group). Teachers reported preschoolers' social-emotional competence on a 6-point Likert scale (1= *never*; 2-3= *sometimes*; 4-5= *often*; 6= *always*).

Corapci et al. (2010) reported that Turkish version of the social competence, anger-aggression, and anxiety-withdrawal sub-scales had an internal consistency of .88, .87, and .84, respectively, as indicated by Cronbach's alpha. In the present study, the Cronbach's alphas for social competence, anger-aggression, and anxiety-withdrawal sub-scales were .88, .91, and .81, respectively.

2.3.3 Psychologically controlling parenting

The Parental Psychological Control Scale (Olsen et al. 2002) was used to measure maternal and paternal psychological control (see Appendix D). The scale was developed for the extensive cross-cultural study of Olsen et al. (2002) to evaluate Chinese, American, and Russian preschoolers' parent-reported psychological control, by adapting Barber's (1996) 16 items and adding a newly-developed set of 16 items. The following six psychological control sub-domains were assessed: personal attack (3 items; e.g., "I bring up my child's past mistakes when criticizing him/her."), erratic emotional behavior (6 items; e.g., "I go back and forth between being warm and critical toward my child."), constraining verbal expressions (3 items; e.g., "I finish my child's sentence whenever she/he talks."), invalidating feelings (3 items; e.g., "I try to change how my child feels or thinks about things."), guilt induction (12 items; e.g., "I let my child know when she/he has disappointed me."), and love withdrawal (5 items; e.g., "If my child has hurt my

feelings, I stop talking to my child until she/he pleases me.”). This scale was translated and validated into Turkish by Harma (2008, unpublished thesis), and his uniform measure of psychological control had an internal consistency of .78, as indicated by Cronbach’s alpha. Mothers and fathers separately reported their own psychologically controlling behaviors on a 4-point Likert scale, indicating the frequency of their behavior as 1 = Never; 2 = Sometimes; 3 = Often; and 4 = Always. Higher points indicated higher levels of psychological control. Total maternal and paternal psychological control scores were obtained by calculating the means of all the items for mother- and father-reports separately. Furthermore, following the work by Fung and Lau (2012), relational and hostile forms of psychological control were formed for mothers and fathers separately. Relational psychological control comprised of guilt induction and love withdrawal sub-domains, and hostile psychological control consisted of personal attack, erratic emotional behavior, constraining verbal expressions, and invalidating feelings sub-domains. In the present study, the reliability of the total maternal and total paternal psychological control were .85 and .84, respectively. Cronbach’s alphas for relational and hostile psychological control were .78 and .76 for mothers, and .79 and .72 for fathers, respectively.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

3.1 Descriptive statistics for study variables

Before performing correlation and regression analyses, normality, multivariate normality, linearity and multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity assumptions were tested and fulfilled for study variables. One multivariate outlier was removed from the analysis. Mean scores were computed for all study variables, and utilized in the analyses. A composite score of socio-economic status was formed, and used in the subsequent analyses by calculating the mean of maternal and paternal education, and income level z-scores. Means, standard deviations and minimum and maximum values for study variables, and their associated sample sizes are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables

Measure	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Min.</i>	<i>Max.</i>
Children's age (month)	128	66.32	7.97	48	78
Social-emotional competence	136				
Social competence		4.96	0.94	2.20	6.00
Anger-Aggression		1.84	0.87	1.00	5.40
Anxiety-Withdrawal		1.82	0.74	1.00	4.70
Maternal psychological control	136				
Total PC		1.53	0.24	1.06	2.47
Relational PC		1.55	0.27	1.12	2.47
Hostile PC		1.52	0.28	1.00	2.67
Paternal psychological control	124				
Total PC		1.52	0.25	1.06	2.44
Relational PC		1.55	0.29	1.00	2.65
Hostile PC		1.49	0.27	1.00	2.27

3.2 Correlations between study variables

The bivariate correlations were computed between demographic variables and children's social competence, anger-aggression, anxiety-withdrawal, and maternal and paternal psychological control (as both total psychological control, and relational and hostile forms of it). They are presented in Table 3. As presented in Table 3, child's age was positively correlated with their social-emotional competence (increased social competence and decreased behavior problems). Family socio-economic status was negatively related to children's social-emotional competence. Gender differences can be observed such that girls had higher social competence and lower anger-aggression scores compared to boys.

3.3 Regression analyses

Each child outcome was submitted to a hierarchical regression analysis to explore the unique and combined role of maternal and paternal psychological control. Demographic variables associated with the given outcome variable were entered in the first step, followed by maternal total psychological control in the second step, and paternal total psychological control in the third step (see Tables 4, 7, 10). Additional regression analyses were conducted with maternal and paternal hostile psychological control (see Tables 5, 8, 11) as well as maternal and paternal relational psychological control variables (see Tables 6, 9, 12).

Table 3. Bivariate Correlations between Study Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 Social competence	-										
2 Anger-aggression	-0.74**	-									
3 Anxiety-withdrawal	-0.52**	0.35**	-								
4 Child's gender	0.33**	-0.21*	-0.09	-							
5 Child's age (month)	0.28**	-0.24**	-0.26**	0.03	-						
6 SES	-0.16 [†]	0.20*	0.24**	-0.04	-0.29**	-					
7 Total MPC	-0.17*	0.12	-0.14	-0.07	0.04	-0.20*	-				
8 Relational MPC	-0.10	0.05	-0.19*	-0.08	0.07	-0.15	0.89**	-			
9 Hostile MPC	-0.20*	0.18*	-0.04	-0.04	< -.01	-0.21*	0.87**	0.56**	-		
10 Total PPC	-0.15 [†]	0.11	-0.12	-0.03	0.03	-0.25**	0.49**	0.39**	0.48**	-	
11 Relational PPC	-0.09	0.04	-0.19*	-0.03	0.07	-0.24**	0.50**	0.47**	0.40**	0.90**	-
12 Hostile PPC	-0.18*	0.16 [†]	< .01	-0.02	-0.01	-0.20*	0.36**	0.19*	0.45**	0.86**	0.55**

Gender was coded as 0 = boys, 1 = girls. MPC: Maternal psychological control, PPC: Paternal psychological control.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, [†] $p < .10$.

3.3.1 Social competence

As seen in Table 4, in the prediction of social competence, child's gender, age and family socio-economic were entered in Step 1, followed by total maternal psychological control in Step 2, and total paternal psychological control in Step 3. Step 1 (gender, age, SES) explained 17% of variability in children's social competence, $F(3, 111) = 7.73, p < .01$. Total maternal psychological control explained an additional 3% of variability in social competence, $F(1, 110) = 4.27, p < .05$, whereas total paternal psychological control did not contribute significantly to the prediction of social competence over and above maternal psychological control, $F(1, 109) = 1.60, p > .10$.

Table 4. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Children's Social Competence with Total Psychological Control

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE (B)</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	ΔR^2
Step 1						0.17**
Child's gender	0.59	0.15	0.33	3.82	< .01	
Child's age	0.02	0.01	0.22	2.44	0.02	
SES	-0.05	0.09	-0.05	-0.54	0.59	
Step 2						0.03*
Child's gender	0.57	0.15	0.32	3.76	< .01	
Child's age	0.02	0.01	0.22	2.41	0.02	
SES	-0.09	0.09	-0.08	-0.92	0.36	
Total MPC	-0.69	0.34	-0.18	-2.07	0.04	
Step 3						0.01
Child's gender	0.57	0.15	0.32	3.76	< .01	
Child's age	0.02	0.01	0.21	2.38	0.02	
SES	-0.10	0.09	-0.10	-1.10	0.28	
Total MPC	-0.49	0.37	-0.13	-1.32	0.19	
Total PPC	-0.44	0.35	-0.12	-1.27	0.21	

N = 115. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. MPC = Maternal psychological control, PPC = Paternal psychological control.

When predicting social competence based on hostile psychological control (see Table 5), the overall model explained 22.4% variability in children's social competence.

Maternal hostile psychological control explained an additional 3.8% variance in children's social competence when demographic variables were controlled, $F(1, 110) = 5.33, p < .05$. Paternal hostile psychological control did not significantly contribute to the prediction of social competence over and above maternal hostile psychological control, $F(1, 109) = 1.84, p > .10$.

Table 5. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Children's Social Competence with Hostile Psychological Control

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE (B)</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	ΔR^2
Step 1						.17**
Child's gender	0.59	0.15	0.33	3.82	< .01	
Child's age	0.02	0.01	0.22	2.44	0.02	
SES	-0.05	0.09	-0.05	-0.54	0.59	
Step 2						.04*
Child's gender	0.59	0.15	0.33	3.88	< .01	
Child's age	0.02	0.01	0.21	2.30	0.02	
SES	-0.09	0.09	-0.09	-0.99	0.32	
Hostile MPC	-0.65	0.28	-0.20	-2.31	0.02	
Step 3						0.01
Child's gender	0.59	0.15	0.33	3.90	< .01	
Child's age	0.02	0.01	0.20	2.25	0.03	
SES	-0.11	0.09	-0.10	-1.12	0.26	
Hostile MPC	-0.49	0.30	-0.15	-1.60	0.11	
Hostile PPC	-0.41	0.31	-0.13	-1.36	0.18	

N = 115. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. MPC = Maternal psychological control, PPC = Paternal psychological control.

When predicting social competence based on relational psychological control (see Table 6), the overall model explained 19.4% variability in children's social competence. Only demographic variables explained 17.3% variance. Neither maternal nor paternal relational psychological control was significant predictors.

Table 6. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Children's Social Competence with Relational Psychological Control

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE (B)</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	ΔR^2
Step 1						.17*
Child's gender	0.59	0.15	0.33	3.82	< .01	
Child's age	0.02	0.01	0.22	2.44	0.02	
SES	-0.05	0.09	-0.05	-0.54	0.59	
Step 2						0.01
Child's gender	0.57	0.15	0.32	3.70	< .01	
Child's age	0.03	0.01	0.22	2.47	0.01	
SES	-0.07	0.09	-0.07	-0.71	0.48	
Total MPC	-0.41	0.30	-0.12	-1.36	0.18	
Step 3						< .01
Child's gender	0.57	0.15	0.32	3.69	< .01	
Child's age	0.02	0.01	0.22	2.46	0.02	
SES	-0.08	0.10	-0.08	-0.87	0.39	
Total MPC	-0.27	0.33	-0.08	-0.82	0.41	
Total PPC	-0.29	0.30	-0.10	-0.99	0.33	

N = 115. * $p < .01$. MPC = Maternal psychological control, PPC = Paternal psychological control.

3.3.2 Anger-aggression

As seen in Table 7, in the prediction of anger-aggression, the model explained 16.8% variance. Child's gender, age and family socio-economic status were significant in the first step, and explained 11.6% of variability, $F(3, 112) = 4.90, p < .01$. Total maternal psychological control in Step 2 accounted for an additional 4.8% variability in anger-aggression beyond demographic controls, $F(1, 111) = 6.39, p < .05$. Total paternal psychological control, however, did not contribute significantly to the model over and above demographics and maternal psychological control, $F(1, 110) = 0.56, p > .10$.

Table 7. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Children's Anger-Aggression with Total Psychological Control

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE (B)</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	ΔR^2
Step 1						0.12**
Child's gender	-0.32	0.15	-0.18	-2.07	0.04	
Child's age	-0.02	0.01	-0.19	-2.05	0.04	
SES	0.15	0.09	0.15	1.63	0.11	
Step 2						0.05*
Child's gender	-0.30	0.15	-0.17	-1.97	0.05	
Child's age	-0.02	0.01	-0.18	-2.01	0.05	
SES	0.20	0.09	0.20	2.11	0.04	
Total MPC	0.84	0.33	0.22	2.53	0.01	
Step 3						< .01
Child's gender	-0.30	0.15	-0.17	-1.96	0.05	
Child's age	-0.02	0.01	-0.18	-1.99	0.05	
SES	0.21	0.09	0.21	2.20	0.03	
Total MPC	0.72	0.37	0.19	1.95	0.05	
Total PPC	0.26	0.34	0.07	0.75	0.46	

N = 116. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. MPC = Maternal psychological control, PPC = Paternal psychological control.

In the second hierarchical regression analysis, the model explained a total of 18.7% variance in children's anger-aggression (Table 8). Maternal hostile psychological control significantly contributed to the model by explaining 6.7% variance in anger-aggression beyond demographic variables, $F(1, 111) = 9.12, p < .01$. The addition of paternal hostile psychological control in Step 3, on the other hand, was not significant, $F(1, 110) = 0.56, p > .10$.

In the third hierarchical regression analysis (Table 9), only demographic variables contributed to the model by explaining 6.7% variance in anger-aggression. Neither maternal nor paternal relational psychological control was significant, $F(1, 111) = 2.21, p > .10$, and $F(1, 110) = 0.49, p > .10$, respectively.

Table 8. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Children's Anger-Aggression with Hostile Psychological Control

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE (B)</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	ΔR^2
Step 1						0.12*
Child's gender	-0.32	0.15	-0.18	-2.07	0.04	
Child's age	-0.02	0.01	-0.19	-2.05	0.04	
SES	0.15	0.09	0.15	1.63	0.11	
Step 2						0.07*
Child's gender	-0.31	0.15	-0.18	-2.12	0.04	
Child's age	-0.02	0.01	-0.17	-1.88	0.06	
SES	0.21	0.09	0.21	2.25	0.03	
Hostile MPC	0.84	0.28	0.26	3.02	0.00	
Step 3						< .01
Child's gender	-0.31	0.15	-0.18	-2.11	0.04	
Child's age	-0.02	0.01	-0.17	-1.84	0.07	
SES	0.21	0.09	0.22	2.32	0.02	
Hostile MPC	0.75	0.30	0.24	2.48	0.01	
Hostile PPC	0.23	0.30	0.07	0.75	0.46	

N = 116. * $p < .01$. MPC = Maternal psychological control, PPC = Paternal psychological control.

Table 9. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Children's Anger-Aggression with Relational Psychological Control

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE (B)</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	ΔR^2
Step 1						.12*
Child's gender	-0.32	0.15	-0.18	-2.07	0.04	
Child's age	-0.02	0.01	-0.19	-2.05	0.04	
SES	0.15	0.09	0.15	1.63	0.11	
Step 2						0.02
Child's gender	-0.30	0.15	-0.17	-1.94	0.05	
Child's age	-0.02	0.01	-0.19	-2.09	0.04	
SES	0.17	0.09	0.17	1.82	0.07	
Relational MPC	0.45	0.30	0.13	1.49	0.14	
Step 3						< .01
Child's gender	-0.30	0.15	-0.17	-1.92	0.06	
Child's age	-0.02	0.01	-0.19	-2.07	0.04	
SES	0.18	0.10	0.18	1.91	0.06	
Relational MPC	0.35	0.33	0.10	1.06	0.29	
Relational PPC	0.21	0.30	0.07	0.70	0.49	

N = 116. * $p < .01$. MPC = Maternal psychological control, PPC = Paternal psychological control.

3.3.3 Anxiety-withdrawal

In the prediction of anxiety-withdrawal from total psychological control variables (Table 10), the overall model explained 10.7% variance in anxiety-withdrawal. Child age and SES in Step 1 significantly accounted for 9.9% variability, $F(2, 113) = 6.20, p < .01$. Neither total maternal psychological control nor total paternal psychological control significantly contributed to the model, $F(1, 112) = 0.73, p > .10$, and $F(1, 111) = 0.33, p > .10$, respectively.

Table 10. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Children's Anxiety-Withdrawal with Total Psychological Control

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE (B)</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	ΔR^2
Step 1						0.10*
Child's age	-0.01	0.01	-0.15	-1.64	0.10	
SES	0.20	0.08	0.23	2.44	0.02	
Step 2						< .01
Child's age	-0.02	0.01	-0.16	-1.67	0.10	
SES	0.19	0.08	0.21	2.24	0.03	
Total MPC	-0.26	0.30	-0.08	-0.86	0.39	
Step 3						< .01
Child's age	-0.02	0.01	-0.16	-1.68	0.10	
SES	0.18	0.08	0.21	2.11	0.04	
Total MPC	-0.17	0.34	-0.05	-0.52	0.61	
Total PPC	-0.18	0.31	-0.06	-0.58	0.57	

N = 116. * $p < .01$. MPC = Maternal psychological control, PPC = Paternal psychological control.

In predicting anxiety-withdrawal from hostile psychological control (Table 11), the overall model accounted for 9.9% of variance. Maternal hostile psychological control in Step 2 did not significantly contribute beyond the demographic variables, $F(1, 112) = 0.05, p > .10$. The addition of paternal hostile psychological control in Step 3 was not significant either, $F(1, 111) = 0.003, p > .10$.

Table 11. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Children's Anxiety-Withdrawal with Hostile Psychological Control

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE (B)</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	ΔR^2
Step 1						.10*
Child's age	-0.01	0.01	-0.15	-1.64	0.10	
SES	0.20	0.08	0.23	2.44	0.02	
Step 2						< .01
Child's age	-0.01	0.01	-0.15	-1.61	0.11	
SES	0.20	0.08	0.23	2.43	0.02	
Total MPC	0.05	0.26	0.02	0.21	0.83	
Step 3						< .01
Child's age	-0.01	0.01	-0.15	-1.60	0.11	
SES	0.20	0.09	0.23	2.41	0.02	
Total MPC	0.05	0.28	0.02	0.17	0.86	
Total PPC	0.02	0.28	0.01	0.05	0.96	

N = 116. * $p < .01$. MPC = Maternal psychological control, PPC = Paternal psychological control.

In predicting anxiety-withdrawal from relational psychological control (Table 12), the overall model accounted for 12.7% of the variance. Maternal relational psychological control in Step 2 did not significantly contribute beyond the demographic variables, $F(1, 112) = 2.62, p > .10$. The addition of paternal relational psychological control in Step 3 was not significant either, $F(1, 111) = 0.91, p > .10$.

Table 12. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Children's Anxiety-Withdrawal with Relational Psychological Control

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE (B)</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	ΔR^2
Step 1						0.10*
Child's age	-0.01	0.01	-0.15	-1.64	0.10	
SES	0.20	0.08	0.23	2.44	0.02	
Step 2						0.02
Child's age	-0.01	0.01	-0.15	-1.62	0.11	
SES	0.18	0.08	0.21	2.23	0.03	
Relational MPC	-0.43	0.27	-0.14	-1.62	0.11	
Step 3						< .01
Child's age	-0.01	0.01	-0.15	-1.64	0.10	
SES	0.17	0.08	0.19	2.03	0.04	
Relational MPC	-0.31	0.29	-0.11	-1.07	0.29	
Relational PPC	-0.25	0.26	-0.10	-0.95	0.34	

N = 116. * $p < .01$. MPC = Maternal psychological control, PPC = Paternal psychological control.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The current study aimed to investigate the role of mothers' and fathers' use of psychologically controlling parenting on preschoolers' social competence as well as anger-aggression and anxiety-withdrawal symptoms. The present study explored the role of psychological control both as a global construct, and as distinct forms of relational psychological control (consisting of love withdrawal and guilt induction sub-domains) and hostile psychological control (consisting of invalidating feelings, personal attack, constraining verbal expressions, and erratic emotional behavior sub-domains). Differential effects of maternal and paternal psychological control, and the differential effects of distinct forms of psychological control on preschoolers' social-emotional competence outcomes were documented.

Social competence had significant bivariate correlations with both maternal and paternal total psychological control. After demographic controls, the link with maternal total psychological control was still significant; however, when maternal and paternal combined role was examined, paternal total psychological control did not make a significant independent contribution above and beyond maternal total psychological control. Of the distinct forms, only hostile form was significant for mothers and fathers in bivariate correlations. When mothers' and fathers' combined role was investigated, mothers' hostile control was still a significant predictor but fathers did not make a unique contribution above mothers.

Anger-aggression had non-significant bivariate correlations with maternal and paternal total psychological control. However, after demographic controls, maternal total psychological control became a significant predictor of anger-aggression, while paternal total psychological control did not make a significant independent contribution to the prediction of anger-aggression above and beyond maternal control. Of the distinct forms, only hostile form was significant for mothers in bivariate correlations. When mothers' and fathers' combined role was investigated, mothers' hostile control was still a significant predictor but fathers did not make a contribution.

Anxiety-withdrawal had non-significant links with maternal and paternal total psychological control, both in bivariate correlations and regression analyses. Of the distinct forms, only relational form was significant for both mothers and fathers in bivariate correlations. When mothers and fathers combined role was investigated, after demographic controls, mothers' and fathers' relational psychological control were not significant.

The interpretation of the study findings are discussed below.

4.1 The relationship between total psychological control and social-emotional competence

The first hypothesis of the study explored the role of both maternal and paternal total psychological control on children's social-emotional competence as rated by their teachers. When psychological control was taken as a global form of intrusive parenting, findings of the present study revealed significant bivariate relations between maternal

total psychological control and preschoolers' social competence and anger-aggression. These findings were consistent with the study hypotheses and previous research (Stone et al., 2013; Olsen et al., 2002; Xing et al., 2017). As expected, as maternal psychological control increased, children's social competence decreased, and children's anger-aggression increased. These relations between maternal psychological control and preschoolers' social competence as well as anger-aggression remained significant even after controlling for demographic variables such as child age, gender and family socio-economic status. In the present study, girls had significantly higher social competence scores compared to boys, and boys' anger-aggression scores were significantly higher than girls' scores. Girls and boys did not differ in their anxiety-withdrawal. Child age was also significantly related to all social-emotional sub-domains. As their age increased, children had higher social competence, and lower anger-aggression and anxiety-withdrawal scores. All these findings are in line with previous research (Bayindir et al., 2017; Corapci et al., 2010; LaFreniere et al., 2002).

These significant associations between maternal psychological control and child outcomes make sense from an attachment theory perspective. Negative parenting practices like psychologically controlling practices may impede children's internal working model of the self, as well as internal working model of others (Bowlby, 1969). Specifically, psychologically controlling parenting practices of invalidating feelings, erratic emotional behavior, personal attack and constraining verbal expressions may harm children's conceiving themselves as being lovable, worthy and self-sufficient, and hence affect their interaction with their environment in a negative way. In their longitudinal study, for instance, Suess, Grossmann and Sroufe (1992) showed that

children with anxious attachment history attributed hostile intentions to others by interpreting vague information as more negative compared to securely attached children. Likewise, Nelson and Coyne (2008) exhibited a positive link between parental psychological control and children's hostile intent attribution. Psychologically controlling parenting practices may impair children's social functioning through weakening the parent-child attachment relationship, and thus limiting children's exploration and interactions with their surrounding.

On the other hand, the relation between maternal psychological control and children's anxiety-withdrawal was not significant. The role of psychological control on anxiety symptoms has been less frequently investigated in previous research (as also stated in Stone et al., 2013). The few existing studies have shown that mothers' psychological control related to children's internalizing problem behaviors with European American, and European preschoolers, and that it did not relate to Chinese and Russian preschoolers' internalizing behavior (Olsen et al., 2002; Stone et al., 2013). So, the present findings regarding the link between psychological control and anxiety-withdrawal are in line with those from collectivist samples.

Paternal total psychological control showed only marginally significant bivariate relations with preschoolers' social competence, and did not relate to preschoolers' anger-aggression and anxiety-withdrawal. Although unexpected, these non-significant findings were somewhat in line with previous research. Prior studies generally reported significant effects of paternal psychological control with sub-groups of children, such as only for boys (Casas et al., 2006; Nelson et al., 2013; Verhoeven et al., 2010). In the present study, paternal psychological control was not related to child gender. Also,

exploratory analyses revealed that the role of child gender did not play a role in the relationship between paternal psychological control and child outcomes, when maternal and paternal control were examined together. However, it is important to keep in mind the decreased gender-differentiated sample size while interpreting these findings.

The lack of relation between paternal psychological control and child outcomes may be due to the developmental period of children. The present study was conducted with preschoolers. More studies with adolescents have demonstrated unique predictive power of paternal psychological control (Lansford et al., 2014). Another possible explanation for the lack of significant paternal associations may be that the developmental domains effected by maternal and paternal psychological control may differ. Previous literature has highlighted fathers' influence especially in achievement-oriented areas as well as self-esteem (Bean, Bush, McKenry, & Wilson, 2003; Soenens et al., 2010; as also stated in Xing et al., 2017).

It is also possible that fathers' use of psychological control is predictive of child outcomes in interaction with other important child characteristics such as temperamental difficulty. Maternal characteristics may also play a role. For instance, Xing et al. (2017) found no significant associations between fathers' use of psychological control and Chinese preschoolers' behavior problems and prosocial behavior. Yet, they found that paternal psychological control was a significant predictor only in interaction with maternal psychological control.

4.2 The relationship between psychological control forms and social-emotional competence

While the first hypothesis of the present study considered psychological control as a global construct consisting of the sum of love withdrawal, guilt induction, invalidating feelings, personal attack, erratic emotional behavior and constraining verbal expressions sub-domains, the second hypothesis addressed relational and hostile psychological control as distinct forms. From a cultural perspective, and in line with previous studies from collectivistic cultures (Fung & Lau, 2012; Rudy et al., 2014), the relational form of psychological control (consisting of love withdrawal and guilt induction) was not expected to have significant adverse relations with preschoolers' social-emotional competence. On the other hand, hostile psychological control (consisting of invalidating feelings, constraining verbal expressions, personal attack and erratic emotional behavior) was expected to show negative associations with social-emotional competence. Guilt induction may be expressed by mothers in collectivistic societies to emphasize a concern for relational harmony rather than undermining child's sense of self or invalidating child's perspective.

Consistent with our hypotheses and the emerging literature favoring a culture-specific perspective on psychological control (Fung & Lau, 2012; Rudy et al., 2014), the bivariate associations between mothers' as well as fathers' relational psychological control and children's social competence as well as anger-aggression were not significant. Unexpectedly, maternal and paternal relational psychological control was negatively and significantly related to anxiety-withdrawal. However, these relations became non-significant after controlling for child age and family socio-economic status.

These findings, along with findings from other collectivist cultures like China and India, suggest that particular culturally valued socialization goals may weaken the role of relational psychological control on child outcomes. For example, Rudy et al. (2014) demonstrated that while guilt induction was negatively related with American adolescents' self-esteem, the direction of the relation was positive for Indian adolescents. Fung and Lau (2012) differentiated between relational and hostile forms of psychological control, and displayed stronger positive correlation between the two forms for European American parents compared to Chinese parents. Thus, in collectivistic cultures, where group harmony and relatedness are emphasized, widely used parenting practices of love withdrawal and guilt induction may be rather interpreted as parental concern and involvement rather than as controlling (Chen et al., 2016; Chao, 1994; Kindap, Sayil & Kumru, 2008).

On the other hand, in line with study hypothesis, bivariate relations showed that as mothers' and fathers' hostile psychological control increased, children's social competence scores decreased. As mothers' hostile psychological control increased, preschoolers' anger-aggression also increased. These relations remained significant even after controlling for demographic variables such as child age and gender. On the other hand, the relation between hostile psychological control and anxiety-withdrawal was not significant.

The associations between hostile psychological control and social competence as well as anger-aggression support previous research (Chen et al., 2016; Fung & Lau, 2012; Rudy et al., 2014), and suggest that the hostile form of psychological control plays a negative role on these child outcomes regardless of culture (Fung & Lau, 2012).

Hostile psychological control practices involve constraining verbal expressions, personal attack, and erratic emotional behavior, limit children's experience and invalidate children's perspective. As postulated by attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969), such practices act to undermine attachment security, and impair children's social, emotional and behavioral adjustment (Cooke, Stuart-Parrigon, Mohaved-Abtahi, Koehn, & Kerns, 2016; Sroufe, 2017).

4.3 Unique and combined role of maternal and paternal psychological control

The present study assessed both maternal and paternal psychological control in order to explore their unique and combined associations with preschoolers' social-emotional competence outcomes. Although mothers are often considered as the main socializers of children, the role of fathers is also drawing increasing attention. In the present study, regression analyses were used to investigate whether paternal psychological control, both as a global or distinct form, would explain an additional and distinct portion of the variance in preschoolers' outcomes over and above maternal psychological control.

In the case of social competence, as noted in the previous section, only mothers' global psychological control showed statistically significant correlation with this outcome and paternal global psychological control showed a marginally significant correlation. When the contribution of mothers' and fathers' global psychological control were considered together, regression analyses findings of the present study revealed that the initially significant maternal psychological control became non-significant. This finding suggested that maternal psychological control may act on child social

competence through paternal psychological control. Future studies are warranted to test such mediational models with larger samples. In the case of hostile psychological control, regression analyses have revealed that maternal hostile control explained variance in social competence and paternal hostile psychological control did not make an additional contribution to the prediction of children's social competence when both maternal control and demographic variables were controlled. This result suggested that paternal hostile control did not explain a portion of the variance of social competence that is independent from maternal control.

In the case of anger-aggression, regression analyses revealed that only maternal total and hostile psychological control were significant predictors. Adding paternal psychological control did not explain additional variance over and above maternal control. In the case of anxiety-withdrawal, psychological control, neither maternal nor paternal were significant predictors as noted above.

4.4 Strengths and limitations of the present study

The present study has several limitations to note. First of all, all measures were self-report. The relatively low mean scores, and the narrow ranges of maternal and paternal psychological control variables may be explained by social desirability. Future studies may combine observational data in emotion-eliciting situations to ensure a more comprehensive assessment of psychological control. The use of cross-rating such that parents report each others' psychologically controlling parenting instead of their own has also been suggested. Secondly, a gender-differentiated investigation was beyond the

scope of the current study; however, taking the insignificant findings regarding paternal psychological control into account, it could be advisable to design studies in gender-differentiated ways. Last but not least, the present study did not include the measurement of further dimensions of parenting. As previous research has demonstrated the moderating roles of other parenting dimensions on the effects of psychological control (Aunola & Nurmi, 2005; Aunola & Nurmi, 2004; Akcinar & Baydar, 2014; Caron, Weiss, Harris, Catron, 2006), the investigation of psychological control while taking other parenting dimensions into consideration would provide a broader perspective to understand the dynamic interplay between parenting dimensions.

Notwithstanding the abovementioned limitations, the study has also strengths. First, not only mothers but also fathers provided information about their psychologically controlling parenting. Given the increasing role of fathers as co-parents in child development (Lamb & Lewis, 2010; Pleck, 2010; Van Holland De Graaf, Hoogenboom, De Roos, & Bucx, 2018), it is important to incorporate fathers to parenting research. Using teacher-ratings of social-emotional competence is another advantage of the study as teachers are well-informed with a large variety of children's behaviors, and have the ability to observe children in various situations that are not limited to home settings. Since the data were collected almost at the end of the academic year, teachers had enough time to know children to be able to rate their social-emotional competence skills (Morris et al., 2002). Another strength of the current study is examining psychological control as total psychological control, as well as relational and hostile psychological control. This distinction provided the opportunity to observe that the way psychological

control is operationalized can alter the interpretations of the findings, and limit our understanding of the effects of psychological control across cultures.

4.5 Conclusions

Considering the importance of early social-emotional competence for later adjustment, the present study provides evidence supporting the need to investigate it in a culturally-embedded way as its precursors may differ according to different socialization goals of cultures. Although the significant association of hostile rather than relational psychological control provide support for the culture-specific perspective, it is important to keep in mind that non-significant associations of relational psychological control may be restricted to social-emotional competence outcomes, and to the preschool-age period. Regardless of the fact that parents' relational psychological control was not negatively related to children's social-emotional competence, these sub-domains may still have adverse links with other domains of functioning. In addition, its influence on child outcomes may further change according to the developmental period. Previous research has drawn attention to the fact that children's interpretation of guilt induction and love withdrawal became more negative, as their age increased (Helwig et al., 2014).

APPENDIX A

CONSENT FORM FOR PARENTS

KATILIMCI BİLGİ ve ONAM FORMU

Araştırmayı destekleyen kurum:Boğaziçi Üniversitesi, Psikoloji Bölümü

Araştırmanın Adı: Okul Öncesi Dönemde Sosyal Yetkinlik Gelişimi

Proje Yürütücüsü: Prof. Dr. Feyza Çorapçı

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Sayın Anne,

Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü öğretim üyesi Prof. Dr. Feyza Çorapçı “Okul Öncesi Dönemde Sosyal Yetkinlik Gelişimi” adı altında bilimsel bir araştırma projesi yürütmektedir. Bu çalışmanın amacı, anaokulu çağındaki çocukların mizaç özelliklerinin ve anne-babaların ebeveynlik davranışlarının, çocukların sosyal yetkinlik gelişimi üzerine etkilerini araştırmaktır. Mevcut çalışma, bu amaçla ülkemizde yürütülen önemli ve güncel çalışmalardan biri olacaktır. Bu çalışmanın yürütülmesi için gerekli izinler alınmıştır. Kararınızdan önce araştırma hakkında sizi bilgilendirmek istiyoruz. Bu bilgileri okuduktan sonra araştırmaya katılmak isterseniz bu formu imzalayıp, ekteki formları doldurarak size verilen zarf içinde bize vermeniz yeterli olacaktır.

Bu araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz takdirde, sizden kısa bir demografik bilgi formu, çocuğunuzun mizaç özelliklerini yansıtan bir anket ve çocuğunuzla ilişkiniz hakkında kısa bir anket doldurmanızı rica ediyoruz. Çocuğunuzun öğretmeninden de, çocuğunuzun sosyal becerilerini değerlendireceği kısa bir anket doldurmasını rica edeceğiz. Verilen anketleri doldurmanız yaklaşık 30 dakika sürecektir.

Demografik form çocuğunuzun doğum tarihi, cinsiyeti, sizin doğum tarihiniz, mesleğiniz, eğitiminiz gibi konular hakkında sorular içerecektir. Çocuğunuzun mizaç özelliklerine dair form, çocuğunuzun genel özellikleri hakkında sorular içerecektir. Ebeveynlik ile alakalı form, sizin ebeveynlik deneyimlerinize ilişkin bir ankettir. Öğretmenin dolduracağı anket ise, çocuğunuzun akran ilişkilerini, yardımlaşma, grup

içerisinde çalışma gibi sosyal becerilerini değerlendirmeye yönelik sorulardan oluşacaktır.

Bu araştırma bilimsel bir amaçla yapılmaktadır ve katılımcı bilgilerinin gizliliği esas tutulmaktadır. Dosya kayıtlarında katılımcıların ismi yerine bir numara kullanılacaktır. Yanıtlar kişisel bilgisayarda ve sadece araştırmacının ve yürütücünün erişimi olacak şekilde tutulacaktır. Katılımcılardan toplanan veriler sadece araştırmacılar tarafından görülebilecek, katılımcıların isimleri kendilerinden alınan verilerle eşleştirilmeyecek ve toplanan veriler bireysel olarak değil, toplu olarak değerlendirilip yayınlanacaktır. Araştırmaya katılmak tamamen isteğe bağlıdır. Katıldığımız takdirde araştırmanın herhangi bir aşamasında bir sebep göstermeden araştırmadan çekilmek hakkına sahipsiniz. Bu çalışma Boğaziçi Üniversitesi etik kurulu tarafından onaylanmıştır. Araştırma projesi hakkında ek bilgi almak istediğiniz takdirde lütfen Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü Öğretim Üyesi Prof. Dr. Feyza Çorapçı (Telefon: 0212 359 73 23) veya araştırmacı Gülşen Güldeste Ot ile temasa geçiniz (Telefon: 0544 253 19 87, Adres: Boğaziçi Üniversitesi, Psikoloji Bölümü, 34342 Bebek, İstanbul). Araştırmayla ilgili haklarınız konusunda yerel etik kurullarına veya Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Yüksek Lisans ve Doktora Tezleri Etik İnceleme Komisyonu SOBETİK'e danışabilirsiniz. Eğer bu araştırma projesine katılmayı kabul ediyorsanız, lütfen bu formu imzalayıp ve zarftaki ilgili formları doldurup kapalı bir zarf içerisinde bize geri yollayın.

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 İmzası:.....

Tarih (gün/ay/yıl):...../...../.....

Araştırmacının Adı-Soyadı: Gülşen Güldeste Ot

İmzası:.....

Tarih (gün/ay/yıl):/...../.....

APPENDIX B

PARENT DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM

1. The code number on the envelope: _____
2. The date you completed the questionnaire: Day____ Month____ Year_____
3. Child's date of birth: Day____ Month____ Year_____
4. Child's gender (please mark): Male____ Female____
5. Child's number of siblings:

	MOTHER	FATHER
Date of birth	____/____/____ Day Month Year	____/____/____ Day Month Year
Job	-----	-----
Work status	1. No <input type="checkbox"/> 2. Full-time <input type="checkbox"/> (40 hours per week) 3. Part-time <input type="checkbox"/> (less than 40 hours per week)	1. No <input type="checkbox"/> 2. Full-time <input type="checkbox"/> (40 hours per week) 3. Part-time <input type="checkbox"/> (less than 40 hours per week)
Marital status	1- Married <input type="checkbox"/> 2- Single, Divorced <input type="checkbox"/> 3- Remarried <input type="checkbox"/> 4- Widowed <input type="checkbox"/>	1. Married <input type="checkbox"/> 2. Single, Divorced <input type="checkbox"/> 3. Remarried <input type="checkbox"/> 4. Widowed <input type="checkbox"/>


Education	<p>(Please circle the appropriate option)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Primary school leave 2. Primary school graduate 3. Secondary school leave 4. Secondary school graduate 5. High school leave 6. High school graduate 7. Vocational-school graduate 8. University leave 9. University graduate 10. Post graduate degree (MA or PhD) 	<p>(Please circle the appropriate option)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Primary school leave 2. Primary school graduate 3. Secondary school leave 4. Secondary school graduate 5. High school leave 6. High school graduate 7. Vocational-school graduate 8. University leave 9. University graduate 10. Post graduate degree (MA or PhD)
Total income of the family (monthly)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Less than 1000 TL 2. 1000 - 3000 TL 3. 3001 - 5000 TL 4. 5001 - 7000 TL 5. 7001 – 10000 TL 6. More than 10000 TL <div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;"> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> </div>	

Turkish Version of Parent Demographic Information Form

EBEVEYN DEMOGRAFİK BİLGİ FORMU

1. Zarfın üzerinde bulunan kod numarası: _____
2. Anketi doldurduğunuz tarih: Gün____ Ay____ Yıl____
3. Çocuğunuzun doğum tarihi: Gün____ Ay____ Yıl____
4. Çocuğunuzun cinsiyeti (lütfen işaretleyiniz): Erkek____ Kız____
5. Çocuğunuzun kardeş sayısı:

	ANNE	BABA
Doğum Tarihi	Gün Ay Yıl ____/____/____	Gün Ay Yıl ____/____/____
Mesleği	-----	-----
Çalışma Durumu	1. Hayır <input type="checkbox"/> 2. Tam-zamanlı (haftada 40 saat) <input type="checkbox"/> 3. Yarı-zamanlı (haftada 40 saatten az) <input type="checkbox"/>	1. Hayır <input type="checkbox"/> 2. Tam-zamanlı (haftada 40 saat) <input type="checkbox"/> 3. Yarı-zamanlı (haftada 40 saatten az) <input type="checkbox"/>
Medeni Hali	1- Evli <input type="checkbox"/> 2- Bekar, Boşanmış <input type="checkbox"/> 3- Yeniden Evlenmiş <input type="checkbox"/> 4- Dul <input type="checkbox"/>	1. Evli <input type="checkbox"/> 2. Bekar, Boşanmış <input type="checkbox"/> 3. Yeniden Evlenmiş <input type="checkbox"/> 4. Dul <input type="checkbox"/>
Eğitim	(Uygun olan seçeneğin önündeki rakamı daire içine alınız) 1. İlkokul terk 2. İlkokul mezunu 3. Ortaokul terk 4. Ortaokul mezunu 5. Lise terk 6. Lise mezunu 7. Yüksekokul mezunu 8. Üniversite terk 9. Üniversite mezunu 10. Uzmanlık derecesi (master ya da doktora)	(Uygun olan seçeneğin önündeki rakamı daire içine alınız) 1. İlkokul terk 2. İlkokul mezunu 3. Ortaokul terk 4. Ortaokul mezunu 5. Lise terk 6. Lise mezunu 7. Yüksekokul mezunu 8. Üniversite terk 9. Üniversite mezunu 10. Uzmanlık derecesi (master ya da doktora)

Ailenin toplam geliri (Aylık)	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. 1000 TL'nin altında2. 1000 - 3000 TL3. 3001 - 5000 TL4. 5001 - 7000 TL5. 7001 – 10000 TL6. 10000 TL'nin üzerinde 
-------------------------------	--

APPENDIX C

SOCIAL COMPETENCE BEHAVIOR EVALUATION SCALE

In the below list, you can see statements regarding a child's emotional states and behaviors. Using the following scale, please indicate how often you observe the mentioned behavior for the child you are filling up this questionnaire.

I observe this behavior:

(1) Never, (2 or 3) Sometimes, (4 or 5) Often, (6) Always

	NEVER 1	SOMETIMES 2 or 3	OFTEN 4 or 5	ALWAYS 6		
1. Maintains neutral facial expression	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Comforts or assists another child in difficulty.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Easily frustrated.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Gets angry when interrupted.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Irritable, gets mad easily.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Helps with everyday tasks (e.g., distributes snacks).	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Timid, afraid (avoids new situations).	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Sad, unhappy or depressed.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Inhibited or uneasy in group.	1	2	3	4	5	6

10. Screams or yells easily.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Works easily in group.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Inactive, watches other children play.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Negotiates solutions to conflicts with other children.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Remains apart, isolated from the group.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Takes other children and their point of view into account.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Hits, bites, or kicks other children.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Cooperates with other children in group activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. Gets into conflict with other children.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Tired.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Takes care of toys.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. Doesn't talk or interact during group activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. Attentive towards younger children.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. Goes unnoticed in a group.	1	2	3	4	5	6

24. Forces other children to do things they don't want to.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. Hits teacher or destroys things when angry with teacher.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. Worries.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. Accepts compromises when reasons are given.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. Opposes teacher's suggestions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. Defiant when reprimanded.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. Takes pleasure in own accomplishments'.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Turkish version of Social Competence and Behavior Evaluation Scale

Sosyal Yetkinlik ve Davranış Değerlendirmesi Ölçeği

Aşağıdaki listede bir çocuğun duygusal durumu ve davranışları ile ilgili ifadeler yer almaktadır. Verilen numaralandırma sistemini göz önünde bulundurarak ifadelerdeki davranışları anketi doldurduğunuz çocukta ne kadar sıklıkla gözlemlediğinizi işaretleyiniz:

Bu davranışı;

(1) HİÇBİR ZAMAN (2 veya 3) BAZEN (4 veya 5) SIK SIK (6) HER ZAMAN gözlemliyorum.

	HİÇBİR ZAMAN 1	BAZEN 2 veya 3	SIK SIK 4 veya 5	HER ZAMAN 6		
1. Yüz ifadesi duygularını belli etmez.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Zorda olan bir çocuğu teselli eder ya da ona yardımcı olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Kolaylıkla hayal kırıklığına uğrayıp sinirlenir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Faaliyeti kesintiye uğradığında kızar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Huysuzdur, çabuk kızıp öfkelenir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Gündelik işlerde yardım eder (örneğin sınıf toplanırken).	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Çekingen, ürkektir; yeni ortamlardan ve durumlardan kaçınır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Üzgün, mutsuz ya da depresiftir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Grup içinde içe dönük ya da grupta olmaktan huzursuz görünür	1	2	3	4	5	6

10. En ufak bir şeyde bağırır ya da çılglık atar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Grup içinde kolaylıkla çalışır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Hareketsizdir, oynayan çocukları uzaktan seyrederek.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Anlaşmazlıklara çözüm yolları arar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Gruptan ayrı, kendi başına kalır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Diğer çocukların görüşlerini dikkate alır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Diğer çocuklara vurur, onları ısırır ya da tekmeler.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Grup faaliyetlerinde diğer çocuklarla birlikte çalışır, onlarla işbirliği yapar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. Diğer çocuklarla anlaşmazlığa düşer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Yorgundur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Oyuncaklara iyi bakar, oyuncakların kıymetini bilir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. Grup faaliyetleri sırasında konuşmaz ya da faaliyetlere katılmaz.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. Kendinden küçük çocuklara karşı dikkatlidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. Grup içinde fark edilmez	1	2	3	4	5	6

24. Diğer çocukları istemedikleri şeyleri yapmaya zorlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. Öğretmene kızdığı zaman ona vurur ya da çevresindeki eşyalara zarar verir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. Endişeye kapılır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. Akla yatan açıklamalar yapıldığında uzlaşmaya varır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. Öğretmenin önerilerine karşı çıkar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. Cezalandırıldığında (örneğin herhangi bir şeyden yoksun bırakıldığında) başkaldırır, karşı koyar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. Kendi başarılarından memnuniyet duyar.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX D

PARENTAL PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTROL SCALE

<p>Below are a number of statements concerning situations and feelings parents experience together with their children. We request from you to answer the statements by thinking the relationship between you and your child who brought this scale. Please answer all the statements. Please circle the alternative (alternatives vary between 1 and 6) the most applicable to your behaviors.</p> <p>1-----2-----3-----4 Never Sometimes Usually Always</p>	<p>Never</p>	<p>Sometimes</p>	<p>Usually</p>	<p>Always</p>
<p>1. I finish my child's sentence whenever he/she talks.</p>	<p>1</p>	<p>2</p>	<p>3</p>	<p>4</p>
<p>2. I act like I know what my child is thinking or feeling.</p>	<p>1</p>	<p>2</p>	<p>3</p>	<p>4</p>
<p>3. I bring up my child's past mistakes when criticizing him/her.</p>	<p>1</p>	<p>2</p>	<p>3</p>	<p>4</p>
<p>4. I blame my child for other family member's problems.</p>	<p>1</p>	<p>2</p>	<p>3</p>	<p>4</p>
<p>5. I show erratic emotional behavior around child.</p>	<p>1</p>	<p>2</p>	<p>3</p>	<p>4</p>
<p>6. I don't like to be bothered by my child.</p>	<p>1</p>	<p>2</p>	<p>3</p>	<p>4</p>
<p>7. I lose temper easily with my child.</p>	<p>1</p>	<p>2</p>	<p>3</p>	<p>4</p>
<p>8. I ignore my child when he/she tries to get attention.</p>	<p>1</p>	<p>2</p>	<p>3</p>	<p>4</p>
<p>9. I am less friendly with my child if he/she doesn't see things my way.</p>	<p>1</p>	<p>2</p>	<p>3</p>	<p>4</p>

10. I let our child know when he/she has disappointed me.	1	2	3	4
11. I let my child know when I am angry with him/her.	1	2	3	4
12. I say, if you really care for me, you would not do things that cause me to worry.	1	2	3	4
13. I act disappointed when my child misbehaves.	1	2	3	4
14. I tell my child that I get embarrassed when he/she does not meet my expectations.	1	2	3	4
15. I let our child know how disappointed I am when he/she misbehaves.	1	2	3	4
16. I change the subject when our child has something to say.	1	2	3	4
17. I interrupt my child when he/she is speaking.	1	2	3	4
18. I try to change how our child feels or thinks about things.	1	2	3	4
19. I would like to tell our child how to feel or think about things.	1	2	3	4
20. I tell our child that his or her behavior was dumb or stupid.	1	2	3	4
21. I show impatience with our child.	1	2	3	4
22. I go back and forth between being warm and critical toward our child.	1	2	3	4
23. I change moods when with our child.	1	2	3	4

24. I will avoid looking at our child when he/she has disappointed me.	1	2	3	4
25. If our child has hurt my feelings, I stop talking to him/her until he/she pleases me.	1	2	3	4
26. I don't pay attention when my child is speaking to me.	1	2	3	4
27. I tell my child he/she is not as good as I was growing up.	1	2	3	4
28. I make my child aware of how much I sacrifice or do for him/her.	1	2	3	4
29. I tell my child of all the things we have done for him/her.	1	2	3	4
30. I tell my child that he/she should be ashamed when he/she misbehaves.	1	2	3	4
31. I inform my child that punishment will always find him/her when misbehavior occurs.	1	2	3	4
32. I tell our child he/she is not as good as other children.	1	2	3	4

Turkish version of the Parental Psychological Control Scale

<p>Aşağıda anne ve babaların çocuklarıyla yasayabilecekleri durumlara ve duygulara ilişkin ifadeler verilmiştir. Sizden ANKETİ GETİREN ÇOCUĞUNUZLA olan ilişkinizi düşünerek bu ifadelerin sizin için ne derece geçerli olduğunu cevaplandırmanız istenmektedir. Lütfen hiçbir soruyu bos bırakmayınız. Cevaplarınızı size en çok uyan dört seçenekten birini yuvarlak içine alarak belirtiniz.</p> <p>1-----2-----3-----4 Hiçbir zaman Bazen Sık sık Her zaman</p>	Hiç yapmam	Bazen yaparım	Sıklıkla yaparım	Her zaman yaparım
1. Çocuğum konuşurken bitirmesini beklemeden cümlesini tamamlarım.	1	2	3	4
2. Çocuğumun ne hissettiğini, ne düşündüğünü sormam, zaten bilirim.	1	2	3	4
3. Çocuğumu eleştirirken geçmişte yaptığı hataları hatırlatırım.	1	2	3	4
4. Diğer aile üyelerinin sorunları için çocuğumu suçlarım.	1	2	3	4
5. Çocuğuma o etraftayken birden parlar, duygusal davranışlar gösteririm.	1	2	3	4
6. Çocuğumun soru sorup, sürekli rahatsız etmesinden hoşlanmam.	1	2	3	4
7. Çocuğumla birlikteyken kolaylıkla sabrım taşar.	1	2	3	4
8. Çocuğum dikkatimi çekmek istediğinde görmezden gelirim.	1	2	3	4

9. Çocuğum benimle aynı fikirde olmadığında ona karşı soğuk ve daha az samimi davranırım.	1	2	3	4
10. Çocuğum beni hayal kırıklığına uğrattığında bunu ona hissettirim.	1	2	3	4
11. Çocuğuma kızdığım zaman bunu ona hissettirim.	1	2	3	4
12. “Benim ne hissettiğime önem verseydin beni üzecek bu seyleri yapmazdım”vb. derim.	1	2	3	4
13. Çocuğum yanlışdavrandığında hayal kırıklığımla ona gösteririm.	1	2	3	4
14. Beklentilerimi yerine getirmediğinde beni utandırdığını söylerim.	1	2	3	4
15. Yanlış davrandığı zaman beni hayal kırıklığına uğrattığını söylerim.	1	2	3	4
16. Çocuğum bir şey söylerken konuyu degistiririm.	1	2	3	4
17. Çocuğum konuşurken sözünü keserim.	1	2	3	4
18. Çocuğumun bazı konulardaki hislerini ve düşüncelerini degistirmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4
19. Çocuğumun çoğu konuda ne düşüneceğini, nasıl hissetmesi gerektiğini söylemek isterim.	1	2	3	4
20. Çocuğuma yaptığı bazı davranışların “aptalca, ahmakça” olduğunu söylerim.	1	2	3	4
21. Çocuğuma karşı sabırsız davranırım.	1	2	3	4
22. Bir taraftan çocuğumu eleştirirken bir taraftan sıcak	1	2	3	4

davranmak arasında gider gelirim.				
23. Çocuğumla birlikteyken huysuzlaşırım, ruh halim degisir.	1	2	3	4
24. Beni hayal kırıklığına ugrattığında, çocuğumla göz teması kurmaktan kaçınırım.	1	2	3	4
25. Çocuğum üzdüğünde beni memnun edene kadar onunla konuşmam.	1	2	3	4
26. Çocuğum benimle konustugunda ona pek dikkatimi vermem.	1	2	3	4
27. Çocuğuma benim çocuklugumda olduğum kadar onun iyi olmadığını söylerim.	1	2	3	4
28. Çocuğuma onun için ne kadar çok çalışıp yorulduğumu söylediğim zamanlar olur.	1	2	3	4
29. Çocuğuma yaptığımız her şeyi onun için yaptığımı söylerim.	1	2	3	4
30. Çocuğuma, kötü davranışlarından, yaramazlıklarından utanması gerektiğini söylerim.	1	2	3	4
31. Çocuğum yanlış davrandığı her zaman cezalandırılacağını söylerim.	1	2	3	4
32. Çocuğuma diğer çocuklar kadar iyi olmadığını söylerim.	1	2	3	4

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