INTERGENERATIONAL TRANSMISSION OF PERCEIVED MATERNAL ACCEPTANCE AND PSYCHOLOGICAL ADJUSTMENT IN CHILDREN

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

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ABSTRACT

Intergenerational Transmission of Perceived Maternal Acceptance and Psychological Adjustment in Children

This thesis explores the mediating role of mothers' current acceptance of their offspring on the relationship between mothers' own remembered maternal acceptance and these offspring's perceived maternal acceptance. It examines which factors predict offspring's psychological adjustment and whether this prediction changes according to the gender of offspring. The sample consisted of 223 mother-offspring dyads. The Adult, Parent and Child versions of the Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ) and Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) were utilized. The results indicated that mothers' current acceptance of their offspring had a full mediating role on the relationship between their remembered maternal acceptance and these offspring's perceived maternal acceptance, regardless of the gender of the offspring. Offspring's perceived maternal acceptance was the only unique contributor to variability in difficulties score, and the strongest contributor among all variables to variability in strengths score. While offspring's perceived maternal acceptance contributed to their difficulties scores regardless of gender, the correlation between offspring's perceived maternal acceptance and strengths (prosocial behaviors) was higher for males than females. In conclusion, intervention and prevention practices in individual and family counseling might focus on resolving mothers' remembered maternal acceptance concerns in order to improve their relationship with the next generation. Gender of the offspring might be considered especially while working on the development of offspring's prosocial behaviors.

ÖZET

Algılanılan Anne Kabulünün Nesiller Arası Aktarımı ve Çocuklarda Psikolojik Uyum

Bu tez annelerin çocuğunu şuan ki kabulünün, annelerin hatırladıkları kendi anne kabulü ve bu çocukların algıladıkları anne kabulü arasındaki ilişkide aracı rolünü araştırmaktadır. Çocuğun psikolojik uyumunu hangi etmenlerin yordadığını ve bu yordamanının çocuğun cinsiyetine göre değişip değişmediğini incelemektedir. Örneklem 223 anne-çocuk çiftinden oluşmaktadır. Ebeveyn Kabul-Red Ölçeğinin (EKRÖ) Yetişkin, Ebeveyn ve Çocuk versiyonları ve Güçler ve Güçlükler Anketi (GGA) kullanılmıştır. Sonuçlar çocuğun cinsiyeti fark etmeksizin, annelerin çocuğunu şuan ki kabulünün, hatırladıkları kendi anne kabulü ve bu çocukların algıladıkları anne kabulü arasındaki ilişkide tamamıyla aracı bir rolünün olduğunu göstermiştir. Çocukların algıladıkları anne kabulü güçlükler skorundaki değişkenliğe sadece tek katkı sağlayıcı, güçler skorundaki değişkenliğe diğer tüm değişkenler arasından en güçlü katkı sağlayıcıdır. Çocuğun algılanılan anne kabulü, cinsiyet fark etmeksizin güçlükler skoruna katkı sağlarken, çocuğun algılanılan anne kabulü ve güçleri (olumlu sosyal davranışlarının) arasındaki korelasyon oğlan çocukları için kız çocuklarından daha yüksektir. Sonuç olarak, bireysel ve aile psikolojik danışmanlığındaki önleyici ve müdahale edici uygulamalar annelerin gelecek nesiller ile ilişkilerini geliştirmek için annelerin hatırlanan anne kabul-reddi konularını çözmeye odaklanabilir. Özellikle çocuğun olumlu davranış gelişiminde, çocuğun cinsiyeti de göz önünde bulundurulabilir.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The family plays a fundamental role in a child's life. The relationships between mother, father and children have a considerable influence on children's psychological development (Del Barrio, Holgado-Tello, & Carrasco, 2016; Dwairy, 2010; Khaleque, 2015; Khaleque & Rohner, 2002; Putnick et al 2015; Veneziano, 2000) and social development (Eunjung, Geunhye, & McCubbin, 2007). However, the relationship with the mother and father may result in different outcomes for the child's development. For example, when infants are born, needs such as breast-feeding are satisfied by their mothers. The fulfillment of these needs creates a significant bond between mothers and infants (Bowlby, 1982). Therefore, attachment with the primary caregiver has a major role in the development of every human being. Most theorists have also proposed that the relationships with mothers in childhood become a prototype for the formation and course of subsequent relationships (Bowlby, 1982), such as peer relationships (Lieberman, 1977) or adult intimate relationships (Schmoeger et al., 2018). Another relationship which is shaped by the experiences with mothers in childhood is the mother-offspring relationship. That is to say, daughters' current relationship with their own offspring might have overtones from their past childhood experiences with their own mothers.

All people have a phylogenetic tendency to want to feel accepted by others in their interpersonal interactions (Baumeister, Brewer, Tice, & Twenge, 2007; Rohner; 2015). Acquiring a positive response and acceptance is significant, especially from mothers and fathers (Rohner, 1986). Therefore, in order to investigate the mother-offspring relationship and its outcomes, the Interpersonal Acceptance and Rejection Theory (IPARTheory) was utilized in the current study.

When the perceived acceptance between mother and offspring is taken into consideration, studies show that the relationship between mother and offspring begins in the prenatal period (Guleria & Sayegh, 2007). According to Bowlby's attachment theory (1982), children have a special bond with their mothers in infancy, and that bond with their mothers in their childhood continues to influence their emotional reactions to events in adulthood. While Bowlby's attachment theory labelled this emotional bond as attachment, the IPARTheory sees mothers' showing love and affection toward their offspring, either physically or verbally, as maternal acceptance (Rohner, 1980). These two theories are similar in terms of their theoretical basis, both of them being based on an evolutionary perspective (Hughes, Blom, Rohner, & Britner, 2005). However, while attachment theory is focused on infants and toddlers by using laboratory research and behavior observations, the IPARTheory is focused on children, adolescents and adults, using self-reports and interviews (Hughes et al., 2005).

Previous global research findings have indicated that offspring who perceive rejection by their mothers perceive themselves more negatively and are more hostile, aggressive or passive than children who perceive acceptance (Rohner, 1980). Regardless of ethnicities, cultures and geographical boundaries, perceived maternal neglect leads to psychological maladjustment and negative personality dispositions in offspring (Khaleque, 2015). How these outcomes contribute to other generations should also be taken into consideration. That is to say, if a daughter has a perception of acceptance or rejection by her mother, she might have the outcomes as perceiving herself negatively, exhibiting hostile behavior, or experiencing psychological maladjustment, and these outcomes might influence her relationship with her own offspring. Therefore, if mothers' concerns that are related to their own remembered

maternal acceptance and rejection are left unresolved, this might greatly influence the development of the next generation (Lesesne & Kennedy, 2005). More specifically, the fact that perceptions of acceptance and rejection are transmitted from mothers' own childhood to their current mother-offspring relationship is significant for the understanding of the perceptions of acceptance-rejection of the next generation. Therefore, one of the purposes of the present study is to investigate the mediating role of mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance of their offspring between mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance.

The results of previous studies indicate that perceptions of acceptance by mothers and fathers in childhood contribute to outcomes for personality dispositions, psychological adjustment and behavioral functioning later in their lives (Rohner, 1986). Also, perceived parental rejection in childhood is likely to bring about a number of specific socioemotional difficulties such as impairments in social cognition and distortions in mental representations (Rohner, 2004; Rohner et al., 2012). However, it is essential to identify which of the factors play a decisive role in predicting offspring's psychological adjustment in order to improve counseling intervention plans for offspring and their parents. A debate continues about whether perceived maternal or paternal acceptance or rejection predict a child's psychological adjustment more (Putnick et al., 2015). In addition, whose perception in the acceptance-rejection relationship has more predictive value is another important issue. Therefore, another aim of the present study is to investigate the factors that contribute most to offspring's psychological adjustment. Factors included in the current study were remembered maternal acceptance of mothers, mothers' current acceptance of their own offspring, and maternal and paternal acceptance of offspring.

In this present study, offspring's psychological adjustment was assessed as their strengths and difficulties. In addition to predictive factors (remembered maternal acceptance of mothers, mothers' current maternal acceptance of their offspring, and maternal and paternal acceptance of offspring) to the offspring's strengths and difficulties, determining whether this prediction changes according to gender of the offspring is another purpose of the current study.

In order to assess psychological adjustment of offspring, a Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire was conducted in this present study. In regard to offspring's strengths (which is prosocial behaviors in the present study), it has not yet been clarified in the literature whether an association between perceived parental acceptance-rejection and offspring's prosocial behaviors differs for female and male offspring (Putnick et al., 2018). Therefore, the last aim of the current study was to investigate whether factors which are predictive of offspring's strengths and difficulties change according to gender.

To sum up, perceived acceptance-rejection from mothers and fathers has effects on the children's psychological development and personality (Khaleque, 2015; Rohner, 1980). People's quality of life mostly depend on their psychological wellbeing, so, if these effects are not addressed for daughters, their quality of relationship with their own offspring might decrease (Lesesne & Kennedy, 2005). In addition to this, when these daughters become mothers, their influenced psychological development and personality may result in different outcomes for their offspring. Therefore, it is essential to investigate the path from mothers' experiences with their own mothers and its results for the next generation regarding to perceived maternal acceptance and rejection.

1.1 The purpose of the study

The purpose of the current study is to investigate the mediating role of mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance between mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance. Another purpose of the present study is to explore which of the factors (mothers' remembered maternal acceptance, mothers' current maternal acceptance of offspring, and maternal and paternal acceptance of offspring) predict offspring's psychological adjustment. Also, the last aim of the study is to examine whether this prediction changes according to gender of the offspring. The present study aims to investigate the following research questions:

- Does mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance mediate between mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance?
  - Does this mediating role differ for female and male offspring?
- Which factors predict psychological adjustment in offspring: mothers' remembered maternal acceptance, mothers' current perceived acceptance of offspring and their offspring's perceived maternal and paternal acceptance?
  - Does this prediction change according to gender of the offspring?

1.2 Significance of the study

Parents have a major role in the lives of human beings. People experience their first interactions with their primary caregivers, mostly with their parents. These interactions shape their later relationships with other people (Bowlby, 1982; Lieberman, 1977; Schmoeger et al., 2018). One of the relationships that might be affected from interactions with parents is later parent-offspring relationship. That is to say, a daughter's feelings, perceptions and thinking about her mother in childhood

may affect her relationship with her own offspring. Therefore, prospective mothers' childhood experiences are important for the development of the next generation regarding to their acceptance of mothers and their psychological adjustment.

Rohner's (1986) IPARTheory examined the perceived acceptance-rejection by parents. Previous research findings indicated that perceived maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection contribute to offspring psychological adjustment (Rohner et al., 2012; Rohner & Britner, 2002). In other words, perceptions of maternal acceptance-rejection influence people's psychological adjustment outcomes. It is thought that if daughters feel rejected by their mothers, they perceive ongoing challenges in forming and sustaining relationships in their lives (Mosman et al., 2015). They also experience conflict in their lives because the relationships at the central core of their existence, i.e. with their mother, are perceived negatively (Mosman et al., 2015). However, in order to have a good quality of life and relationships, psychological adjustment is essential (Lesesne & Kennedy, 2005). For example, if daughters feel rejected by their own mothers, their psychological adjustment is affected by this situation. Also, their own mothering behavior is affected by these relationships. Therefore, promoting the mental health of women and girls throughout their lifespan is considerably important for their relationships with the next generation as well as current generation (Lesesne & Kennedy, 2005). This current study explored how this path evolved from mothers' acceptance-rejection relationship with their own mothers to their current mother-offspring relationship. This present study aimed to investigate whether mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance mediated between their childhood maternal acceptance-rejection to their current mother-offspring relationship. The daughter might behave toward her offspring with the same mental and emotional challenges that emerged from the perceived parental acceptance-

rejection of her own mother (Lesesne & Kennedy, 2005; Mosman et al., 2015). Savelieva et al. (2017) stated that their study was the first to focus on the intergenerational transmission of maternal acceptance. Therefore, this study is unique in terms of its contribution to intergenerational transmission of perceived maternal acceptance. Moreover, this current study will help improve counseling intervention and prevention programs for the concerns that mothers have as a result of perceived maternal acceptance-rejection. If these concerns are left untreated, they might influence their relationships with their offspring.

Previous research findings indicated an association between perceived parental acceptance and offspring's psychological adjustment (Rohner et al., 2012; Rohner & Britner, 2002). However, perceived acceptance-rejection can be assessed by both parents and offspring (Rohner, 2016). In order to improve efficient intervention counseling programs, it is important to know whether parents' or offspring's assessments about perceived acceptance have greater influence on offspring's psychological adjustment. Therefore, this study explored which factors more have predictive value for psychological development.

Previous research has suggested that there were gender differences between female and male offspring in terms of their response to parental acceptance-rejection (Galambos, Barkers, & Almeida, 2003; Li, 2014). Therefore, it is significant to state how psychological adjustment, which involves difficulties and strengths (prosocial behaviors), varies with the gender of the offspring.

To sum up, conducting a study on the intergenerational transmission of maternal acceptance, including factors and gender differences that predict offspring's psychological adjustment is extremely important if we are to improve prevention and intervention counseling programs.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, the following will be presented: the Interpersonal Acceptance-Rejection Theory (IPARTheory), the intergenerational transmission of maternal acceptance, parental acceptance-rejection, and the psychological adjustment of offspring.

The main focus in the present study is the importance of perceived acceptance-rejection dimensions in the family setting, for which reason the IPARTheory was utilized as a framework and theoretical basis.

2.1 Interpersonal Acceptance-Rejection Theory

The Interpersonal Acceptance and Rejection Theory's main focus is to predict and explain the major psychological, environmental and maintenance conditions under which parents are likely to accept or reject their children (Rohner, 1980, 2004, 2014; Rohner & Khaleque, 2002). In the early 1960s, the main focus of that theory was perceived parental acceptance-rejection in childhood and its effects in adulthood, but by the 2000s, the theory had begun to involve other significant interpersonal relationships, such as intimate adult relationships during one's lifespan (Rohner, 2016). With the change of focus, the name of the theory changed from Parental Acceptance Rejection Theory (PARTheory) to its current name: Interpersonal Acceptance and Rejection Theory (IPARTheory) (Rohner, 2015). In 2016, Rohner explained that, even though the name and the focus of the theory had changed, the effects, causes and other associations of children's perceptions of parental

acceptance-rejection and adults' remembrances of parental acceptance-rejection in childhood were still the main focus of the theory (Rohner, 2016).

Interpersonal acceptance and interpersonal rejection together form the warmth dimension of interpersonal relationships (Rohner, 1980, 2016). The warmth dimension is a continuing dimension in which people can be placed anywhere according to their perceived acceptance and rejection toward significant others (Rohner, 2016), because all humans experience, more or less, love from the people most important to them (Rohner, 2016; Rohner & Khaleque, 2005). The main basis of this dimension is to focus on the quality and components (physical, verbal symbolic behaviors) of the affectional bond between individuals (Rohner, 2016).

The warmth dimension theory includes both interpersonal acceptance and interpersonal rejection (Rohner, 2016), with interpersonal acceptance at one end of the dimension and interpersonal rejection at the other. The interpersonal acceptance is defined as the warmth, affection, care, comfort, concern, nurturance, support or simply love that one person perceives from another person or people (Rohner, 2016). The interpersonal rejection is defined as the absence any positive feelings and behaviors on the acceptance dimension (Rohner, 2016).

The interpersonal acceptance-rejection theory can be studied from two different perspectives, phenomenological and behavioral (Rohner, 2016). According to the phenomenological perspective, perceived acceptance and rejection from others are assessed subjectively by the individual; however, according to the behavioral perspective, an outside individual evaluates feelings and behaviors about acceptance-rejection (Rohner, 2015, 2016; Rohner & Khaleque, 2005). Generally, it is expected that these two perspectives lead to similar results. However, if that is not the case, the IPARTheory suggests trusting individuals' to make own evaluations of themselves

(Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005). In the current study, both mothers and their offspring make evaluations. Offspring and mothers used a behavioral perspective to assess their parents, but mothers evaluated their own behaviors toward their children used a phenomenological perspective. There are three sub-theories of the IPARTheory: the personality sub-theory, the coping sub-theory, and the sociocultural systems sub-theory (Rohner, 1986; Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2012).

Firstly, the personality sub-theory tries to explain how perceived interpersonal acceptance-rejection influence people's personality status and psychological adjustment, such as influences on mental health (Rohner, 2016). The main origin of this sub-theory is the assumption that all humans have evolved to develop a biologically-based emotional need for positive responses from the people most important to them (Rohner, 2015, 2016). In this regard, "people" are crucial for formulating perceptions of being accepted or rejected. These "people" can be any person. For instance, for children, these people are mothers, fathers or primary caregivers, but for adults, these might be their intimate partners. Based on that sub-theory, it is obviously seen that perceived acceptance and rejection from mothers and fathers have a significant influence on the personality and psychological adjustment of offspring. Because of the biological tendency for positive responses, people also need positive responses and need to feel accepted by their parents. If that need is not met by the parents, children perceive themselves as rejected by their parents, so they may experience aggression or passive aggression, and a negative worldview (Rohner, 2004; Rohner & Khaleque, 2005).

Secondly, the IPARTheory's coping sub-theory attempts to explain how some children and adults cope more effectively emotionally than those who have experienced rejection. According to that theory, there are two types of copers:

affective copers and instrumental copers. Affective copers are people who have good emotional and overall mental health, even though they have had rejection from families or other attachment figures throughout their life. Unlike affective copers, instrumental copers have impaired emotional and mental health, even though they are successful in school, in their professions and occupations (Rohner, 2016)

Lastly, the sociocultural systems sub-theory of the IPARTheory is based on the assumption that interpersonal acceptance and rejection occur in a complex ecological context (Rohner, 2016). This sub-theory's main focus is to investigate interpersonal acceptance/rejection between individuals and societies. If the first two sub-theories attempt to explain the interpersonal acceptance and rejection within individuals, this sub-theory focuses on how acceptance and rejection relationships between people are affected by the maintenance system of the society (Rohner, 2016; Rohner & Khaleque, 2005). This means that society has an influence on the acceptance/rejection relationship between parents and children.

Hence, the IPARTheory seeks to explain interpersonal acceptance and rejection, and this is dependent on the three sub-categories described above.

2.2 Intergenerational transmission of maternal acceptance

2.2.1 Maternal acceptance

One of the main purposes of the current study was to focus on how mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance of their own offspring mediated between their remembered maternal acceptance in childhood and their offspring's perceived acceptance of them. Another purpose of the present study is to explore which of the factors (mothers' remembered maternal acceptance, mothers' current maternal acceptance of offspring, and maternal and paternal acceptance of offspring) predict

offspring psychological adjustment of their offspring. The last aim of the study is to examine whether this prediction changes with the gender of the offspring. Thus, understanding "maternal acceptance" as a concept helps clarify its contributions to the development and psychological adjustment of the offspring. However, before coming to the maternal acceptance relationship between mothers and their offspring, a crucial and highly significant bond begins being formed in the early years of life, which also influences the maternal acceptance relationship later on. For this reason, before focusing on the acceptance relationship between mothers and their offspring, previous interactions between them should also be indicated.

First, studies show that the mother-infant relationship has an important role in the offspring's development in terms of life span development. From the early years of the infants, this relationship is shaped through interaction between mothers' response to their offspring's behaviors. One of the main theories that is focused on in mother-infant relationships is John Bowlby's attachment theory. According to Bowlby (1982), human beings have a biologically pre-programmed tendency to develop close proximity to the primary caregiver in their early years. The most important aspect of this theory is that the attachment relationship with the mother in early years influences the offspring's personality and emotional development. In addition to personality, it also contributes to later attachment relationships of the offspring throughout their lives. This theory shows that the bond with the mother in early years has a significant importance across the life of the offspring. In this present study, mothers' acceptance by their own mothers and by their offspring were examined. According to Bowlby's theory, two important processes for mothers, as a child and as a mother, are investigated in the current study.

In addition to Bowlby, some studies have shown that the relationship between mother and child begins in utero and continues after birth (Eichhorn, 2012; Guleria & Sayegh, 2007).

One of the issues that has to be focused on in that process is how mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance of their offspring mediate between their remembered maternal acceptance and their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance, and also the offspring's psychological adjustment.

To begin with, maternal acceptance, which is one part of the IPARTheory, is defined as mothers showing their love and affection toward their children, either physically or verbally (Rohner, 1980). If children experience warmth, affection, care, comfort, concern, nurturance, support, or simply love from their mothers, they perceive themselves as being accepted by their mothers. On the other hand, if they are the target of physically and psychologically hurtful behaviors, they perceive themselves as rejected by their mothers. Mothers can also evaluate their expressions to their children in the same directions of physical and psychological behaviors (Rohner, 1980, 2015).

The perceived maternal acceptance relationship can be assessed from the perspective of both mothers and offsprings. While mothers evaluate how they behave to their offspring, offspring also assess the expressions of their mothers. Actually, agreement on these perceptions gives information about maternal acceptance relationships between them (Rohner, 2015, 2016; Rohner & Khaleque, 2005). Taking this into consideration, studies have shown that mothers reported more parental acceptance than their offspring perceived. Rohner et al. (2005) aimed to explore the relative level of agreement or disagreement between mothers' reports versus children's reports of maternal acceptance-rejection in Finland and Pakistan. Data

were collected from144 mother-child dyads. The Child Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (Child PARQ): Mother version and Parent Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (Parent PARQ): Mother version were utilized. In this study, both mothers and children assessed maternal acceptance. Higher scores on the questionnaire showed higher rejection. Overall results showed that mothers and children in both Finland and Pakistan indicated that mothers were quite loving as a rule (for Finnish children and mothers $M = 103.48$, $M = 103.18$, respectively; for Pakistani children and mothers $M = 98.30$, $M = 101.43$, respectively). The agreement between the children's and the mothers' reports of maternal acceptance was found statistically significant in both Finland ($r = .50$, $p < .001$) and in Pakistan ($r = .34$, $p < .001$). To examine the level of disagreement, according to the Child PARQ results, Finnish and Pakistani families were divided in two different family groups: loving families and less than loving. Children who scored between 60 and 124 were assigned to the loving category, and children whose scores were between 125 and 240 were assigned to the less than loving category. According to the results of the study, there were significant disagreements between mothers' reports and children's reports in loving versus less loving families. In both Finnish and Pakistani families, the loving families results were similar. Although the children of Finnish mothers reported more perceived acceptance, both Finnish mothers ($r = .41$, $p < .001$) and Pakistani mothers ($r = .31$, $p < .001$) reported about the same degree of acceptance as their children did. However, for less than loving families, the results were different. Even though children reported significantly love withdrawal in less than loving families, both Finnish ($r = -.25$, $p < .001$) and Pakistani mothers ($r = .43$, $p < .001$) continued to report considerable acceptance. These results indicated that both

Finnish and Pakistani mothers had a tendency to report increasing perceived acceptance, even though their children reported decreasing acceptance.

In another study conducted in Turkey with 185 children and their parents, Yıldırım- Ekmekçi (2008) examined the congruence of mother-child perceptions. She used the Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ) and Psychological Adjustment Questionnaire (PAQ). These questionnaires were completed by both parents and children. To measure agreement between children and mothers' reports on maternal acceptance, the Pearson Product Moment Correlation technique was utilized. The results indicated that the mean score for the children (M = 85.24) was significantly different from and higher than the scores of mothers (M = 81.20) ($t(184) = -2.327$, $p < .05$), which showed that children reported more rejection overall than their mothers reported. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation demonstrated that the coefficient between the children's perceived acceptance and the reported mother acceptance was .19, which is statistically significant ($r = .19$, $p < .05$). This result indicated that there was low agreement between children and mothers' perceptions on maternal acceptance.

Both studies showed that mothers reported more acceptance than did their children (Rohner et. al, 2005; Yıldırım-Ekmekçi, 2008). Besides focusing on mothers' and offspring's perceptions, how this relationship influences the behavioral, personal and social development of children is another issue, which should also be clarified.

First of all, in terms of the influence of perceived maternal acceptance on child behaviors, studies show that perceived maternal acceptance as reported by mothers is directly related to children's behavioral problems. A study done with 234 child-parent dyads in Colombia analyzed the relationship between perceived

maternal-paternal acceptance and children's adjustment (Lila, Garcia, & Garcia, 2007). In this study, the children completed the Child Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (Child PARQ): Mother and father versions and Personality Assessment Questionnaire, and the parents completed the Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL). The findings suggested that both maternal and paternal acceptance factors explain a unique portion of the variance in Colombian children's self-reported psychological adjustment (for mothers $\beta = .40$, $p < .001$; for fathers $\beta = .31$, $p < .001$). However, for behavioral problems, only maternal acceptance was found to contribute to behavioral problems was found significant (internalizing behavior problems: $\beta = .28$, $p < .01$; externalizing behavior problems: $\beta = .39$, $p < .01$). It was also found that perceived paternal acceptance did not have any significant direct influence on children's behavioral problems. The results of that study indicated that, while both maternal and paternal acceptance influenced children's psychological adjustment, only maternal acceptance had an impact on their behavioral problems.

In another study, Benson, Buehler, and Gerard (2008) based their research on a system called "spillover," which explains the association across family systems. Spillover is operationalized as the transfer of mood, affect, or behavior across families. They examined interparental hostility and adolescent problem behaviors through spillover maternal parenting. As potential mediators, Benson et al. (2008) included four maternal parenting dimensions: maternal acceptance, harshness, inconsistency, and psychological intrusiveness. Their sample included 1,893 students aged between 10 and 14 years old. The Child Behavior Checklist-Youth Self-Report, Children's Depression Inventory-Short Version, the Youth's Report About Interparental Hostility, the Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory, and the Iowa Youth and Family Assessment Protocol were utilized. The results of this study

showed that maternal acceptance indicated a significantly stronger path to internalizing than either harshness (C.R. difference = -4.35, $p < .001$) or inconsistency (C.R. difference = -.2.03, $p < .05$). This study showed that low maternal acceptance was the strongest mediator of the other parenting dimensions (harshness, inconsistency, and psychological intrusiveness) for adolescents' internalizing behaviors.

The above-mentioned studies were cross-sectional studies that investigated maternal acceptance and child outcomes. By taking this a step further, in addition to cross-sectional studies, longitudinal studies related to maternal acceptance led to a better understanding of outcomes for offspring and influences over time. Hare, Marston, and Allen (2011) designed a longitudinal study to analyze the predictive value of maternal acceptance on emotional disclosure and emotional communication over time. One hundred and eighty-four adolescent-mother dyads participated in that study. The Acceptance Scale, the Supportive Behavior Task, and the communication subscale of the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment were utilized. This longitudinal study lasted three years. According to the results, higher levels of maternal acceptance at age 13 were predictive of greater relative increases in observed adolescent emotional disclosure ($\beta = .23$, $p < .001$) and emotional communication ($\beta = .29$, $p < .001$) at age 16. However, while adolescents' reports of maternal acceptance provide predictive value for emotional communication ($\beta = .29$, $p < .001$) and emotional disclosure ($\beta = .21$, $p < .001$), mothers' perceptions of their own acceptance do not provide any predictive value for emotional communication ($\beta = -.02$, $p < .001$) or emotional disclosure ($\beta = .07$, $p < .001$). Results showed that instead of mothers' own reports about maternal acceptance, how adolescents perceive their mothers' acceptance shapes outcomes to a great extent.

Beyond these studies, children's peer relationships were another issue that was investigated in the context of maternal acceptance. Gülay and Önder (2011) compared the parental acceptance-rejection levels and peer relationships of 5-6-year-old Turkish preschool children. The sample consisted of 150 children and their parents. While parental acceptance and rejection questionnaires were filled out by the mothers and fathers, the child behavior scale was completed by the teachers of the children. They found that, while the mothers' acceptance and rejection level had a significant predictive effect on the peer relationships of 5-6-year-olds, the father's acceptance-rejection level did not have a significant predictive effect with regard to the children's peer relationships.

Considering the above-mentioned studies, it is apparent that the perceived acceptance between mother and child has a significant influence on the development of the child in terms of life span perspective. In addition to associations of maternal acceptance with related context, some studies examined the buffer and protective role of maternal acceptance. For example, Wolchik, Wilcox, Tein, and Sandler (2000) examined two aspects of mothering, maternal acceptance and consistency discipline, to see whether they buffer the effect of divorce stressors on adjustment problems. The sample consisted of 678 children, aged 8 to 15, and their mothers. The study utilized the Acceptance and Consistency of Discipline subscales for the assessment of mothering, the Divorce Schedule for Children for the assessment of divorce stressors and the Child Behavior Checklist for the assessment of externalizing and internalizing behavior problems. All children's parents had divorced within the previous two years. That study showed that children reporting high maternal acceptance had the lowest level of adjustment problems. That study shows that the perceived acceptance from mothers buffers the effect of divorce

stressors on adjustment problems. In another study, Brown, Wolchick, Tein, and Sandler (2007) studied whether maternal acceptance was a moderator of the relationship between threat to self-appraisals and mental health problems in adolescents from divorced families. This study was a longitudinal one. They examined changes in adolescents' mental health problems six months later. The sample was 10-12-year-olds ($N = 89$) from divorced families and their mothers. Threat was measured through self-appraisals of adolescents of the most stressful event they had experienced. The What I Felt Scales and the Negative Life Events Scale were utilized to measure threat to self. Both mothers and adolescents assessed maternal acceptance and externalizing and internalizing problems. To measure of maternal acceptance, the Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) was utilized. For internalizing and externalizing problems, mothers completed the Child Behavior Checklist and adolescents completed the Youth Self-Report. The results indicated that the threat to self-appraisals and mother report of acceptance interaction significantly predicted to externalizing behavior reported by mothers ($\beta = -.15$, $p = .01$) and that it also predicted mother-reported internalizing behavior ($\beta = -.14$, $p = .04$). The longitudinal hierarchical regression analyses indicated that high maternal acceptance reported by mothers significantly reduced the positive relationship between adolescent-reported threat to self-appraisals ($\beta = -.15$, $p < .05$) and mother-reported adolescent externalizing ($\beta = .82$, $p < .01$) and internalizing problems ($\beta = .69$, $p < .01$) six months later. The findings of these two studies indicated that children's perceived maternal acceptance in divorced families has a protective role for their subsequent psychological adjustment and wellbeing.

As seen from the studies mentioned above, the perceived maternal acceptance has an influence on psychological adjustment, behavior, emotional communication,

social competence and peer relationships of children throughout life. It even buffers the effect of divorce stressors and has an impact on outcomes for children in divorced families.

2.2.2 Intergenerational transmission of maternal acceptance

One of the most important predictors of parents' parenting quality in their relationships with their own offspring is the mental construction of their own developmental experiences (Belsky, 1984, cited in Eiden et. al, 1995). One of the purposes of the present study is to focus on the mediating role of mothers' current maternal acceptance toward their offspring in relation to their remembered maternal acceptance and their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance. A general review of the literature yielded only a few studies about how mothers' own maternal acceptance influences their acceptance relationship with their own offspring. However, there are studies that focused on the relationship between mothers' developmental experiences in childhood and their current relationship with their offspring, but these studies generally emphasized the personality traits of mothers, parenting style, the type of attachment and maternal sensitivity experienced by mothers in childhood and their transmission to current parenthood. For this reason, the current study focuses on the transmission of only perceived maternal acceptance.

First of all, a parent's (mother's) personality traits influence parent-offspring interactions and developmental outcomes for offspring. Whitbeck, Hoyt, Simons, and Conger (1992) examined the intergenerational continuity of depressed mood and rejecting parenting. The participants were 452 families. Surveys and observations were used and structural equation modeling was conducted. Their study focused on three generations. Generation 1 (G1) refers to the parents' parents, generation 2 (G2)

refers to the parents, and generation 3 (G3) refers to the adolescents (parents G2's offspring). Parental rejection and depressed affect measures were collected by parents (G1) and their offspring (G3). The interviewers visited the families in their homes. They assigned interaction tasks to families, videotaped them and then administered questionnaires. Trained observers rated the videotaped family interaction tasks later to assess the various dimensions of family interactions. For other assessments, self-reports were taken from parents and spouses. G1 parental rejection was evaluated by parents (G2). The current parental rejection of parents (G2) toward their offspring (G3) was assessed through self-reports of the adolescents (G3), parents' reports (G2) and observer ratings. To measure the depressed affect of parents (G2), self-reports, spouse reporst and observer ratings were utilized. To assess the G3's (adolescents) depressed affect, target adolescents were evaluated using self-reports, the report by the same parent who reported on depressed affect of the spouse, and observer ratings. The results showed that mothers' maternal rejection (G2) by their own mothers (G1) was related to mothers' (G2) self-reported depressed affect ($r = .21$, $p < .01$). Mothers' (G2) self-reported depressed affect was significantly related to their current maternal rejection ($r = .22$, $p < .01$), but the same was not true for fathers ($r = .07$, $p > .05$). Another important result of this study is that mothers' (G2) reports about their own mothers' maternal rejection is significantly related to adolescents' depressed affect ($r = .14$, $p < .01$); however, fathers' maternal rejection is not significantly related to adolescents' depressed affect ($r = .06$, $p > .05$). It was also found that both maternal and paternal rejection reported by adolescents correlate with adolescents' self-reported depressed mood ($r = .31$, $p < .01$; $r = .33$, $p < .01$), respectively. The findings indicated that depressed mood in mothers and fathers is related to whether their mothers rejected them.

However, while this rejection is related to their offspring's depressed affect for mothers ($r = .14$, $p < .01$), it is not related to the depression of fathers ($r = .06$, $p > .05$). Correlations are weak from the mothers' perspective, and no significant result was found for fathers in the same situation. This study supports the current study's purpose of examining the transmission of maternal acceptance instead of paternal acceptance.

Beyond focusing on the remembered personality traits of mothers, a number of studies examined how transmission from developmental experiences of mothers to their current parenting relationship appears in terms of attachment. Eiden, Teti, and Corns (1995) studied the relationship between a maternal working model of attachment, parent–child relationships and marital adjustment. Participants in the study were 45 mothers. They were observed in problem-solving interactions with their 16-62-month-old children. They also reported the Attachment Q-set, the Adult Attachment Interview and the Marital Adjustment Scale. The working models of attachment and parenting in that study confirmed that individuals develop working models of self and others on the basis of repeated interactions with caregivers, and these models guide the formation of future relationships. For maternal working models, they examined four maternal attachment classifications of mothers: secure mothers, dismissive mothers, preoccupied mothers and insecure mothers in their attachment to their own mothers. A significant relationship was found among maternal working models, mothers' current maternal sensitivity and child responsiveness [$F(1,42) = 3.50$, $p = .06$], and [$F(1,42) = 3.54$, $p = .07$], respectively. An ANCOVA analysis showed a significant effect of maternal working models on maternal sensitivity [$F(2,41) = 4.24$, $p < .05$]. The findings indicated that preoccupied mothers behaved less sensitively to their children than dismissive or

secure mothers in interactions. The results also showed that maternal working models (the attachment type which mothers had with their own mothers) had a significant influence on their child's responsiveness [$F(2,42) = 3.14$, $p < .05$]. Another important association was found between maternal working models and child security [$F(1,43) = 4.10$, $p < .05$]. It was seen that children of secure mothers (who had secure attachment with their own mothers) had higher scores in terms of feeling secure toward their mothers than children of preoccupied mothers (for secure mothers $M = .60$; for preoccupied mothers $M = .44$, respectively). As a result, this study is important in that it shows how mothers' own family history contributes to the quality of their mothering and their children's responsiveness and feeling secure in their interactions.

In another study, Fraley (2002) reviewed research related to attachment stability from infancy to adulthood. He examined a revisionist perspective and a prototype perspective of attachment. The revisionist perspective is defined as early attachment representations, which are changed later in life, while prototype perspective is defined as the representations developed in infancy, which do not change and which continue to shape interpersonal dynamics throughout the life course. Fraley (2002) tested mathematical models of these two theoretical processes based on longitudinal data of meta-analysis. The results indicated that attachment security is moderately stable across the first 19 years of life. That study shows that a mother's attachment stability and relationship with her own mother has an influence on a mother's relationships with her son or daughter.

Belsky, Youngblade, and Pensky (1989) studied how the relationship between perceived parental acceptance of mothers from their own parents and positive and negative affect directed toward children by mothers would vary as a

function of their marital quality. Participants were 92 mothers and their 3-year-olds. Participants participated starting from the last trimester of pregnancy until the children were three years old. To learn the childrearing history of mothers, mothers completed the Parental Acceptance and Rejection Questionnaire, and Adult Attachment Interviews were conducted. To assess the mothers' current parenting, their interactions with their children were videotaped in the laboratory. For the assessment of marital quality, mothers completed Braiker and Kelley's four-factor scale of intimate relations. The relationship between remembered childrearing history and maternal affect (current parenting) varied as a function of marital quality. In the prediction of the negative affect of mothers under conditions of high marital negativity, it was found that support in childrearing history explained a unique 12% of the variance, [$F(1.43) = 5.86$, $p < .05$] and rejection of mothers in childhood was significant with 27% of the variance in observed negative effect, [$F(1.42) = 18.90$, $p < .0001$]. These results showed that mothers who had high support in childhood had less negative affect on their children, and mothers who experienced high rejection in their childhood showed more negative affect toward their children.

Other than attachment studies, some studies focused on how parenting behaviors pass from parents to their offspring. Lundberg, Perris, Schlette, and Adolfsson (2000) investigated the intergenerational transmission of perceived parenting. The sample of the study was taken from 448 parent-offspring pairs from 67 multigenerational families. The ages of participants ranged from 17 to 90. The EMBU questionnaire was administered, a self-report inventory used to assess the experiences of parental rearing. The associations between the rearing experiences of the parents and offspring were analyzed using Pearson coefficients. They categorized three different parental rearings: rejection, emotional warmth and overprotection.

They firstly examined the correlations between perceived parental rearing by the offspring and perceived parental rearing of mothers and fathers. Then they indicated the correlations between separated by sex of offspring and sex of parent in terms of perceived parental rearing. In father-offspring dyad, the strongest significant correlation was found concerning the experience of emotional warmth ($r = .32$, $p < .001$). The strongest correlations were also seen concerning the experience of emotional warmth between son and fathers ($r = .43$, $p < .001$); and between daughters and fathers ($r = .26$, $p < .01$). For mothers, they found that the relationship between mother-offspring was higher in the overprotection category of parental rearing ($r = .21$, $p < .001$). When the results were analyzed according to the gender of the offspring, mothers showed dysfunctional attitudes (overprotection and rejection), especially toward their sons ($r = .21$, $p < .05$). Another important finding of this study is that, when they compared offspring who had fathers and the 52 offspring who did not have fathers in terms of means for "mother rejection", "mother emotional warmth" and "mother overprotection", they found no significant difference between offspring who grew up with their fathers and offspring who did not grow up with fathers in terms of maternal rearing. As a result, this study showed that, even though fathers had higher significant correlations with sons and daughters in terms of emotional warmth, no difference was seen between offspring with and without fathers. Higher correlations were seen for mothers, especially in terms of dysfunctional rearing attitudes (over protection ($r = .27$, $p < .001$) and rejection ($r = .23$, $p < .05$)) for sons.

Pasternak (2014) compared the intergenerational transmission of parenting style between Jewish and Arab Mothers in Israel. They found that young mothers tend to reproduce their parents' styles, irrespective of their social or religious

backgrounds. While culture tends to influence parenting styles, they did not find any influence of factors such as religion, ethnicity or national origin on the intergenerational transmission of parenting behavior. Instead of these factors, they found that modeling and imitation of parents' behavior had a deeper effect on parenting styles.

In a number of studies, the transmission of attachment and caregiving were studied together. Kretchmar and Jacobvitz (2002) studied how mothers' current relationships with their own mothers are recreated in predictable ways in developing relationships with their infants. The sample included maternal grandmothers, mothers and infants from 55 families. Mothers completed the Mother-Father-Peer Scale (MFP), a self-report questionnaire to assess adults' memories of their significant childhood relationships (two scales were used, acceptance versus rejection by mothers' mother and encouragement of independence versus overprotection by maternal grandmother. In order to assess boundary dynamics, videotaped interactions between mothers and grandmothers were used. The videos were coded blindly. To measure infant-mother attachment patterns, the Strange Situation procedure was used. The videotaped interactions of mothers and infants were coded as secure, avoidant or resistant. The results showed that memories of acceptance and independence significantly predicted their maternal caregiving [$F(2,42) = 2.69$, $p < .08$] and accounted for 7% of the variance in maternal caregiving. Examining how mothers' childhood memories and the grandmother-mother boundary dynamics influenced infant-mother attachment, they found that mothers who were currently experiencing balanced relationships with their own mothers and who remembered being accepted had infants who were attached securely rather than insecurely. Besides showing contributions of mothers'

remembered memories on the quality of their relationships with their infants, the study emphasized that current relationships with their own mothers also shape their parenting and attachment relationships with their own offspring.

In addition, several studies have focused on intergenerational transmission of personality traits of mothers, attachment and parenting; others have focused on maternal acceptance relationships. Zalewski, Cyranowski, Cheng, and Swartz (2013) examined whether there is an association between mothers' childhood emotional abuse and neglect (reported by mothers) and lower levels of child-reported maternal acceptance. Participants were 95 mother-child dyads. The children's were between 7 and 18 years old. Children were recruited from child mental health centers, where they were receiving treatment for at least one internalizing disorder and whose mothers had been diagnosed with major depressive disorder, according to the DSM-IV criteria. Maternal depression was assessed by using the self-report inventory of depressive symptomatology. To assess maternal childhood trauma, the Child Trauma Questionnaire-Short Form was utilized, and for the assessment of parenting, the Child Report of Parent Behavior Inventory (CRPBI) was utilized. The findings showed that a maternal history of emotional abuse was negatively related to child reports of maternal acceptance (r = -.27, p = .01). It was found that maternal emotional abuse accounted for around 7% of the variance in children's parental acceptance. It was also found that mothers with childhood emotional abuse scored significantly lower in acceptance (b = -.57, p = .01). This study showed that childhood emotional abuse and neglect experiences had an influence on those mothers' manner of responding to their children and their children's acceptance of them.

In another study, Mosman, Poggenpoel, and Myburgh (2015) examined the life stories of young women who perceived rejection from their mothers. Participants were eight women aged between 18 and 35 years. A qualitative approach was utilized. To explore and to describe the everyday life experiences of these women, a phenomenological interpretive method was use. In-depth phenomenological interviews were conducted, where they explained the life stories concept as to how the young women who perceived rejection from their mothers integrated their past, present and future. Thematic data analysis was applied. The results indicated that the central theme of the study was that young women perceive ongoing challenges related to their low self-concept in forming and sustaining relationships. Another important result of this study was that these women reported that they have conflicted lives because of their relationship with their mothers. They believed they experienced conflicted lives because of missing fundamental links (such as not feeling mothers' support in painful times or inability to connect with them, as there were no hugs or kisses) in their relationships with their mothers.

More recently, Savelieva et al. (2017) examined the intergenerational transmission of emotional warmth and acceptance. A longitudinal study begun in 1980 and which lasted 28 years, this was the first study to investigate the transmission of acceptance. The sample was from the Finnish population and originally included 1,418 children and adolescents aged between 3 and 18 years and their parents. To define the samples, they used Generation1 (G1) for the mothers, Generation 2 (G2) for their offspring and Generation 3 (G3) for the offspring of G2. In 1980, mothers (G1) assessed their emotional warmth and acceptance toward their offspring (G2). After 28 years, in 2008, G2 assessed their relationships with their own offspring (G3). In this study, G2 did not know how their mothers evaluated their

relationships. For the measurement of emotional warmth and acceptance, two scales were utilized from Operation Family Study (Makkonen et al., 1981, cited in Savelieva et al., 2017). To analyze the data, a structural equation modeling was conducted. The results indicated that the parameter estimates linking G1 and G2 acceptance ($\beta = .20$, $p < .001$) were statistically significant. They found that the association between maternal acceptance of G1 and G2 was marginally significant ($\beta = .07$, $p = .051$). The model explained a small proportion of variance in G2 acceptance ($R^2 = .004$). The results also showed that the transmission of emotional warmth is stronger than the transmission of acceptance. With respect to this result, they stated that acceptance is generally more related to cultural changes in society than to emotional warmth. They explained that, during this 28-year period, Finnish society and its parenting had changed greatly. They thought there might be differences between the evaluations of todays' offspring and offspring who had been assessed 28 years earlier. Therefore, they emphasized need for further studies to conclude whether acceptance is transmitted from parents to children.

2.3 Parental acceptance-rejection and child psychological adjustment

One of the purposes of the current study was to examine which factors predict offspring's psychological adjustment. Predictor factors include remembrances of mothers' maternal acceptance in their childhood, mothers' current acceptance of their own offspring and their offspring's maternal-paternal acceptance. Another aim of the study was to investigate whether this prediction varies according to the gender of the offspring.

Previous studies found an association between parental acceptance-rejection and child psychological adjustment (Rohner & Britner, 2002; Rohner et al., 2012).

Some studies demonstrated that mothers and fathers contribute to child and youth psychological adjustment differently (Veneziano, 2000); however, in this regard, the source (parents' reports or offspring's reports) that is utilized for measuring parental acceptance-rejection is important. Veneziano (2000) emphasized that most of the data were collected from a single source, e.g. only from parents' reports or only from offspring's reports. However, the studies showed that whether assessment of maternal acceptance is done by mothers or offspring makes a difference in a child's psychological adjustment.

Hare et al. (2011) showed that different ways of measuring parental acceptance-rejection from mothers' self-reports and their offspring's reports give different results. They designed a longitudinal study to analyze the predictive value of maternal acceptance on the emotional disclosure and emotional communication over time. Participants of the study were 184 seventh- and eighth-graders (M_{age} = 13.36) and their mothers. For the assessment of maternal acceptance, the acceptance subscale of the Children's Report of Parent Behavior (CRPBI) (Schludermann, 1970, cited in Hare et al., 2011) was completed by both mothers and adolescents. For the assessment of adolescent emotional disclosure, the Supportive Behavior Task was assigned to mothers and adolescents and their interactions were observed. To measure adolescents' emotional communication, the communication subscale of the Inventory of Parent and Peer was completed by the adolescents. This longitudinal study lasted three years. The assessment of maternal acceptance was made when the adolescents were at the age of 13, and further measurements were made at age 16. The findings showed that higher levels of maternal acceptance at age 13 were predictive of greater increases in observed emotional disclosure (β = .23,

$p < .001$) and emotional communication ($\beta = .29$, $p < .001$) at age 16. However, while adolescents' reports of maternal acceptance provide predictive value for emotional disclosure and emotional communication, mothers' perceptions of their own acceptance do not provide any predictive value for emotional communication ($\beta = -.02$, $p < .001$) or emotional disclosure ($\beta = .07$, $p < .001$). Considering the results of the study, it is apparent that, instead of mothers' own reports about maternal acceptance, adolescents' self-reports shape outcomes to a great extent.

Hare et al.'s (2011) findings demonstrated that self-reports collected from both mothers and their offspring about their acceptance-rejection relationship shape psychological adjustment differently. For this reason, in this current study, after examining the intergenerational transmission of maternal acceptance, self-reports were collected from both mothers and their offspring. However, other than focusing on sources of self-reports, there are other dynamics such as the relationship with fathers that also have a role in child psychological adjustment. Many studies have shown that both maternal acceptance and paternal acceptance in a family relational setting contribute to child psychological adjustment.

Lila et al. (2007), for example, studied the relationship between paternal and maternal acceptance and children's adjustment in Colombia. The participants were 234 children and 234 parental figures (mother or primary female caregiver, and father or primary male caregiver). The children were between 7 and 13 years of age ($M = 9.7$). They answered the Child Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (Child PARQ): Mother and father version and the Personality Assessment Questionnaire, and parents completed the Child Behavior Checklist. A regression analysis showed a R^2 of .46, $F(5, 227) = 65.48$, $p < .001$ (.36 change in R^2), which demonstrated that the variability in Colombian children's psychological adjustment

can be accounted for by maternal ($\beta = .40$, $p < .001$) and paternal ($\beta = .31$, $p < .001$) acceptance. The results for behavioral problems indicated that R^2 of .17, $F(5, 225) = 14.19$, $p < .001$ (.09 change in R^2) for internalizing problems, and an R^2 of .22, $F(5,225) = 20.08$, $p < .001$ (.17 change in R^2) for externalizing problems. In addition to this, the unique contribution of perceived maternal and paternal acceptance showed that perceived acceptance from mothers, but not from fathers, was directly related to children's behavioral problems, according to parents' reports (internalizing behavior problems: $\beta = .28$, $p < .01$; externalizing behavior problems: $\beta = .39$, $p < .001$). The findings of this study showed that, while both maternal and paternal acceptance contributed to psychological adjustment (in which maternal acceptance is higher than paternal acceptance), for behavioral problems, only perceived maternal acceptance significantly shaped the outcomes for the children of mean age 9.7.

In another study, Miranda et al. (2016) examined the relationship between adolescent reports of paternal and maternal acceptance-rejection and adolescent maladjustment (anxiety-depression symptoms and aggressive behavior) by focusing also on the direct impact of interparental inconsistency and the specific ways in which mother and father acceptance-rejection combine with each other. The participants of the study were 2,843 adolescents aged between 10 and 16 years ($M = 11.82$ years). To measure adolescent maladjustment, the Youth Self Report was utilized and, for the assessment of perceived parental acceptance-rejection, the Child Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire was used. For analysis purposes, they formed six different family clusters: C1 – consistent high rejection, where both mother and father were rated as highly rejecting; C2 – inconsistent parenting with maternal rejection, where mothers were reported as highly rejecting and fathers were rated no more than moderately rejecting; C3 inconsistent parenting with paternal

rejection, where fathers were highly rejecting and mother rated no more than moderately rejecting; C4 consistent moderate rejection, where both mother and father were rated moderately rejecting; C5 – consistent moderate acceptance, where both mother and father were rated moderately accepting; C6 – consistent high acceptance, where both mother and father were rated highly accepting. The results of this study showed that both maternal and paternal rejection were associated with adolescent aggression and anxiety depression symptoms. In addition, they found differences between these clusters in terms of influence on adolescent maladjustment. Therefore, they emphasized the importance of considering the influence of fathers and mothers separately.

In another study, Ruiz et al. (2016) examined the mediating role of parental acceptance (mothers and fathers) between the father's involvement and the child's psychological adjustment in terms of personality disposition and behavioral problems. The sample consisted of 1,036 non-clinical children 9 to 19 years old. Instruments used were the Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire, Personality Assessment Questionnaire, the Youth Self-Report and the Father Involvement Scale. Data were analyzed utilizing the structural equation model. The findings showed that the father's involvement predicts children's outcomes as mediated by parental acceptance. Another important result was a significant mediation for children's personality adjustment through paternal acceptance as well as through paternal acceptance via maternal acceptance. This study showed that fathers' involvement shapes the family setting in which both the father and the mother influence the child's psychological adjustment. It underlines the importance of considering also the relationship with the father while focusing on maternal acceptance-rejection.

As Lila et al. (2007) and Miranda et al. (2016) demonstrated, both maternal and parental acceptance shape the child's psychological outcomes. However, on this point, the findings of Ruiz et al. (2016) are considerably significant; they demonstrated that, in one-parent family settings, the relationship between mother and child can also affect other family relationships, such as father–child relationships, and vice versa. Thus, studying the relationship with fathers and mothers separately helps clarify family dynamics (Miranda et al., 2016).

Studies which focused on both maternal and paternal acceptance found differences in parents' contributions to their children's psychological adjustment. For example, as mentioned above, Lila et al.'s (2007) findings indicated that the unique contribution of perceived maternal and paternal acceptance showed that only perceived maternal acceptance, but not paternal acceptance, was associated with behavioral problems. In another study, Khaleque (2016) undertook a meta-analysis to explore the relationship between children's perceptions of parental hostility/aggression and their psychological maladjustment and negative personality dispositions, as postulated by inter-personal acceptance and rejection theory. From the meta-analysis, he examined 35 studies on 13,406 children from 16 countries. All utilized the Child Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (Child PARQ): Mother and father versions and the Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Child PAQ). The results showed that the mean weighted effect sizes of correlation between perceived maternal and paternal hostility/aggression and psychological maladjustment of children were .46 and .40, respectively. Another important finding was that the mean weighted effect size between perceived maternal hostility/aggression and psychological maladjustment of children is slightly statistically significant ($z = 3.87$, $p < .001$ (z means the mean weighted effect size))

and higher than the mean weighted effect size of correlation and children's psychological maladjustment.

Both studies mentioned above (Lila et al., 2007; Khaleque, 2016) underline the importance of studying perceived maternal acceptance-rejection independently from paternal acceptance. However, according to the literature, in addition to the contributions of maternal and paternal acceptance to offspring's psychological adjustment, the gender of offspring has a considerable role in this process. For example, Li (2014) examined the moderating influence of parental power and prestige on the relationship between parental acceptance and Chinese adolescents' psychological adjustment. Participants were 335 adolescents between the ages of 11 and 16 (M = 13.57). The measures utilized included a personal information form, the youth version of the Parental Power and Prestige Questionnaire, the Child Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (Child PARQ): Mother and father versions, the Personality Assessment Questionnaire, and the Gender Inequality Scale. The findings indicated that males (M = 35.91, SD = 12.57) perceived their mothers and fathers as slightly but significantly less accepting than did females (M = 32.02, SD = 9.68), (t = 3.05, p < .01). A hierarchical analysis indicated that only perceived maternal acceptance made a unique (independent) contribution to sons' psychological adjustment (β = .35, p < .01), while both maternal and paternal acceptance contributed uniquely to daughters' adjustment (β = .38, p < .01; β = .20, p < .01), respectively.

Both Lila et al. (2007) and Khaleque (2016) indicated that gender of offspring should be taken into consideration in studies which focus on parental acceptance and offspring's psychological adjustment.

To sum up, the IPARTheory forms the theoretical basis of the current study. Research shows that, when studying maternal acceptance relationships between mother-offspring dyads, checking agreement between their self-reports helps clarify their relationships (Rohner et al. 2005; Yıldırım-Ekmekçi, 2008). Numerous studies underline the importance of perceived maternal acceptance from offspring outcomes, such as its role in the behavioral problems (Benson et al., 2008; Lila et al., 2007) and emotional development (Hare et al., 2011). In addition, its predictive effect on offspring's peer relationships (Gülay & Önder, 2011), its buffering roles (Wolchick et al., 2000) against divorce stressors and its protective roles (Brown et al., 2007) in divorced families point to the importance of looking at mother-offspring relationships from acceptance-rejection perspectives. However, one important issue which also warrants attention is how maternal acceptance passes from mothers' relationship with their own mothers to their own offspring. The contribution of mothers' own developmental experiences in their childhood to their current mother-offspring relationships has been considered from different perspectives, such personality traits of mothers (Whitbeck et al., 1992), the contribution of mothers' own attachment history on their current mothering (Eiden et al., 1995), attachment stability over time (Belsky, 1989; Fraley, 2002), parenting behaviors (Lundberg et al., 2000), parenting style (Pasternak, 2014), and attachment and caregiving together (Kretchmar & Jacobvitz, 2002). However, a few studies have been conducted that focus on how this transmission occurs relation to maternal acceptance. Zalewski et al. (2013) studied mothers' emotional abuse in childhood and their manner of responding to their children, while Mosman (2015) focused on the current relationships of mothers who perceived rejection from their mothers. Savelieva et al. (2017) stated also that theirs was the first study about

intergenerational transmission of maternal acceptance, but they had collected the data for assessment of mothers' maternal acceptance in their childhood 28 years ago, so they stated the need for new studies, which examine intergenerational transmission of acceptance. Therefore, examining the mediating role of mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance toward their offspring in relation to mothers' remembered childhood maternal acceptance and their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance helps clarify some of these processes.

Studies related to parental acceptance-rejection and offspring's psychological adjustment, perceived maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection has having a significant influence on offspring's psychological adjustment (Hare et al, 2011; Lila et al., 2007; Miranda et al. 2016; Rohner & Britner, 2002; Rohner et al., 2012; Ruiz et al., 2016). However, it makes a difference whether self-reports of perceived maternal acceptance–rejection are completed by offspring or mothers (Hare et al., 2011). Also, Ruiz et al. (2016) indicated that one relationship in a family setting (like a mother and child dyad) has an influential role in other relationships (like a father and child dyad) as well. Unique contributions of perceived maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection to child adjustment (Lila et al., 2007) and suggestions for studying the influence of mothers and fathers separately (Miranda et al., 2016) emphasize the need to study, specifically and independently, the mothers' and fathers' influence on offspring by also considering the gender of their offspring (Li, 2014). For these reasons, the other aim of the present study is to investigate which factors predict offspring psychological adjustment. These factors are defined as maternal acceptance reported by mothers, maternal-paternal acceptance reported by offspring and mothers' remembrances of acceptance of their own mothers. In

addition, as whether this prediction changes according to the gender of the offspring is a focus of the present study.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The participants, instruments, procedures and data analysis are presented in this chapter.

3.1 Participants

The participants of this study were 223 mother-offspring dyads in Istanbul-Turkey. The mean age of mothers was 38.88, with a range from 27 to 55; the median was 38, the mode was 39 and the standard deviation 5.66. Only 5 mothers did not report their ages. Of the mothers, 31.8% (N = 71) had graduated from primary school and 30.5% (N = 68) had graduated from high school. While 17.5% (N = 39) of mothers' highest education level was secondary school, 16.1% (N = 36) had a university degree and 1.3% (N = 3) a graduate degree. Of the mothers, 2.2% (N = 5) reported that they were illiterate and 0.4% (N = 1) reported that they were literate. Among the participants 52.5% (N = 117) were non-working mothers and 47.5% (N = 106) reported themselves as working. Among the participating mothers, 51.6% (N = 115) had two offspring, 21.5% (N = 48) had one offspring, 19.3% (N = 43) had three offspring, 5.4% (N = 12) had four offspring and 1.3% (N = 3) reported that they had five offspring. Table 1 shows detailed information about the demographic characteristics of mothers.

Information about the children's fathers was taken from the mothers. Among the fathers, 35.4% (N = 79) had graduated from primary school and 25.1% (N = 56) had graduated from high school. While 22.9% (N = 51) of the fathers' highest education level was secondary school, 14.3% (N = 32) had graduated from university

and 1.3% (*N* = 3) had a graduate degree. Among the fathers, 2.2% (*N* = 1) were illiterate and none of them was literate. The fathers of all of the offspring in the study were living. Table 2 shows detailed information about the demographic characteristics of the fathers.

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of the Mothers

Characteristics	*N*	%
EDUCATION LEVEL		
Illiterate	5	2.2
Literate	1	.4
Primary School	71	31.8
Secondary School	39	17.5
High School	68	30.5
University	36	16.1
Above university degree	3	1.3
WORKING STATUS		
Not Working	117	52.5
Working	106	47.5
NUMBER OF THE OFFSPRING THAT MOTHER HAS		
One offspring	48	21.5
Two offspring	115	51.6
Three offspring	43	19.3
Four offspring	12	5.4
Five offspring	3	1.3

Table 2. Demographic Characteristics of the Fathers

Characteristics	*N*	%
EDUCATION LEVEL		
Illiterate	1	2.2
Literate	0	0
Primary School	79	35.4
Secondary School	51	22.9
High School	56	25.1
University	32	14.3
Above university degree	3	1.3
WHETHER FATHER IS ALIVE		
Alive	223	100
Not alive	0	0

The number of the offspring that participated the study was 223. Female participants made up 56.1% (*N* = 125) of the sample and 43.9% (*N* = 98) were males. The mean age of the participanting offspring was 11.19, with a range from 10 to 14. The median was 11; the mode was 11 and standard deviation .91. When the distribution of offspring was examined in terms of ages, 38.1% (*N* = 85) of the participants were 11 years old, 30.5% (*N* = 68) of the participants were 12 years old and 25.1% (*N* = 56) of the participants were 10 years old. While 4.9% (*N* = 11) of the participants were 13 years old, 1.4% (*N* = 3) of them were 14 years old. From the 13 and 14 ages, least participations were observed.

When the number of the siblings of the offspring was examined, it was found that 49.8% (*N* = 111) of participants had 1 sibling and 19.3% *(N* = 43) had 2 siblings; 22% (*N* = 49) did not have any sibling. Among the participating offspring, 6.7% (*N* = 15) had 3 siblings, 1.3% (*N* = 3) had 4 siblings and .4% (*N* = 1) had 5 siblings. A number of discrepancies were found in the reports regarding the number of siblings. For example, while 48 mothers reported that they had only one offspring, 49 offspring stated that they were the only child in the family. While 115 mothers explained that they had 2 offspring, 111 offspring stated that they had only one sibling. In addition, differences were seen in more than 3 sibling statements. Differences between reports of mothers and offspring in sibling numbers might be explained in two ways. There might be stepsisters or stepborthers, or some participants may be confused about whether they should include themselves in sibling count.

Among the participanting offspring, 54.7% (*N* = 122) were the first child in the family and 32.3% (*N* = 72) were the second child. Only two offspring (0.9 %) were fifth child in their family.

All the offspring in the study were school-aged children. Their grade level ranged from fourth two eighth grades, 5.4% (*N* = 12) of whom were in fourth grade, 52.9% (*N* = 118) were in the fifth grade, 38.1% (*N* = 85) were in the sixth grade; seventh and eighth-grade children (combined) were 1.8% (*N* = 4). Table 3 shows detailed information about the demographic characteristics of the children.

Table 3. Demographic Characteristics of the Offspring

Characteristics	*N*	%
GENDER		
Female	125	56.1
Male	98	43.9
AGE		
10 Years Old	56	25.1
11 Years Old	85	38.1
12 Years Old	68	30.5
13 Years Old	11	4.9
14 Years Old	3	1.4
NUMBER OF SIBLINGS		
Only child	49	22
1 Sibling	111	49.8
2 Siblings	43	19.3
3 Siblings	15	6.7
4 Siblings	3	1.3
5 Siblings	1	.4
BIRTH ORDER OF THE OFFSPRING		
First	122	54.7
Second	72	32.3
Third	20	9
Fourth	6	2.7
Fifth	2	.9
GRADE OF THE OFFSPRING		
Fourth Grade	12	5.4
Fifth Grade	118	52.9
Sixth Grade	85	38.1
Seventh Grade	4	1.8
Eighth Grade	4	1.8

3.2 Instruments

Two different batteries were used: the mother battery and the offspring battery. The mother battery includes:

- Mother Information Form reported by mothers [see Appendix E (Turkish version) and Appendix F (English version)]
- Adult Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (Adult PARQ): Mother-Short version reported by mothers [see Appendix I (Turkish version) and Appendix J (English version)]
- Parent Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (Parent PARQ): Mother-Short version reported by mothers [see Appendix K (Turkish version) and Appendix L (English version)]

The offspring battery includes:

- Child Information Form reported by offspring [see Appendix G (Turkish version) and Appendix H (English version)]
- Child Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (Child PARQ): Both mother and father-Short version reported by offspring [see Appendix M (Turkish version) and Appendix N (English version)]
- Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) [see Appendix O (Turkish version) and Appendix P (English version)]

The data collection instruments are summarized in Table 4.

Table 4. Forms Used by Mothers and Offspring

Forms	Mothers	Offspring
Mother information form	✓	
Child information form		✓
Adult Parental Acceptance-rejection Questionnaire: Mother- Short version	✓	
Parent Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire: Mother- Short version	✓	
Child Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire: Mother and father- Short version		✓
Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire		✓

Before administering the Adult, Parent and Child Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaires, a copyright license was obtained from Ronald P. Rohner (see Appendix A).

As shown in Table 4, while mothers answered only the mother sections of the Adult PARQ and the Parent PARQ, the children answered both the mother and father sections of PARQ questionnaire and also the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ). Samples of these forms are provided in Appendices (E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P).

3.2.1 Mother information form

The researcher developed the mother information form. In that form, some demographic information about mothers and offspring was collected, which were: age, education level, working status of mothers; whether the father of the offspring was alive or not and the education level of the father; the number of offspring, age, gender of the offspring who participated in the study; and the number of siblings and birth order of the offspring. The mother information form is presented in Appendix E (Turkish version) and Appendix F (English version).

3.2.2 Child information form

The researcher developed the child information form. Age, gender and grade were asked to offspring. The child information form is presented in Appendix G (Turkish version) and Appendix H (English version).

3.2.3 Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ)

In this part, the Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire is explained in detail according to the handbook written in 2005 by Rohner and Khaleque (Rohner & Khaleque, 2005).

The Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ) is a self-report instrument designed to measure individuals' perceptions of parental acceptance-rejection. There are three versions of PARQ: the Adult PARQ, the Parent PARQ and the Child PARQ. The Adult PARQ assesses adults' perceptions of their mother's or father's behaviors toward them when they were about seven through twelve years old; the Parent PARQ asks parents to assess the way they now treat their offspring; and, the Child PARQ asks children to assess the way they feel about how their parents (mother or father) now treat them. The aim of all these instruments is to measure individuals' perceptions of the warmth and affection received from their parents (Rohner & Khaleque, 2005).

All these Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaires (Adult, Parent, Child) include two sections that relate to mothers and fathers. All versions of the PARQ consist of four subscales, which are warmth/affection, hostility/aggression, indifference/neglect and undifferentiated rejection. The warmth/affection scale is defined as parents' giving love or affection towards their offspring by demonstrating their love in words or actions, e.g. kissing and caressing. The hostility/aggression subscale refers to conditions where individuals believe their parent is angry with them and wants to hurt them, physically or verbally. Hitting the child, cursing at the child, and speaking the child in a harsh way are examples of expressions of perceived parental aggression. Another subscale, the indifference/neglect scale, assesses conditions where individuals see their parent as uninterested in them. They

perceive their parents as cold and aloof to them. A fourth scale, the undifferentiated rejection scale, is defined as the conditions where individuals perceive their parents as rejecting (Rohner & Khaleque, 2005).

Another important characteristic of the PARQ is that it has a long form and a short form (Rohner & Khaleque, 2005). The long form contains 60 items; the short form contains 24 items.

One of the other things that Rohner and Khaleque (2005) emphasized is that when all these versions (adult, parent and child) and forms (short and long) are examined, it is seen that they are differentiated according to the verb tense used (present or past) and according to used individual (mother or father) to whom the questionnaire refers. In used Adult PARQ, items begin as "My mother/father did…" Sample items of the mother version of the Adult PARQ include the following: "My mother said nice things about me", "My mother paid no attention to me". In used Parent PARQ, items begin as "I do…" Sample items of the mother version of the questionnaire include following: "I say nice things about my child" and "I pay no attention to my child." Finally, items of the Child PARQ begin with "My mother/father does…." The mother version of that questionnaire includes following sample questions: "My mother says nice things about me" and "My mother pays no attention to me"; the father version includes questions like "My father says nice things about me" and "My father pays no attention to me."

The response format is another issue that should be explained. In all versions and forms of the PARQ, the same response formats and scoring systems are used. In all versions and forms, participants are asked indicate whether each item is true or untrue about the way their parents behave treat(ed) them or the way they treat their children (Rohner & Khaleque, 2005).

In addition to characteristics of subscales, different forms and response forms, the scoring system of the questionnaire is another issue that must be clarified. It is a 4-item Likert-type scale. Items are “almost always true (4), sometimes true (3), rarely true (2), and almost never true (1).” Each item’s score is summed based on scores stated previously. Some items have reverse scores. The questionnaire is keyed in the direction of perceived rejection.

3.2.3.1 Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ)- Short version

In this current study, three versions of the PARQ (theAdult PARQ, the Parent PARQ and the Child PARQ) were utilized. The short forms were administered.

The short form of the questionnaire contains 24 items. All items in the short form are presented in an order. The warmth/affection scale on the short form contains 8 items, the hostility/aggression consists of 6 items, indifference/neglect scales consists of 6 items, and the undifferentiated rejection scale consists of 4 items. Examples can be given for each subscale. For example, for warmth/affection: “My mother says nice things about me”; for hostility/aggression subscale: “ My mother pays no attention to me”; for indifference/neglect subscale: “My mother makes it easy for me to tell her things that are important to me; for undifferentiated rejection: “ My mother hits me, even when I do not deserve it.”

In this current study, the mother versions were utilized for both mothers and offspring, but only the father version was utilized for offspring.

The questionnaire is keyed in the direction of perceived rejection. It means when the participants experience more rejection, the scores gets higher, and when the participants experience more acceptance, the scores get lower. In the short forms, the lowest score is 24, which shows the maximum perceived love and acceptance. The

highest score is 96 and it shows the maximum perceived rejection. The midpoint score is 60. It means that scores which are equal to or above the 60 show more rejection and scores under 60 show more acceptance.

In the short form, only item 13 under the indifference/neglect subscale scale has a reverse score (Rohner & Khaleque, 2005).

3.2.3.1.1 Child Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (Child PARQ) short version

Both mother and father versions of Child PARQ were administered to offspring in the current study. When the reliability and validity analysis of the Child PARQ were examined, it was seen that the reliability and validity analysis of the Child PARQ (mother version) standard form was done in 1975 by using American Psychological Association's standards (Rohner & Khaleque, 2005). Internal consistency coefficients were between .72 and .90, with a median reliability of .82 (Rohner & Khaleque, 2005). When the studies that were done on the Child PARQ in Turkey is examined, it is seen that it was translated into Turkish by Polat in 1988. The alpha coefficient of the Turkish version of the PARQ scale ranged from .76 to .84. The PARQ reliability alpha was found as .80 (Polat, 1988). In 2003, the Cronbach alpha values for the warmth/affection, hostility/aggression, indifference/neglect and the undifferentiated rejection subscales of the mother version were .91, .87, .86, and .81 for mothers, respectively; and for father version the Cronbach alpha coefficients were .94, .91, .86, and .58, respectively (Erkman, 2003 as cited in Keskiner, 2012). The total values of the mother and father versions were .81 and .85. The reliability study of the Child Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (Child PARQ): Short version was done by Yılmaz and Erkman in 2008 (as cited in Keskiner, 2012).

For that study; eighth-, ninth-, tenth- and eleventh-grade students in Istanbul were selected. The coefficient of the scale was .90. As a consequence of the study, the Turkish Child Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (Child PARQ): Both the mother and father versions are made up of homogenous items that have sufficient internal consistency.

The construct validity of the Turkish Child PARQ was studied by Erdem and Erkman in 1990 (as cited in Keskiner, 2012). They computed the internal consistency of the scale. They found the Cronbach alpha coefficients of the scale to be .90. For the subscales, the results ranged from .78 to .90. The results of the test-retest reliability analysis indicated that the coefficient of the subscales ranged from .85 to .90.

In this current study, reliability analyses of the Child PARQ were also measured. The Cronbach alpha value for the Child PARQ: Mother-Short version is .88 and the Cronbach alpha value for Child PARQ: Father-Short version is .89.

3.2.3.1.2 Parent Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (Parent PARQ) short version

In this current study, only the mother form of the Parent PARQ (Short version) was utilized. When the studies that were done on the Parent PARQ in the Turkish sample were examined, it was seen that translation and adaptation studies of the scale into Turkish were done by Anjel and Erkman in 1993. After their adaptation study, in 2003 Erkman (as cited in Yıldırım-Ekmekçi, 2008) made changes in the wording of the questions. The internal consistency analysis and item-total correlation coefficients of mother form were computed by Anjel in 1993. The total internal consistency of the PARQ was .89. For each subscale, the Cronbach alpha

coefficients ranged from .57 to .80: .79 for warmth/affection, .80 for hostility/aggression, .64 for neglect/indifference, and .57 for undifferentiated rejection. Findings for the item-total correlation coefficients were .78 for warmth/affection, .86 for hostility/aggression, .77 for neglect/indifference, and .75 for undifferentiated rejection on the subscales of the PARQ.

The reliability analysis of the current study showed that the Turkish version of the Parent PARQ has a .79 Cronbach alpha value.

3.2.3.1.3 Adult Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (Adult PARQ) short version

In this present study, the mother form and the short version of the Adult PARQ was utilized to measure mothers' remembered maternal acceptance. Regarding the reliability and validity of the Adult PARQ, studies conducted in America on the Adult PARQ showed that the internal consistency coefficients of the questionnaires ranged from .86 to .95 (Rohner & Khaleque, 2005). In the factor analysis, acceptance and rejection were found to be two main factors. The correlation between these two factors was .55 (Karpart, 2010). The reliability and validity analyses of the Adult PARQ in Turkey were done by Varan in 2003 (as cited in Karpart, 2010). Varan found in 2003 that the internal consistency for the mother and father version ranged from .86 to .96 and the total internal consistency was .97 (as cited in Halisdemir, 2013). Thus, the PARQ is a reliable and valid scale in the adult sample in Turkey. Factor analysis findings of the study that investigated the validity of the scale showed that the total variance explained by two factors called acceptance and rejection is 75.23% for Adult PARQ: Mother version and 74.87% for Adult PARQ: Father version.

In this current study, the reliability analysis of the Adult PARQ was also measured. The Cronbach alpha value for Adult PARQ: Mother- Short version is .90.

In conclusion, in order to assess the reliability of the Child, Parent and Adult versions of the Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ) a meta-analytic study was done by Khaleque and Rohner in 2001 (as cited in Khaleque & Rohner, 2002). A total of 51 studies studied between 1977 and 2000 were examined. In this meta- analysis, they found that most of the alphas meet or exceed the .80. That study shows that PARQ is a reliable measure for research, clinical, and applied purposes internationally (Khaleque & Rohner, 2002).

3.2.4 The Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ)

Strength and Difficulties Questionnaire was developed by Robert Goodman in 1997 (Goodman, 1997). The SDQ is a brief measure of covering the most important current domains of child psychopathology and personal strengths (Muris, Meesters &Van Den Berg, 2003). The SDQ includes 25 items [see Appendix O (Turkish version) and Appendix P (English version)]. It describes positive and negative attributes of children. There is 5 subscales each include 5 items: the conduct problems subscale, the hyperactivity-inattention subscale, the emotional symptoms subscale, the peer problems subscale and the prosocial behavior subscale (Muris, Meesters, &Van Den Berg, 2003). Each item in the questionnaire is scored as "not true=0, "somewhat true=1 and "certainly true"= 2. In this scale, there are two reverse items, which are item 21 and 25. These items are scored as 2 for "not true", 1 for " somehow true" and 0 for "certainly true". The score for each of five scales is generated by summing the scores for the items that make up that scale, thereby generating a scale score ranging from 0 to 10 (Goodman, 1997). Higher scores on the

prosocial behavior subscale reflect strengths, whereas higher scores on the other four subscales reflect difficulties. By summing the scores on conduct problems, hyperactivity-inattention, the emotional symptoms and peer problems subscales, total difficulties can be found (Muris, Meesters &Van Den Berg, 2003).

By summing up item scores, two general results are gained as scores of total difficulties and prosocial behavior. Score of total difficulties comprises of scores of conduct problems, hyperactivity, emotional symptoms and peer problems. These scores reflect the level of the need for offspring in each area. If scores are between 0 and 15, it shows there is a low need in this area; if scores are between 16 and 19, it shows there is some need and if scores are between 20 and 40, it indicates high need for offspring about related area as shown in Table 5 (Cox & Bentovim, 2000). To see strengths of offspring, prosocial behavior score is examined. This score is interpreted as low need for offspring if it is between 6 and 10, as some need for offspring if the score is 5 and as high need if score is between 0 and 4 as shown in Table 5.

Table 5. Interpretation of the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Scores According to Identifying Need

	Low need	Some need	High need
Total Difficulties	0-15	16-19	20-40
Conduct Problems	0-3	4	5-10
Hyperactivity-Inattention	0-5	6	7-10
Emotional Symptoms	0-5	6	7-10
Peer Problems	0-3	4-5	6-10
Prosocial Behavior	6-10	5	0-4

The psychometric characteristics of Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ) were analyzed in many studies, and results of these studies showed that SDQ consisted of five factors related with components of psychopathology and strengths and it has satisfying internal consistency and test-retest reliability (Muris, Meesters, &Van Den Berg, 2003). To measure its reliability and validity a study was done in

Dutch children and adolescents by Muris, Meesters and Van Den Berg in 2003. Participants of the study included 562 typically developing children, adolescents and their parents. The result of the study showed that the internal consistency coefficients (Cronbach alphas) for the various SDQ scales were high and the mean alpha level was found .64. The questionnaire was conducted in a 2-month interval, the intraclass correlation coefficients were found .70 range or higher. In the concurrent validity analysis of this study, results showed that SDQ was correlated with other measure with correlation coefficient ranging from .62 to.74.

In addition to study that was done on Dutch version, the reliability and validity analysis of Turkish version were done by Güvenir, Özbek, Baykara, Arkar, Şentürk and İncekaş in 2008. Participants were included 501 parents and 514 adolescents (ages between 11 and 18) from clinic and community samples. To measure concurrent validity of SDQ, Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL) and Youth Self Report (YSR) were also conducted. While parents completed SDQ and Child Behavior Checklist, adolescents answered SDQ and Youth Self Report. The results indicated that internal consistency for total difficulties was found .73 for adolescent, for strengths it was .54; for parents results were .84 and .73 respectively. For validity analyses, the correlation among SDQ, CBCL and YSR were examined. In validity analysis, the correlation between total difficulties score of SDQ and YSR was .72 according to adolescents' self-reports. According to parents' reports the correlation between total difficulties score of SDQ and CBCL was .80. The results of that study showed that SDQ was both reliable and valid in Turkish sample.

When the reliability analysis of current study was analyzed, the Cronbach alpha value for strengths subscale of SDQ was found .73 and the Cronbach alpha

value for the difficulties subscale was .69. From that analysis, it can be concluded that the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire utilized in this study was reliable.

3.3 Procedure of the study

First of all, the permission was obtained from Boğaziçi University's Institutional Review Board for Research with Human Subjects to conduct the research (see Appendix B).

After receiving approval from the ethics committee, school counselors in the Beşiktaş, Sarıyer and Şişli districts of Istanbul were asked to recommend mothers that have children appropriate for that study. Mothers were reached randomly. Data were collected from mothers who volunteered and their children during May, June and July of 2017. After that, in order to reach more mothers, teachers and school counselors in the schools were asked again whether they knew more mothers who could participate A package of questionnaires was sent to the mothers for them complete and to take permission for their offspring. In that package, there were consent forms to be signed by the parents for their offspring to respond to the questionnaires [see in Appendix C (Turkish version) and Appendix D (English version)], the personal information forms for mothers [see in Appendix E (Turkish version) and Appendix F (English version)] and for offspring [see in Appendix G (Turkish version) and Appendix H (English version)] and also questionnaires [see in Appendix I-J-K-L-M-N)]. After that package was returned by mothers, they were examined. If the offspring's mothers signed permission letter in informed consent forms, the questionnaires were administered to the children by the researcher. It was difficult for researcher to administer the questionnaires to some children, in which case the researcher met mothers and teachers and told them application procedures of

questionnaires. Questionnaires were distributed to 1,000 mothers. They were sent to the home of mothers. Only 242 mothers filled out the questionnaires and signed consent form letters for their children.

The data collection continued one and half months. One thousand packages of questionnaires were sent to the houses for mothers with the help of known mothers, teachers and school counselors. Time between sending questionnaires and taking them back varied for every questionnaire. However, only 242 of them came back.

To prevent confusion, an ID number was given to each package. A mother and her offspring had the same ID number. Names of participants were not used on the instruments. Only the ID number was stated on the instruments.

3.4 Data analysis

The Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS- version 24.0) were used. Appropriate methods of statistical analyses were used in the directions of measurements. To indicate the reliability values of the Adult PARQ: Mother- Short version, the Parent PARQ- Mother: Short version, the Child PARQ: Mother and Father-Short versions and the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaires (SDQ), Cronbach alpha values were calculated. More analyses related to research questions were conducted to investigate relationships between variables.

After data collection, a codebook was formed. A codebook provided a set of rules for assigning numerical values to answers obtained from the respondents (Kumar, 2014). All information forms and questionnaires were examined and each item in all these forms and questionnaires was defined in the codebook.

After defining each item numerically, according to the direction of the codebook, data was entered into the SPSS program. First the demographic information was entered, and after that, responses to the questionnaires were entered. The most important thing in the entry process was entering the mother and her offspring in the same row, because this is a dyadic study and it is important to form mother-offspring dyads to clarify results.

Statistical analyses were conducted. From the total of 242 questionnaires, 19 were excluded during the data coding process. Fifteen were not completely filled and 1 questionnaire was excluded because the participant's father had died when he was a baby; and 3 questionnaires were excluded because these participants were older than the rest of the sample. Rohner's criteria (2004) were used for unfilled questionnaires. This criterion is one item that may be left unanswered in any scale; however, no more than two items can be left empty in the entire questionnaire (Rohner, 2004). After the exclusions, 223 questionnaires from mothers and 223 questionnaires from their children were gained.

In order to see the demographic characteristics of the participants, preliminary analyses were conducted to determine frequencies, means, standard deviations, maximum and minimum scores, and percentages.

The basic statistical technique utilized to analyze the research questions was multiple regression. For the first research question, mediational analyses were conducted to investigate the mediating role of the current perceived maternal acceptance of mothers on the relationship between remembered maternal acceptance reported by mothers and perceived maternal acceptance reported by their offspring. To examine the results of the mediation analyses, confidence intervals were calculated with a bootstrapping test.

Figure 1 shows the path model, representing a causal process in which X (independent variable=predictor), affects Y (dependent variable=criterion), where *c* refers to the total effects X has on Y.

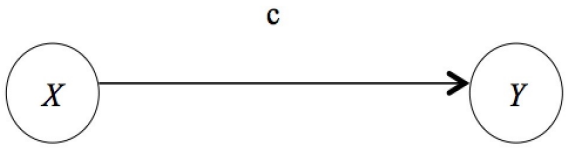


Figure 1. Path model showing the total effect

Figure 2 demonstrates a simple mediation path model. In this path model, *a* represents the relationship of the independent variable (predictor) to the mediator, *b* represents the relationship of the mediator to the dependent variable (criterion), and *c*' the relationship of the independent variable (predictor) to the dependent variable after controlling for the mediator. The mediating role of *M* between the independent variable X and the dependent variable Y (c') is called an indirect effect.

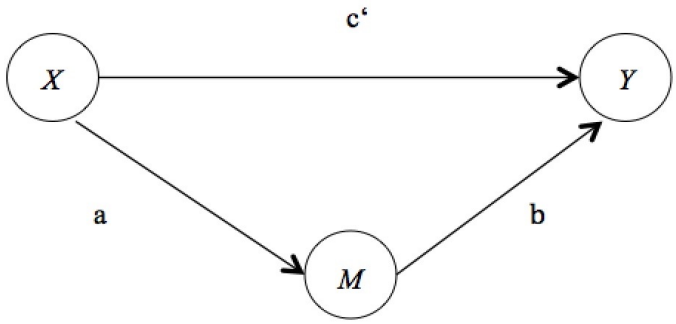


Figure 2. Path model showing the mediation

Figure 3 represents the mediation path model of the current study. The independent variable (predictor) is remembered maternal acceptance reported by mothers, the dependent variable (criterion) is perceived maternal acceptance reported by offspring, and the mediator is mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance towards their offspring.

To test the mediation analysis, Baron and Kenny's (1986) four steps were used as shown in Table 6. In the first step, a significant relationship of independent variable (X) to the dependent variable (Y) is needed, to measure total effect. In the second step, a significant relationship of the independent variable X to the mediator (M) is needed. In the third step, the mediator (M) is required to be significantly related to dependent variable (Y) when both independent variable (X) and mediator (M) are used as predictors. In the fourth step, after the mediator (M) is controlled, no significant prediction of independent variable X to dependent variable (Y) is required.

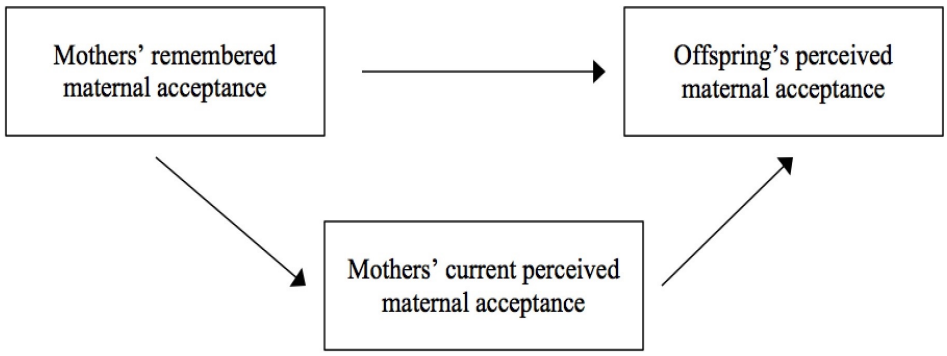


Figure 3. Mediation model of the study

Table 6. Steps for Mediation Analysis

	Analysis	Visual Depiction
Step 1	Conduct a simple regression analysis with X predicting Y to test for path c alone	X —c→ Y
Step 2	Conduct a simple regression analysis with X predicting M to test for path a	X —a→ M
Step 3	Conduct a simple regression analysis with M predicting Y to test for path b	M —b→ Y
Step 4	Conduct a multiple regression analysis with X and M predicting Y	X —c'→ Y M —b→ Y

The second purpose of the present study is to investigate which factors predict offspring psychological adjustment by controlling for paternal acceptance-rejection. These factors are defined as current maternal acceptance reported by mothers, maternal acceptance reported by offspring and mothers' remembrances of acceptance to their own mothers. To analyze this, two simultaneous regression analyses were conducted. Before doing the regression analysis, assumptions such collinearity diagnosis, Tolerance and VIF values and multicollinearity were checked. Another purpose of this study is to examine whether this prediction changes according to the gender of offspring. To achieve this, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted by utilizing interaction analysis. In the first model (step 1), all the variables which are remembered maternal acceptance of mothers reported by mothers, mothers' current maternal acceptance, both the offspring's maternal and paternal acceptance and gender were run as predictors. After that, according to the results of the simultaneous regression analysis (which was conducted on the previous research question), a higher predictor of offspring's psychological adjustment was chosen and an interaction was applied between the gender of the offspring and the higher predictor variable of the offspring's psychological adjustment. In the second model (step 2), in addition to other variables, the interaction between the gender of the offspring and the higher predictor variable of offspring's psychological adjustment was added as the last variable. Finally, whether the addition of this interaction to the model made any change in the variance of the offspring's psychological adjustment was analyzed. This analysis was conducted for both total difficulties and strengths measurements of the offspring's psychological adjustment.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Overview: Organization of results

The results of the present study are presented in four sections: (1) descriptive analysis of measures, (2) the correlations among variables, (3) results addressing the mediating role of mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance on the relationship between mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance (the first research question), (4) results addressing which of the factors (namely mothers' remembered maternal acceptance, mothers' current maternal acceptance towards their own offspring, offspring's perceived maternal-paternal acceptance) predict psychological adjustment in offspring and whether this prediction changes according to the gender of the offspring (the second research question).

4.2 Presentation of the results

4.2.1 Descriptive analyses of measures

The variables of the study are remembered maternal acceptance of mothers, mothers' current acceptance of their offspring, their offspring's perceived maternal-paternal acceptance and psychological adjustment. The descriptive analysis of these variables' measurements is presented as mean, minimum, maximum and standard deviation in Table 7.

According to the descriptive analyses of measures shown in Table 7, the mean of the Adult PARQ is 36.31, with minimum scores of 24 and maximum 84.

The mean of the Parent PARQ is 29.90, with minimum scores of 24 and maximum 51. The mean of the Child PARQ: Mother version was 30.76, with minimum scores of 24 and maximum 74. The mean of father version of the Child PARQ was 32.15 with minimum scores of 24 and maximum 70. When all these means were taken into consideration, it can be concluded that, while the lowest rejection score is seen in the Parent PARQ, with a mean score of 29.90 (*SD* = 5.85), the highest rejection is observed in the Adult PARQ score, with 36.31 (*SD* = 11.25).

In addition to the PARQ questionnaires, the mean score of the SDQ's total difficulties subscale was 14.12, with minimum scores of 4 and maximum 33, as shown in Table 7. When the pro-social behavior was analyzed, the mean was measured as 8.47, with minimum scores of 0 and maximum 10. In addition to these measurements, subscales of total difficulties showed that, while the maximum mean level among the subscales was seen in peer problems, with a mean of 4.70, the minimum mean level was observed in both emotional symptoms, with the mean score of 2.78 and conduct problems, with a mean level of 2.78. Thus, while the mean of total difficulties score was 14.12, indicating that the children in the current study had low need in these areas, the mean for pro-social behavior was 8.47, which showed that children require low support in that area.

The results of the Stregths and Difficulties Questionnaire demonsrated that, while offspring's difficulties include conduct problems, hyperactivity, and emotional symptoms as a low-need area, peer problems are in the some-need area. It was also observed that offspring need low support for their prosocial behavior, as shown in Table 8.

Table 7. Means, Minimum/Maximum Scores and Standard Deviation for Measures

Measure	Max	Min	Mean	(SD)
Adult PARQ: Mother-SV	84	24	36.31	11.25
Parent PARQ: Mother- SV	51	24	29.90	5.85
Child PARQ: Mother-SV	74	24	30.76	8.29
Child PARQ: Father-SV	70	24	32.15	8.93
SDQ- Total Difficulties	33	4	14.12	5.20
Conduct Problems	8	0	2.78	1.47
Hyperactivity	10	0	3.86	2.12
Emotional Symptoms	10	0	2.78	2.23
Peer Problems	10	0	4.70	1.64
SDQ- Strengths				
Pro-social behavior	10	0	8.47	1.91

Note. Adult PARQ: Mother- SV (Adult Parental Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire: Mother- Short version), Child PARQ: Father-SV (Child Parental Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire: Father-Short version), Child PARQ: Mother- SV (Child Parental Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire: Mother- Short version), Parent PARQ: Mother- SV (Parent Parental Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire: Mother- Short version), SDQ (Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire).

Table 8. Interpretation of the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire Scores According to Identified Need

	Low need	Some need	High need
Total Difficulties	14.12		
Conduct Problems	2.78		
Hyperactivity	3.86		
Emotional Symptoms	2.78		
Peer Problems		4.70	
Pro-social Behavior	8.47		

4.2.2 Correlations among variables

The relationships between mothers' remembered maternal acceptance, measured by the Adult PARQ: Mother- Short Version; the mother's current perceived acceptance of her offspring, measured by the Parent PARQ: Mother- Short Version; the offspring's acceptance of their mother and father, measured by the Child PARQ: Mother and Father-Short Versions; and the total difficulties and strengths of offspring, measured by the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire were analyzed

by using the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient. The correlation coefficients of these variables are presented in Table 9.

Table 9 shows that mothers' remembered maternal acceptance had significant correlations with all measures of the Parental Acceptance and Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ). However, it did not correlate with all measures of the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ). The highest and most positive correlation was between the mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and their acceptance of their own offspring ($r = .45$, $p < .01$). Moreover, a correlation was found between mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and the offspring's acceptance of the mother ($r = .29$, $p < .01$).

Also shown in Table 9 is the strong correlation between a mother's acceptance of her offspring and the offspring's acceptance of the mother ($r = .49$, $p < .01$). In addition, a strong positive correlation was found between a mother's acceptance of her own offspring and the offspring's acceptance of the father ($r = .44$, $p < .01$). In addition to correlations with PARQ, it was also seen that the mothers' perceptions about how they reject their own offspring correlated significantly with the offspring's difficulties ($r = .19$, $p < .01$) and strengths ($r = -.18$, $p < .01$).

In addition to these measures, when the offspring's perceived paternal and maternal acceptance was examined, the highest correlation was between offspring maternal and paternal acceptance ($r = .64$, $p < .01$) (see Table 9). According to the correlation coefficients, while offspring maternal rejection correlated with difficulties ($r = .39$, $p < .01$) and strengths of the offspring ($r = -.35$, $p < .01$), offspring paternal rejection also correlated with difficulties ($r = .33$, $p < .01$) and strengths ($r = -.32$, $p < .01$).

Table 9 also indicates correlations of the measurements. The mothers' remembered maternal acceptance had significant correlations with their acceptance of their own offspring and their offspring's acceptance of their mothers. A significant correlation was also found between mothers' acceptance of their offspring and the offspring's acceptance of the mother. The highest correlation was found between the offspring's maternal and paternal acceptance. Correlations were also found between the offspring's strengths and difficulties and measures of acceptance, except for the remembered maternal acceptance of mothers.

Table 9. Correlations between Adult PARQ: Mother, Parent PARQ: Mother, Child PARQ: Mother, Child PARQ: Father, SDQ- (Total Difficulties and Strengths)

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Adult PARQ: Mother-SV	-	.45**	.29**	.32**	.11	-.10
2. Parent PARQ: Mother-SV		-	.49**	.44*	.19**	-.18**
3. Child PARQ: Mother-SV			-	.64**	.39**	-.35**
4. Child PARQ: Father-SV				-	.33**	-.32**
5. SDQ- Total Difficulties					-	-.41
6. SDQ-Strengths						-

Notes. Adult PARQ: Mother-SV (Adult Parental Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire: Mother-Short version), Child PARQ: Father-SV (Child Parental Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire: Father-Short version), Child PARQ: Mother-SV (Child Parental Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire: Mother-Short version), Parent PARQ: Mother-SV (Parent Parental Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire: Mother-Short version), SDQ (Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire). **$p < .01$.

4.2.3 Mediating role of mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance of their offspring on the relationship between mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance

The purpose of the first research question was to investigate the mediating role of mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance on the relationship between mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and their offspring's maternal acceptance. The predictor variable (independent variable) was the mothers' remembered maternal acceptance; the outcome variable (dependent variable) was the

offspring's reports about their own perceived maternal acceptance. The mediation model used in this current studty is shown in Figure 4.

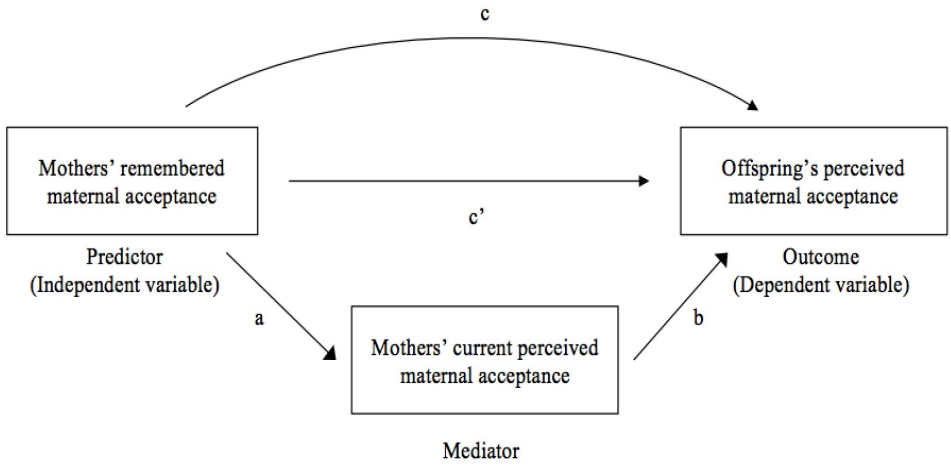


Figure 4. Mediation model of the present study

To test mediation model, some prerequisites must be met. The first is the mediator: the mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance should correlate significantly with the outcomes, which are offspring's perceived maternal acceptance (Criterion 1), the second one is the predictor: the mothers' remembered maternal acceptance must be associated significantly with the mediator (Criterion 2), and the independent variable must be significantly correlated with the criterion, the offspring's perceptions about maternal acceptance (Criterion 3) (Baron & Kenny, 1986). To establish mediation, Baron and Kenny (1986) explained four steps:

Step 1: Show that the mediator affects the outcome variable.

Step 2: Show that the predictor is correlated with the mediator.

Step 3: Show that predictor is correlated with the outcome.

Step 4: Evaluate a statistical model of mediation.

In the present study, this mediation model was applied to all samples. After that, offspring were split according to their gender and this mediation model was applied separately for female and male offspring.

4.2.3.1 Mediation Model

Step 1: Mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance as a predictor of offspring's perceived maternal acceptance. (Mediator and outcome).

The results indicated that mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance made a significant contribution to the prediction (24% adjusted R^2) of their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance, $\beta = .49$, $F(1,221) = 71.18$, $p < .05$ (see Table 10, Criterion 1).

Step 2: Mothers' remembered maternal acceptance as predictor of mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance towards their offspring.

The results showed that mothers' remembered maternal acceptance made a significant contribution to the prediction (20% adjusted R^2) of mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance, $\beta = .45$, $F(1, 221) = 55.173$, $p < .05$ (see Table 10, Criterion 2).

Step 3: Mothers' remembered maternal acceptance as predictor of the offspring's perceived maternal acceptance.

Mothers' remembered maternal acceptance made a significant contribution to the prediction (8% adjusted R^2) of their offspring's perceptions of maternal acceptance, $\beta = .29$, $F(1,221) = 20.77$, $p < .05$ (see Table 10 Criterion 3).

Step 4: Mediational Model: Mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance as mediator between mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance.

A regression analysis was conducted to measure whether mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance mediated the relationship between their remembered maternal acceptance and their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance. In combination, the mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and the current maternal acceptance explained 24% (adjusted R^2) of variance in offspring's perceived maternal acceptance, $F(2, 220) = 36.70$, $p = .000$. The mothers' remembered maternal acceptance ($\beta = .09$, $p = .17$) is not significantly correlated with the offspring's perceived maternal acceptance. However, mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance is significantly correlated with their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance, ($\beta = .45$, $p < .05$). This result shows that the association between mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance is mediated when the mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance is added to the regression model ($\beta = .45$, $p < .05$). According to this result, the association between the predictor (mothers' remembered maternal acceptance) and the outcome (offspring's perceived maternal acceptance) was insignificant when the mediator was added to the model. It demonstrated that there was a full mediation in this study. The Sobel test indicated that mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance significantly mediated the association between their remembered maternal acceptance and their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance ($z = 5.04$, $p < .05$).

To conclude, mediation model analysis indicated that mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance has a mediating role on the relationship between mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance. According to these results, when mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance is added to the relationship, the mothers' remembered maternal

acceptance was insignificant, indicating that mothers' current perception fully mediates that relationship. After this analysis, an analysis was done to assess whether that mediation model differed according to the offspring's gender. In this part, two mediation analyses were conducted to indicate mediation model for female and male offspring. To analyze those models, the sample of offspring was split into gender groups. A mediation analysis was conducted first for female offspring, and then the same analysis was conducted for male offspring.

Table 10. Standardized Regression Coefficients for Predicting Offspring's Perceived Maternal Acceptance from Mothers' Current Perceived Maternal Acceptance and Mothers' Remembered Maternal Acceptance

	Criterion 1 Offspring's Perceived Maternal Acceptance (Outcome)	Criterion 2 Mothers' Current Perceived Maternal Acceptance (Mediator)	Criterion 3 Offspring's Perceived Maternal Acceptance (Outcome)	Mediational Model Offspring's Perceived Maternal Acceptance (Outcome)
Mothers' Remembered Maternal Acceptance (Predictor)		.45*	.29*	.09
Mothers' Current Maternal Acceptance (Mediator)	.49*			.45*
R^2	.24*	.20*	.08*	.24*

Note. *$p < .05$.

4.2.3.2 Mediation Model For Female Offspring

This analysis was conducted to investigate the mediating role of mothers' perceived maternal acceptance on the relations between their remembered maternal acceptance and their female offspring's perceived maternal acceptance. Actually, the mediation model is similar to the general population's mediation model (as shown in Figure 4). The model for female offspring is explained in Figure 5.

Step 1: Mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance as a predictor of female offspring's perceived maternal acceptance.

Mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance made a significant contribution to the prediction (30% adjusted R^2) of female offspring's perceived maternal acceptance, $\beta = .55$, $F(1,123) = 53.84$, $p < .05$ (see Table 11, Criterion 1).

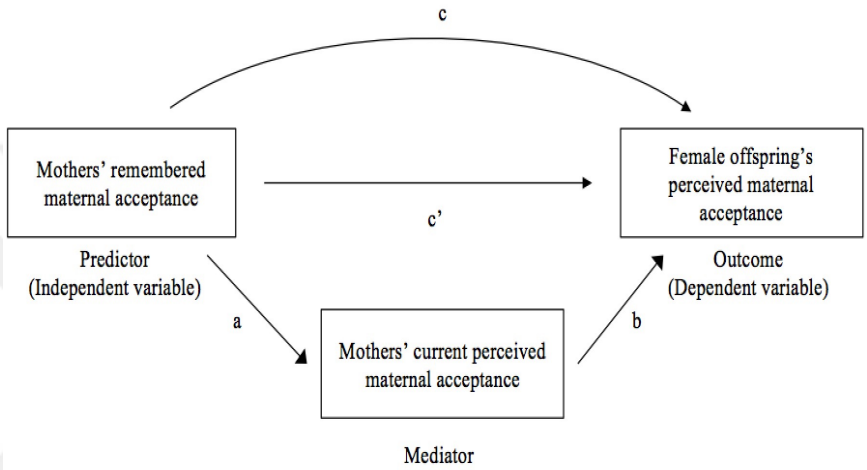


Figure 5. Mediation model for female offspring

Step 2: Mothers' remembered maternal acceptance as a predictor of mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance of female offspring.

The results showed that mothers' remembered maternal acceptance made a significant contribution to the prediction (22% adjusted R^2) of mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance, $\beta = .46$, $p < .05$ (see Table 11, Criterion 2).

Step 3: Mothers' remembered maternal acceptance as predictor of the female offspring's perceived maternal acceptance.

The results indicated that mothers' remembered maternal acceptance made a significant contribution to the prediction (9% adjusted R^2) of female offspring's perceived maternal acceptance, $\beta = .30$, $F(1,123) = 12.45$, $p < .05$ (see Table 11, Criterion 3).

Step 4: Mediational Model: Mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance as a mediator between mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and their female offspring's perceived maternal acceptance.

A regression analysis was conducted to measure whether mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance mediated the relationship between the their remembered maternal acceptance and the female offspring's perceived maternal acceptance. In combination, mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and current maternal acceptance explained 30% (adjusted R^2) of variance in their female offspring's perceived maternal acceptance, F (2,122) = 27.06, $p < .05$, (see Table 11, Mediational, Model). Mothers' remembered maternal acceptance ($\beta = .06$, $p = .48$) is not significantly correlated with their female offspring's perceived maternal acceptance. However, mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance is significantly correlated with ($\beta = .52$, $p < .05$) with their female offspring's perceived maternal acceptance. This result shows that the association between mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and their female offspring's perceived maternal acceptance is mediated when mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance is added to the regression model ($\beta = .52$, $p < .05$). According to this result, the association between the predictor (mothers' remembered maternal acceptance) and the outcome (female offspring's perceived maternal acceptance) was insignificant when the mediator was added to the model. It demonstrated that there was a full mediation in this study.

The Sobel test indicated that mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance significantly mediated the association between their remembered maternal acceptance and their female offspring's perceived maternal acceptance ($z = 4.20$, $p < .05$).

Table 11. Standardized Regression Coefficients for Predicting Female Offspring's Perceived Maternal Acceptance from Mothers' Current Perceived Maternal Acceptance and Mothers' Remembered Maternal Acceptance

	Criterion 1 Female Offspring's Perceived Maternal Acceptance (Outcome)	Criterion 2 Mothers' Current Perceived Maternal Acceptance (Mediator)	Criterion 3 Female Offspring's Perceived Maternal Acceptance (Outcome)	Mediational Model Female Offspring's Perceived Maternal Acceptance (Outcome)
Mothers' Remembered Maternal Acceptance (Predictor)		.46*	.30*	.06
Mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance (Mediator)	.55*			.52*
R^2	.30*	.22*	.09*	.30*

Note. * $p < .05$.

4.2.3.3 Mediation Model For Male Offspring

This analysis was conducted to indicate the mediating role of mothers' perceived maternal acceptance on the relationship between their remembered maternal acceptance and their male offspring's perceived maternal acceptance. As explained before, a 4-step procedure was utilized. The mediation model is similar to the mediation model for the general population. The model for male offspring is explained in Figure 6.

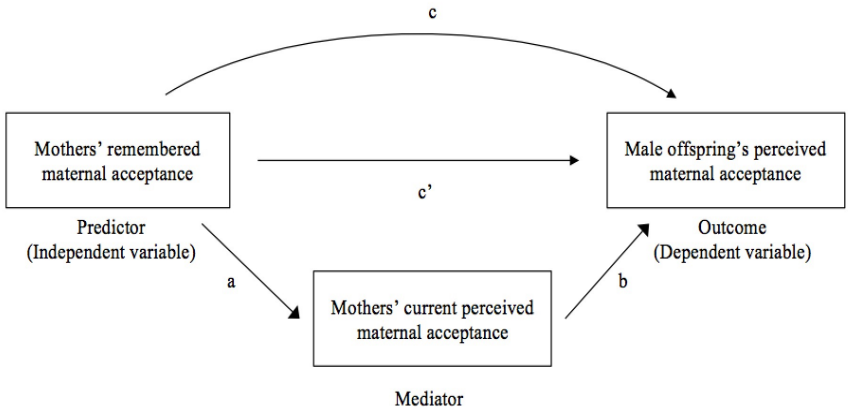


Figure 6. Mediation model for male offspring

Step 1: Mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance as a predictor of male offspring's perceived maternal acceptance.

Mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance made a significant contribution to the prediction (16% adjusted R^2) of male offspring's perceived maternal acceptance, $\beta = .41$, $F(1,96) = 19,75$, $p < .05$ (see Table 12, Criterion 1).

Step 2: Mothers' remembered maternal acceptance as a predictor of their current perceived maternal acceptance of their male offspring.

The results showed that mothers' remembered maternal acceptance made a significant contribution to the prediction (18% adjusted R^2) of mothers' perceptions about their current maternal acceptance, $\beta = .42$, $p < .05$ (see Table 12).

Step 3: Mothers' remembered maternal acceptance as predictor of the male offspring's perceived maternal acceptance.

The results indicated that mothers' remembered maternal acceptance made a significant contribution to the prediction (7% adjusted R^2) of male offspring's perceptions about maternal acceptance, $\beta = .28$, $F(1.96) = 8.00$, $p < .05$ (see Table 12, Criterion 3).

Step 4: Mediational Model: Mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance as a mediator between mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and their male offspring's perceptions about maternal acceptance.

A regression analysis was conducted to measure whether mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance mediated the relationship between mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and their male offspring's perceived maternal acceptance. In combination, mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and current maternal acceptance explained 17% (adjusted R^2) of variance in male offspring's perceived maternal acceptance, $F(2,95) = 10.66$, $p < .05$, (see Table 12, Mediational

Model). Mothers' remembered maternal acceptance ($\beta = .12$, $p = .23$) is not significantly correlated with their male offspring's perceived maternal acceptance. However, mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance is significantly correlated with their male offspring's perceived maternal acceptance ($\beta = .36$, $p < .05$). This result shows that the association between mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and their male offspring's perceived maternal acceptance is mediated when mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance is added to the regression model ($\beta = .36$, $p < .05$). According to this result, the association between the predictor (mothers' remembered maternal acceptance) and the outcome (male offspring's perceived maternal acceptance) were insignificant when the mediator was added to the model. It demonstrated that there was a full mediation in this study.

The Sobel test indicated that mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance significantly mediated the association between their remembered maternal acceptance and their male offspring's perceived maternal acceptance ($z = 2.75$, $p < .05$).

Table 12. Standardized Regression Coefficients for Predicting Male Offspring's Perceived Maternal Acceptance from Mothers' Current Perceived Maternal Acceptance and Mothers' Remembered Maternal Acceptance

	Criterion 1 Male Offspring's Perceived Maternal Acceptance (Outcome)	Criterion 2 Mothers' Current Perceived Maternal Acceptance (Mediator)	Criterion 3 Male Offspring's Perceived Maternal Acceptance (Outcome)	Mediational Model Male Offspring's Perceived Maternal Acceptance (Outcome)
Mothers' Remembered Maternal Acceptance (Predictor)		.42*	.28*	.12
Mothers' Current Maternal Acceptance (Mediator)	.41*			.36*
R^2	.16*	.18*	.07*	.17*

Note. *$p < .05$

4.2.4 The results addressing factors which predict psychological adjustment in offspring and whether this prediction changes according to offspring's gender

4.2.4.1 Predictors of offspring difficulties

Factors, which were used in this present study, were offspring's perceived maternal-paternal acceptance, mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and mothers' current perceived acceptance. In order to investigate the factors that predict psychological adjustment in offspring, a simultaneous regression was conducted.

Before conducting the regression analysis, a collinearity diagnosis was checked to see whether the data results were appropriate for regression analysis. In order to see that tolerance and VIF values, the Coefficent Table was examined. Tolerance and VIF Values show whether multicollinearity is violated or not. Tolerance and VIF values were given in Table 13. All tolerance values were greater than .10 and all VIF values were under 10, so multicollnearity was not violated, meaning there was not multicollinearity. The data was therefore appropriate for regression analysis.

Table 13. Multicollinearity Check of Variables

Collinearity Coefficients		
	Tolerance	VIF
Offspring's Perceived Paternal Acceptance	.60	1.789
Offspring's Perceived Maternal Acceptance	.53	1.883
Mothers' Perceived Maternal Acceptance	.65	1.550
Mothers' Remembered Maternal Acceptance	.78	1.283
Offspring's Gender	.99	1.004

Note. VIF (The Varience Inflation Factor). Multicollinearity is not violated when all tolerance values are greater than .10 and all VIF values are under 10.

After the multicollinearity check, the simultaneous regression was conducted. All variables—offspring's perceived paternal acceptance, offspring's perceived maternal acceptance, mothers' perceived maternal acceptance, mothers' remembered

maternal acceptance and offspring's gender—were entered simultaneously. The overall regression model was found statistically significant, $F(5,217) = 8.37$, $p < .05$ and all variables explained 40.2% of offspring's difficulties.

The significant beta coefficient was shown in offspring's perceived maternal acceptance, as seen Table 14. It means that this variable makes the strongest unique contribution to explaining the total difficulties of children ($p < .05$).

Table 14. Summary of Simultaneous Regression for Offspring's Difficulties

	Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients
	B	β
Offspring's Perceived Paternal Acceptance	.08	.14
Offspring's Perceived Maternal Acceptance	.20*	.31*
Mothers' Perceived Maternal Acceptance	-.02	-.02
Mothers' Remembered Maternal Acceptance	-.009	-.02
Offspring's Gender	-.007	-.001

Note. *$p < .05$.

In brief, offspring's perceived maternal acceptance is the unique contributor to explain their difficulties. To indicate whether it differs according to gender, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted. In the hierarchical regression, the interaction between offspring's perceived maternal acceptance and gender was presented.

When the interaction between offspring's perceived maternal acceptance and gender was analyzed, it was seen that interaction of two variables did not make any statistically significant contribution to the model. It shows that there was no interaction between offspring's perceived maternal acceptance and gender, which means offspring's perceived maternal acceptance influence on their difficulties did not change according to gender (see Table 15). The same is true for all offspring, regardless of gender.

Table 15. Interaction Model of Perceived Maternal Acceptance and Gender of Offspring on Difficulties

Variable	*B*	*SEB*	*β*	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1				.16*	.16*
Child PARQ (Father)	.08	.05	.14		
Child PARQ (Mother)	.20	.05	.31*		
Parent PARQ (Mother)	-.02	.07	-.02		
Adult PARQ (Mother)	-.009	.03	-.02		
Gender	-.007	.65	-.001		
Step 2				.16	.001
Child PARQ (Father)	.08	.05	.14		
Child PARQ (Mother)	.14	.12	.22		
Parent PARQ (Mother)	-.02	.07	-.02		
Adult PARQ (Mother)	-.009	.03	-.02		
Gender	-1.55	2.80	-.15		
Gender X Child PARQ (Mother)	.05	.09	.19		

Note. Adult PARQ: Mother- SV (Adult Parental Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire: Mother-Short version), Child PARQ: Father-SV (Child Parental Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire: Father-Short version), Child PARQ: Mother-SV (Child Parental Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire:Mother-Short version), Parent PARQ:Mother-SV (Parent Parental Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire:Mother-Short version), SEB (The standart error for the unstandardized beta).* $p < .05$.

4.2.4.2 Predictors of offspring stregths

To investigate the factors that predict strengths in offspring, a simultaneous regression was conducted.

Before the regression analysis, collinearity diagnosis was done to see whether data results were appropriate for regression analysis. At Table 16, Tolerance and VIF values were shown. The results indicated that all tolerance values were grater than .10 and all VIF values were under 10. So multicollinearity was not violated, that means there was not multicollinearity. This data is appropriate for regression analysis.

After the multicollinearity check, the simultaneous regression was conducted. The overall regression model was found statistically significant, $F(5,217) = 7,836$, $p < .05$ and all variables explained 15% of offspring's strengths. The significant beta coefficient was seen in offspring's perceived maternal acceptance, as shown in Table

17. This means that this variable makes the strongest unique contribution to explaining the total strengths of offspring $\beta = -.25$, $p < .05$.

Table 16. Multicollinearity Check of Variables

Collinearity Coefficients		
	Tolerance	VIF
Offspring's Perceived Paternal Acceptance	.56	1.789
Offspring's Perceived Maternal Acceptance	.53	1.883
Mothers' Perceived Maternal Acceptance	.65	1.550
Mothers' Remembered Maternal Acceptance	.78	1.283
Offspring's Gender	.99	1.004

Note. VIF (The Variance Inflation Factor). Multicollinearity is not violated when all tolerance values are greater than .10 and all VIF values are under 10.

Table 17. Summary of Simultaneous Regression of Offspring's Total Strengths

	Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients
	B	β
Offspring's Perceived Paternal Acceptance	-.04	-.17*
Offspring's Perceived Maternal Acceptance	-.06	-.25*
Mothers' Perceived Maternal Acceptance	.007	-.02
Mothers' Remembered Maternal Acceptance	.004	.02*
Gender of The Children	-.50	-.13*

Note. *$p < .05$.

In brief, offspring's perceived maternal acceptance made a statistically significant contribution to explain children's strengths ($\beta = -.25$, $p < .05$). To indicate whether it differs according to the offspring's gender, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted. In the hierarchical regression, interaction between offspring's perceived maternal acceptance and gender was presented.

When the interaction between offspring's perceived maternal acceptance and gender was analyzed, it was seen that interaction of two variables added statistically significant contributions to the model, $F(6,216) = 7.992$, $\beta = -.89$, $p < .05$. R^2 change was found 3%, which was statistically significant. This result demosnrated that there was an interaction between offspring's perceived maternal acceptance and gender,

which means offspring's perceived maternal acceptance's influences on their strengths changed according to gender, as seen Table 18.

Table 18. Interaction Model of Perceived Maternal Acceptance and Gender of Offspring on Their Strengths

Variable	*B*	*SEB*	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1				.15	.15*
Child PARQ (Father)	-.04	.02	-.17*		
Child PARQ (Mother)	-.06	.02	-.25*		
Parent PARQ (Mother)	.01	.03	.02		
Adult PARQ (Mother)	.00	.01	.02		
Gender	-.51	.24	-.13*		
Step 2				.18	.03*
Child PARQ (Father)	-.03	.02	-.14		
Child PARQ (Mother)	.05	.04	.22		
Parent PARQ (Mother)	.01	.03	.02		
Adult PARQ (Mother)	.00	.01	.02		
Gender	2.23	1.02	.58*		
Gender X Child PARQ (Mother)	-.09	.03	-.89*		

Note. Adult PARQ: Mother- SV (Adult Parental Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire: Mother-Short version), Child PARQ: Father-SV (Child Parental Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire: Father-Short version), Child PARQ:Mother-SV (Child Parental Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire:Mother-Short version), Parent PARQ:Mother-SV (Parent Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire:Mother-Short version), SEB (The standart error for the unstandardized beta). * $p < .05$.

To indicate how that interaction occurred for each gender, the sample was split and correlations for each gender were calculated. The correlation analysis showed that for female offspring, the relationship between perceived maternal acceptance and strengths was statistically significant $r = -.28$, $p < .01$; for male offspring, that relationship was statistically significant with $r = -.47$, $p < .01$ (as shown in Table 19).

Thus, offspring's perceived maternal acceptance has influence on their children's strengths and it is statistically different for female and male offspring. It has more influence on male offspring.

Table 19. Correlation Coefficients of Offspring's Perceived Maternal Acceptance and Their Strengths

	Measures	1	2
Female	1. Child PARQ (Mother)	1	
	2. SDQ-Strengths	-.28**	1
Male	1. Child PARQ (Mother)	1	
	2. SDQ-Strengths	-.47**	1

Note. Child PARQ:Mother-SV (Child Parental Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire: Mother-Short Version), SDQ (Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire). **$p < .01$.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the results of the study are discussed in four sections: (1) the purpose of the current study, (2) discussion related to the characteristics of the sample, (3) discussion in relation to research questions, (4) strengths of the study, and (5) limitations of the study and recommendations for future research.

5.1 The purpose of the study

The purpose of the current study was to investigate the mediating role of a mother's current perceived acceptance of her offspring in the relationship between her remembered maternal acceptance and her offspring's perceived maternal acceptance. Additionally, whether this mediating role changed with the gender of the offspring was also examined. Another aim was to investigate which of the factors—offspring's perceived maternal-paternal acceptance, mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and mothers' current perceived acceptance—predicted psychological adjustment in offspring and whether this prediction changed according to the offspring's gender.

5.2 Discussion related to the characteristics of the sample

5.2.1 Discussion related to descriptive analysis of measures

In this current study, there were 223 mothers and their offspring. Mothers answered the Adult PARQ: Mother- Short version and the Parent PARQ: Mother-Short version. Offspring completed the Child PARQ: Mother and Father-Short version and the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ). All these-questionnaires were analyzed on the direction of perceived rejection; higher scores in this questionnaire

means greater rejection (Rohner, 2004). In the short form of these questionnaires, the lowest score is 24, which means maximum acceptance, and the highest score of 96 shows maximum perceived rejection (Rohner, 2004).

The general characteristics of the sample were described with mean and standard deviation scores of the PARQ questionnaires. The mean score of remembered maternal acceptance reported by mothers was 36.31 (*SD* = 11.25). Based on this, it can be said that these mothers felt less rejection (high acceptance) in their childhood by their own mothers. This result corroborates Kuyumcu and Rohner's study (2018), which was conducted with a Turkish adult sample. Their results also demonstrated that the Turkish women in the sample tended to remember having been accepted in their childhood by their mothers.

The mean score of the Parent PARQ was 29.90 (*SD* = 5.85). This result showed a high acceptance tendency among mothers of their offspring. A study by Yıldırım-Ekmekçi (2008) with a sample of Turkish mothers indicated that mothers had more tendency to accept their offspring than to reject.

The results obtained from the Child PARQ: Mother and Father-Short version showed that the mean score of offspring's perceived maternal acceptance was 30.76 (*SD* = 8.29) and the mean score of offspring's paternal acceptance was 32.15 (*SD* = 8.93). These results demonstrated that offspring in this sample perceived more acceptance than rejection from their parents. Yıldırım- Ekmekçi's (2008) study with a sample of Turkish children also validate this result. Using the long version of the PARQ, they found that children reported more acceptance than rejection (for maternal *M* = 85.24, *SD* = 22.3; for paternal *M* = 84.50, *SD* = 20.6)

The results from current study regarding mothers and offspring indicated that mothers in the sample perceived more acceptance [*M* = 29.90, *SD* = 5.85] than did

their offspring [*M* = 30.76, *SD* = 8.29]. Mothers perceived themselves as more accepting than their offspring perceived them. Rohner et al. (2015) also indicated mothers as showing more acceptance than their offspring. Yıldırım-Ekmekçi's (2008) study, which was conducted on a Turkish sample, also supports this result. The results of Yıldırım-Ekmekçi's (2008) study indicated that Turkish children reported their mothers to be less accepting (*M* = 85.24, *SD* = 22.3; for paternal *M* = 84.50, *SD* = 20.6).

When the general characteristics of offspring in terms of their strengths and difficulties were examined, it was seen that the mean score for the SDQ-Total Difficulties was 14.12 (*SD* = 5.20) and the mean score for the SDQ- Strengths was 8.47 (*SD* = 1.91). Cox and Bentovim (2000) stated that whether the sample needs any support for their strengths and difficulties can be understood by looking at the scores of the SDQ. Therefore, they explained need levels by looking at the mean scores of strengths and difficulties. For total difficulties, the range of need levels are 0-15 for low need, 16-19 for some need and 20-40 for high need. For strengths, the range of need levels are 6-10 for low need, 5 for some need and 0-4 for high need. Therefore, the sample of this current study needs low support for their diffciulties (*M* = 14.12, *SD* = 5.20). The findings also showed that the offspring in the study had 8.47 mean score for their strengths, which indicated these children need low support for their strengths.

To conclude, offspring in the current study need low support for both their difficulties and strengths. Furthermore, it was also seen that only the score of the difficulties was close to the some-need level. From a psychological adjustment perspective, it indicated that they did not need too much support on their strengths and difficulties.

5.2.2 Correlations among variables

Correlation analysis of the current study showed that the highest correlation was seen between offspring's perceived maternal and paternal acceptance ($r = .64$, $p < .01$). This finding can be explained by the age of the offspring. According to Putnick et al. (2015), children in their sample (8-10 years of age on average) might not differentiate their mothers and fathers' parenting. According to them, if children in a sample are older, they can differentiate and evaluate their parents' behavior easily; if they are not older, they might have difficulty differentiating them. The mean age for offspring in the current study was 11.19 ($SD = .91$). Therefore, offspring in the present study might have had difficulties assessing them separately.

The second highest correlation was seen between mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance and offspring's perceived maternal acceptance ($r = .49$, $p < .01$). Rohner et al. (2005) found that there was an agreement between children's reports and mothers' reports in both the Finnish sample ($r = .50$, $p < .001$) and for the Pakistani sample ($r = .34$, $p < .001$). The correlation difference between these populations can also be explained by the age difference between the samples (the Finnish children's age range was 7-14; the Pakistani children's age range was 10-16). When children get older, they can evaluate their parents' behavior more easily (Putnick et al., 2015). The results of the research on Finnish and Pakistani populations support the finding of the present study. When studies that were conducted in the Turkish sample were examined, a low agreement was seen between mothers' and offspring's reports ($r = .19$, $p < .001$) (Yıldırım-Ekmekçi, 2008). The reason Yıldırım- Ekmekçi (2008) posited for the low agreement was the participants age: early adolescence. The age range of participants in Yıldırım-Ekmekçi's (2008) study was 11–14 and the mean was 12.40. The age range of the

present study's sample was from 10 to 14 (M = 11.19, SD = .91). The differences between the results of the two studies might be attributed to developmental differences related to a one-year age difference (as Putnick et al., 2015 suggested for their study). Another possible explanation for this difference might be using different versions of the questionnaires. While Yıldırım-Ekmekçi (2008) utilized long version of PARQ, short versions were administered in this current study.

Another moderate level correlation was found between mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and their current perceived maternal acceptance (r = .45, p < .01). This correlation also supported studies which explain how remembrances of mothers' maternal acceptance (Kretchmar & Jacobvitz, 2002) and attachment (Eiden et al., 1995) from their childhood predict their current mothering.

The correlation findings related to offspring's total difficulties and strengths indicate that both had the highest correlations with offspring's perceived maternal acceptance (r = .39, p < .01; r = -.35, p < .01, respectively) among other variables, namely, offspring's paternal acceptance, mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and mothers' current perceived acceptance. The relationship between offspring's perceived maternal acceptance and their difficulties is supported by the literature (Putnick et al., 2015; Rohner et al., 2005). There are numerous studies on how maternal rejection leads to psychological maladjustment among children (Putnick et al., 2015; Rohner et al., 2005). The correlation between offspring's perceived maternal acceptance and their strengths r = -.35, p < .01 in the current study. This finding means that, when offspring perceive less rejection by their mothers, their prosocial behavior improves. The results of a meta-analytic review of worldwide research showed a relationship between maternal acceptance and offspring's psychological adjustment (Khaleque & Rohner, 2012; Ramirez-Ucles et al., 2018).

More specifically, studies related to maternal acceptance-rejection and child prosocial behavior indicated that maternal acceptance increases offspring's subsequent prosocial behavior (Putnick et al., 2018).

Previous studies have indicated an association between parenting and prosocial behavior development (Padilla-Walker, Nielson, & Day, 2016; Putnick et al., 2018). With regard to this point, Caprara & Steca (2005) showed that adults who act in more prosocial behaviors have better life satisfaction. Therefore, it is important for children to develop better prosocial behaviors in order to have greater life satisfaction when they are adults. This current study underlined the importance of maternal acceptance-rejections as a significant component of child prosocial behavior development.

5.3 Discussions in relation to the research questions

5.3.1 The mediating role of mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance in the relationship between their remembered maternal acceptance and their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance

The purpose of the first research question was to investigate the mediating role of mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance between their remembered maternal acceptance and their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance. This mediation analysis was conducted according to steps suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986).

The mediation analysis results showed that mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and current maternal acceptance explained 24% (adjusted R^2) of variance in offspring's perceived maternal acceptance, $F(2,220) = 36.70$, $p < .001$. When the mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance was controlled, their remembered maternal acceptance ($\beta = .09$, $p = .17$) did not correlate significantly with their

offspring's perceived maternal acceptance. However, mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance correlated significantly with their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance ($\beta = .45$, $p < .05$). This result indicated that the relationship between mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and their offspring's perceptions was mediated by mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance as a parent. There is a significant full mediation.

These results demonstrate that mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance has a filtering role between mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance. That is to say, the results from the mediation analysis indicate that mothers' remembered maternal acceptance is insignificant with their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance when mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance is controlled. It means mothers' remembered maternal acceptance influences their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance through mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance of their offspring.

The mediation analysis results of the current study showed that mothers' remembrances influence their current perceptions, and current mothering perceptions influence how their offspring accepts them. These results are supported by different studies in the literature. Savelieva et al. (2017) studied the intergenerational transmission of parent-child relationship qualities in a population-based Finnish sample longitudinally. They used Generation 1 (G1) for the mothers, Generation 2 (G2) for their offspring and Generation 3 (G3) for the offspring of G2. First, G1 assessed their emotional warmth and acceptance of their children (G2). After 28 years, G2 assessed their relationship with their own offspring (G3). The G2 mothers did not know how their mothers had evaluated their relationships. They assessed the relationships that they had with their own offspring. They found that maternal

acceptance transmitted across generations. In this current study, a path from mothers' remembered maternal acceptance to offspring's perceived maternal acceptance was found through the mediating role of mothers' current acceptance. Savelieva et al.'s (2017) study also illustrated how maternal acceptance transmitted from mothers' mother generation to mothers' own generation.

Savelieva et al.'s (2017) studied mothers who had reported their perceived acceptance of their offspring in 1980. After 28 years, in 2008, when their offspring had become mothers, they evaluated their own relationship with their own offspring. Savelieva et al. (2017) found that acceptance is mostly related to cultural changes in society, and Finnish society and its parenting might have been changed greatly in 28 years. They thought there might be differences between the evaluations of 28 years ago and today because of cultural and societal changes. Therefore, they emphasized the need for further studies to conclude whether acceptance is transmitted from parents to offspring.

Unlike in Savelieva et al.'s (2017) study, mothers in this present study evaluated two different generations (their own mothers' perceived acceptance and their own current acceptance of offspring). That is to say, mothers' reports about both generations were based on the same cultural and societal perspectives, as in the current study. However, unlike the present study, the third-generation reports were not taken in Savelieva et al.'s study. Furthermore, in the current study, mothers reported perceptions about their past experiences, but in Savelieva's et al.'s sample, participants evaluated their current relations in a longitudinal study design.
Their findings supported this present study in terms of how mothers' acceptance of their offspring shapes their offspring's acceptance of their own child when they become a mother.

Crockenberg and Leekers (2003) studied the mediating and moderating role of mothers' remembered parental acceptance, postpartum depression and maternal sensitivity. The participants were 92 mothers, 84 fathers and their infants. Mothers answered questions about remembered parental acceptance, depressive symptoms, and infant distress. Both mothers and their husbands completed marital aggression and avoidance questionnaires and maternal sensitivity was examined in the laboratory for six months. They explained that the experience of having and caring for an infant activates feelings and cognitions related to mothers' internalized remembrances of the care they received from their own mothers. Taking the results in the study of Crokenberg and Leekers into consideration, it can be said that they also supported the findings of the current study. The present study also clarified that those mothers' experiences with their own mothers in childhood had an important place in the relationship with their own children.

Whitbeck, Hoyt, Simons, and Conger (1992) studied the intergenerational continuity of depressed mood and rejecting parenting. There were three generations of 452 families who participated. (G1) was the parents' parent, (G2) was a parent and (G3) was the offspring of parents. They administered surveys to participants and made observations. The results showed that G1 parental rejection reported by G2 adults was weakly related to G2 self-reported depressed affect (range = .14 - .21). Second-generation parental rejection reported by G3 children was more strongly correlated with adolescents' depressed affect (range = .30 - .34). Self-reported G2 depressed affect was significantly related to self-reported parental rejection for G2 mothers (r = .22), but not for mothers. Whitbeck et al. (1992) showed that depressed mood and a history of rejection had an influence on parent-child relationships, even in later generations. Although this study focused mostly on depressed mood and

rejection, it supported the idea that the parent-child relationship in one generation influenced later generations' parent-child relationships.

In another study, Pasternak (2014) compared intergenerational transmission of parenting style between Jewish and Arab mothers in Israel. They found that young mothers had a tendency to repeat their parents' styles, irrespective of their social or religious backgrounds. While culture tended to influence parenting styles, they did not find any influence of factors such as religion, ethnicity or national origin on intergenerational transmission of parenting behavior. Instead, they found that modeling and imitation of parents' behavior had a deeper effect on parenting styles. Therefore, the Pasternak study is significant because it shows that, even though there were other factors such as religion, ethnicity and national origin, which confounded during the mother-child relationship, they did not have any determining role.

When the results of the current study and related literature are examined, it can be clearly seen that mothers' current acceptance relationships with their offspring are influenced by memories associated with their own mothers. That is to say, if mothers feel rejected by their mothers, this may influence the next generation. This finding supports the sociocultural systems theory of the IPARTheory. The sociocultural system theory emphasizes how acceptance-rejection relationships among people are affected by the maintenance system of the society (Rohner, 2016; Rohner & Khaleque, 2005). This significant mediation path from mothers' perceptions of their mothers to their current mothering explained how dynamics of acceptance from mothers' mother to their current relationship are maintained in the society. Another important side of this path is solving the negative effect of mothers' previous experiences on their current mothering. Therefore, it is important to resolve the perception of rejection from mothers for the development of the next generation

(Lesesne & Kennedy, 2005). Promoting the mental health of mothers throughout the lifespan contributes to the development of their offspring. Moreover, mothers should be aware that their mothering roles are influenced by their relationships with their own mothers. Instead of blaming themselves, they should be aware of this transmission.

The IPARTheory has two dimensions: interpersonal acceptance and interpersonal rejection (Rohner, 2016). This current study focuses mostly on the acceptance dimension; however, results can be evaluated also from the rejection dimension. That means studies that focus on negative parenting issues from mothers' mother to their children can give an idea about the mediating process of mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance. When the studies conducted on negative parenting were examined, Whitbeck et al. (1992) found that a history of rejection by parents increased the depressed affect in adults, and that increased the likelihood of rejecting parenting behavior toward their own children later on. In another study, Mosma, Poggenpoel, and Myburgh (2015) studied the life stories of young women who perceived rejection from their mothers. They investigated women who experienced rejection from their mothers' experience of problems with their daughters in their mother-daughter relationships. These studies explained that negative experiences and memories also direct mothers' current relationships with their children.

In the current study, the acceptance dimension of the IPARTheory was the main focus. The participants reported more acceptance than rejection. This highly accepted sample might also influence the results. A study with a highly rejected sample might yield different results.

After the first mediation analysis ($\beta = .45$, $p < .05$), whether this significant full mediation path from mothers' remembered maternal acceptance to their offspring's maternal acceptance changes in line with the offspring's gender was investigated. In order to examine this, the offspring data was split into gender groups: females and males. Two mediation analyses were conducted separately for females and males. For females, the results indicated that mothers' remembered maternal acceptance, and their current perceptions explained 30% (adjusted R^2) of variance in their female offspring's perceptions, $F(2,122) = 27.06$, $p < .05$. However, mothers' remembered maternal acceptance ($\beta = .06$, $p = .48$) was not significantly correlated with their female offspring's perceived maternal acceptance. However, it was found that mothers' perception was significantly correlated ($\beta = .52$, $p < .05$) with their female offspring's maternal acceptance. This result shows that the association between mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and female offspring's perceived maternal acceptance is mediated when mothers' current perceptions are added to the regression model ($\beta = .52$, $p < .05$). On the other hand, for male offspring, results showed that mothers' remembrances and current perceptions explained 17% (adjusted R^2) of variance in males, $F(2,95) = 10.66$, $p < .05$. However, mothers' remembrances ($\beta = .12$, $p = .23$) were not significantly correlated with their male offspring's perceived maternal acceptance. However, mothers' current perceptions are significantly correlated with their male offspring's acceptance ($\beta = .36$, $p < .05$). This result shows that the association between mothers' remembrances and their male offspring's perceptions is mediated by mothers' current perceptions when it is added to the regression model ($\beta = .36$, $p < .05$).

The results of this present study indicated that the association between mothers' remembrances and their offspring's perceptions was mediated by mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance and was similar for both female and male offspring. Previous research findings by Savelieva et al. (2017) also demonstrated that maternal acceptance from mothers' mother to offspring was similar across genders.

5.3.2 Discussion in addressing the factors predicting psychological adjustment in offspring and the role of the gender differences in this prediction

5.3.2.1 Factors predicting psychological adjustment in offspring

In the literature, there are many studies focused on the relationship between children's parental acceptance-rejection and their psychological adjustment (Dwairy, 2010; Georgiou, Stavrinides, & Georgiou, 2016; Hakvoort, Bos, Van Balen, & Hermanns, 2010; Khaleque & Rohner, 2002). These studies indicated that parental rejection was associated with children's psychological maladjustment (Khaleque, 2016) and parental acceptance was associated with psychological adjustment (Khaleque & Rohner, 2002). However, in their study, Putnick et al. (2015) mentioned that there was less systematic study on child adjustment behavior and acceptance-rejection from parents. Therefore, the current study examined the specific factors (offspring's perceived maternal-paternal acceptance, mothers' remembered maternal acceptance, mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance) predicting psychological adjustment in offspring and whether this prediction varies with the offspring's gender.

Findings obtained from the current study demonstrated that offspring's perceived maternal acceptance is the unique contributor to their difficulties, ($\beta = .31$, $p < .05$) among other factors. The results also showed that offspring's perceived maternal acceptance a higher contributor for their strengths ($\beta = -.25$, $p < .05$) among other factors.

Factors used in predicting psychological adjustment were based on both mothers' and their offspring's self-reports. However, a greater and more significant factor was found: offspring's self-reports about maternal acceptance-rejection. Even though mothers stated their self-reports related to maternal acceptance-rejection with their offspring, the findings showed that mothers' self-reports did not significantly contribute to their offspring's psychological adjustment. This result is consistent with the results of Hare et al. (2011). Their findings also implied that mothers' perceptions of their own acceptance did not provide any predictive value for emotional communication and emotional disclosure. They also stated that, instead of mothers' self-reports, children's self-reports shaped the outcome more.

There is still debate in the literature about whether maternal and/or paternal acceptance-rejection predicts children's psychological adjustment (Khaleque & Rohner, 2012; Lila, Garcia, & Garcia, 2007; Putnick et al., 2015). Even though the main focus of the present study was on maternal acceptance, paternal acceptance was also added to factors. When offspring get older, they can differentiate their mothers' and fathers' behavior more easily (Putnick et al., 2015). Miranda et al. (2016) also underlined the importance of considering maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection separately. That is why paternal acceptance was also taken into consideration in this present study.

The findings of the current study demonstrated that, among all the factors, offspring's perceived maternal acceptance-rejection is the unique contributor to their difficulties ($\beta = .31$, $p < .05$). This result is consistent with the findings of Lila et al. (2007), who also found that, for behavioral problems, only perceived maternal acceptance shapes the outcomes for the children, but not paternal acceptance. Benson et al. (2008) examined the four maternal parenting dimensions (maternal acceptance, harshness, inconsistency and psychological intrusiveness) as mediators of adolescents' internalizing behaviors. Their results implied that low maternal acceptance was the strongest mediator among other parenting dimensions for adolescents' internalizing behaviors. Previous research findings (Lila et al., 2007; Benson et al., 2008) also supported the results of this current study by underlining the importance of perceived maternal acceptance-rejection for offspring's difficulties.

The results of the present study indicated that offspring in the study perceived mothers as less rejecting [$M = 30.76$, $SD = 8.29$] than fathers [$M = 32.15$, $SD = 8.93$]. Miranda et al.'s (2016) findings were also consistent with these results. They also found that adolescents ($M_{age} = 13.71$) reported their mothers as less rejecting than fathers.

5.3.2.2 Gender differences in predicting offspring's psychological adjustment

The results of the current study showed that offspring's perceived maternal acceptance is the unique contributor to their difficulties ($\beta = .31$, $p < .05$) among other factors. Findings also showed that offspring's perceived maternal acceptance is the higher contributor for their strengths ($\beta = -.25$, $p < .05$) among other factors. After this analysis, gender differences of offspring in predicting psychological

adjustment were analyzed. In order to see whether this prediction changed according to gender, the interaction between offspring's perceived maternal acceptance and gender were added to the model. The findings indicated no interaction between offspring's perceived maternal acceptance-rejection and gender in their difficulties ($\beta = .19$, $p = .571$). This result indicated that offspring's perceived maternal acceptance contributed to their difficulties, regardless of their gender.

However, when the interaction between offspring's perceived maternal acceptance and gender in their strengths were analyzed, it was seen that the interaction of two variables made a statistically significant contribution to the model, $F(6,216) = 7.992$, $\beta = -.89$, $p < .05$. R square change was found as 29%, which was statistically significant. According to this result, there is a significant interaction between offspring's perceived maternal acceptance's contributions to their strengths and that it differs for female and male offspring. In order to explain that difference between female and male offspring, the sample was split. After splitting the participants, a correlation analysis was conducted. The correlation analysis showed that, while, for female offspring, the relationship between perceived maternal acceptance-rejection and strengths was statistically significant, $r = -.28$, $p < .01$, for male offspring that relationship was statistically significant with $r = -.47$, $p < .01$. That finding showed that mothers influence their sons' strengths more than their daughters' strengths.

The results related to whether offspring's perceived maternal acceptance changes according to gender in predicting their difficulties indicated that there was no gender difference. That is to say, in the contribution of offspring's perceived maternal acceptance-rejection to their difficulties, gender does not matter. More specifically, if an offspring perceives his or her mother as rejecting, some difficulties

might be expected from that child, regardless of gender. Related to that, Zafar and Gul (2016) found that male and female adolescents (age range 13-17 years) do not have a different perception of parental acceptance-rejection, and both genders have an equal likelihood of developing delinquent behavior. In addition, no gender difference is stated by the IPARTheory's personality sub-theory. According to that theory, perceived interpersonal acceptance and rejection from people influence personality and the psychological wellbeing of people, especially influences on mental health (Rohner, 2016). The level of perceived acceptance influences the difficulties children have, regardless of gender. In the direction of the findings of the current study, offspring's perceived maternal acceptance has a contribution to total difficulties ($\beta = .31$, $p < .05$), and there is no interaction with the gender ($\beta = .19$, $p = .571$). This can also be explained by Bowlby's (1982) theory, as this theory also discusses the significant place of the mother throughout their lives. Based on this theory, when the maternal acceptance feeling of children increases, children's psychological mental health gets better.

Additionally, the findings of the study indicated that offspring's perceived maternal acceptance-rejection contributed to their strengths ($\beta = -.25$, $p < .05$). Accordingly, gender differences between offspring in predicting strengths were analyzed. In order to see whether this prediction changed according to gender, the interaction between offspring's perceived maternal acceptance and gender were added to the model. The results showed that offspring's perceived maternal acceptance-rejection contributed to their strengths changed according to their gender. In order to examine how this interaction varied according to gender, a correlation analysis was run. The results showed that the correlation between offspring's perceived maternal acceptance and strengths was higher for male offspring ($r = -.47$,

$p < .01$) than female offspring ($r = -.28$, $p < .01$). This finding showed that perceived acceptance-rejection from mothers has more influence on male offspring than on females.

Previous research findings also indicate that mothers' relationship with their sons influences their strengths differently from the way it influences their daughters' strengths. Li (2014) examined the moderating influence of parental power and prestige on the relationship between parental acceptance and the psychological adjustment of Chinese adolescents (aged between 11 and 16). One of the analyses of Li's study also examined the gender differences in the relation between perceived parental acceptance and the psychological adjustment of children. He found that only perceived maternal acceptance made a unique contribution to sons' psychological adjustment, whereas both maternal and paternal acceptance made unique contributions to daughters' adjustment. This result supports the finding of this current study. In this current study, there was no difference between genders in terms of offspring's total difficulties and their perceived maternal acceptance, but a gender difference was found between perceived maternal acceptance and offspring's strengths. It was demonstrated that the relationship with the mother influenced male offspring more than female offspring in terms of the development of their strengths (referred to as prosocial behavior in this study).

Previous research findings show that both mothers' and fathers' acceptance of their children predicted child prosocial behavior from age 9 to 10 and from age 10 to 12, and this result was seen as invariant across nine countries (Putnick et al., 2018). In Putnick et al.'s (2018) study, how girls and boys were affected specifically by each parent was not specified. However, gender differences were found for the

relationship between parental acceptance-rejection and child's prosocial behavior. The results indicated that a slightly smaller stability of prosocial behavior for boys ($\beta = .208$, $p < .001$) than girls ($\beta = .348$, $p < .001$) across the transition to adolescence. In this present study, a gender difference for the relationship between offspring's perceived maternal acceptance and prosocial behavior was also found: male offspring were influenced more than female offspring.

The findings of Li (2014), Putnick et al. (2018) and this present study imply that, in the contribution of perceived maternal acceptance to the development of prosocial behaviors, the gender of offspring matters—especially between mothers and sons. This present study was conducted with a Turkish population. Gender differences between offspring's perceptions of their mothers and their own prosocial behaviors might be explained by Turkish family structure. Keskiner (2012) studied perceived parental acceptance-rejection and power and prestige in a Turkish youth sample (aged between 16 and 20), their mothers and their fathers. They found a gender difference in the perception of children's maternal and paternal acceptance. According to result of the Keskiner study, when fathers were perceived as having higher prestige than mothers, parental acceptance-rejection influenced children's psychological adjustment. In addition, the findings also showed that boys attributed power and prestige to their fathers more than girls did. Mothers' promoting more strength to boys than girls in the current study might be explained by the power balance in the family system. Because male offspring perceive their fathers as having more power and prestige, they might develop a different type of relationship with their mothers, one which benefits their prosocial behaviors. However, the Keskiner's (2012) study was conducted with children over the age of 16. A new study that

focuses on children's perceptions on power and prestige may help understand gender differences in the development of their children's strengths.

According to the results and relevant studies, it can be concluded that, for positive psychological development, like strengths or psychological adjustment of male children, offspring's perceived maternal acceptance is important. However, for negative psychological development, such as difficulties or psychological maladjustment, the gender of offspring does not make any significant difference to the way they perceive their maternal acceptance.

5.4 Strengths of the current study

In this current study, the mediating role of mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance in relation to mothers' remembered maternal acceptance and their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance was investigated. The results showed that mothers' remembered maternal acceptance does not directly influence how their offspring perceive them now, as a mother. However, mothers' remembrances were mediated by their current perceptions, and their combination explains how children perceive their mothers. The findings also showed that mothers perceived themselves more accepting than did their offspring. A significant high correlation was found between mothers' acceptance and their offspring's acceptance ($r = .49$, $p < .01$).

The results of the current study also supported the intergenerational transmission of acceptance quality across generations (Savelieva et al., 2017). This current study's findings showed that even perceptions of mothers about their own mothers did not directly influence the relationship; in the long-term, mothers' acceptance relationship with their own mothers influences their acceptance relationship with their offspring. It showed that mothers' perceptions of their

childhood influence their current relationships. This can be explained by Bandura's (1997) social learning theory which states that parents act as role models for their children. Children learn all parenting behaviors by observing their parents. In this regard, this study is very important, because it is seen that, in the relationship between mothers and children, the early experiences and their perceptions of the mother still retain their importance when they become mothers. One of the strengths of this current study is that it shows that path through mediation analysis. In the most recent study, Savelieva et al. (2017) stated that their study was the first to examine the intergenerational transmission of the acceptance feeling between generations. Based on that study, this current study can be seen as another novel study that focuses on that mediating path from the childhood of mothers to their offspring.

Another important strength of the current study is that it examines the bidirectional relationship between mothers and their offspring. Two self-reports were collected from participants to assess the same acceptance relationship. According to the IPARTheory, reports of parents and offspring generally indicate similar conclusions; however, sometimes differences can be observed (Rohner et al., 2012). Therefore, in the current study, the acceptance relationship was evaluated from more than one direction. Both mothers and offspring reported their perceptions. According to the IPARTheory's perspectives, both a phenomenological perspective and a behavioral perspective (Rohner, 2015; Rohner & Khaleque, 2005) were utilized in the present study. The findings showed that offspring's own perception provided predictive value for psychological adjustment, which is also supported by previous research results (i.e. Hare et al., 2011).

Savelieva et al. (2017) concluded that differences in acceptance are usually related to cultural norms in a society. According to them, when cultural norms

changes, how the people perceive the acceptance might also change. Therefore, they suggested that while working on acceptance, participants in the study should have similar cultural norms to be able to assess acceptance from same cultural perspective. In this current study, mothers' childhood experiences and their current mothering were used as two variables. However, even though the mothers' childhood experiences had been lived years ago, both two variables were assessed according to perceptions of mothers. These assessments showed that as Savelieva et al.'s suggested (2017), assesments in this present study based on similar cultural norms.

When all is taken into consideration, intergenerational continuity in parenting is very important. In order to improve the mother-offspring relationship, family counseling programs and intervention programs can approach this relationship from this perspective as well. Perceived parental acceptance-rejection influences female adults' current psychological symptoms, emotion regulation and interpersonal problems (Abacı, 2018). Focusing on mothers' psychological symptoms, emotion regulation and interpersonal problems caused by their retroactive remembered maternal acceptance (Abacı, 2018) helps them resolve their problems regarding their own maternal acceptance and develop healtier relationships with their own offspring.

Other important strength of the current study is that even though negative parenting transmissions were considered most often in the literature (Cairns, Cairns, Xie, Leugn, & Hearne, 1998; Conger, Belsky, & Capaldi, 2009; Erzinger & Steiger, 2014; Hammen, Shih, & Brennan, 2004), positive parenting was taken into account in this present study. Instead of focusing rejection, perceived maternal acceptance was taken as focus.

Another focus of this study was whether the relationship between offspring's perceived maternal acceptance and their psychological adjustment depends on the

gender of the children. There are many studies and meta-analyses on the psychological adjustment and maladjustment of children in relation to parental acceptance (Dwairy, 2010; Khaleque, 2016; Putnick et al., 2015; Sajid & Riaz, 2016). However, in this current study, strengths and difficulties of offspring were explored and their relationship to perceived maternal acceptance was investigated. The most important thing for this present study is that, among all variables (perceived paternal acceptance reported by children, perceived maternal acceptance reported by children, mothers' perceived maternal acceptance and mothers' remembered maternal acceptance reported by mothers), the highest contribution for both strengths and difficulties of children was from perceptions of children's maternal acceptance. This indicates that, for the mental health of children, the feeling of being accepted by mothers plays a highly significant role. Another strength of this study is that offspring's own perceptions shape their psychological adjustment more than do mothers' perceptions. This finding underlines the significance of focusing on offspring's own perceptions while working on their psychological adjustment. More specifically, when undertaking both individual and family counseling with these children, this finding might help counselors improve an appropriate intervention structure and counseling process.

In addition to the importance of the side from which perceived maternal acceptance was assessed, the current study shows that, in the relationship with mothers, being male or being female differentiates the level of strengths as prosocial behavior. This relationship between parenting and prosocial behavior of offspring, which differentiated female and male offspring, has not been the subject of study in the literature (Putnick et al., 2018). Therefore, this current study helped clarify gender effect in this association.

This present study clarified that working with children and their parents in individual or family counseling, in addition to focusing on their current relationships, parents' previous experiences with their own parents should be also considered. Another important result which should be underlined in this counseling process is the gender of the children. This finding might help form and understand the dynamics in a family setting, especially if they are working on prosocial behavior development.

5.5 Limitations of the study

The first limitation of this study is its cross-sectional design. Mothers and their offspring were taken as samples, and mothers were asked about childhood remembrances about their own mothers. Mothers might have had difficulties remembering their childhood. In the future, a longitudinal study which takes grandmothers, mothers and offspring as participants at the same time can be suggested. Thus, instead of taking mothers' remembrances, direct information can be collected from grandmothers.

Another limitation is that the data of the study do not enable one to draw any causal inferences. That is, the results cannot show whether acceptance-rejection is a cause or a consequence of any variable.

Another limitation of this study is mothers' and children's tendency to give socially desirable answers to questionnaires. They might think that talking in a negative way about their mothers or mother-child relationships might not be acceptable by society, so they might respond in a way they think is desirable.

The sample in the study was selected according to convenience sampling (which is non-probability sampling). All data were based on self-reports of mothers and offspring, which raises the possibility that participants may have responded

inaccurately to the questionnaires. Questionnaires were sent to the mothers, who might have completed these incorrectly if they misunderstood or lost interest.

The last limitation of the current study is that data related to perceived paternal acceptance was gained only from the offspring. However, it is important to get assessments also from fathers. Therefore, fathers could also be used as participants and their assessment of their perceived paternal acceptance might have been gained from them in the current study.

5.6 Directions for future research

In future research, a similar study can be conducted with grandmothers and fathers as participants. In this study, the sample was selected from a non-clinical population and the results indicated a high tendency for perceived acceptance than rejection. Therefore, new studies might be planned on clinical populations such as traumatic groups and on more rejected populations. In addition to focusing on prosocial behaviors, other issues such as resiliency can be also taken as variables.

In this present study, questionnaires were utilized to understand perceived maternal acceptance among different generations. In future research, instead of taking reports from participants, the dynamics between mothers and children might be assessed through videotaped interactions or using a phenomenological interpretive method.

Although the current study was designed as a cross-sectional study, it prepared a structure for a longitudinal designed version for a similar study.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

The first purpose of this study was to investigate how mothers' current perceived maternal acceptance mediates the relationship between mothers' remembered perceived maternal acceptance and their offspring's perceived maternal acceptance.

The main purpose was to explore how this path is transferred from mothers' mother to her offspring. The findings showed that this path is mediated by mothers' current perceived acceptance. Another significant result of this study, based on mediation analysis, is that, in this transmission process, the gender of the offspring had no significant role. For both male and female offspring, the mediating process was similar.

These two results are important for family counseling intervention practices. This significant mediation path emphasizes the importance of the underlying dynamics of mothers' mothering and parenting behavior. In order to explain mothers' parenting behavior toward their offspring, remembered maternal acceptance increases awareness about the process and helps in the preparation of more appropriate family counseling intervention practices (Turner & Sanders, 2006.

The second focus of this current study was to examine which factors predict offspring's psychological adjustment and whether this prediction changes according to the gender of the offspring. The findings indicated that offspring's perceived maternal acceptance-rejection is the unique contributor to their difficulties ($\beta = .31$, $p < .05$) and a higher contributor for their strengths ($\beta = -.25$, $p < .05$), among other factors. That is to say, offspring's own perceptions of their mother shape their psychological adjustment more than other factors. The results related to gender

differences in this prediction indicated that offspring's perceived maternal acceptance contributed to their difficulties regardless of their gender. This means that perceptions of female and male offspring of maternal acceptance make similar contributions to their difficulties. However, when the prosocial behaviors of offspring were examined, a gender difference was found. Findings indicated that perceived maternal acceptance of male offspring makes higher contributions in prosocial behavior than does that of female offspring.

According to this result, when male offspring feel more accepted by their mother, their prosocial behaviors also develop. However, this influence is significantly less for female offspring. In order to understand the underlying mechanisms for the relationship between both mothers and sons, and mothers and daughters, further studies should be conducted. These studies will help examine the dynamics underlying offspring's difficulties and prosocial behavior development.

To conclude, all these findings are provided to form a general framework while working with mother and offspring relationships. This study underlined the importance of focusing on the current mother–offspring relationship and emphasizes the remembered perceptions of mothers in their current relationship.

According to the IPARTheory, the warmth dimesion has two sides: acceptance and rejection (Rohner, 1980, 2016). In this present study, the focus was on intergenerational transmission of perceived maternal acceptance. With regard to issues related to intergenerational transmission, most studies have focused on negative parenting in the families (Cairns, Cairns, Xie, Leugn, & Hearne, 1998; Conger, Belsky, & Capaldi, 2009; Erzinger & Steiger, 2014; Hammen, Shih, & Brennan, 2004). For Turkish families, however, proximity is a important dimension of family structure (Fisek, 1991). Therefore, instead of focusing on negative

parenting (perceived rejection), focusing on positive parenting (perceived acceptance) contributes to understand the underlying dimensions in the family structure, which also provide to develop evidence-based psychological interventions related to parenting skills training and behavioral family interventions (Turner & Sanders, 2006) such as the Triple P- Positive Parenting Program system approach (Turner & Sanders, 2006).

The findings of the current study have important implications for counseling practices in terms of mothers' mental health, parenting practices and family setting interventions. In working with mothers and their children, the transmission path from mothers' childhood to their current mothering helps improve appropriate intervention counseling or helping plans (Turner & Sanders, 2006). If there is any perception of rejection, it should be resolved in individual counseling. Furthermore, all professionals who guide parents, children and teachers in a school should emphasize the significance of the acceptance relationship in a family setting so as to create a good developmental environment for both children and their parents.

APPENDIX A

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for the Study of Interpersonal Acceptance and Rejection

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January 25, 2016

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APPENDIX B

ETHICAL PERMISSION FORM

T.C.
BOĞAZİÇİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
İnsan Araştırmaları Kurumsal Değerlendirme Alt Kurulu

28 Nisan 2016

Sayı: 2016/6

Süheyla Özen
Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışmanlık Bölümü
Eğitim Fakültesi

Sayın Araştırmacı,

"Anne Kabul-Reddi: Bir Annenin Kendi Annesi Tarafından Kabul-Reddi Kendi Çocuğuyla Olan İlişkisini Nasıl Etkiler?" başlıklı projeniz ile ilgili olarak yaptığınız SBB-EAK 2016/10 sayılı başvurunuz İnsan Araştırmaları Kurumsal Değerlendirme Alt Kurulu tarafından 28 Nisan 2016 tarihli toplantıda incelenmiş ve uygun bulunmuştur.

Saygılarımızla,

İnsan Araştırmaları Kurumsal Değerlendirme Alt Kurulu

Doç. Dr. Ebru Kaya

Doç. Dr. Mehmet Yiğit Gürdal

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Gül Sosay

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Mehmet Nafi Artemel

Dr. Nur Yeniçeri

APPENDIX C

INFORMED CONSENT FORM (TURKISH)

BİLGİLENDİRİLMİŞ ONAM FORMU

Çalışmayı destekleyen kurum: Boğaziçi Üniversitesi
Çalışmanın adı:Nesiller Arası Anne Kabulü Aktarımı ve Çocuklarda Psikolojik Uyum
Çalışmayı yapanların adı: Doç. Dr. Z. Hande SART / Süheyla ÖZEN
Adresi: Boğaziçi Üniversitesi, Kuzey Kampüs, Eğitim Fakültesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü
E-posta adresi: hande.sart@boun.edu.tr / suheyla.ozen@gmail.com

Sayın Veli,

Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışmalık Anabilim Dalı Yüksek Lisans öğrencisiyim. Bahar 2017 döneminde tez çalışması yürütmekteyim. Bu çalışmada bir annenin kendi annesiyle olan ilişkisinin, kendi çocuğu ile olan ilişkisindeki rolünü incelemekteyim. Bu çalışma Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Etik Kurulu onayı almıştır. Bu çalışmayı anne ve çocukları ile yapıyorum. Bunun için sizin ve sizin onayınızla çocuğunuzun fikirlerine ihtiyaç duymaktayım. Kararınızdan önce bu çalışma hakkında sizi bilgilendirmek istiyorum. Bu bilgileri okuduktan sonra çalışmaya sizin ve çocuğunuzun katılmasını isterseniz lütfen bu formu imzalayıp size vermiş olduğum zarf içinde kapalı bir biçimde en kısa zamanda bana ulaştırınız.

Bu çalışmaya katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz taktirde, sizden ve çocuğunuzdan ayrı form doldurmanızı isteyeceğiz. Bu formlar anne, baba ve çocuk ilişkileri ile ilgilidir. Bu formları doldurmak en çok 10 dakikanızı alacaktır. Anketler kağıt ve kalem kullanılarak yapılacaktır. Sizden onay alındıktan sonra çocuğunuza anket verilecektir. Bu çalışma bilimsel amaçlı yapılmaktadır ve katılımcı bilgilerinin gizliliği esas tutulmaktadır. Sizin ve çocuğunuzun ismi yazılı hiçbir materyalde kullanılmayacaktır. Bu çalışmaya katılmak tamamen isteğe bağlıdır. Katıldığınız takdirde çalışmanın herhangi bir sebep göstermeden onayınızı çekmek hakkına sahipsiniz.

Çalışma ile ilgili sorularınız, yorumlarınız ve daha fazla bilgi talebiniz olursa, benimle ve tez danışmanım Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü Öğretim Üyesi Doç. Dr. Zeynep Hande SART ile iletişime geçebilirsiniz.
Saygılarımla.

Doç. Dr. Zeynep Hande SART
Boğaziçi Üniversitesi
Eğitim Bilimleri Öğretim Üyesi
hande.sart@boun.edu.tr

Süheyla ÖZEN
Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri
Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi
suheyla.ozen@gmail.com

Eğer kendinizin ve çocuğunuzun, bu araştırma projesine katılmasını kabul ediyorsanız, lütfen bu formu imzalayıp size verilen zarfın içerisinde kapalı bir biçimde bize ulaştırın.

Yukarıdaki metni okudum ve çalışmanın kapsamını ve amacını 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 gönüllü olarak söz konusu çalışmaya hem kendimin hem de çocuğumun katılmasını kabul ediyorum.

Çocuğunuzun adı soyadı:

Okulu:

Sınıfı:

Katılımcının (annenin) adı soyadı:

İmzası:.....

Tarih (gün/ay/yıl):...../...../.....

Araştırmacının adı ve soyadı:.....
İmzası:.....

APPENDIX D

INFORMED CONSENT FORM (ENGLISH)

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Supporting Institution of the Research Project: Boğaziçi University
Name of the Research Project: Intergenerational Transmission of Maternal Acceptance and Child Psychological Adjustment
Names of the researchers: Assoc. Dr. Z. Hande SART / Süheyla ÖZEN
Address: Boğaziçi University, North Campus, Faculty of Education, Department of Educational Sciences
E-mail addresses: hande.sart@boun.ed.tr / suheyla.ozen@gmail.com

Dear Parent,

I'm master student in Program of Guidance and Psychological Counseling of Educational Sciences Department, at the Institute for Graduate Studies in Social Sciences of Boğaziçi University. I carry out thesis study in 2017-spring term. In this study, I'm examining the role of a mother's own relationship with her own mother on the relationship with her own offspring. This study was approved by Boğaziçi University's Institutional Review Board for Research with Human Subjects. I'm conducting this study with mothers and their offsprings. So I need your and your offspring's opinions (after taking permission from you). I want to inform you about this study before your decision. After reading this information, if you want you and your offspring to participate to this study, please sign this form and send it to me as soon as possible in an enclosed envelope that I give you.

When you accept to participate to this study, we want you and your offspring to fill different forms. These forms are related to relationships among mother, father and child. It will take up to10 minutes to fill out these forms. Questionnaires will be filled by using paper and pen. Questionnaires will be given to your offspring after taking your permission.

This study is conducted for scientific purposes and it is based on confidentiality of participants. Your and your offspring's name will not be used in any written material. Participation to this study is entirely voluntary. When you participate this study, you have the right to withdrawal without any reason at any point.

If you have any question about study, comments and further information, please contact me and my thesis advisor Assoc. Dr. Zeynep Hande SART who is academician in the Department of Educational Sciences of Boğaziçi University.

Assoc. Dr. Zeynep Hande SART
Boğaziçi University
Academician in the Department of Educational Sciences
Of Faculty of Education
hande.sart@boun.edu.tr

Süheyla ÖZEN
Boğaziçi University
Educational Sciences Master student
suheyla.ozen@gmail.com

If you agree for you and your offspring to participate in this research project, please sign this form and return it to us in an enclosed envelope.

I have read the text above and fully understood the scope and the purpose of the study. I had the opportunity to ask questions about the study. I undestand that I may withdraw the study whenever I want without having to specify any reason and when I withdraw, I will not encounter any negativity.

I agree that both my offspring and myself will participate voluntarily to study in these terms.

Your offspring's name and surname:
School:
Grade:
Name of the participant (mother):
Signature:……
Date (day/ month / year): ……../……../……

The name and surname of the researcher:……..
Signature:…….

APPENDIX E

MOTHER INFORMATION FORM (TURKISH)

KİŞİSEL BİLGİ FORMU
(Anneler tarafından doldurulacaktır.)

Uygulanma Tarihi:

Bu kısımda sizin kendinizle ve şu anki ailenizle (eşiniz ve çocuğunuz/çocuklarınız) ilgili sorular bulunmaktadır. Lütfen dikkatlice okuyunuz ve doldurunuz.

1. Yaşınız: .....

2. Eğitim durumunuz:

( ) 1. Okur- Yazar Değil
( ) 2. Okur-Yazar
( ) 3. İlkokul mezunu
( ) 4. Ortaokul mezunu
( ) 5. Lise ve dengi okul mezunu
( ) 6. Üniversite veya yüksek okul mezunu
( ) 7. Yüksek lisans ve Üstü
( ) 8. Diğer (belirtiniz)

3. İş: Şu anda çalışıyor musunuz?

( ) 1. Çalışmıyorum
( ) 2. Çalışıyorum

4. Çalışmaya katılacak olan çocuğunuzun babası hayatta mı?

( ) 1. Evet
( ) 2. Hayır

5. Çalışmaya katılacak olan çocuğunuzun babasının öğrenim düzeyi nedir?
( ) 1. Okur- Yazar Değil
( ) 2. Okur-Yazar
( ) 3. İlkokul mezunu
( ) 4. Ortaokul mezunu
( ) 5. Lise ve dengi okul mezunu
( ) 6. Üniversite veya yüksek okul mezunu
( ) 7. Yüksek lisans ve Üstü
( ) 8. Diğer (belirtiniz)

6. Kaç çocuğunuz var?.....

Bu kısmı çalışmamızda yer alacak olan çocuğunuzla ilgilidir. Lütfen doldurunuz.

7. Çocuğunuzun yaşı:.....

8. Cinsiyeti: Kız ( ) Oğlan ( )

9. Kaçıncı sınıfta:.....

10. Çocuğunuzun kaç kardeşi var? ( )..... kardeşi var.
( ) kardeşi yok

11. Çocuğunuz kaçıncı çocuk?.....

APPENDIX F

MOTHER INFORMATION FORM (ENGLISH)

PERSONAL INFORMATION FORM
(Filled by mothers)

Date:

In this part there are questions about yourself and your current family (your spouse and offspring/offsprings). Please read it carefully and fill it.

1. Age:…….

2. Education level:
   ( ) 1. Illiterate
   ( ) 2. Literate
   ( ) 3. Primary school
   ( ) 4. Secondary school
   ( ) 5. High school
   ( ) 6. University
   ( ) 7. Above university degree
   ( ) 8. Other (Please state)

3. Working Status: Do you work now?

   ( ) 1. Not working
   ( ) 2. Working

4. Is the father of your offspring who will participate to this study alive?

   ( ) 1. Yes
   ( ) 2. No

5. What is the education level of the father of your offspring who will participate to this study?

   ( ) 1. Illiterate
   ( ) 2. Literate
   ( ) 3. Primary school
   ( ) 4. Secondary school
   ( ) 5. High school
   ( ) 6. University
   ( ) 7. Above university degree
   ( ) 8. Other (Please state)

6. How many offspring do you have?.....

This part is about your offspring who will participate to this study. Please fill it.

7. Age of the offspring:…….
8. Gender: Female ( ) Male ( )
9. Grade of the offspring:…….
10. How many sibling does your offspring have? ( )…… sibling
    ( ) no sibling
11. What is the birth order of your offspring?.....

APPENDIX G

CHILD INFORMATION FORM (TURKISH)

KİŞİSEL BİLGİ FORMU
(Bu bölüm çocuklar tarafından doldurulacaktır.)

Lütfen aşağıdaki kısımları dikkatlice oku ve cevapla.

Okulunun adı:

Sınıfın:

1. Kaç yaşındasın?.....

2- Cinsiyetin: Kız ( ) Oğlan ( )

APPENDIX H

CHILD INFORMATION FORM (ENGLISH)

PERSONAL INFORMATION FORM
(This part will be filled by children.)

Please read the below sections carefully and answer.

The name of the school:

Your Grade:

1. How old are you?.....
2. Gender: Female ( ) Male ( )

APPENDIX I

ADULT PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION QUESTIONNAIRE (ADULT PARQ): MOTHER- SHORT VERSION (TURKISH)

Annenin Kendi Annesiyle Olan İlişkisinin Değerlendirilmesi

- Şimdi size kendi annenizle ilgili sorular soracağız.
- Bu bölüm anneler tarafından doldurulacaktır.
- Bu bölümde anne-çocuk ilişkisini içeren ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Bu ifadelerin annenizin size olan davranışlarıyla benzer olup olmadığını düşünün. Sonrasında "Hemen Hemen Her Zaman Doğru", " Bazen Doğru", "Nadiren Doğru", "Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil" şıklarından sizin için en uygun olanı işaretleyin.

- Unutmayın, doğru veya yanlış bir yanıt yoktur. Soruları cevaplarken annenizin çocukluğunuzda size nasıl davrandığını düşünün.

- Soruların tamamını dürüst, samimi ve gerçekçi bir biçimde cevaplamanız önemlidir.

ÖRNEK:

Lütfen ifadeyi okuyup, annenizi düşünüp size doğru geleni işaretleyiniz.

ANNEM	Hemen Hemen Her Zaman Doğru	Bazen Doğru	Nadiren Doğru	Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil
Ben hiç yokmuşum gibi davranırdı	o	o	o	o

	ANNEM	Hemen Hemen Her Zaman Doğru	Bazen Doğru	Nadiren Doğru	Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil
1	Benim hakkımda güzel şeyler söylerdi.	○	○	○	○
2	Bana hiç ilgi göstermezdi.	○	○	○	○
3	Benim için önemli olan şeyleri anlatabilmemi kolaylaştırırdı.	○	○	○	○
4	Hak etmediğim zaman bile bana vururdu.	○	○	○	○
5	Beni büyük bir baş belası olarak görürdü.	○	○	○	○
6	Kızdığı zaman beni cezalandırırdı.	○	○	○	○
7	Sorularımı cevaplayamayacak kadar meşguldü.	○	○	○	○
8	Benden hoşlanmıyor gibiydi.	○	○	○	○
9	Yaptığım şeylerle gerçekten ilgilenirdi.	○	○	○	○
10	Bana bir sürü kırıcı şey söylerdi.	○	○	○	○
11	Ondan yardım istediğimde beni duymazlıktan gelirdi.	○	○	○	○
12	Bana istenilen ve ihtiyaç duyulan biri olduğumu hissettirirdi.	○	○	○	○
13	Bana çok ilgi gösterirdi.	○	○	○	○
14	Beni kırmak için elinden geleni yapardı.	○	○	○	○
15	Hatırlaması gerekir diye düşündüğüm önemli şeyleri unuturdu.	○	○	○	○
16	Eğer kötü davranırsam benden hoşlanmadığını hissettirirdi.	○	○	○	○
17	Bana yaptığım şeylerin önemli olduğunu hissettirirdi.	○	○	○	○
18	Yanlış bir şey yaptığımda beni korkutur veya tehdit ederdi.	○	○	○	○
19	Benim ne düşündüğüme önem verir ve düşündüklerim hakkında konuşmamdan hoşlanırdı.	○	○	○	○
20	Ne yaparsam yapayım, diğer çocukların benden daha iyi olduğunu düşünürdü.	○	○	○	○
21	Bana istenmediğimi belli ederdi.	○	○	○	○
22	Beni sevdiğini belli ederdi.	○	○	○	○
23	Onu rahatsız etmediğim sürece benimle ilgilenmezdi.	○	○	○	○
24	Bana karşı yumuşak ve iyi kalpliydi.	○	○	○	○

APPENDIX J

ADULT PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION QUESTIONNAIRE (ADULT PARQ): MOTHER- SHORT VERSION (ENGLISH)

ADULT PARQ: Mother (Short Form)

_____ _____

Name (or I.D. number) Date

The following pages contain a number of statements describing the way mothers sometimes act toward their children. Read each statement carefully and think how well it describes the way your mother treated you when you were about 7-12 years old. Work quickly. Give your first impression and move on to the next item. Do not dwell on any item.

Four boxes are drawn after each sentence. If the statement is *basically* true about the way your mother treated you, then ask yourself, "Was it almost *always* true?" or "Was it only *sometimes* true?" If you think your mother almost always treated you that way, put an *X* in the box ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE; if the statement was sometimes true about the way your mother treated you then mark SOMETIMES TRUE. If you feel the statement is basically *untrue* about the way your mother treated you then ask yourself, "Was it *rarely* true?" or "Was it almost *never* true?" If it is rarely true about the way your mother treated you put an *X* in the box RARELY TRUE; if you feel the statement is almost never true then mark ALMOST NEVER TRUE.

Remember, there is no right or wrong answer to any statement, so be as honest as you can. Respond to each statement the way you feel your mother really was rather than the way you might have liked her to be. For example, if in your memory she almost always hugged and kissed you when you were good, you should mark the item as follows:

MY MOTHER	TRUE OF MY MOTHER		NOT TRUE OF MY MOTHER	
	Almost Always True	*Sometimes True*	*Rarely True*	*Almost Never True*
Hugged and kissed me when I was good	☒	☐	☐	☐

_____

Respondent's significant female caregiver
(if not Mother)

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MY MOTHER		TRUE OF MY MOTHER		NOT TRUE OF MY MOTHER	
		Almost Always True	*Sometimes True*	*Rarely True*	*Almost Never True*
1.	Said nice things about me	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	Paid no attention to me	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	Made it easy for me to tell her things that were important to me	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	Hit me, even when I did not deserve it	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	Saw me as a big nuisance	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	Punished me severely when she was angry	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	Was too busy to answer my questions	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	Seemed to dislike me	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	Was really interested in what I did	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	Said many unkind things to me	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	Paid no attention when I asked for help	☐	☐	☐	☐
12.	Made me feel wanted and needed	☐	☐	☐	☐
13.	Paid a lot of attention to me	☐	☐	☐	☐
14.	Went out of her way to hurt my feelings	☐	☐	☐	☐
15.	Forgot important things I thought she should remember	☐	☐	☐	☐
16.	Made me feel unloved if I misbehaved	☐	☐	☐	☐
17.	Made me feel what I did was important	☐	☐	☐	☐
18.	Frightened or threatened me when I did something wrong	☐	☐	☐	☐
19.	Cared about what I thought, and liked me to talk about it	☐	☐	☐	☐
20.	Felt other children were better than I was no matter what I did	☐	☐	☐	☐
21.	Let me know I was not wanted	☐	☐	☐	☐
22.	Let me know she loved me	☐	☐	☐	☐
23.	Paid no attention to me as long as I did nothing to bother her	☐	☐	☐	☐
24.	Treated me gently and with kindness	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX K

PARENT PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION QUESTIONNAIRE

(PARENT PARQ): MOTHER- SHORT VERSION (TURKISH)

Annenin Çocuğu İle olan İlişkisinin Değerlendirilmesi

- Bu bölüm anneler tarafından doldurulacaktır.
- Şimdi size kendi çocuğunuz ile ilgili sorular soracağız.
- Bu bölümde annenin çocuğa nasıl davrandığını ifade eden cümleler yer almaktadır. Lütfen her cümleyi dikkatle okuyup, sizin çocuğunuza nasıl davrandığınızla ne kadar bağdaşıp bağdaşmadığını düşününüz.
- Her cümlenin yanında dört tane kutu var. Eğer ifade, sizin çocuğunuza davranışınız hakkında temelde doğru ise, kendinize; "Hemen hemen her zaman mı doğru?" yoksa "Bazen mi doğru?" diye sorun. Eğer çocuğunuza hemen hemen her zaman böyle davrandığınızı düşünüyorsanız, HEMEN HEMEN HER ZAMAN DOĞRU kutusuna, bazen böyle davrandığınızı düşünüyorsanız BAZEN DOĞRU kutusuna X işareti koyunuz.
- Eğer cümle çocuğunuza karşı olan davranışınızı doğru olarak anlatmıyorsa, o zaman kendinize, "Nadiren mi doğru?" yoksa "Hemen hemen hiçbir zaman doğru değil mi?" diye sorun. Eğer çocuğunuza nadiren böyle davranıyor iseniz, "NADİREN DOĞRU" kutusuna, eğer hiçbir zaman böyle davranmıyorsanız "HEMEN HEMEN HİÇBİR ZAMAN" kutusuna X koyunuz.
- Unutmayın, doğru veya yanlış bir yanıt yoktur.
- Soruları cevaplarken çocuğunuza karşı genelde nasıl davrandığınızı düşünün.
- Soruları tamamını dürüst, samimi ve gerçekçi bir biçimde cevaplamanız önemlidir. Soruları bu çalışmaya katılacak çocuğunuzla olan ilişkinizi düşünerek yanıtlayınız.

ÖRNEK:

	BENİM İÇİN DOĞRU		BENİM İÇİN DOĞRU DEĞİL	
	Hemen Hemen Her zaman Doğru	*Bazen Doğru*	*Nadiren Doğru*	*Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil*
Çocuğum iyi davrandığı zaman ona sarılır ve öperim.	☐	☐	☐	☐

Lütfen yukarıdaki ifadeyi okuyun ve çocuğunuzla ilişkinizi düşünüp, yanıtlayın.

Şimdi arka sayfayı cevaplandırabilirsiniz- Lütfen sayfayı çeviriniz.

		BENİM İÇİN DOĞRU		BENİM İÇİN DOĞRU DEĞİL	
		Hemen Hemen Her zaman Doğru	*Bazen Doğru*	*Nadiren Doğru*	*Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil*
1.	Çocuğum hakkında güzel şeyler söylerim.	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	Çocuğuma ilgi göstermem.	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	Çocuğumun bana güvenmesini sağlarım.	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	Hak etmediği zamanlarda bile çocuğuma vururum.	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	Çocuğumu büyük bir baş belası olarak görürüm.	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	Kızdığım zaman çocuğumu cezalandırırım.	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	Çocuğumun sorularını cevaplayamayacak kadar çok meşgulümdür.	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	Çocuğumdan hoşlanmıyorum.	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	Çocuğumun ne yaptığıyla gerçekten ilgiliyimdir.	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	Çocuğuma bir sürü kırıcı sözler söylerim.	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	Çocuğum yardım istediği zaman ilgi göstermem.	☐	☐	☐	☐
12.	Çocuğuma istendiğini ve ihtiyaç duyulduğunu hissettiririm	☐	☐	☐	☐
13.	Çocuğuma çok ilgi gösteririm.	☐	☐	☐	☐
14.	Çocuğumun duygularını incitirim.	☐	☐	☐	☐
15.	Çocuğumun hatırlamam gerektiğini düşündüğü önemli şeyleri unuturum.	☐	☐	☐	☐
16.	Eğer kötü davranırsa çocuğuma sevilmediğini hissettiririm.	☐	☐	☐	☐

		BENİM İÇİN DOĞRU		BENİM İÇİN DOĞRU DEĞİL	
		Hemen Hemen Her zaman Doğru	*Bazen Doğru*	*Nadiren Doğru*	*Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil*
17.	Çocuğuma yaptığı şeylerin önemli olduğunu hissettiririm.	☐	☐	☐	☐
18.	Çocuğum yanlış bir şey yaptığı zaman onu korkutur veya tehdit ederim.	☐	☐	☐	☐
19.	Çocuğumun ne düşündüğünü önemserim, ve fikirlerini ifade etmesi için onu cesaretlendiririm.	☐	☐	☐	☐
20.	Diğer çocukların benim çocuğumdan daha iyi olduklarını düşünürüm.	☐	☐	☐	☐
21.	Çocuğuma istenmediğini hissettiririm.	☐	☐	☐	☐
22.	Çocuğuma onu sevdiğimi belli ederim.	☐	☐	☐	☐
23.	Beni rahatsız etmediği sürece çocuğumla ilgilenmem.	☐	☐	☐	☐
24.	Çocuğuma karşı yumuşak ve iyi kalpliyimdir.	☐	☐	☐	☐

KATILDIĞINIZ İÇİN ÇOK TEŞEKKÜR EDERİZ..

APPENDIX L

PARENT PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION QUESTIONNAIRE

(PARENT PARQ): MOTHER-SHORT VERSION (ENGLISH)

PARENT PARQ (Short Form)

_____ _____

Name (or I.D. number) Date

_____

Relationship to Child (Mother, Father)

The following pages contain a number of statements describing the way parents sometimes act toward their children. Read each statement carefully and think how well it describes the way you treat your child. Work quickly. Give your first impression and move on to the next item.

Four boxes are drawn after each sentence. If the statement is *basically* true about the way you treat your child then ask yourself, "Is it almost *always* true?" or "Is it only *sometimes* true?" If you think you almost always treat your child that way, put an *X* in the box ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE; if the statement is sometimes true about the way you treat your child then mark SOMETIMES TRUE. If you feel the statement is basically *untrue* about the way you treat your child then ask yourself, "Is it *rarely* true?" or "Is it almost *never* true?" If it is rarely true about the way you treat your child put an *X* in the box RARELY TRUE; if you feel the statement is almost never true then mark ALMOST NEVER TRUE.

Remember, there is no right or wrong answer to any statement, so be as honest as you can. Respond to each statement the way you feel you really treat your child rather than how you would like to treat her/him. For example, if you almost always hug and kiss your child when (s)he is good, you should mark the item as follows:

	TRUE OF ME		NOT TRUE OF ME	
	Almost Always True	***Sometimes True***	***Rarely True***	***Almost Never True***
I hug and kiss my child when s(he) is good	☒	☐	☐	☐

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		TRUE OF ME		NOT TRUE OF ME	
		Almost Always True	*Sometimes True*	*Rarely True*	*Almost Never True*
1.	I say nice things about my child	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	I pay no attention to my child	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	I make it easy for my child to confide in me	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	I hit my child even when (s)he may not deserve it	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	I see my child as a big nuisance	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	I punish my child severely when I am angry	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	I am too busy to answer my child's questions	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	I resent my child	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	I am really interested in what my child does	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	I say many unkind things to my child	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	I pay no attention to my child when (s)he asks for help	☐	☐	☐	☐
12.	I make my child feel wanted and needed	☐	☐	☐	☐
13.	I pay a lot of attention to my child	☐	☐	☐	☐
14.	I hurt my child's feelings	☐	☐	☐	☐
15.	I forget important things my child thinks I should remember	☐	☐	☐	☐
16.	I make my child feel unloved if (s)he misbehaves	☐	☐	☐	☐
17.	I make my child feel what (s)he does is important	☐	☐	☐	☐
18.	When my child does something wrong, I frighten or threaten him/her	☐	☐	☐	☐
19.	I care about what my child thinks, and encourage him/her to talk about it	☐	☐	☐	☐
20	I feel other children are better than my child	☐	☐	☐	☐
21.	I let my child know (s)he is not wanted	☐	☐	☐	☐
22.	I let my child know I love him/her	☐	☐	☐	☐
23.	I pay no attention to my child as long as (s)he does nothing to bother me	☐	☐	☐	☐
24.	I treat my child gently and with kindness	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX M

CHILD PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION QUESTIONNAIRE (CHILD PARQ): BOTH MOTHER AND FATHER-SHORT VERSIONS (TURKISH)

Mother Version

Seninle birlikte bir oyun oynayacağız. Annelerin çocuklarına karşı nasıl davrandıklarıyla ilgili bazı cümleler okuyacağım. Senden, her bir cümlenin annenin sana olan davranışlarını ne kadar anlattığını düşünmeni istiyorum. Eğer annenin okuduğum cümledeki gibi davrandığını düşünüyorsan, DOĞRU demelisin. Eğer annenin okuduğum cümledeki gibi davranmadığını düşünüyorsan, o zaman DOĞRU DEĞİL demelisin.
Eğer cevabın DOĞRU ise, kendine "Annem hemen hemen her zaman mı yoksa bazen mi böyle davranıyor" diye sormalısın.
Eğer cevabın DOĞRU DEĞİL ise, o zaman kendine "Annen nadiren (çok az) böyle davranıyor mu yoksa hemen hemen hiçbir zaman böyle davranmıyor mu?' diye sormalısın.
Hadi şimdi bir tane deneyelim.

"Annem iyi davrandığımda bana sarılır ve beni öper." Anneni düşündüğünde buna DOĞRU mu yoksa DOĞRU DEĞİL mi dersin?
(Eğer DOĞRUYSA), annenin hemen hemen her zaman mı yoksa bazen mi böyle davrandığını söylersin?
(Eğer DOĞRU DEĞİLSE), annenin nadiren (çok az) böyle davrandığını mı yoksa hemen hemen hiçbir zaman böyle davranmadığını mı söylersin?

Hemen Her Zaman Doğru', 'Bazen Doğru', 'Nadiren Doğru', 'Hiç Bir Zaman Doğru Değil' seçeneklerinden birini seç ve altındaki kutucuğun içine ☒ içine çarpı işareti koy.

ÖRNEK 1:

ANNEM	DOĞRU		DOĞRU DEĞİL	
	Hemen Her Zaman Doğru	*Bazen Doğru*	*Nadiren (Çok Az) Doğru*	*Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil*
İyi davrandığımda bana sarılır ve beni öper.	☐	☐	☐	☐

Şimdi arka sayfayı cevaplandırabilirsin- Lütfen sayfayı çevir.

ANNEM		DOĞRU		DOĞRU DEĞİL	
		Hemen Her Zaman Doğru	*Bazen Doğru*	*Nadiren (Çok Az) Doğru*	*Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil*
1.	Benim hakkımda güzel şeyler söyler.	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	Benimle hiç ilgilenmez.	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	Benim için önemli olan şeyleri ona anlatabilmemi benim için kolaylaştırır.	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	Hak etmediğim zaman bile bana vurur.	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	Beni büyük bir başbelası olarak görür.	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	Kızdığı zaman beni çok kötü cezalandırır.	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	Sorularımı cevaplayamayacak kadar meşguldür.	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	Benden hoşlanmıyor gibi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	Yaptığım şeylerle gerçekten ilgilenir.	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	Bana bir sürü kırıcı şey söyler.	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	Ondan yardım istediğimde benimle ilgilenmez.	☐	☐	☐	☐
12.	Bana istenilen ve ihtiyaç duyulan biri olduğumu hissettirir.	☐	☐	☐	☐
13.	Bana çok ilgi gösterir.	☐	☐	☐	☐
14.	Beni kırmak için elinden geleni yapar.	☐	☐	☐	☐
15.	Hatırlaması gerekir diye düşündüğüm önemli şeyleri unutur.	☐	☐	☐	☐
16.	Eğer kötü davranırsam, beni artık sevmediğini hissettirir.	☐	☐	☐	☐
17.	Bana yaptığım şeylerin önemli olduğunu hissettirir.	☐	☐	☐	☐
18.	Yanlış bir şey yaptığımda beni korkutur veya tehdit eder.	☐	☐	☐	☐
19.	Benim ne düşündüğüme önem verir ve düşündüklerim hakkında konuşmamdan hoşlanır.	☐	☐	☐	☐
20.	Ne yaparsam yapayım, diğer çocukların benden daha iyi olduğunu düşünür.	☐	☐	☐	☐
21.	Bana istenmediğimi hissettirir.	☐	☐	☐	☐
22.	Beni sevdiğini hissettirir.	☐	☐	☐	☐
23.	Onu rahatsız etmediğim sürece benimle ilgilenmez.	☐	☐	☐	☐
24.	Bana karşı yumuşak ve iyi kalplidir.	☐	☐	☐	☐

Father Version

Şimdi annen için yaptığını baban için yapacağız. Babaların çocuklarına karşı nasıl davrandıklarıyla ilgili bazı cümleler okuyacağım. Senden, her bir cümlenin babanın sana olan davranışlarını ne kadar anlattığını düşünmeni istiyorum. Eğer babanın okuduğum cümledeki gibi davrandığını düşünüyorsan, DOĞRU demelisin. Eğer babanın okuduğum cümledeki gibi davranmadığını düşünüyorsan, o zaman DOĞRU DEĞİL demelisin.

Eğer cevabın DOĞRU ise, kendine "Babam hemen hemen her zaman mı yoksa bazen mi böyle davranıyor" diye sormalısın.

Eğer cevabın DOĞRU DEĞİL ise, o zaman kendine "Baban nadiren (çok az) böyle davranıyor mu yoksa hemen hemen hiçbir zaman böyle davranmıyor mu?' diye sormalısın.

Hadi şimdi bir tane deneyelim.

"Babam iyi davrandığımda bana sarılır ve beni öper." Babanı düşündüğünde buna DOĞRU mu yoksa DOĞRU DEĞİL mi dersin?

(Eğer DOĞRUYSA), babanın hemen hemen her zaman mı yoksa bazen mi böyle davrandığını söylersin?

(Eğer DOĞRU DEĞİLSE), babanın nadiren (çok az) böyle davrandığını mı yoksa hemen hemen hiçbir zaman böyle davranmadığını mı söylersin?

Hemen Her Zaman Doğru', 'Bazen Doğru', 'Nadiren Doğru', 'Hiç Bir Zaman Doğru Değil' seçeneklerinden birini seç ve altındaki kutucuğun içine ☒ içine çarpı işareti koy.

ÖRNEK 1:

BABAM		DOĞRU		DOĞRU DEĞİL	
		Hemen Her Zaman Doğru	*Bazen Doğru*	*Nadiren (Çok Az) Doğru*	*Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil*
	İyi davrandığımda bana sarılır ve beni öper.	☐	☐	☐	☐

Şimdi arka sayfayı cevaplandırabilirsin- Lütfen sayfayı çevir.

ÇOCUĞUN BABASI İLE OLAN İLİŞKİNİN DEĞERLENDİRİLMESİ

BABAM		DOĞRU		DOĞRU DEĞİL	
		Hemen Her Zaman Doğru	*Bazen Doğru*	*Nadiren (Çok Az) Doğru*	*Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil*
1.	Benim hakkımda güzel şeyler söyler.	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	Benimle hiç ilgilenmez.	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	Benim için önemli olan şeyleri ona anlatabilmemi benim için kolaylaştırır.	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	Hak etmediğim zaman bile bana vurur.	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	Beni büyük bir başbelası olarak görür.	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	Kızdığı zaman beni çok kötü cezalandırır.	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	Sorularımı cevaplayamayacak kadar meşguldür.	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	Benden hoşlanmıyor gibi.	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	Yaptığım şeylerle gerçekten ilgilenir.	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	Bana bir sürü kırıcı şey söyler.	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	Ondan yardım istediğimde benimle ilgilenmez.	☐	☐	☐	☐
12.	Bana istenilen ve ihtiyaç duyulan biri olduğumu hissettirir.	☐	☐	☐	☐
13.	Bana çok ilgi gösterir.	☐	☐	☐	☐
14.	Beni kırmak için elinden geleni yapar.	☐	☐	☐	☐
15.	Hatırlaması gerekir diye düşündüğüm önemli şeyleri unutur.	☐	☐	☐	☐
16.	Eğer kötü davranırsam, beni artık sevmediğini hissettirir.	☐	☐	☐	☐
17.	Bana yaptığım şeylerin önemli olduğunu hissettirir.	☐	☐	☐	☐
18.	Yanlış bir şey yaptığımda beni korkutur veya tehdit eder.	☐	☐	☐	☐
19.	Benim ne düşündüğüme önem verir ve düşündüklerim hakkında konuşmamdan hoşlanır.	☐	☐	☐	☐
20.	Ne yaparsam yapayım, diğer çocukların benden daha iyi olduğunu düşünür.	☐	☐	☐	☐
21.	Bana istenmediğimi hissettirir.	☐	☐	☐	☐
22.	Beni sevdiğini hissettirir.	☐	☐	☐	☐
23.	Onu rahatsız etmediğim sürece benimle ilgilenmez.	☐	☐	☐	☐
24.	Bana karşı yumuşak ve iyi kalplidir.	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX N

CHILD PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION QUESTIONNAIRE (CHILD PARQ): BOTH MOTHER AND FATHER-SHORT VERSIONS (ENGLISH)

CHILD PARQ: Mother (Short Form)

_____ _____

Name (or I.D. number) Date

The following pages contain a number of statements describing the way mothers sometimes act toward their children. I want you to think about how each one of these fits the way your mother treats you.

Four boxes are drawn after each sentence. If the statement is *basically* true about the way your mother treats you then ask yourself, "Is it almost *always* true?" or "Is it only *sometimes* true?" If you think your mother almost always treats you that way, put an *X* in the box ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE; if the statement is sometimes true about the way your mother treats you then mark SOMETIMES TRUE. If you feel the statement is basically *untrue* about the way your mother treats you then ask yourself, "Is it *rarely* true?" or "Is it almost *never* true?" If it is rarely true about the way your mother treats you put an *X* in the box RARELY TRUE; if you feel the statement is almost never true then mark ALMOST NEVER TRUE.

Remember, there is no right or wrong answer to any statement, so be as honest as you can. Respond to each statement the way you feel your mother really is rather than the way you might like her to be. For example, if she almost always hugs and kisses you when you are good, you should mark the item as follows:

MY MOTHER	TRUE OF MY MOTHER		NOT TRUE OF MY MOTHER	
	Almost Always True	*Sometimes True*	*Rarely True*	*Almost Never True*
Hugs and kisses me when I am good	☒	☐	☐	☐

_____

Respondent's female caregiver, if not mother

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MY MOTHER		TRUE OF MY MOTHER		NOT TRUE OF MY MOTHER	
		Almost Always True	*Sometimes True*	*Rarely True*	*Almost Never True*
1.	Says nice things about me	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	Pays no attention to me	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	Makes it easy for me to tell her things that are important to me	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	Hits me, even when I do not deserve it	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	Sees me as a big nuisance	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	Punishes me severely when she is angry	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	Is too busy to answer my questions	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	Seems to dislike me	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	Is really interested in what I do	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	Says many unkind things to me	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	Pays no attention when I ask for help	☐	☐	☐	☐
12.	Makes me feel wanted and needed	☐	☐	☐	☐
13.	Pays a lot of attention to me	☐	☐	☐	☐
14.	Goes out of her way to hurt my feelings	☐	☐	☐	☐
15.	Forgets important things I think she should remember	☐	☐	☐	☐
16.	Makes me feel unloved if I misbehave	☐	☐	☐	☐
17.	Makes me feel what I do is important	☐	☐	☐	☐
18.	Frightens or threatens me when I do something wrong	☐	☐	☐	☐
19.	Cares about what I think, and likes me to talk about it	☐	☐	☐	☐
20.	Feels other children are better than I am no matter what I do	☐	☐	☐	☐
21.	Lets me know I am not wanted	☐	☐	☐	☐
22.	Lets me know she loves me	☐	☐	☐	☐
23.	Pays no attention to me as long as I do nothing to bother her	☐	☐	☐	☐
24.	Treats me gently and with kindness	☐	☐	☐	☐

CHILD PARQ: Father (Short Form)

_____ _____
Name (or I.D. number) Date

The following pages contain a number of statements describing the way fathers sometimes act toward their children. I want you to think about how each one of these fits the way your father treats you.

Four boxes are drawn after each sentence. If the statement is *basically* true about the way your father treats you then ask yourself, "Is it almost *always* true?" or "Is it only *sometimes* true?" If you think your father almost always treats you that way, put an *X* in the box ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE; if the statement is sometimes true about the way your father treats you then mark SOMETIMES TRUE. If you feel the statement is basically *untrue* about the way your father treats you then ask yourself, "Is it *rarely* true?" or "Is it almost *never* true?" If it is rarely true about the way your father treats you put an *X* in the box RARELY TRUE; if you feel the statement is almost never true then mark ALMOST NEVER TRUE.

Remember, there is no right or wrong answer to any statement, so be as honest as you can. Respond to each statement the way you feel your father really is rather than the way you might like him to be. For example, if he almost always hugs and kisses you when you are good, you should mark the item as follows:

MY FATHER	TRUE OF MY FATHER		NOT TRUE OF MY FATHER	
	Almost Always True	*Sometimes True*	*Rarely True*	*Almost Never True*
Hugs and kisses me when I am good	☒	☐	☐	☐

_____
Respondent's significant male caregiver, if not father

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MY FATHER		TRUE OF MY FATHER		NOT TRUE OF MY FATHER	
		Almost Always True	*Sometimes True*	*Rarely True*	*Almost Never True*
1.	Says nice things about me	☐	☐	☐	☐
2.	Pays no attention to me	☐	☐	☐	☐
3.	Makes it easy for me to tell him things that are important to me	☐	☐	☐	☐
4.	Hits me, even when I do not deserve it	☐	☐	☐	☐
5.	Sees me as a big nuisance	☐	☐	☐	☐
6.	Punishes me severely when he is angry	☐	☐	☐	☐
7.	Is too busy to answer my questions	☐	☐	☐	☐
8.	Seems to dislike me	☐	☐	☐	☐
9.	Is really interested in what I do	☐	☐	☐	☐
10.	Says many unkind things to me	☐	☐	☐	☐
11.	Pays no attention when I ask for help	☐	☐	☐	☐
12.	Makes me feel wanted and needed	☐	☐	☐	☐
13.	Pays a lot of attention to me	☐	☐	☐	☐
14.	Goes out of his way to hurt my feelings	☐	☐	☐	☐
15.	Forgets important things I think he should remember	☐	☐	☐	☐
16.	Makes me feel unloved if I misbehave	☐	☐	☐	☐
17.	Makes me feel what I do is important	☐	☐	☐	☐
18.	Frightens or threatens me when I do something wrong	☐	☐	☐	☐
19.	Cares about what I think, and likes me to talk about it	☐	☐	☐	☐
20.	Feels other children are better than I am no matter what I do	☐	☐	☐	☐
21.	Lets me know I am not wanted	☐	☐	☐	☐
22.	Lets me know he loves me	☐	☐	☐	☐
23.	Pays no attention to me as long as I do nothing to bother him	☐	☐	☐	☐
24.	Treats me gently and with kindness	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX O

STRENGTHS AND DIFFICULTIES QUESTIONNAIRE (SDQ) (TURKISH)

GÜÇLER VE GÜÇLÜKLER ANKETİ

Her cümle için, Doğru Değil, Kısmen Doğru, Tamamen Doğru kutularından birini işaretleyiniz. Kesinlikle emin olamasanız ya da size anlamsız görünse de elinizden geldiğince tüm cümleleri yanıtlamanız bize yardımcı olacaktır. Lütfen yanıtlarınızı son 6 ay içindeki davranışlarınızı göz önüne alarak veriniz.

Adınız: ..... Kız / Oğlan

Doğum Tarihiniz:.....

	Doğru Değil	Kısmen Doğru	Kesinlikle Doğru
İnsanlara karşı iyi davranmaya çalışırım. Onların duygularını önemserim.	☐	☐	☐
Uzun süre kıpırdamadan oturamam, huzursuz olurum.	☐	☐	☐
Çok fazla baş ağrım, karın ağrım ya da bulantım olur.	☐	☐	☐
Genellikle başkalarıyla paylaşırım (Örn. Yiyeceklerimi, oyunlarımı, kalemimi vs.).	☐	☐	☐
Çok öfkelenirim ve sıkça kontrolümü kaybederim.	☐	☐	☐
Genellikle yalnız başımayım. Genelde yalnız oynarım ya da başkalarıyla birlikte olmaktan kaçınırım.	☐	☐	☐
Genellikle bana söyleneni yaparım.	☐	☐	☐
Çok endişelenirim.	☐	☐	☐
Eğer birisi incinmiş, morali bozulmuş ya da kendini kötü hissediyor ise ona yardım ederim.	☐	☐	☐
Sürekli ellerim ayaklarım kıpır kıpırdır ya da oturduğu yerde kıpırdanıp dururum.	☐	☐	☐
En az bir yakın arkadaşım vardır.	☐	☐	☐
Çok kavga ederim. Diğer insanlara istediğimi yaptırabilirim.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça mutsuz, kederli ya da ağlamaklıyım.	☐	☐	☐
Yaşıtlarım genelde beni sever.	☐	☐	☐
Dikkatim kolayca dağılır, dikkatimi toplamakta güçlük çekerim.	☐	☐	☐
Yeni ortamlarda gerginim. Kendine güvenimi kolayca kaybederim.	☐	☐	☐
Kendimden küçüklere iyi davranırım.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça hile yapmakla ya da yalan söylemekle suçlanırım.	☐	☐	☐
Diğer çocuklar ya da gençler bana takarlar ya da benimle alay ederler.	☐	☐	☐
Sıkça başkalarına (anne baba, öğretmen, diğer çocuklar) yardım etmeye istekli olurum.	☐	☐	☐
Bir şeyi yapmadan önce düşünürüm.	☐	☐	☐
Ev, okul ya da başka bir yerden benim olmayan şeyleri alırım.	☐	☐	☐
Erişkinlerle yaşıtlarımdan daha iyi geçinirim.	☐	☐	☐
Pek çok korkum var. Kolayca ürkerim.	☐	☐	☐
Yaptığım işleri bitiririm. Dikkatim iyidir.	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX P

STRENGTHS AND DIFFICULTIES QUESTIONNAIRE (SDQ) (ENGLISH)

Please read the questionnaire carefully. For each of the statements put a tick in the box that **you** think is most like you. It would help us if you put a tick for all the statements – even if it seems a bit daft! Please give answers on the basis of how you have been feeling over the last six months.

Your Name _____ **Male/Female** **Date of Birth** _____

	Not True	Somewhat True	Certainly True
I try to be nice to people. I care about their feelings	☐	☐	☐
I get restless, I cannot sit still for long	☐	☐	☐
I get a lot of headaches, stomach-aches or sickness	☐	☐	☐
I usually share with others (food, games, pens etc.)	☐	☐	☐
I get very angry and often lose my temper	☐	☐	☐
I am usually on my own. I generally play alone or keep to myself	☐	☐	☐
I usually do as I am told	☐	☐	☐
I worry a lot	☐	☐	☐
I am helpful if someone is hurt, upset or feeling ill	☐	☐	☐
I am constantly fidgeting or squirming	☐	☐	☐
I have one good friend or more	☐	☐	☐
I fight a lot. I can make other people do what I want	☐	☐	☐
I am often unhappy, downhearted or tearful	☐	☐	☐
Other people my age generally like me	☐	☐	☐
I am easily distracted, I find it difficult to concentrate	☐	☐	☐
I am nervous in new situations. I easily lose confidence	☐	☐	☐
I am kind to younger children	☐	☐	☐
I am often accused of cheating or lying	☐	☐	☐
Other children or young people pick on or bully me	☐	☐	☐
I often volunteer to help others (parents, teachers, children)	☐	☐	☐
I think before I do things	☐	☐	☐
I take things that are not mine from home, school or elsewhere	☐	☐	☐
I get on better with adults than with people my own age	☐	☐	☐
I have many fears, I am easily scared	☐	☐	☐
I finish the things I'm doing. My attention is good	☐	☐	☐

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