

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
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PARENTING AND SCHEMA TRANSMISSIONS BETWEEN GENERATIONS:
AN INTERGENERATIONAL ANALYSIS

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

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ABSTRACT

Early relationships or experiences between parents and children are of fundamental importance for the child's physical, social and psychological (emotional) development. In other words, the family environment is one of the most important determining factors for the development and life of children. In this sense, children's development of cognitive schemas about themselves, others and life occurs through early experiences with parents. The main purpose of this study is to examine whether the early maladaptive schemas of the parents affect the schemas of their children. In addition, it is to examine whether there is a relationship between individuals' schemas and their parents' parenting styles. The method of the study is the relational screening model. The sample of the study is determined as 135. Three groups were formed as children (n=45), mothers (n=45) and fathers (n=45). In the study, a questionnaire consisting of demographic information, Young Parenting Inventory (YPI) and Young Schema Questionnaire (YSQ) scales is used as a data collection tool. According to the results, there are differences in terms of age, marital status and number of siblings, education status, education of the mother, education of the father, psychological assistance status, profession and gender, having early maladaptive schemas. A significant correlation was observed between parenting styles and schemas. When the studies in the literature are examined, it is seen that similar results are obtained to the study.

Keywords: Parenting Style, Schema Transmissions, Intergenerational Analysis.

ÖZET

Ebeveynler ve çocuklar arasındaki erken ilişkiler veya deneyimler, çocuğun fiziksel, sosyal ve psikolojik (duygusal) gelişimi için temel öneme sahiptir. Diğer bir deyişle aile ortamı, çocukların gelişimi ve yaşamı için en önemli belirleyici faktörlerden biridir. Bu anlamda, çocukların kendileri, başkaları ve yaşamla ilgili bilişsel şemalarının gelişimi, ebeveynleri ile erken deneyimler yoluyla ortaya çıkmaktadır. Bu çalışmanın temel amacı, ebeveynlerin erken dönem uyumsuz şemalarının çocuklarının şemalarını etkileyip etkilemediğini incelemektir. Ayrıca bireylerin şemaları ile ebeveynlerinin ebeveynlik stilleri arasında bir ilişki olup olmadığını incelemektir. Araştırmanın yöntemi ilişkisel tarama modelidir. Araştırmanın örneklemi 135 olarak belirlenmiştir. Çocuklar (n=45), anneler (n=45) ve babalar (n=45) olmak üzere üç grup oluşturulmuştur. Araştırmada veri toplama aracı olarak demografik bilgiler, Young Ebeveynlik Envanteri (YPI) ve Young Şema Anketi (YSQ) ölçeklerinden oluşan bir anket kullanılmıştır. Elde edilen sonuçlara göre yaş, medeni durum ve cinsiyet, erken dönem uyumsuz şemalara sahip olma açısından farklılıklar bulunmaktadır. Ebeveynlik stilleri ile şemalar arasında anlamlı bir ilişki gözlenmiştir. Literatürdeki çalışmalar incelendiğinde çalışma ile benzer sonuçların elde edildiği görülmektedir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Ebeveynlik Tarzı, Şema Aktarımları, Kuşaklar Arası Analiz.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BC:	Belittling Criticizing
CAF:	Conditional Achievement Focused
ED:	Emotionally Depriving
EA:	Exploitative Abusive
N:	Normative
OA:	Overprotective Anxious
OPB:	Over Permissive Boundless
PW:	Pessimistic Worried
P:	Punitive
REI:	Restricted Emotionally Inhibited

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Schemas usually develop during childhood and adolescence and are effective for the person to adapt to the environment and family in which he is located. Early maladaptive schemas are self-destructive emotional cognitive patterns that begin early in our development and are repeated throughout our lives (Young et al., 2009). The unmet needs of the individual during childhood constitute the early maladaptive schemas and these affect our attitude to the outside world. Early maladaptive schemas also trigger negative attitudes and behaviors as they affect our reactions to the environment. Schemas are resistant to change [rafaeli et al., 2018]. Individuals focus on their views that are consistent with their schema and ignore those that are not consistent. In the same way, they engage in behaviors that perpetuate schemas, and coping patterns emerge. Behavior is not part of the schema, it is part of the coping response (Young et al., 2009). The schema creates the behaviors. Individuals develop incompatible coping patterns according to their existing schemas in early childhood and adolescence. The formation of schemas in infancy depends on the schemas that the parent has. When the parent's schema is activated, the schemas are also triggered in the parent's child interaction (Loose et al., 2018). The schemas that parents have also arise in the relationship they establish with the child. When adults take on the role of parents, their schema and coping patterns continue. Their coping patterns shape their attitudes and behaviors towards their children. Children with different temperaments face different life circumstances. Two children with two different temperaments in the family will receive different reactions and, accordingly, will be fed different schemas. In addition, different temperaments cause children to react

differently to similar living conditions (Martin and Young, 2010). Children in the same family, one of whom is aggressive and the other is calm, may interpret and react differently to similar behaviors they see from their parents depending on their temperament. Since schemas shape the behavior of parents, the basis of the behavior they exhibit to their children is the schemas of the parents. All of these behaviors are parental attitudes. Intra-family relationships and the methods adopted by parents while raising children are one of the most important factors affecting the psychosocial development of the child. The different attitudes that parents show to their children are effective in developing different personalities of children (Kuzgun and Eldeleklioğlu, 1999). The extent of the relationship between parent and child affects the child's personality, either positively or negatively. Children whose needs are adequately met in the family and who are able to establish healthy bonds are expected to be healthy adults. According to Soygüt and Çakır (2009), the dysfunctional parenting style exposed during childhood seems to be effective in the process of causing a psychological problem in adulthood and in the formation of a non-functional pattern primarily at the schema level. The basis of a psychological problem in adulthood may be that a person has a negative attitude from their parents in childhood. Therefore, considering the effect of parental attitudes on the family environment, the factors that constitute parental attitudes are discussed. In this research, the relationship between early maladaptive schemas of parents and children and parental attitudes is examined.

Early maladaptive schemas of parents and children are seen to be effective in parental attitudes according to generation, gender, age, education status, occupation, mother education status, father education status, number of siblings and psychological

assistance status variables (Aydoğdu and Dilekmen, 2016 ; Görücü and Karakuş, 2017). Education status and profession are seen be effective in the attitudes of parents (Görücü and Karakuş, 2017). In addition, it is seen that parents and children have a generation, gender, age, education status, occupation, number of siblings and psychological assistance status effect on early maladaptive schemas (Sak et.al., 2015). As a result of the Differentiation of early maladaptive schemas of parents and children according to demographic variables, demographic variables can be considered in clinical studies on individuals' early maladaptive schemas. In this way, it is thought that it will contribute to the field of psychology. For this reason, it is examined whether there is a differentiation according to the demographic variables mentioned within the scope of the research.

1.2. PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

Early relationships or experiences between parents and children are of fundamental importance for the child's physical, social and psychological (emotional) development. In other words, the family environment is one of the most important determining factors for the development and life of children. In this sense, children's development of cognitive schemas about themselves, others and life occurs through early experiences with parents.

It is seen that there are many theories to explain the relationship or interaction of parents and children in the early period. One of these theories is the attachment theory put forward by John Bowlby (Bowlby, 1973). According to the theory, different attachment patterns and internal working models are developed as a result of the interaction between attachment figures and the child in the early stages of life. These

internal working models include children's mental representations of themselves and others. Mental representations, in addition to laying the groundwork for other representations of the individual's life, also direct their future lives (eg, interpersonal relationships, emotions, behaviors or attitudes). In particular, it is claimed that individuals exposed to negative experiences during childhood develop maladaptive or dysfunctional internal models and thus become prone to psychopathology in adulthood (Sheffield et al., 2005).

In their cognitive theory, Beck, Rush, Shaw, and Emery (1979) hypothesize that schemas containing the individual's perceptions and beliefs about the self, the world and the future are formed as a result of experiences with parents in the early period. In the theory, it is stated that these schemas play an important role in the emergence and maintenance of psychopathologies (mostly depression and anxiety). Similarly, Young, Klosko, and Weishaar (2003) revealed in schema theory that negative experiences with parents and peers during childhood and adolescence lead to the development of maladaptive schemas. According to the theory, early maladaptive schemas arise from the interaction of basic emotional needs, abuse and neglect experiences, and biological temperament.

Early maladaptive schemas, which begin to develop in the first years of life and affect the individual's psychological development, functionality and interpersonal relationships, develop as a result of negative interactions within the family of origin. These cognitive structures, which are rigid and resistant to change, are defined as the family's own dynamics becoming the dynamics of the child's early world (Young et.al., 2003). From this perspective, parents can transfer their own cognitive schemas, cognitions and attitudes to their children through early interactions with their children.

In other words, parents whose early maladaptive schemas are active, intense, and powerful may convey verbal or nonverbal messages to their children that they are worthless, flawed, inadequate, or unsuccessful. Thus, they can cause their children to experience the schemas in question in similar or different ways (schema transfer). The main purpose of this study is to examine whether the early maladaptive schemas of the parents affect the schemas of their children. In addition, it is to examine whether there is a relationship between individuals' schemas and their parents' parenting styles.

1.3. RESEARCH QUESTION

The research question for this study is; “Do early maladaptive schemas and parenting styles that parents have affect the schemas their children have?”

1.4. SUB QUESTIONS

The sub-questions of this study are below.

- Is there a relationship between the children's early maladaptive schemas?
- Is there a relationship between the parents' early maladaptive schemas?
- Is there a relationship between individuals' parenting styles?
- Does parenting styles of individuals significantly difference according to demographic information (generation, gender, age)?
- Does Early Maladaptive Schemas of individuals significantly difference according to demographic information (generation, gender, age)?
- Does parenting styles and other directedness schema of parent significantly predict other directedness schema of child?

- Does parenting styles and impaired limits schema (impaired autonomy schema) of parent significantly predict impaired (impaired autonomy schema) limits schema of child?
- Does parenting styles and unrelenting standards schema (disconnection and rejection schema) of parent significantly predict unrelenting standards schema (disconnection and rejection schema) of child?

1.5. ASSUMPTIONS

The assumptions of the research are as follows.

- The measurement tool is valid and reliable enough,
- The sample group taken from the universe represents the universe,
- Respondents gave correct answers to the survey questions,
- A certain control variable did not differentiate the experimental and control groups.
- It can be considered as an assumption.

1.6. LIMITATIONS

The limitations of the research are as follows.

- Obtaining data based on verbal declaration,
- Historical data collection is also effective in the memory factor,
- Inability to determine the appropriate time from the participants, institution, etc. to collect data,

- When examining parenting and schema transmissions between generations, it is a limitation to consider only students and their parents instead of all individuals.
- When dealing with schema transfers, examining individuals between a certain age is a limitation in terms of time and resources.



2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. SCHEMA

The schema is defined as a formal example of the meaningful and fundamental relationships between concepts or variables (Turkish Language Society, 2017). In the science of psychology, the pattern of thought or behavior is expressed as a scheme that organizes our relations between our past experiences and our relations between these experiences and helps us to evaluate new situations/events. In other words, when the schema is mentioned, cognitive structures containing important and permanent elements of past experiences are pointed out (Gureckis and Goldstone, 2010). In this respect, the scheme is thought to function in terms of understanding and evaluating what the stimuli that affect them are. The concept of schema has been tried to be explained by many theories or theorists.

First, Jean Piaget (1928) described the schema as one of the basic mental structures containing thoughts and behavior patterns by addressing the developmental (mental development) context. According to Piaget, individuals perceive, organize and interpret the outside world through schemas formed in the early lives of their lives. In addition to Piaget, many researchers have used concepts similar to the scheme to explain the regularity or continuity observed in cognitive behavior. David Rapaport's "Conceptual Tools", George Kelly's "Personal Structures" or Sarbin's modules can be given as examples of these concepts (Beck and Alford, 2009).

2.1.1. Aaron Beck's Conceptualization of Schema

Aaron Beck described the concept of schema in his first book (Depression: Clinical, experimental and theoretical aspects, 1967). According to this definition, the scheme is a cognitive pattern or structure that allows the examination, coding and evaluation of a stimulus affecting the organism. Through the schemas, the individual can direct himself in relation to time and space and classify and interpret his experiences in a significant way (Beck and Alford, 2009; Beck et al., 1979). Thus, when the individual faces situations similar to what he / she has experienced, he does not need to re-evaluate or analyze the situation; He refers to the schemas that have previously been built. In addition, the schemas have an important role in the formation of emotions, behaviors or attitudes by providing such cognitive framework (Beck and Alford, 2009; Beck et al., 1979).

Beck et al. (1979) argue that schemas contain perceptions or beliefs for the individual's self, the outside world, other people and the future, and these schemas develop as a result of the experiences of the early care of basic care (often parents). In particular, they have demonstrated schemas roles in the development and maintenance of psychopathologies (usually depression). In this sense, according to Beck's cognitive theory, schemas include complex taxonomic systems to classify environmental stimuli, as well as cognitive elements such as assumptions, counts and intermediate beliefs (Beck and Alford, 2009). In other words, in the context of psychopathology, it is revealed that the schemas shaped by negative childhood experiences contain faulty thoughts, distorted attitudes, invalid assumptions and unrealistic goals and expectations. For example, an individual with a scheme or

fundamental belief that he has failed will evaluate or interpret their lives based on this basis.

In cognitive theory (Beck et al., 1979; Riskind and Alloy, 2006), it is suggested that cognitive schemas containing negative, resistant and non-functional structures make individuals prone to psychological problems. Accordingly, during adulthood, the schemas of the individual can be triggered or activated by various life events (interpersonal relationships or stressing experiences). The enabled schemas mediate the perception and meaning of the event, and thus negative thoughts about the event or self may arise. This process may lead to the formation of grounds for psychological problems or the risk factors (Beck et al., 1979; Riskind and Alloy, 2006). As a result, Beck et al. (1979) described the harmonious and non-functional schemas as structures that increase the effects of stress factors and constitute susceptibility to depression.

It is seen that basic negative beliefs or schemas are generally divided into three categories. These categories are helplessness, unlovability and worthlessness. The basic belief of helplessness in general, "I am weak", "I am inadequate" and "I need the help of others"; The basic belief of unlovability that "I am not loved", "I'm not worthy of being loved", "I will be abandoned" and "I am different from others" and worthlessness basic belief represents "I am no use", "I am a worthless person" and "I do not deserve to live" (Beck, 1999; Beck, 2005). In addition to these fundamental beliefs, it was later defined basic beliefs towards the outside and other people (Beck, 2011]. This fundamental belief contains cognition that other people are often unreliable and the world is a dangerous place.

Beck's conceptualization of schemas was supported by many theoretical studies (Abramson et al., 1999; Ingram et al., 1998). For example, Gibb et al. (2001] showed

that negative cognitive styles significantly mediates the relationship between emotional abuse and hopelessness depression in a study in which they examined the relationships between childhood abuse, negative cognitive styles, major cognitive styles and despair depression. Similarly, in a compilation study, which includes the relations between childhood abuse and negative cognitive styles, there were significant relationships between emotional and sexual abuse and negative cognitive styles, while there was no relationship between physical abuse and negative cognitive styles (Gibb, 2002). In the same study, it was stated that individuals abused by both family members and other individuals exhibited more negative cognitive styles.

In summary, cognitive theory argues that negative childhood experiences are the basis for the formation of negative cognitive beliefs or schemas and these schemas also lead to the development of psychopathologies. The next section will include the conceptualization of the early maladaptive scheme put forward by Jeffrey Young.

2.1.2. Jeffrey Young's Conceptualization of Early Maladaptive Schemas

Although Beck's conceptualization is at the center of the cognitive theory, he points to negative belief clusters generally (non-functional beliefs and inferences) (Beck and Alford, 2009). Young et al. (2003), on the other hand, described the concept of “early maladaptive schemas” based on Beck's conceptualization in the scheme theory. Accordingly, in the development of early maladaptive schemas, negative experiences and parenting forms of attachment figures play a role. In addition, in the concept of early scheme, fundamental emotional needs and developmental processes are given more importance and focus on cognitive variables as well as more focused on emotions, memories and sensations.

It is assumed that early maladaptive distorting schemas develop as a result of repetitive damaging experiences (eg. neglect or abuse) and care, safety, belonging or love. These schemas affect the individual's emotions, thoughts and behavior or the way of perception and interpretation of the outside world, and shaping the ways of establishing relationships with other people. As a result, schemas affect the psychological harmony, health and functionality of the individual and cause psychological problems that may arise.

2.2. SCHEMA MODEL AND DEVELOPMENT

The schema model or theory (Young et al., 2003) stands out as an integrative and innovative approach that expands the basic concepts of traditional cognitive behavioral therapy. In addition to the cognitive-behavioral approach, theory contains elements from various approaches such as attachment, psychoanalytic, object relationships, transactional analysis and Gestalt; It offers a comprehensive structure for theoretical and practice.

Young et al. (2003), based on clinical experiences, observed that the cognitive-behavioral therapy approach, which aims to solve and reduce the symptoms of patients' current life problems, was effective in the treatment of various psychopathologies (eg depression, anxiety disorders, eating disorders). However, they concluded that this approach was insufficient in the treatment of patients with continuous and personality disorder or experiencing long-term relationship problems. In addition, it has been observed that some depression and anxiety disorder patients treated with cognitive-behavioral therapy have occurred in patients. In order for the treatment of this characteristic patients to be realized more effectively, they have

shown that they should be focused on both the current functionality and their childhood experiences associated with this functionality. From this point of view, they have developed the scheme therapy approach to incompatible coping skills, therapist-patient relations (therapeutic relationship), emotional techniques and the origins of psychological problems in childhood/puberty (Arntz and Jacob, 2012; Young et al., 2003).

According to the schema model, the basis of psychopathologies that occur during adulthood is the ‘early maladaptive schemas’ developing as a result of negative experiences in childhood (Young et al., 2003). In the theory, early maladaptive schemas are defined as “usually developing during childhood and adolescence, consisting of memories, emotions, cognitives and physical sensations, dysfunctional to a significant degree, complex and constantly repeating molds or patterns throughout the person's life” (Young et al., 2003, pp. 25-26). These schemas may increase or decrease in terms of violence and intensity during life due to the living conditions, individual coping skills and interpersonal patterns, and they can survive due to these factors (Arntz and Jacob, 2012; Young et al., 2003).

In order to express this approach, different expressions such as schema theory, scheme therapy, scheme model, scheme therapy model are mentioned. Within the scope of this study, these terms are used interchangeably in different places.

2.2.1. Formation of Early Maladaptive Schemas

It is suggested that three factors play an important role in the formation of early maladaptive schemas. These factors are basic core emotional needs, early life experiences and biological temperament (Young et al., 2003). In particular, the

schemas developed due to the interaction of these three factors with each other, or the interaction between these factors determines the intensity or severity of the scheme.

2.2.1.1. Core Emotional Needs

Young et al. (2003) reveals that each individual has the core emotional needs that must be met in childhood and are universal. These requirements are defined as follows:

- Secure attachments to others (includes safety, stability, nurturance, and acceptance)
- Autonomy, competence, and sense of identity
- Freedom to express valid needs and emotions
- Spontaneity and play
- Realistic limits and self-control

The density of these requirements varies from person to person. The psychologically healthy and consistent development of the individual depends on the sufficient meet of these requirements. According to Young et al. (2003), as a result of the fact that core emotional needs are not met by basic care, the individual's beliefs in the world and other people develop early maladaptive schemas. In other words, early maladaptive schemas indicate that the individual has core emotional needs that are important for their emotional or psychological development but are not met, and that parental care or support is inadequate (van Genderen et al., 2012).

2.2.1.2. Early Childhood Experiences

The interaction between the basic caregivers and the child affects the individual's emotions, thoughts and behaviors, self-perception and interpersonal relations in adolescence and adulthood [rafaeli et al., 2011; Young et al., 2003; Young and Klosko, 1993). The fact that this interaction is realized in an insecure and unstable way forms the basis for early maladaptive schemas. In the scheme theory, it was emphasized the importance of childhood experiences and revealed that repetitive experiences that occur during childhood and puberty were decisive for the development of schemas. Four basic negative childhood experiences that lead to the development of early maladaptive schemas have been identified [rafaeli et al., 2011; Young et al., 2003).

These experiences:

(a) Harmful inhibition of meeting core emotional needs: This life involves deprived of core emotional needs of the child, such as understanding, love, stability, protection or security. Children who are exposed to such deprivation can develop schemas of emotional deprivation or abandonment.

(b) Exposure to trauma or sacrifice: In childhood, it includes the lives of the individual, such as damage or hurting, victimization, pressure, or threatening by the individuals who give basic care. In such experiences, there is no safety needs within the core emotional needs. When this need is not met, insecurity, excessive cautiousness and anxious or desperate state may occur. It is suggested that individuals can develop embarrassment, insecurity/abuse and harm or disease schemas in their future life periods due to the face of these experiences.

(c) Overprotection of the needs: This kind of life involves families trying to meet the needs of their children more than necessary (immeasurable). In other words, children experience getting more than the good. They are spoiled or not treated badly in any way. Families have extreme intervention in their children's lives or give extreme autonomy and freedom to their children. Examples of this is that families fulfill their children instantly or reward manipulating behaviors. In addition, families do not encourage or direct their children to empathize with the emotions of others or to value their thoughts. Individuals who are exposed to this kind of life can develop schemas in their future lives, as their core emotional needs such as autonomy and realistic boundaries are not met.

(d) Selective internalization and identification: The family atmosphere in which we are born is one of the most important stylists of our childhood. In this sense, individuals model the feelings, thoughts, behaviors and experiences of their families in childhood, selectively internalize or identify with them.

It is known that many things about life are learned or gained from these childhood interactions. When the process of selective internalization or identification, in other words, the process of social learning is inadequate to meet the emotional needs of the individual, the basis of the formation of early maladaptive schemas are prepared. For example, an extremely anxious mother or father may not give his daughter a direct deficiency in terms of meeting emotional and physical needs; However, indirectly, public can teach that the world is full of dangers and unpredictable or uncontrollable. Thus, the young girl may not be able to form a safe basis for life and other people. As a result, this situation is not due to the weak/inadequate relationship or care level of the mother or father, but the mother/father does not feel safe.

2.2.1.3. Biological Temperament

In the formation of early maladaptive schemas, it is stated that the core emotional needs are not met and the negative childhood experiences, as well as the innate biological temperament and the cultural environment in which the child lives in, played an important role (Young et al., 2003). Temperament is defined as emotional structures that affect how the individual reacts to the environment or events. In other words, these biological-based structures are seen as a way of communicating with the environment or reacting to the environment from birth [rothbart, 2007; Young et al., 2003). In particular, it is suggested that the interaction between childhood experiences and temperament plays a role in the formation of early maladaptive schemas by preventing the meeting of core emotional needs (Arntz and Jacob, 2012; Young et al., 2003; Young and Klosko, 1993). From this point of view, children who are exposed to similar life events can develop different reactions because of their temperament characteristics and thus have schemas of different content. For example, two children with calm and sociable temperaments may not react similar to their families' cold and rejected attitudes. While the calm temper child can become passively inner and dependent on the mother; Children with sociable temper can force himself to establish interpersonal relationships and thus have more positive relationships.

Although it is limited in its literature, there are findings of supporting the relationship between early maladaptive schemas and temperament. For example, Haugh et al. (2017), in an example of university students, has shown that one of the temperament characteristics is positively related to disconnection and damaged autonomy scheme domains, and that the extroversion is negatively related. In another

study, it was found that neurotic and inward temperament properties are associated with the scheme domain (Mairet et al., 2014). Halvorsen et al. (2009) found that the damage temperament was positively with schemas and the self-power temperament showed negative relationships. In addition to these studies, there are also studies that show that temperament does not have a significant effect on schemas (Calvete, 2014).

In summary, three basic processes play a role in the development of early maladaptive schemas, and it is suggested that these processes act in interaction and form the basis of the schemas that the individual may have. These processes are not to meet the core emotional needs required for the child to develop healthy in the childhood period; In the childhood period, negative childhood experiences, which include negative forms of parenting (eg overprotective, abuse or neglect); and it is the selective internalization and identification of the parents. The characteristics of the early maladaptive schemas will be discussed extensively in the next section.

2.2.2. Characteristics of Early Maladaptive Schemas

As defined in the theory of scheme, early adaptive disruptive schemas are usually seen in all individuals. In some individuals, it is seen as a combination of a single schema or several schemas; in other individuals, at the level of psychopathology, social functionality and emotional experiences have a disruptive content. For example, in individuals with personality disorder, many scheme patterns are generally evident, while only a few schemas are prominent in individuals with limited life problems and high social functionality (Arntz and Jacob, 2012).

The schemas that started to develop during childhood and puberty were initially emerged as reality-based representations or patterns. In particular, it is suggested that

these schemas can adapt to the family environment in which the child lives in the childhood period and to comprehend who they are or how the world is like (Young et al., 2003). In this sense, schemas create cognitive consistency by providing a predictable world perception. In addition to dragging them into difficult situations, they have a relaxing function as they are familiar for individuals. Cognitively, they allow us to direct our attention to the information that is consistent with our scheme and to remember the situations that are appropriate with our scheme (Rafaeli et al., 2011). In other words, individuals feel close to events or situations that trigger their schemas. Thanks to this functionality it provides, the schema becomes a solid and change-resistant structure, leads the shaping of subsequent experiences and thus survive. An example of the fact that the schemas are initially functional and then dysfunctional, individuals with emotional deprivation schemas can be given. It is healthy for individuals who have this scheme to demand emotional support from others to a certain degree, but it is unhealthy for others to take action against others with the overcompensation of the scheme of deprivation (Young et al., 2003).

Although the schemas contribute to adaptation to the family in the childhood stages of life, their dysfunctional structures (contents) become evolving interpersonal relationships or person's mental state in the future. One of the reasons for this is the activation of the schema in the face of all situations (in real damage to non-damaging situations) that are similar to the childhood. Another reason is to stay in the “comfortable and familiar”, although the diagram has the opportunity to experience new or different experiences in terms of interpersonal relationships and behaviors [rafaeli et al., 2011; Young et al., 2003].

Early maladaptive schemas are usually triggered or activated by events or situations that play a role in the formation of that schema. For example, because of a scheme of insecurity, when a woman with a scheme of insecurity that men will be bad and unreliable experiences small negativity in her relationship, this scheme can be triggered. Similarly, there is a intense burden of emotion that schemas bring to the individual from the past (Young et al., 2003). For example, when a person who has a belief that the important people he has relations will end up, he will experience intense negative emotions such as pain, sadness, anger or anxiety when he encounters a situation that triggers this scheme. Together, it is revealed that early maladaptive distorting schemas began to develop in the childhood periods, shaped the perception of the individual and the environment, led to interpersonal relations and have ongoing effects throughout life. Since the schemas produce a functional structure, they are maintained by the individual, but then they become harmful and activate negative emotions through triggering events. As a result, individuals keep the conditions that harm them during childhood or adolescence without realizing them in their adult lives (Young et al., 2003; Young and Klosko, 1993; Young, 1999).

2.2.3. Foundations of Early Maladaptive Schemas

The origins of the schemas were examined by Young et al. (2003) in three separate groups:

1. Company of basic universal emotional needs: Young et al. (2003) argued that all people have the core emotional needs and these needs are universal. These needs are security, stability, acceptance, care, autonomy,

competition, need and freedom of expressing emotions, spontaneity, game and the formation of one's self-control as they have defined as the need for living in a world with realistic limits (Rafaeli et al., 2011). The formation of mental health is possible by meeting one's needs in harmony. As soon as he comes to the world, the needs of the person begin to form. The formation of scheme is observed if the individual's temperament and early environment prevent the elimination of these needs. The individual who experiences that their needs are not met tries to meet these needs in incompatible ways in later ages (Young, 1999).

2. Early Life Experiences: Four different early life experiences can prevent the meeting of basic universal needs (Young et al., 2003).

- Prevention of needs: The most basic needs of the child such as stability, love and understanding are not met. The child experiences and suffers from experiences in which these needs are prevented.
- Trauma: The child suffering from physical or emotional damage from the environment is formed. Instead of the safety perception of the child who is damaged, the schemas about being over-alert, damage and insecurity develop instead of the perception of security.
- Don't take more than is good: In some cases, the parents give more freedom or overprotective attitude than they need, damages the child's perception of meeting their needs with autonomy and realistic limits..
- Selective internalization and identification with important others: The child makes selective internalization and identifies the experiences he/she has experienced with the people he/she cares about. The child, who internalizes the needs he deprived of the important personal

needs, uses the cope strategies of the person he identifies in meeting these needs.

3. Emotional temperament: Every child is born with a unique temperament. He shares his relationship with his temperament environment. The interaction between the person's temperament and its surroundings causes the formation of schemas (Young et al., 2003).

2.2.4. Early Maladaptive Schemas and Schema Domains

Young et al. (2003) grouped early maladaptive schema in five domains and 18 dimensions. The scheme dimensions of these domain are given in Table 2.1.

2.2.4.1. Disconnection and Rejection Scheme

It is seen that individuals in this schema have difficulty in establishing safe attachment with those around them. They cannot meet their core emotional needs such as feeling safe, stability, care, respect and acceptance, sharing emotions or empathy. When childhood is taken into consideration, it is seen that these individuals are expanded by harassment, violent, rejected, cold and unbalanced parents. Individuals in this scheme either establish relationships that will strengthen their schemas or stay away from establishing close relationships (Young et al., 2003).

Tablo 2.1

Early Maladaptive Schema and Dimensions

Schema Domains	Schema Dimensions
Disconnection and Rejection	1. Abandonment/Instability 2. Mistrust/Abuse 3. Emotional Deprivation 4. Defectiveness/Shame 5. Social Isolation/Alienation
Impaired Autonomy and Performance	6. Dependence/Incompetence 7. Vulnerability to Harm or Illness 8. Enmeshment/Undeveloped Self 9. Failure
Impaired Limits	10. Entitlement/Grandiosity 11. Insufficient Self-Control/Self-Discipline
Other-Directedness	12. Subjugation 13. Self-Sacrifice 14. Approval-Seeking/Recognition-Seeking
Overvigilance and Inhibition	15. Negativity/Pessimism 16. Emotional Inhibition 17. Unrelenting Standards/Hypercriticalness 18. Punitiveness

There are five schemas in this domain:

1. Abandonment/Instability: When individuals with this scheme dry close relationships, the people they feel close to have the idea that they will leave themselves and this relationship will not be lon-term. The fact that they feel insecure and unstable stems from their belief in thoughts such as attachment, power, protection and support from the people they establish close relationships.
2. Mistrust/Abuse: People with this scheme expect that others will be deliberately hurt, damaged, deceived, and humiliate. When we look at their childhood experiences, it is seen that they live with parents who abuse them.

3. Emotional deprivation: Individuals with this scheme believe that their Emotional Deprivation and cold will not be resolved by others. There are three different types: deprivation of nurturance in which compassion and temperature cannot be felt, deprivation of empathy in which there is no understanding and mutual emotions, the deprivation of protection from others, where guidance and protection cannot be taken.
4. Defectiveness/Shame: Individuals with this scheme believe that they are flawed, indispensable, unwanted, and useless from others. They are too sensitive to being criticized, accused or rejected. When they interact with others, they constantly engage with themselves and are ashamed of the mistakes they find.
5. Social Isolation/Alienation: It is a scheme that causes the individual to see himself different from other groups except his family, to believe that he does not belong to another group and to feel as if it was isolated from the world (Young et al., 2003).

2.2.4.2. Impaired Autonomy and Performance Scheme

Children who were more preserved by their parents during childhood or who have not been interested at all, did not receive enough support for self-confidence, knowing their responsibilities and acting independently outside the house. This scheme domain includes schemas that individuals cannot meet their core emotional needs. Developing a self-disclosure from their families is very difficult for people in this schema (Young et al., 2003).

There are four schemas in this domain:

1. Dependence/Incompetence: People with this scheme believe that they cannot realize their daily functionality without the help of those around them. Since they are very difficult for them to make decisions and take responsibility, they expect all of this to take over themselves. They want others to do their duties in their responsibilities, and when these requests do not come true, they feel incompetence and helpless.
2. Vulnerability to Harm or Illness: Individuals with this scheme bears the fear and concern that the disasters that they cannot prevent except for their control. These disasters are medical, environmental or emotional.
3. Enmeshment/Undeveloped Self: People with this scheme establish excessive intimacy and emotional commitment with people who are important to them. Therefore, the person fails to show individualization and social development. It determines its happiness and its devotion to life according to the individuals it establish. He thinks that he cannot feel happy without their support and cannot succeed.
4. Failure: It is a scheme that is likely to develop children who grow up in a family environment where they are constantly compared to other people. The individual compares himself with his peers in various fields (work, school, etc.) and believes that he is inadequate. He has a belief that he will constantly fail. He tends to see himself as a stupid, talented, ignorant and unsuccessful person (Young et al., 2003)

2.2.4.3. Impaired Limits

Individuals in this schema are individuals who have problems with their own limits against others, responsibility and internal boundaries. It is difficult for them to respect the rights of others and to cooperate. They were trained by parents who do not provide guidance that they need in childhood and have problems in control and limit. The impulses of selfishness, pampering and irresponsibility are so prominent that they succumb to these impulses during adulthood and give more importance to instant satisfaction (Young et al., 2003).

There are two schemas in this domain:

1. Entitlement/Grandiosity: Individuals with this scheme see themselves as superior and privileged individuals. For this reason, even if it is possible to harm others, they take an insistence on doing what they want and rejecting social rules. They attach great importance to power and control and they want to dominate others.
2. Insufficient Self-Control/Self-Discipline: It is difficult for the individuals of this scheme to realize their goals and to control their emotions and impulses. They have difficulty in tolerance in the face of any blocking. It is possible that children trained by over-controlling parents who are insufficient to give their self-control to the child will develop this scheme (Young et al., 2003).

2.2.4.4. Other-Directedness

For individuals in this schema domain, priority belongs to the wishes and needs of others. Their needs remain in the background. They focus more on the wishes and needs of people around them. They have a problem to recognize their needs because of their anxiety to be approved, to maintain emotional connection or to avoid reaction. This prevents individuals from expressing and eliminating their core emotional needs. In order to give love and respect to the child, it is highly likely to be seen in people who grow up in families where conditional respect and love should exist.

There are three schemas of this domain:

1. Subjugation: Individuals with this scheme leave control to others. The function of subjugation is to avoid the anger, reaction or abandonment of the individual. They see their own wishes and needs insignificant. This schema is two types, Subjugation the needs (preferences and wishes) of people and their emotions (emotional expressions such as anger). Subjugation of needs can cause adaptable symptoms (passive aggressive behavior, uncontrolled anger bursts, psychosomatic symptoms, role-playing, substance abuse).
2. Self-Sacrifice: In this scheme, one voluntarily focuses on meeting the needs of others. The basis of closely interested in the people in the need for help is to avoid the guilt of the sense of selfishness. This pattern causes the individual to think that his own needs are not met enough and to feel anger and resentment towards his relatives.

3. Approval-Seeking/Recognition-Seeking: Individuals with this scheme give importance to the acceptance and approval of others; They ignore their perceptions of self and become individuals acting in line with the wishes of others. Social status, power, money, appearance are very important for these people. They show extreme sensitivity to reject by others because of these issues (Young et al., 2003).

2.2.4.5. Overvigilance and Inhibition

People in this schema suppress their spontaneous feelings and impulses. They have strict rules and expectations. It is usually seen in people raised by demanding and punishing parents. Instead of encouraging the child to play games, prescriptive families teach obey their own strict rules, to be alert for the events they will encounter.

There are four schemas of this domain:

1. Negativity/Pessimism: People with this scheme focus on the negative aspects of their lives, and underestimate their good aspects. In the future, they believe that negative things are waiting for themselves in almost all areas of their lives. They either do not see the things that expect it to result bad. This expectation also causes anxiety. People who exaggerate possible negativities show chronic anxiety, being on alert, complaint or indecisive behaviors.
2. Emotional Inhibition: People with this scheme prevent spontaneous behavior, emotions and communication. The reason for this is the attempt

to avoid being criticized or losing control of impulses. They usually suppress anger and positive impulses (such as compassion, sexual excitement) and have difficulty in expressing their sadness and resentment.

3. **Unrelenting Standards/Hypercriticalness:** Individuals with this scheme feel a sense of necessity to reach the high standards they set to avoid shame and flaws. In order to achieve these standards, they take a critical attitude towards both themselves and their environment. They believe that they should perform perfectly to avoid criticism.
4. **Punitiveness:** Individuals with this scheme believe that any mistake they make should be endured and that they must be strictly punished. Their thoughts in the direction of punishment are not only for themselves, but also tolerance to the mistakes of the people around them (Young et al., 2003).

In summary, Martin and Young (2010) argued that schemas are the main structures that affect people's feelings, behaviors, thoughts and relationships with others. According to Young (2003), early incompatible schemas are the structures that are shaped according to the individual's memories, emotions, thoughts and how they feel while communicating with others. It usually affects the perception of events in the unconscious way, and according to the power of effect, he prepares the ground for psychological disorders such as depression, anxiety, social phobia, eating disorder, psychosomatic disorders or personality disorders (Young, 1999; Jovev and Jackson, 2004; Abadi et al., 2015).

2.2.4.6. Research on Early Maladaptive Schemas

In the literature, there are many studies that deal with early maladaptive schemas, alexitis and other variables. When we look at these studies, food disorder (Unoka et al., 2007); suicide initiative and depression (Halvorsen et al., 2009), sexual abuse and post-trauma stress disorder (Cockram et al., 2010), personality disorders (Nordahl et al., 2005), chronic body pain (Saariaho et al., 2012), psychosomatic disorders (Young et al., 2003), we can see that there are studies conducted with different psychiatric clinical diagnosis groups.

2.3. GENERATION CONCEPT

2.3.1. Definition and Factors Forming of the Generation Concept

The Turkish Language Society's Glossary of Philosophy Terms describes the concept of generation as a collective of individuals who are typically around the age of twenty-five and share similar experiences due to being born in the same era and facing comparable issues and tasks. Generation concept, as expressed in the philosophy and culture of history, is understood as a collective of people who have come together to create a new way of life, understanding and perception. According to these interpretations, it can be defined as groupings comprised of those individuals living concurrently with similar qualities.

There are many generations from past to present. With the classification of these generations, it is easier to understand the concept of generation and the relationship and differences between generations.

2.3.2. Classification of Generations

In the last few years in the United States, a research report has been prepared in 2011 with the National Business Ethics Survey (NBES) of the Ethics Resource Center for those working in different generation groups in the United States. According to this report, complaints about generation differences and other generations are certainly not a new phenomenon. This affects international communication. At the same time, it has an impact on being together and working understanding. This effect raises the need for the classification of generations. In order to make sense of the perspectives and working styles of different generations and to ensure the construction of a healthy cultural structure, this classification becomes compulsory.

It is not right to classify generations only based on the time periods they were born. At the same time, the definition of the thoughts, feelings and experiences of the community that make up the generations is used to classify them (Zemke et al., 2013; 4).

Generational distinctions create various significant events, social trends, and work habits that are driven by organizational cultures. However, each generation gains its own outlook and contributes to the successes and failures of the past (ERC Report, 2013). This is what gives rise to cultural discrepancies and communication struggles between generations working in organizations.

In order to determine the most effective way to ensure and promote the maximum integrity of managers from each generation, generations and experiences should be examined. (ERC Report, 2013). The changes in world view in the United States are not only the progress of generations but also from historical events and aging patterns

(Alwin, 2002). On average, a new generation is born every twenty years and the common desires, needs, motives and actions of this generation are formed. With the simple but proven instincts of generations, age curve, work perspectives, generational change and the effect of generational effect on all commercial activity causes the detection of generations to change from the radical (www.capital.com.tr).

Generation concept and classification is the subject of different interdisciplinary research. In addition, the classification and perception of generations varies from culture to culture. When different resource screening is made, it is seen that the historical intervals related to generations and the features of the generations are not the same.

Every era has its own distinct characteristics, values, and perspectives, as well as strengths and flaws. Nonetheless, it is important to remember that there are often generalizations when speaking of any generation. Furthermore, when categorizing generations into groups of people it is not accurate to assert that all individuals share each trait (Lower, 2008).

2.3.2.1. Traditionalists – Silent Generation (1925-1945)

The Traditionalists, also known as the Silent Generation, were born between 1925 and 1945. This generation is often referred to as the War Generation due to the many wars that occurred during this time, and the Second World War and economic depression had a distinct influence on forming their character.

The Republic of Turkey is in a period when the newly single-party political system dominated from the war and the industry, production and service sector began to be completely re-established (Demirkaya et al., 2015). People born in this generation consist of children who cannot participate in the war due to the ongoing wars and wars from the past. The most important cultural structure of these children is the wide families and the closer neighborhood relations of this situation. This relationship has led to the intense concepts such as accepting authority in terms of value, connecting, working more than it is necessary and devoting himself/herself to the country (Akdemir et al., 2013). The people of this period have weak imagination and does not look for adventure (Serçemeli et al., 2015) They have difficulty in deciding and expecting. They are loyal to their leaders and obey their orders unconditionally (Demirkaya et al., 2015).

2.3.2.2. Baby Boomers (1946- 1964)

The rapid recovery of the declining population after the Second World War, and the increase in the desire to raise children as a result of the decrease in the effects of economic crisis is one of the factors that increase the birth of baby. With the high birth rates in the 1940-1950s, settlements began to develop, college training became widespread in the 60s and drug use increased by forming suburbs. In this period, anti-war discourses increased (Demirkaya et al., 2015). Human rights movements in the world have increased in the baby booming zone, and interest in radios increased the most in this period. In Turkey, there were pains of the transition to multi-party political system with coups.

These generation members have a structure with high loyalty, conviction and at the same time working for a long time. They have a hardworking and idealistic structure and also have some negative features such as authority, workkolic and selfishness. They believe in difficult work and the importance of working long hours. They have a structure that can motivate themselves and do not like to be appreciated. The wages they receive priorities in business life. They care about teamwork and team communication. They are fond of entertainment for leaving the war period (Adıgüzel et al., 2014). The most important inheritances of this generation are the retirement systems and the formation of pension systems (Demirkaya et al., 2015), female-male equality, struggle against race discrimination and to be sensitive to the environment (Başol and Çetin , 2014).

2.3.2.3. Generation X (1965- 1979)

Generation X is known as the generation of people born from 1965 to 1980 and have similar characteristics of demographic characteristics. The generation X is a generation that sees itself against society, makes sharp political outputs, creates its own clothing style, has more harsh types of music and different lifestyles, such as punk. These people try to explain their own existence with a respectable status, money and high socialization. Generation X members are known as individuals who are loyal to business life, have high opinion feelings and have worked for many years in the same job. Compared to the previous generation, even though they were loyal to business life, they took advantage of the opportunity for a better future, and they started to use technology as they coincided with the technological revolution. In this

period, women started to participate in business life and wanted to have few children because they wanted to advance in their careers (Başol and Çetin, 2014). They are sensitive to social problems, their motivation is high and respect for authority. It is a generation that tries to solve their own problems themselves. So, they are a generation with higher self-confidence and greater ability to do business (Akdemir et al., 2013).

Since this period is a period in which the conditions of the world have changed a lot and new innovations emerge every day, the generation X feels that they cannot keep up with this age and they are excluded. The sale of the first personal computer and therefore the infrastructure of technology habits was formed during this period. When generation X became the administrator in business life, information and communication technologies have developed rapidly and their effects have led to radical changes on generations. There are clashes with generation Y, which has technological knowledge, entrepreneurial and rapid promotion, which is in the expectation of quick promotion.

Today, this generation, which constitutes 22% of Turkey, has spent its period with oil crises and economic tremors. In this period of '68 generation', developments, university events and right-left conflict in Turkey have increased and television has become a valuable communication tool (Adıgüzel et al., 2014).

2.3.2.4. Generation Y (1980 – 2000)

There is a difference of opinion in the literature as to the date generation Y. Generation Y individuals grew up in the protective and safe environment created by

their families. Since the divorce rates of their births increased and birth control became widespread, their children are children who are very desired by their parents and are very valuable for their parents. Original members are egoist and individuals who care for themselves due to their upbringing (Çemberci et al. , 2014).

Generation Y is a generation that is fond of freedom and follows technology closely. Individuals born in this generation behave in an aggressive attitude that does not like to work, who prefers entertainment, rejects authority and aggressive. Although they are unsatisfied people, they attach importance to concepts such as sustainability, ethics and social responsibility.

Generation Y has a balance of business-private life. Generation Y works more hours than the time required to rise. Apart from that, Generation Y is shopping over the internet, willing to learn, can do more than one job at the same time, impatient, flexible working conditions individuals. (Yüksekbilgili, 2015).

In Turkey, this generation can consume everything very quickly because they do not experience famine in the pre-1980 period (gas shortage-oil queues). They love the personal one, not the mass. They can easily adapt to change and are very eager to show themselves (Başgözde and Bayar, 2015).

2.3.2.5. Generation Z (Born After 2000)

Generation Z is the generation of people born after the year 2000. This group was born into a world filled with technology, meaning they have grown up in close proximity to it. Because of this, they are sometimes referred to as “Generation I”,

“Internet Generation”, “Next Generation” or “iGen” and more recently as the "Instant Online" generation (Levickaite, 2010).

Since the first members of this generation have not yet entered the working life, the behaviors of working life have not yet been investigated. Therefore, there is not much information about this generation in the literature. This generation, also called the ‘internet generation’, is always together with the facilities of communication and transportation with new technological opportunities. This generation is argued that they live alone because they can establish a relationship through internet networks. There are also the ability to deal with multiple subjects at the same time (Adigüzel et al., 2014).

This generation can easily access all the information he wants through the Internet, can be trained at an earlier age due to material diversity and developing physical and hardware opportunities and can grow and develop more quickly (Akdemir, et al., 2013).

When they are thrown into the business life of the generation Z; It is estimated that they can not be dependent on brands and organizations they work because they love loneliness and living alone and reach all the data quickly, they can make a reluctant and unless work, and they can easily change jobs because they cool down quickly. On the other hand, they are expected to be more successful than other generations in terms of creativity, rights search and relations with different sociological groups (Başol and Çetin, 2014).

2.4. PARENTING

Mothers and fathers' raising their children in different studies, parental control models (Baumrind, 1966), child growing styles (Sümer and Güngör, 1999), parenting attitudes (Maccoby and Martin, 1983), parental attitudes (Kuzgun, 1972) and forms of parenting (Young, 1999). Even if the way of defining is different, the point where all of them meet in terms of content is the fact that parenting styles make important contributions to the development of their children (Mannarini and Boffo, 2014).

Psychopathology, personality, or the individual's long-term psychological kindness for the many different theoretical approaches they have in the early period of parent-child relationship and how an early period of relationship lays the foundations for explanation in the long term (Mannarini and Boffo, 2014). Not only a state of goodness, but also affects many fields such as academic performance, social competence and behavior (Montgomery et al., 2008).

Freud and all psychodynamic theorists argue that permanent personality traits begin to occur in childhood, and that the mental representations of childhood experiences affect the later periods of their experiences. Adler emphasizes the individual's parental attitudes in childhood, especially the attitude of the mother; Horney argues the existence of family problems on the basis of non-functional behaviors; Freud deals with the conflicts of the basic impulses to explain psychopathology (Gençtan, 2002).

The theory of attachment argues that parenting factor has a strong effect on child development. Especially in children who create a safe attachment with the mother figure, a healthy development pattern is observed, while in children who cannot perform safe connection, this pattern is unhealthy (Waters et al., 2013).

According to Young Schema theory; the reason for the individual's psychological problems in adulthood and the formation of problematic areas in his life is the presence of schemas created by early childhood experiences. The most important reason for the formation of these schemas is that the child's "basic needs" is not met by their parents (Young et al., 2003). These needs are autonomy, self-expression, safe attachment to others, perception of identity, spontaneity and play. Early experiences such as not meeting these needs of the child, preventing, giving good things more or exposure to traumatic events lead to early schemas that will create incompatibility for subsequent experiences (Young, 1999; Muris, 2006). For this reason, parents have a very important place in schema theory. There are two points in the theory where importance of parents are emphasized. Firstly, parents have a critical place in understanding the early schemas formed in the individual. Secondly, it is important that the therapist teaches the person re-parenting himself and meeting his basic needs that are not met by his parents (Young et al., 2003).

The school lives of individuals and their social environment also triggers the formation of schemas, but these schemas are not as strong and permanent as the schemas formed as a result of the relationship with parents (Soygüt et al., 2008).

2.4.1. Attachment and Parental Attitudes

As a result of many studies to understand and define parenting, different parenting characteristics have emerged (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1990). Baumrind (1966), one of the important names in this field, described three different parental attitudes, authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive as a result of his studies with preschool children. Parents with the authoritative attitude defined by Baumrind are concerned,

patient and sensitive to needs of their children. They are parents who give children the right to speak in the decisions to be taken in the family and expect their children to comply with some rules when necessary. Parents, who show the attitude of authoritarian parenting, mostly give importance to providing their own authorities in the family. In this case, they exhibit an attitude that does not care about the opinions and needs of their children; They try the penalty method when the determined rules are not followed (Hubbs-Tait et al., 2008). Permissive parents are parents who give children a lot of freedom, never establish control over them, and sometimes exhibit tolerances (Karabulut Demir and Şendil, 2008).

Macoby and Martin (1983) considered parenting as two dimensions and described them as an responsiveness and demandingness. Later, they formed a definition consisting of four parts according to the areas where the steam's intersection with each other. Parents who are high in demand and acceptance are authoritative; parents who are high in demand but are low in acceptance are authoritarian; low in demand, but highly accepted ones are permissive; parents who are low in demand and accept, have described as neglectful parents (Cuzzocrea et al., 2015).

The attachment theory has a very strong theoretical structure in explaining the emotional development and personality development of the individual (Sümer, 2006). Bowlby, one of the important names of the theory, argues that the primary person who gives care to the baby has a major impact on the formation of attachment behavior. The positive and negative mental models that occur in the individual with childhood experiences and ties established affect how the individual is worthy of himself in the following years and how reliable and consistently perceives the reactions he receives from around him. The attachment styles have the power to direct their perceptions

around them and their relations with them (Bowlby, 1973; Sümer and Güngör, 1999). The psychoanalytic theory of attachment theory is based on this idea. As a result of the studies, different attachment styles such as secure, anxious-ambivalent, disorganised and avoidant have been reached that will affect the individual's relationships and self-expression (Batıgün and Büyükşahin, 2008).

Secure attachment is the type of attachment established with the parent who responds to both the child's emotional and physical needs on-site and timely. Many studies with adolescents and adults show that safely attached individuals can establish more comfortable and emotional connections with people, that they can deal with the emotional problems of others, and that they exhibit negative emotions and behaviors less. Disorganised connection is the type of attachment established with parents who do not respond to the child's needs on the contrary to safe connection. Individuals with this type of attachment experience less positive emotions and often fail to balance their negative emotions. Anxious-ambivalent attachment style is a type of attachment in individuals who raise inconsistently to their children, who do not regularly meet their needs or who have excessive interventions. Avoidant attachment is the attachment style that occurs in a relationship in which the care is cold to the child and avoids close contact (Batıgün and Büyükşahin, 2008; Doinita and Maria, 2015; Montebanocci et al., 2004; Sümer and Güngör, 1999).

This information shows how intertwined the attachment styles are by parental attitudes. Many studies have been conducted on the relationship between the attachment style and the relationship between the individual's feelings or emotion regulation. The common finding obtained from the literature is that individuals who show safe attachment are higher than their emotional awareness, and that they are

more open to empathy and can express themselves in more open and social environments. Another important finding is; It is more difficult for individuals who establish disorganised attachment to recognize and express their emotions (Bekendam, 2001; Laible, 2007; Magai et al., 1995; Roque et al., 2013; Simpson et al., 2007).

2.4.2. Perceived Parenting Patterns

Many research revealed by the theoretical approaches confirmed the idea that parental attitudes affect the concept of personality, the individual's emotion regulation, the psychopathologies formed and the styles of coping with problems in adulthood (Bowlby, 1969; Muris, 2006).

The individual learns from his mother and father during his childhood (Dönmezer, 1999). This information is the subject of controversy because it is responsible for all non-functional behaviors and thoughts that the individual has in adulthood (Grange et al., 2010). The reason for this debate is about the measurement of parental attitudes or behaviors; Because in order to measure, only individuals' self-informal reports about their parents behavior are taken into account. The fact that parental behaviors cannot be observed directly causes the information obtained to consist of subjective perception (Grange et al., 2010). In this case, it would be more appropriate to use the concept of "perceived parental styles" to accurately express the parental behaviors perceived by the individual instead of the term "parental styles". The concept of perceived parental styles is a concept that is brought to the literature by Young and his friends. In short, the concept of parenting, which is perceived, is the evaluation of the individual's own parent (Young, 2003).

The general information provided in this part of the study enables the development of an idea that there can be a relationship between early maladaptive schemas, perceived parental styles and allexitis. It is thought that perceived forms of parenting and early maladaptive schemas, which are thought to be in parallel, can prepare the ground for the formation of allexitimic symptoms.

2.5. INTERGENERATIONAL TRANSFER OF EARLY MALADAPTIVE SCHEMAS

Early maladaptive schemas are defined as cognitive structures that develop as a result of negative interactions or experiences with attachment figures or primary caregivers and include beliefs about the self, the outside world, and interpersonal relationships. Many studies cited above have revealed that experiences of abuse and neglect, negative parenting styles and attachment styles play an important role in the development of these schemas in both adults, children and adolescents. In other words

It has been suggested that various factors play a role in the mechanisms in which parents' negative beliefs or cognitions are transferred to their children. When these factors are examined in the literature, factors such as mother's depression, mother's negative cognitions, mother's parenting styles and stressful life events come to the fore (Alloy et al, 2001; Garber and Flynn, 2001; Stark et al, 1996).

It has been suggested that various factors play a role in the mechanisms in which parents' negative beliefs or cognitions are transferred to their children. When these factors are examined in the literature, factors such as mother's depression, mother's negative cognitions, mother's parenting styles and stressful life events come to the fore (Alloy et al, 2001; Garber and Flynn, 2001; Stark et al, 1996).

In this regard, Goodman and Gotlib (1999) proposed a developmental model to determine the risk of psychopathology and transmission mechanisms in the children of mothers with depression. In this model, one of the transmission mechanisms emphasized is the exposure of the child to the mother's negative or maladaptive cognitions, behaviors, and emotions.

Jaenicke et al. (1987) observed that kids of depressed mothers had less self-esteem and more pessimistic attribution styles than kids whose mothers were not depressed. Goodman, Adamson, Riniti, and Cole (1994) found that offspring of clinically depressed moms felt they had lesser value than those with "healthy" moms. Additionally, Hammen et al. (2004) discovered in a sample group of mothers and their 15-year-old children that the mother's depression could lead to the child's depression due to its unfavorable effect on the kid's social proficiency. A research project concluded that children of mothers with depression demonstrated more pessimistic interpersonal connections and thinking patterns than those whose mothers were not depressed (Hammen & Brennan, 2001).

Another transmission mechanism is that mother's cognitions directly affect her children's cognitions. Children learn to think negatively about people and events by observing or taking examples from important parents (Bandura & Walters, 1963). In particular, it is suggested that children can learn cognitive styles by modeling their significant others (Alloy et al, 1999; Garber & Flynn, 1998). Seligman and Peterson (1986), in their study with 47 mothers and their primary school children (8-13 years old), found that mothers and their children's thoughts about negative events were significantly related. In another study conducted with adolescents and their mothers, it was revealed that mothers' perceptions of self-worth significantly predicted their

children's perceptions of self-worth (Garber & Flynn, 2001]. Stark et al. (1996), in a sample of 9-14 year old children and their mothers, concluded that mothers' perceptions of themselves, the world, and the future (cognitive triad) were related to their children's perceptions of the cognitive triad. In addition, it has been reported that this relationship does not exist between fathers and children.



3. METHOD

In this chapter, research method, participants, instruments, data collection process and data analysis are included. Instruments are demographic information form, Young Parenting Inventory (YPI) and Young Schema Questionnaire (YSQ).

3.1. RESEARCH METHOD

This study utilizes a quantitative research method, which is grounded in the positivist perspective. This viewpoint claims that both the social and physical realms can be studied by using the same approach, and therefore proposes that social issues should be examined with the same methods used in natural sciences. Quantitative research seeks to understand social phenomena through numerical data analysis, seeking to uncover laws of social order by exploring cause-effect correlations between these matters. In this study, quantitative information is collected through questionnaires.

3.2. PARTICIPANTS

Within the scope of the research, snowball sampling method is used. Snowballs are connected to one of the units in the universe in any way to make samples. Then, with the help of the person with whom the connection is made, contact is made with someone else, and then in the same way. Thus, the sample is enlarged in a chain manner, in the form of a sample snowball effect.

The participants were made of two groups. In the first group, there are students studying in high school, which is expressed as the third generation. The second group

includes the parents of these students. The parents of each student participated in the research. The GPower test was used to calculate the sample size in the study.

GPower test was used to calculate sample size, effect size and statistical power. G*Power is a tool for calculating statistical power analyzes for many different t-tests, F-tests, χ^2 -tests, z-tests and some exact tests. G*Power can also be used to calculate effect sizes and graphically display the results of power analysis. The sample sizes required for t-test, one-way ANOVA and Chi-square tests for independent groups with different effect sizes, different statistical power levels and 5% statistical significance level were calculated using the GPower 3.1.9.7 program.

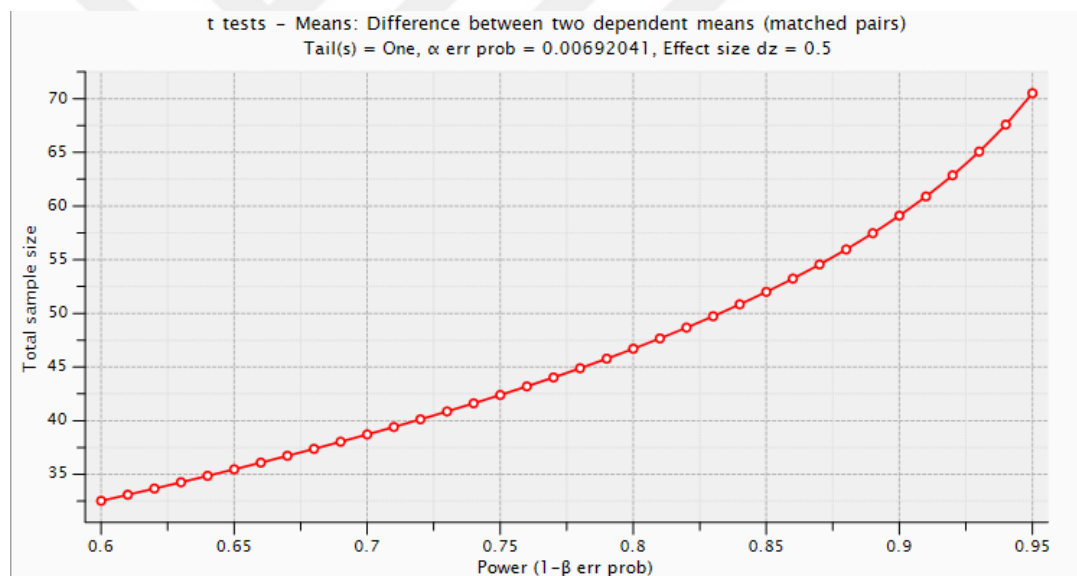


Figure 3.1. The relationship between sample size and statistical power for the t test

As seen in Figure 3.1, sample size has an effect on statistical power. A sample size of 70 for the t test is sufficient to provide 95% statistical power.

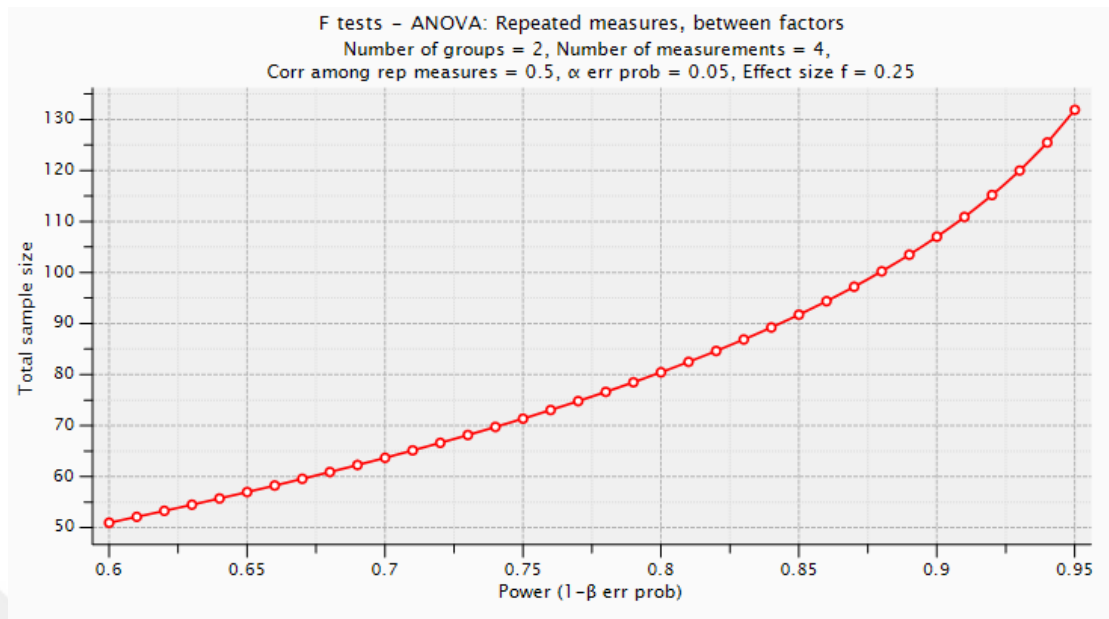


Figure 3.2. The relationship between sample size and statistical power regarding the ANOVA test

As seen in Figure 3.2, sample size has an effect on statistical power. For the ANOVA test, a sample size of 135 is sufficient to provide 95% statistical power.

Table 3.1 includes demographic information about the research participants. As demographic information, generation, gender, age, education status, occupation, mother education status, father education status, number of siblings and psychological assistance status.

Table 3.1*Distributions Regarding the Demographic Characteristics of the Sample Group*

Options		1	2	3	4	5	6	Total
Generation		Child	Parent					
	<i>n</i>	45	90					135
	%	33,3	66,7					100
Gender		Male	Female					
	<i>n</i>	56	79					135
	%	41,5	58,5					100
Age		18-21	19-30	37-40	41-43	44-47	48-56	
	<i>n</i>	24	21	27	25	18	20	135
	%	17,8	15,6	20	18,5	13,3	14,8	100
Eduactional Status		Primary education	High school	BSc				
	<i>n</i>	22	61	52				135
	%	16,3	45,2	38,5				100
Occupation		Student	Teacher	Officer	Doctor	Housewife	Small business	
	<i>n</i>	42	8	16	18	15	36	135
	%	31,1	5,9	11,9	13,3	11,1	26,7	100
Mother Occupation Status		Primary education	High school	BSc				
	<i>n</i>	84	27	24				135
	%	62,2	20	17,8				100

Table 3.1*Distributions Regarding the Demographic Characteristics of the Sample Group (Continued)*

Options		1	2	3	4	5	6	Total
Father Occupation Status		Primary education	High school	BSc				
	<i>n</i>	56	45	34				511
	%	41,5	33,3	25,2				100
Number of Siblings		0-1	2	3				
	<i>n</i>	40	42	32				490
	%	29,6	31,1	23,7				100
Psychological Assistance status		Got help	Didn't get help					
	<i>n</i>	24	111					490
	%	17,8	82,2					100

A total of 135 people residing in Turkey completed the survey, including 45 mothers, 45 fathers and 45 children. All of the total participants were matched pairs. The mothers' ages ranged from 37 to 52 ($M=41.44$, $SD = 4.28$). The fathers' ages ranged from 39 to 56 ($M=45.22$, $SD = 4.49$) The ages of children ranged from 18 to 30 ($M=21.55$, $SD=2.39$).

When the participants are evaluated as generation, the number of child participants is 45 (33.3%) and the number of parent participants is 90 (66.7%). When evaluated according to gender, the number of male participants is 56 (41.5%) and the number of female participants is 79 (58.5%). When evaluated according to age, the number of participants in the 18-21 age range is 24 (17.8%), the number of participants in the 19-30 age group is 21 (15.6%), the number of participants in the 37-40 age range is 27 (20.0%), The number of participants in the age group of 41-43 is 25 (18.5%), the number of participants in the age group of 44-47 is 18 (13.3%), and the number of participants in the age group of 48-56 is 20 (14.8%). When the participants are evaluated according to Education Status, the number of Primary Education participants is 22 (16.3%), the number of High School participants is 61 (45.2%) and the number of BSc participants is 52 (38.5%). When the participants are evaluated according to Occupation, the number of participants who are Students is 42 (31.1%), the number of participants who are Teachers is 8 (5.9%), the number of participants who are Officers is 16 (11.9%), the number of participants who are Doctors is 18 (13.3%), the number of participants who are Housewife is 15 (11.1%), and the number of participants who are Small business is 36 (26.7%). When evaluated according to Mother Education Status, the number of participants with primary education is 84 (62.2%), the number of participants with high school is 27 (20.0%) and the number of participants with BSc is 24 (17.8%). When evaluated according to

Father Education Status, the number of participants with Primary Education is 56 (41.5%), the number of participants with High School is 45 (33.3%), and the number of participants with BSc is 34 (25.2%). When evaluated according to Number of siblings, the number of participants with 0-1 siblings is 40 (29.6%), the number of participants with 2 siblings is 42 (31.1%), the number of participants with 3 siblings is 32 (23.7%), 4 and above The number of participants with siblings is 21 (15.6%). When evaluated according to Psychological Assistance status, the number of participants who got help was 24 (17.8%) and the number of participants who did not get help was 111 (82.2%).

3.3. INSTRUMENTS

In this section, the demographic information form used in this research, Young Parenting Inventory (YPI) (Soygüt and Çakır, 2009) and Young Schema Questionnaire (YSQ) (Soygüt, Karaosmanoğlu, and Çakır, 2009) are introduced.

3.3.1. Demographic Information Form

Demographic information form is prepared by researcher. This form included questions regarding nicknames of the participants, Age, Generation, marital status, educational status, profession, mother's education level, father's education level, number of siblings, previous psychological help.

3.3.2. Young Parenting Inventory (YPI)

The 72-item scale was developed by Young (1994). The 72-item scale measures the origins of the early maladaptive schemas based on parenting behavior

and was developed by Young (1994). The questionnaire contains 10 subscales, which identifies the most likely origin for each schema. It is a 6-point Likert type scale (from 1 = never or almost never, to 6 = all of the time). For each item, participants must rate the statement two times based upon how the item describes their mothers and their fathers. The YPI was adapted for use in Turkey by Soygüt and Çakır (2009). In the Turkish adaptation, ten subscales were determined, namely; emotionally depriving, overprotective/anxious, belittling/criticizing, pessimistic/worried, restricted/emotionally inhibited, punitive, conditional/ achievement focused, over permissive/boundless, and exploitative/abusive parenting. The study will be conducted based on these ten subscales (See Appendix D for YPI). The sub-dimensions of the scale and the items under it are given in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2

Sub-scale and question number for YPI

Sub-scale	Question number
Normative	31, 32, 37, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 46, 54, 60, 65
Belittling/Criticizing	8, 21, 22, 23, 24, 26, 28, 29, 30
Emotionally Depriving	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 36, 45, 52
Exploitative/Abusive	6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13
Overprotective/Anxious	14, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 53
Conditional/ Achievement Focused	38, 69, 70, 71, 72
Over Permissive/Boundless	25, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51
Pessimistic/Worried	56, 58, 59
Punitive	63, 66, 67, 68
Restricted/Emotionally Inhibited	61, 62, 64

Sub-scale questions of Normative has 31, 32, 37, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 46, 54, 60, 65, sub-scale questions of Belittling/Criticizing has 8, 21, 22, 23, 24, 26, 28, 29, 30, sub-scale questions of Emotionally Depriving has 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 36, 45, 52, sub-scale

questions of Exploitative/ Abusive 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, sub-scale questions of Overprotective/Anxious has 14, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 53, sub-scale questions of Conditional/ Achievement Focused has 38, 69, 70, 71, 72, sub-scale questions of Over Permissive/Boundless has 25, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, sub-scale questions of Pessimistic/Worried has 56, 58, 59, sub-scale questions of Punitive has 63, 66, 67, 68 and sub-scale questions of Restricted/Emotionally Inhibited has 61, 62, 64.

Cronbach's alpha reliability values of YPI scale ranged from .67 to .92. Acceptable test-retest reliability and correlations ranged from .53 to .85 (Young, 1994).

The validity and reliability analyzes of the YPI scale were performed by Soygüt and Çakır (2009). In order to examine the structural validity of the scale, Basic Components Analysis and Explanatory Factor Analysis were performed. As a result of the analyzes, it was observed that the structure with a factor of 10 with an eigenvalue above 1 in the form of both mother and father was suitable for the data. The factors that occur explain 47.69% of the variance in the Mother form (YPI-M) and 51.61% in the Father form (YPI-F). As a result of the analysis carried out in the mother form, it was seen that Article 55 was not attributed to any factor. In the reliability study, first of all, Test-Retest Reliability was examined. In order to determine the test-retest reliability of the YPI, 107 participants from the group where the applications were made were re-applied at an average interval of three weeks. Pearson correlation coefficients for the YPI-M form range from .38 to .83 ($p < .01$], while Pearson correlation coefficients for the YPI-F form range from .56 to .85 ($p < .01$]. Accordingly, acceptable levels of significant coefficients have been reached. Analyses related to Internal Consistency were conducted on the sample pool where factor analysis was examined. As a result of the analyzes, it was understood that the

internal consistency coefficients ranged from $\alpha = .53 - .86$ in the YPI-M form and $\alpha = .61 - .88$ in the YPI-F form. Accordingly, acceptable levels of significant coefficients have been reached.

In this study, validity and reliability analyzes of the YPI scale were performed. Cronbach's alpha reliability values of YPI scale ranged from .72 to .94.

3.3.3. Young Schema Questionnaire (YSQ)

It was developed by Young and Brown (1990). The 90-item scale measures 18 early maladaptive schemas (EMS). Adding to this, there is another YSQ measuring 15 EMS which was developed (1990) and revised (1991] by Young and Brown. In the present study, 90-item short form of the original YSQ was used. The 90-item YSQ was developed from the 205-item original YSQ. The original questionnaire is a 6-point Likert type scale (from 1 = never or almost never, to 6 = all of the time). The Turkish adaptation of the YSQ was done by Soygüt, Karaosmanoğlu, and Çakır (2009). According to this study conducted with university students, internal consistency coefficients for the EMS were found to be between the range of .53 (unrelenting standards) and .81 (impaired autonomy) (See Appendix C for YSQ). There were fourteen schemas in the Turkish version (namely, emotional deprivation, failure, pessimism, social isolation/mistrust, emotional inhibition, approval seeking, enmeshment/dependency, entitlement/insufficient self-control, self-sacrifice, abandonment, punitiveness, defectiveness, vulnerability to harm and unrelenting standards). The sub-dimensions of the scale and the items under it are given in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3*Sub-scale and question number for YSQ*

Sub-scale	Question number
Emotional Deprivation	1, 19, 37, 55, 73
Failure	6, 24, 33, 42, 60, 78
Pessimism	8, 17, 26, 35, 80
Social Isolation/Mistrust	3, 4, 40, 57, 58, 75, 76
Emotional Inhibition	12, 30, 48, 66, 84
Approval Seeking	16, 34, 52, 56, 70, 88
Enmeshment/Dependency	7, 9, 10, 25, 63, 64, 79, 81, 82
Entitlement/Insufficient Self-Control	15, 22, 32, 50, 51, 68, 69
Self-Sacrifice	11, 29, 47, 65, 83
Abandonment	2, 20, 28, 38, 74
Punitiveness	18, 49, 53, 54, 72, 89
Defectiveness	23, 41, 43, 59, 77, 90
Vulnerability To Harm	21, 39, 44, 62, 71
Unrelenting Standards	13, 14, 31

Sub-scale questions of Emotional Deprivation has 1, 19, 37, 55, 73, sub-scale questions of Failure has 6, 24, 33, 42, 60, 78, sub-scale questions of Pessimism has 8, 17, 26, 35, 80, sub-scale questions of Social Isolation/Mistrust has 3, 4, 40, 57, 58, 75, 76, sub-scale questions of Emotional Inhibition has 12, 30, 48, 66, 84, sub-scale questions of Approval Seeking has 16, 34, 52, 56, 70, 88, sub-scale questions of Enmeshment/Dependency has 7, 9, 10, 25, 63, 64, 79, 81, 82, sub-scale questions of

Entitlement/Insufficient Self-Control has 15, 22, 32, 50, 51, 68, 69, sub-scale questions of Self-Sacrifice has 11, 29, 47, 65, 83, sub-scale questions of Abandonment has 2, 20, 28, 38, 74, sub-scale questions of Punitiveness has 18, 49, 53, 54, 72, 89, sub-scale questions of Defectiveness has 23, 41, 43, 59, 77, 90, sub-scale questions of Vulnerability To Harm has 21, 39, 44, 62, 71 and sub-scale questions of Unrelenting Standards has 13, 14, 31.

The YSQ was validated using community as well as clinical samples. Internal consistency were $>.70$ for the Early Maladaptive Schemas, except for the Entitlement Early Maladaptive Schemas (.67). Cronbach's alpha reliability values for Early Maladaptive Schemas were satisfactory ($>.70$) except for Entitlement (Young and Brown, 1990).

The validity and reliability studies of the scale were conducted by Soygüt, Karaosmanoğlu, and Çakır (2009). The following can be said about validity and reliability studies. After the factors were determined after the Basic Components Analysis, 2 items (46 and 67), whose item-total correlation in the relevant factor was found to be below .30 and which were observed to be incompatible with the structure, were removed from the relevant factor. According to the factors reached, the distribution of substances can be summarized as seen in Table 3.3.

In this study, validity and reliability analyzes of the YSQ scale were performed. Cronbach's alpha reliability values of YSQ scale ranged from .69 to .91.

3.4. DATA COLLECTION PROCESS

Before starting the present study, permission was taken from Yeditepe University Ethical Committee. In the study, the data were obtained by using Google

Form. The forms created were filled in so that the participants were mother, father and a child. The mother, father and child used the same nickname. Between 01.05.2022 and 01-07.2022, the data was provided to fill out the form created in Google Forms. At the beginning of the study, participants expressed their voluntary participation by signing informed consent forms. In order to provide confidentiality, names of the participants were hidden and nicknames were given by a person who was not involved in research. Parents and children used the same nickname to identify each other easily.

3.5. DATA ANALYSIS

In this study, in order to obtain descriptive information of Young Schema Questionnaire, Young Parenting Inventory, quantitative analyses were conducted via SPSS. All analyses were conducted in SPSS version 26.0. The data was screened for missing values, outliers, and assumption criteria. There were three groups, childrens (n=45), mothers (n=45), and fathers (n=45). Before starting the data analysis, skewness and flatness values were examined to evaluate whether the normality assumption, which is one of the presupposition hypothetical criteria for independent samples, was satisfied. For all group's skewness and kurtosis ranged from -2.00 to 2.00 . Therefore, the analyses were considered to be robust against violations of normality (Norman 2010). When the flatness and distortion values of the scales were examined, it was found that the data showed normal distribution (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013).

Correlation analysis was performed to determine whether there was a relationship between the children's early maladaptive schemas, the parents' early maladaptive schemas and individuals' parenting styles. Pearson Correlation Analysis, one of the

simple linear correlation methods, was used to analyze the relationship between the data because normality meets the assumption.

Independent Samples t-test and One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test were performed to determine whether parenting styles and early maladaptive schemas of individuals significantly difference according to demographic information (generation, age, gender).

Multiple regression analysis was performed to determine whether parenting styles and other directedness schema of parent significantly predict other directedness schema of child, parenting styles and impaired limits schema (impaired autonomy schema) of parent significantly predict impaired (impaired autonomy schema) limits schema of child, parenting styles and unrelenting standards schema (disconnection and rejection ejection schema) of parent significantly predict unrelenting standards schema (disconnection and rejection schema) of child.

4. RESULTS

In this part, the findings obtained as a result of the statistical analysis conducted to examine the problem and sub-problems of the research are presented.

4.1. MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION RESULTS

4.1.1. General Results Regarding Early Maladaptive Schemas of Child

Table 4.1 gives Descriptives Statistics for Child early maladaptive schemas. A total of 45 children participate in the study. Within the scope of the study, early maladaptive schemas are determined as Other directedness, Impaired limits, Impaired autonomy, Unrelenting Standards, Disconnection and rejection.

Table 4.1

n, X ve SS Values for Child early maladaptive schemas

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Other directedness Child	45	4,1248	1,29249
Impaired limits Child	45	2,6857	1,31058
Impaired autonomy Child	45	2,0783	0,89678
Unrelenting Standards Child	45	4,2093	0,98259
Disconnection and rejection Child	45	1,9457	0,82270

The data on the frequency of the schemas in the study in children are examined. Other directedness mean is 4.1248, standard deviation is 1.29249. Impaired limits mean 2.6857, standard deviation 1.31058. Impaired autonomy mean is 2.0783, standard deviation is 0.89678. Unrelenting Standards mean is 4.2093, standard deviation is 0.98259. Disconnection and rejection mean was 1.9457, standard

deviation was 0.82270. The children's Unrelenting Standards schema has the highest average. Disconnection and rejection scheme has the lowest mean. The most common schemas in children can be listed as follows. Unrelenting Standards, Other directedness, Impaired limits, Impaired autonomy and Disconnection and rejection.

4.1.2. General Results Regarding Parent Early Maladaptive Schemas

Table 4.2 gives descriptives statistics for parent early maladaptive schemas. A total of 90 parent participate in the study. Within the scope of the study, early maladaptive schemas are determined as other directedness, impaired limits, impaired autonomy, unrelenting standards, disconnection and rejection.

Table 4.2

n, X ve SS Values for parent early maladaptive schemas

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Other directedness Parent	90	3,8678	1,32712
Impaired limits Parent	90	3,2714	1,30932
Impaired autonomy Parent	90	2,3075	0,91384
Unrelenting Standards Parent	90	4,0843	1,11142
Disconnection and rejection Parent	90	2,2666	0,84576

The data on the frequency of the schemas in the study in parents are examined. Other directedness mean is 3,8678, standard deviation is 1,32712. Impaired limits mean 3,2714, standard deviation 1,30932. Impaired autonomy mean is 2,3075, standard deviation is 0,91384. Unrelenting Standards mean is 4,0843, standard deviation is 1,11142. Disconnection and rejection mean was 2,2666, standard

deviation was 0,84576. The parents' Unrelenting Standards schema has the highest average. Disconnection and rejection scheme has the lowest mean. The most common schemas in parents can be listed as follows. Unrelenting Standards, Other directedness, Impaired limits, Impaired autonomy and Disconnection and rejection.

4.1.3. General Results Regarding Parenting Styles

Table 4.3 provides Descriptives Statistics for Parenting Styles. Within the scope of the study, Parenting Styles are determined as Normative, Belittling Criticizing, Emotionally Depriving, Exploitative Abusive, Overprotective Anxious, Conditional Achievement Focused, Over Permissive Boundless, Pessimistic Worried, Punitive and Restricted Emotionally Inhibited.

Table 4.3

Descriptives Statistics for Parenting Style

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Normative	135	3,4846	0,96797
Belittling Criticizing	135	2,1189	1,10675
Emotionally Depriving	135	2,0380	1,13002
Exploitative Abusive	135	1,4370	0,60609
Overprotective Anxious	135	3,3571	0,95365
Conditional Achievement Focused	135	3,3659	1,03543
Over Permissive Boundless	135	1,9049	0,70990
Pessimistic Worried	135	2,9679	1,08977
Punitive	135	2,2870	0,73573
Restricted Emotionally Inhibited	135	2,9333	0,93668

Data on the frequency of parenting styles in the study are examined. The mean of the normative style is 3.4846 and the standard deviation is 0.96797. The Belittling Criticizing style has a mean of 2.1189 and a standard deviation of 1.10675. The mean of the Emotionally Depriving style is 2.0380, and the standard deviation is 1.13002. The mean of the Exploitative Abusive style is 1.4370 and the standard deviation is 0.60609. The mean of the Overprotective Anxious style is 3.3571, and the standard deviation is 0.95365. The average of the Conditional Achievement Focused style is 3,3659, and the standard deviation is 1.03543. The average of the Over Permissive Boundless style is 1.9049, and the standard deviation is 0.70990. The mean of the Pessimistic Worried style is 2.9679, and the standard deviation is 1.08977. The mean of the punitive style is 2.2870 and the standard deviation is 0.73573. The mean of the Restricted Emotionally Inhibited style is 2.9333, and the standard deviation is 0.93668.

4.2. T-TEST RESULTS TO PARENTING STYLES AND EARLY MALADAPTIVE SCHEMAS

4.2.1. Evaluation of Early Maladaptive Schemas Scale Scores In Terms of Generation Variable

In Table 4.4, the results of the independent groups of t-tests performed to determine whether the early maladaptive schemas scale scores of the participants showed a significant difference according to the generation variable are presented. According to the statistical results obtained, no significant difference was found from the early maladaptive schemas of the participants according to any schema generation variable [$p > .05$].

Table 4.4*t-Test Results of Early Maladaptive Schemas Scale Scores by Generation Variable*

		Frequency	X	SD	t	p
Other directedness	Child	45	3,7307	1,34190	-1,395	0,764
	Parent	90	4,0648	1,29675		
Impaired limits	Child	45	3,7016	1,40923	4,069	0,136
	Parent	90	2,7635	1,18350		
Impaired autonomy	Child	45	2,2628	0,84633	,284	0,604
	Parent	90	2,2153	0,94632		
Unrelenting Standards	Child	45	4,2222	1,01457	,739	0,609
	Parent	90	4,0778	1,09631		
Disconnection and rejection	Child	45	2,2455	1,05599	,830	0,39
	Parent	90	2,1167	0,72647		

4.2.2. Evaluation of Parenting Styles Scale Scores in terms of Generation Variable

In Table 4.5, the results of the independent groups t-test performed to determine whether the parenting style scale scores of the participants showed a significant difference according to the generation variable are presented. According to the statistical results, there was no significant difference between the parenting styles of the participants according to the generation variable of normative, belittling criticizing, emotionally depriving, overprotective anxious, conditional achievement focused, over permissive boundless, pessimistic worried and punitive styles [$p > .05$], but exploitative abusive restricted and emotionally inhibited styles were found to be significantly different according to the generation variable [$p < .05$].

Table 4.5*t-Test Results of Parenting Style Scale Scores by Generation Variable*

			X	SD	t	
Normative	Child	45	3,4000	0,92495	-,716	0,786
	Parent	90	3,5269	0,99113		
Belittling Criticizing	Child	45	1,9605	1,02539	-1,178	0,895
	Parent	90	2,1981	1,14253		
Emotionally Depriving	Child	45	1,9417	1,13571	-,699	0,351
	Parent	90	2,0861	1,13043		
Exploitative Abusive	Child	45	1,3397	0,58251	-1,323	0,000**
	Parent	90	1,4857	0,61494		
Overprotective Anxious	Child	45	3,3746	0,96448	,150	0,058
	Parent	90	3,3484	0,95351		
Conditional Achievement Focused	Child	45	3,4956	1,01443	1,029	0,471
	Parent	90	3,3011	1,04532		
Over Permissive Boundless	Child	45	2,0648	0,78091	1,168	0,167
	Parent	90	1,8250	0,66174		
Pessimistic Worried	Child	45	3,1074	1,05119	1,052	0,423
	Parent	90	2,8981	1,10771		
Punitive	Child	45	2,1583	0,59317	-1,433	0,907
	Parent	90	2,3514	0,79276		
Restricted Emotionally Inhibited	Child	45	2,7667	0,79089	-1,468	0,000**
	Parent	90	3,0167	0,99532		

4.2.3. Evaluation of Early Maladaptive Schemas Scale Scores In Terms of Gender Variable

In Table 4.6, the results of the independent groups t-test performed to determine whether the early maladaptive schemas scale scores of the participants showed a significant difference according to the gender variable are presented. According to the statistical results, there was no significant difference between the early maladaptive schemes of the participants and other directedness, impaired limits, unrelenting standards and disconnection and rejection schemes according to the gender variable [$p>.05$], but a significant difference was found according to the gender variable of the impaired autonomy scheme [$p<.05$].

Table 4.6*t-Test Results of Early Maladaptive Schemas Scale Scores by Gender Variable*

		Frequency	X	SD	t	p
Other directedness	Male	56	3,6107	1,19535	-2,601	0,147
	Female	79	4,1964	1,35120		
Impaired limits	Male	56	3,1505	1,39291	,544	0,214
	Female	79	3,0235	1,29695		
Impaired autonomy	Male	56	1,9947	0,75799	-2,566	0,002**
	Female	79	2,3987	0,97622		
Unrelenting Standards	Male	56	4,1667	1,10486	,372	0,852
	Female	79	4,097	1,04752		
Disconnection and rejection	Male	56	2,1867	0,85291	,311	0,459
	Female	79	2,1405	0,85074		

4.2.4. Evaluation of Parenting Styles Scale Scores in terms of Gender Variable

In Table 4.7, the results of the independent groups t-test performed to determine whether the parenting style scale scores of the participants showed a significant difference according to the gender variable are presented. According to the statistical results, there was no significant difference from the parenting styles of the participants according to the generation variable of normative, belittling criticizing, emotionally depriving, exploitative abusive, overprotective anxious, conditional achievement focused and over permissive boundless styles [$p > .05$], but pessimistic worried, punitive and restricted emotionally inhibited styles according to the gender variable [$p < .05$].

Table 4.7*t-Test Results of Parenting Style Scale Scores by Gender Variable*

			X	SD	t	
Normative	Male	56	3,2909	1,07999	-1,978	0,794
	Female	79	3,6218	0,86094		
Belittling Criticizing	Male	56	2,0040	1,00687	-1,016	0,156
	Female	79	2,2004	1,17186		
Emotionally Depriving	Male	56	1,9743	1,07706	-,549	0,515
	Female	79	2,0831	1,17080		
Exploitative Abusive	Male	56	1,3827	0,56497		0,677
	Female	79	1,4756	0,63434		
Overprotective Anxious	Male	56	3,1760	0,93221	-,877	0,13
	Female	79	3,4855	0,95362		
Conditional Achievement Focused	Male	56	3,2732	1,04577		0,725
	Female	79	3,4316	1,02963		
Over Permissive Boundless	Male	56	1,7976	0,72767	-1,875	0,972
	Female	79	1,9810	0,69157		
Pessimistic Worried	Male	56	2,8095	0,99769	-,875	0,000**
	Female	79	3,0802	1,14350		
Punitive	Male	56	2,2277	0,64496	-,788	0,007**
	Female	79	2,3291	0,79516		
Restricted Emotionally Inhibited	Male	56	2,8542	0,99446	-,826	0,000**
	Parent	90	2,9895	0,89568		

4.3. ANOVA RESULTS TO PARENTING STYLES AND EARLY MALADAPTIVE SCHEMAS

4.3.1. Evaluation of Parenting Style Scale Scores In Terms of Age Variable

In Table 4.8, the results of the one-way analysis of variance performed to determine whether the participants' Parenting Style Scale scores showed a significant difference according to the age variable are presented. According to the statistical results, while normative, belittling criticizing, over permissive boundless, pessimistic worried, punitive and restricted emotionally inhibited styles of the participants did not

differ significantly according to age [$p > .05$]; There was a significant difference in emotionally depriving, exploitative abusive, overprotective anxious and conditional achievement focused styles [$p < .05$]. Following this procedure, complementary post-hoc analysis techniques were adopted to determine which groups caused the significant difference determined in the post-ANOVA emotionally depriving, exploitative abusive, overprotective anxious and conditional achievement focused styles.

To determine which post-hoc multiple comparison technique to use after ANOVA, the hypothesis of whether the variances of the group distributions were homogeneous was tested with Levene's test. It was determined that the variances were homogeneous [$p > .05$]. Scheffe multiple comparison technique, which is widely used if the variances are homogeneous, was preferred. The Scheffe test is preferred because it is sensitive to Alpha-type error. The results of the Scheffe multiple comparison analysis were obtained.

As a result of the post-hoc Scheffe test after the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) conducted to determine which subgroups differed between the emotionally depriving, exploitative abusive, overprotective anxious and conditional achievement focused styles according to the age variable, a statistically significant difference was found in the emotionally depriving and exploitative abusive age range in favor of the 44-47 age range. A statistically significant difference was found in favor of the 18-21 age range in Overprotective Anxious and in the conditional achievement focused style in favor of the 19-31 age range.

Table 4.8

Unidirectional Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Results of Parenting Style
Subscale Scores According to Age Variable

<i>n, X ve SS Values</i>					<i>ANOVA Results</i>					
	Age	n	X	SS	Var. K.	K.T.	SD	K.O.	F	p
Normative	18-21	24	3,6389	1,07428	G. Break	7,868	5	1,574	1,725	0,133
	19-30	21	3,8532	0,80608	G. In	117,686	129	0,912		
	37-40	27	3,5154	0,83126	Total	125,555	134			
	41-43	25	3,0783	1,10929						
	44-47	18	3,5000	0,83125						
	48-56	20	3,3646	0,99743						
Belittling Criticizing	18-21	24	2,0532	1,07807	G. Break	10,192	5	2,038	1,708	0,137
	19-30	21	2,1720	1,11802	G. In	153,945	129	1,193		
	37-40	27	1,8374	1,08143	Total	164,137	134			
	41-43	25	1,8956	1,07095						
	44-47	18	2,7037	1,12378						
	48-56	20	2,2750	1,09572						
Emotionally Depriving	18-21	24	1,6302	1,04321	G. Break	13,903	5	2,781	2,282	0,050*
	19-30	21	1,7649	1,01318	G. In	157,208	129	1,219		
	37-40	27	2,0648	1,09007	Total	171,110	134			
	41-43	25	2,0300	1,13036						
	44-47	18	2,6979	1,39066						
	48-56	20	2,1938	0,95173						

Table 4.8

Unidirectional Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Results of Parenting Style
Subscale Scores According to Age Variable (Continued)

<i>n, X ve SS Values</i>					<i>ANOVA Results</i>					
	Age	n	X	SS	Var. K.	K.T.	SD	K.O.	F	p
Exploitative Abusive	18-21	24	1,2470	0,25449	G. Break	4,152	5	0,830	2,377	0,042*
	19-30	21	1,2891	0,37761	G. In	45,073	129	0,349		
	37-40	27	1,3122	0,62117	Total	49,225	134			
	41-43	25	1,5057	0,72782						
	44-47	18	1,6865	0,70717						
	48-56	20	1,6786	0,70654						
Overprotectiv e Anxious	18-21	24	3,9018	1,06672	G. Break	19,838	5	3,968	5,017	0,000*
	19-30	21	3,8571	1,05366	G. In	102,029	129	0,791		
	37-40	27	3,1825	0,85813	Total	121,867	134			
	41-43	25	2,9486	0,79313						
	44-47	18	3,0079	0,81658						
	48-56	20	3,2393	0,65189						
Conditional Achievement Focused	18-21	24	4,1292	1,07682	G. Break	48,238	5	9,648	13,042	0,000*
	19-30	21	4,2238	0,82092	G. In	95,426	129	0,740		
	37-40	27	3,2741	0,83785	Total	143,663	134			
	41-43	25	2,9240	0,83181						
	44-47	18	2,7778	0,74166						
	48-56	20	2,7550	0,76329						
Over Permissive Boundless	18-21	24	2,1840	0,88635	G. Break	7,390	5	1,478	3,170	0,010
	19-30	21	2,0913	0,75134	G. In	60,140	129	0,466		
	37-40	27	1,7222	0,60359	Total	67,530	134			
	41-43	25	1,6800	0,63450						
	44-47	18	2,1806	0,66866						
	48-56	20	1,6542	0,46143						

	18-21	24	2,7500	0,96559	G. Break	7,881	5	1,576	1,344	0,250
	19-30	21	2,8254	1,06781	G. In	151,258	129	1,173		
Pessimistic Worried	37-40	27	2,9198	1,12600	Total	159,139	134			
	41-43	25	2,7800	1,01462						
	44-47	18	3,3796	1,17546						
	48-56	20	3,3083	1,16638						

Table 4.8

Unidirectional Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Results of Parenting Style Subscale Scores According to Age Variable (Continued)

<i>n, X ve SS Values</i>					<i>ANOVA Results</i>					
	Age	n	X	SS	Var. K.	K.T.	SD	K.O.	F	p
	18-21	24	2,2031	0,74163	G. Break	3,590	5	0,718	1,343	0,250
	19-30	21	2,3631	0,73304	G. In	68,944	129	0,534		
Punitive	37-40	27	2,0370	0,80474	Total	72,534	134			
	41-43	25	2,2650	0,70740						
	44-47	18	2,5208	0,64490						
	48-56	20	2,4625	0,71186						
	18-21	24	2,8681	1,19578	G. Break	2,181	5	0,436	0,488	0,785
	19-30	21	3,1746	1,10865	G. In	115,386	129	0,894		
Restricted Emotionally Inhibited	37-40	27	2,9012	0,89784	Total	117,567	134			
	41-43	25	2,7600	0,83483						
	44-47	18	2,9722	0,60836						
	48-56	20	2,9833	0,85652						

4.3.2. Evaluation of Early Maladaptive Schemas Scale Scores In Terms of Age Variable

The results of the one-way variance analysis performed to determine whether the Early Maladaptive Schemas Scale scores of the participants showed a significant difference according to the age variable are presented in Table 4.9. According to the

statistical results, while there was no significant difference between the early maladaptive schemes of the participants and other directedness, impaired autonomy, unrelenting standards and disconnection and rejection schemes according to age [$p>.05$]; There was a significant difference in the impaired limits scheme [$F=3.909$; $p<.05$]. Following this procedure, complementary post-hoc analysis techniques were started to determine which groups resulted from the significant difference determined in the post-ANOVA impaired limits scheme.

The results of the Scheffe multiple comparison analysis were obtained. In order to decide which post-hoc multiple comparison technique to use after ANOVA, the hypothesis of whether the variances of the group distributions were homogeneous was tested with Levene's test and it was determined that the variances were homogeneous [$p>.05$]. On top of this, Scheffe multiple comparison technique, which is widely used if the variances are homogeneous, was preferred. The Scheffe test is preferred because the test is sensitive to Alpha-type error. The results of a Scheffe multiple comparison analysis were obtained after testing for homogeneity of variance among groups using Levene's test. This analysis was chosen because it is widely used when variances are homogeneous and because it is sensitive to alpha-type error.

As a result of the post-hoc Scheffe test after the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) conducted to determine which subgroups differed according to the age variable of the impaired limits scheme, a statistically significant difference was found in favor of the 19-30 age range.

Table 4.9

One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) Results of Early Maladaptive Schemas

Subscale Scores by Age Variable

<i>n, X ve SS Values</i>					<i>ANOVA Results</i>					
	Age	n	X	SS	Var. K.	K.T.	SD	K.O.	F	p
Other directedness	18-21	24	3,551	1,3363	G. Break	10,46	5	2,094	1,218	0,304
	19-30	21	3,935	1,3509	G. In	221,7	129	1,719		
	37-40	27	4,219	1,2943	Total	232,2	134			
	41-43	25	3,879	1,3288						
	44-47	18	4,416	1,3735						
	48-56	20	3,770	1,1739						
Impaired limits	18-21	24	3,500	1,4217	G. Break	31,37	5	6,275	3,909	0,002*
	19-30	21	3,932	1,3928	G. In	207,0	129	1,605		
	37-40	27	2,703	1,1310	Total	238,4	134			
	41-43	25	3,034	1,3803						
	44-47	18	2,714	1,2269						
	48-56	20	2,550	0,9513						
Impaired autonomy	18-21	24	2,260	0,7716	G. Break	1,753	5	0,351	0,413	0,839
	19-30	21	2,265	0,9439	G. In	109,5	129	0,849		
	37-40	27	2,251	0,9589	Total	111,2	134			
	41-43	25	2,022	0,8214						
	44-47	18	2,414	1,0774						
	48-56	20	2,228	0,9781						
Unrelenting Standards	18-21	24	4,184	0,9932	G. Break	6,564	5	1,313	1,157	0,334
	19-30	21	4,265	1,0615	G. In	146,3	129	1,134		
	37-40	27	4,237	1,1138	Total	152,8	134			
	41-43	25	3,840	0,9930						
	44-47	18	4,449	1,3461						

	48-56	20	3,825	0,8697						
	18-21	24	2,116	0,8676	G. Break	1,714	5	0,343	0,466	0,801
	19-30	21	2,393	1,2427	G. In	94,81	129	0,735		
Disconnection and rejection	37-40	27	2,044	0,7960	Total	96,53	134			
	41-43	25	2,118	0,7698						
	44-47	18	2,108	0,5992						
	48-56	20	2,219	0,7185						



4.4. CORRELATIONS

Pearson correlations were calculated in order to examine relationships among all continuous variables of the study. The correlation between children's early maladaptive schemas is shown in Table 4.10.

Child with other directedness schema was negatively correlated with Impaired limits [$r = -.335, p < .05$] and was positively correlated with Impaired autonomy [$r = .498, p < .01$].

Child with impaired limits schema was positively correlated with Unrelenting Standards [$r = .378, p < .05$] and Disconnection and rejection [$r = .344, p < .05$].

Child with impaired autonomy schema was positively correlated with Disconnection and rejection [$r = .542, p < .01$].

Child with unrelenting standards schema was positively correlated with Disconnection and rejection [$r = .337, p < .05$].

Table 4.10

Pearson's correlation coefficients between children early maladaptive schemas

	Other directedness Child	Impaired limits Child	Impaired autonomy Child	Unrelenting Standards Child	Disconnection and rejection Child
Other directedness Child	1	-,335*	,498**	-0,045	0,276
Impaired limits Child		1	0,146	,378*	,344*
Impaired autonomy Child			1	0,072	,542**
Unrelenting Standards Child				1	,337*
Disconnection and rejection Child					1

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.11 shows the correlation between parent early maladaptive schemas. Parent with other directedness schema was negatively correlated with Impaired limits [$r = -.332, p < .01$] and was positively correlated with Impaired autonomy [$r = .737, p < .01$] and Disconnection and rejection [$r = .306, p < .01$].

Parent with impaired limits schema was negatively correlated with Impaired autonomy [$r = -.213, p < .05$] and was positively correlated with Unrelenting Standards [$r = .455, p < .01$] and Disconnection and rejection [$r = .294, p < .01$].

Parent with impaired autonomy schema was positively correlated with Disconnection and rejection [$r = .433, p < .01$].

Table 4.11

Pearson's correlation coefficients between parent early maladaptive schemas

	Other directedness Parent	Impaired limits Parent	Impaired autonomy Parent	Unrelenting Standards Parent	Disconnection and rejection Parent
Other directedness Parent	1	-,332**	,737**	-0,204	,306**
Impaired limits Parent		1	-,213*	,455**	,294**
Impaired autonomy Parent			1	-0,204	,433**
Unrelenting Standards Parent				1	0,196
Disconnection and rejection Parent					1

*, Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**, Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.12 shows the correlation between parenting styles. Normative styling owned by individuals was positively correlated with Pessimistic Worried [$r = .432$, $p < .01$], Punitive [$r = .241$, $p < .01$], Restricted Emotionally Inhibited [$r = .708$, $p < .01$], Belittling Criticizing [$r = .451$, $p < .01$], Exploitative Abusive [$r = .186$, $p < .05$], Overprotective Anxious [$r = .338$, $p < .01$], Conditional Achievement Focused [$r = .431$, $p < .01$], Over Permissive Boundless [$r = .276$, $p < .01$].

Belittling Criticizing owned by individuals was positively correlated with Emotionally Depriving [$r = .715$, $p < .01$], Exploitative Abusive [$r = .789$, $p < .01$], Over Permissive Boundless [$r = .285$, $p < .01$], Pessimistic Worried [$r = .546$, $p < .01$], Punitive [$r = .787$, $p < .01$], Restricted Emotionally Inhibited [$r = .504$, $p < .01$].

Emotionally Depriving owned by individuals was positively correlated with Exploitative Abusive [$r = .567$, $p < .01$], Pessimistic Worried [$r = .343$, $p < .01$], Punitive [$r = .492$, $p < .01$], Restricted Emotionally Inhibited [$r = .439$, $p < .01$] and was negatively correlated with Overprotective Anxious [$r = -.392$, $p < .01$], Conditional Achievement Focused [$r = -.540$, $p < .01$].

Exploitative Abusive owned by individuals was positively correlated with Pessimistic Worried [$r = .489$, $p < .01$], Punitive [$r = .749$, $p < .01$], Restricted Emotionally Inhibited [$r = .277$, $p < .01$].

Overprotective Anxious owned by individuals was positively correlated with Conditional Achievement Focused [$r = .509$, $p < .01$], Over Permissive Boundless [$r = .247$, $p < .01$]. Over Permissive Boundless was positively correlated with Pessimistic Worried [$r = .301$, $p < .01$]. Pessimistic Worried was positively correlated with Punitive [$r = .510$, $p < .01$].

Punitive owned by individuals was positively correlated with Restricted Emotionally Inhibited [r = .480, p<.01].



Table 4.12*Pearson's correlation coefficients between parenting styles*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Normative	1	,432**	-0,139	,241**	,708**	,451**	,186*	,338**	,431**	,276**
Belittling Criticizing		1	,715**	,789**	0,061	-0,098	,285**	,546**	,787**	,504**
Emotionally Depriving			1	,567**	-,392**	-,540**	0,137	,343**	,492**	,439**
Exploitative Abusive				1	-0,165	-0,142	0,122	,489**	,749**	,277**
Overprotective Anxious					1	,509**	,247**	0,092	0,088	-0,016
Conditional Achievement Focused						1	0,065	-0,072	-0,049	0,042
Over Permissive Boundless							1	,301**	0,069	0,065
Pessimistic Worried								1	,510**	0,144
Punitive									1	,480**
Restricted Emotionally Inhibited										1

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**, Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

4.9. REGRESSION FINDINGS TO DISCONNECTION AND REJECTION

The results of multiple regression analysis of Child Disconnection and Rejection schema were presented in Table 4.17. As seen in table, any parenting styles significantly don't predict Disconnection and Rejection in a positive or negative way. 5% of the variance [$R=.423$, $R^2=.179$, $F=.655$, $p>.05$] can be explained by this model.

Table 4.17

Regression Findings of Disconnection and Rejection Schema

IVs	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
(Constant)	-0,151	2,462		-0,061	0,951
Normative	0,155	0,542	0,119	0,286	0,777
Belittling Criticizing	-0,229	0,725	-0,206	-0,316	0,754
Emotionally Depriving	0,682	0,531	0,653	1,286	0,207
Exploitative Abusive	0,415	0,750	0,229	0,554	0,584
Overprotective Anxious	0,551	0,662	0,400	0,832	0,411
Conditional Achievement Focused	0,216	0,276	0,211	0,783	0,439
Over Permissive Boundless	0,021	0,435	0,011	0,047	0,963
Pessimistic Worried	-0,196	0,236	-0,191	-0,829	0,413
Punitive	-0,372	0,630	-0,204	-0,590	0,559
Restricted Emotionally Inhibited	-0,264	0,327	-0,170	-0,809	0,424
Disconnection and_ Rejection Parent	-0,157	0,270	-0,098	-0,580	0,566
$n=45$, $R=.423$, $R^2=.179$, $F=.655$, $p>.05$					

The results of the research questions are given in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18*Results of Research Questions*

Research Question	Status
Is there a relationship between the children's early maladaptive schemas?	Accept
Is there a relationship between the parents' early maladaptive schemas?	Accept
Is there a relationship between individuals' parenting styles?	Accept
Does parenting styles of individuals significantly difference according to generation?	Accept
Does parenting styles of individuals significantly difference according to gender?	Accept
Does parenting styles of individuals significantly difference according to age?	Accept
Does Early Maladaptive Schemas of individuals significantly difference according to generation?	Reject
Does Early Maladaptive Schemas of individuals significantly difference according to gender?	Accept
Does parenting styles and other directedness schema of parent significantly predict other directedness schema of child?"	Accept
Does parenting styles and impaired limits schema of parent significantly predict impaired limits schema of child?"	Accept
Does parenting styles and impaired autonomy schema of parent significantly predict impaired autonomy schema of child?"	Accept
Does parenting styles and unrelenting standards schema of parent significantly predict unrelenting standards schema of child?"	Reject
Does parenting styles and disconnection and rejection schema of parent significantly predict disconnection and rejection schema of child?"	Reject



5. DISCUSSION AND SUGGESTIONS

5.1. DISCUSSION

The children's unrelenting standards schema has the highest average. Disconnection and rejection scheme has the lowest mean. The parents' unrelenting standards schema has the highest average. Disconnection and rejection scheme has the lowest mean. Abdi meat. get. (2015) and Arntz and Jacob (2012) studies also obtained similar results.

According to generation there was no difference between the parenting styles of the participants according to the generation variable of normative, belittling criticizing, emotionally depriving, overprotective anxious, conditional achievement focused, over permissive boundless, pessimistic worried and punitive styles. Aydoğdu and Dilekmen (2016) and Sümer (2006) studies have obtained similar results.

According to gender there was no difference between the early maladaptive schemes of the participants and other directedness, impaired limits, unrelenting standards and disconnection and rejection schemes, but a significant difference was found according to the gender variable of the impaired autonomy scheme. Cockram et.al. (2010) and Gibson and Francis (2019) studies also obtained similar results.

There was no significant difference in parenting styles based on gender, according to the study. This included the normative, belittling criticizing, emotionally depriving, exploitative abuse, overprotective anxious, conditional achievement focused and over permissive boundless styles, pessimistic worried, punitive and restricted emotionally inhibited styles. According to Cuzzocrea et al. (2015),

Montebarocci et. get. (2004), Montgomery et. get. (2008) studies obtained similar results.

According to the study, there was no significant difference between the styles of parenting used by participants of different ages. However, emotionally depriving, exploitative abuse, overprotective anxious and conditional achievement focused styles were significantly different.

A statistically significant difference was found in the emotionally depriving and exploitative abusive age range in favor of the 44-47 age range. A statistically significant difference was found in favor of the 18-21 age range in Overprotective Anxious and in the conditional achievement focused style in favor of the 19-31 age range. Doinita and Maria (2015) and Görücü and Karakuş (2017) studies also obtained similar results.

While there was no difference between the early maladaptive schemes of the participants and other directedness, impaired impairment, unrelenting standards and disconnection and rejection schemes according to age; There was a significant difference in the impaired limits scheme. A statistically significant difference was found in favor of the 19-30 age range. The Calvete (2014) study also obtained similar results.

While there was no difference between the early maladaptive schemes of the participants and other directedness, impaired impairment, unrelenting standards and disconnection and rejection schemes according to age; There was a significant difference in the impaired limits scheme. A statistically significant difference was found in favor of the 19-30 age range. The Calvete (2014) study also obtained similar results.

In this study, parent with impaired autonomy schema was positively correlated with disconnection and rejection. Normative styling owned by individuals was positively correlated with pessimistic worried, punitive, restricted emotionally inhibited, belittling criticizing, exploitative abusive, overprotective anxious, conditional achievement focused, over permissive boundless. Halvorsen et. get. (2009) and Haugh et. get. (2017) studies also obtained similar results.

Normative parenting style affects other directedness positively. This indicates that having conditional achievement focused parenting style affects impaired limits positively. This indicates that having conditional achievement focused parenting style affects impaired impairment. Hubbs-Tait et. get. (2008) and Laible (2007) studies also obtained similar results.

In this study, age and gender did differ from each other in terms of having early maladaptive schemas. But the different schemas differ for each variable. Contrary to our study, in the study of Köse (2009), Young (1999) and Kochanska et.al. (2007); age variable did not differ from each other in terms of having early maladaptive schemas. Nevertheless in the study of Köse (2009) and Cossette et.al., (1996), gender and generation revealed significant differences for early maladaptive schemas.

In this study, correlation between children early maladaptive schemas, correlation between parent early maladaptive schemas and correlation between parenting styles are examined. Jovev and Jackson (2004) and Mairet et. get. (2014) studies also obtained similar results.

The correlation between children early maladaptive schemas was examined. Other directedness was negatively correlated with Impaired limits and was positively

correlated with Impaired autonomy. The study of Sümer and Güngör (1999) obtained the opposite results.

Impaired limits was positively correlated with Unrelenting Standards and Disconnection and rejection. Impaired autonomy was positively correlated with Disconnection and rejection. Unrelenting Standards was positively correlated with Disconnection and rejection. Muris (2006) and Nordahl et. get. (2005) studies also obtained similar results.

The correlation between parent early maladaptive schemas was examined. Other directedness was negatively correlated with Impaired limits and was positively correlated with Impaired autonomy and Disconnection and rejection. Impaired limits was negatively correlated with Impaired autonomy and was positively correlated with Unrelenting Standards and Disconnection and rejection. Impaired autonomy was positively correlated with Disconnection and rejection.

In this study, the correlation between parenting styles was examined. More parenting style correlated with other parenting styles. Saariaho et. get. (2012) study obtained similar results. But Unoka et. get. (2007) found the opposite result.

In our study, it was observed that there was a significant correlation between the parenting styles and the schemas. In Köse (2009), similar to our study, a correlation was found between parenting styles, between child early maladaptive schemas and between parent early maladaptive schemas.

Regression analysis was performed in the study. Normative parenting style significantly predicts Other Directedness in a positive way. Conditional Achievement Focused parenting style significantly predicts Impaired Limits in a positive way.

Conditional Achievement Focused parenting style significantly predicts Impaired Autonomy in a positive way. Muris (2006) and Unoka et. get. (2007) studies also obtained similar results.

5.2. SUGGESTION

The suggestions for researchers are as follows.

Early maladaptive schemes of parents are effective in early maladaptive schemes of their children. For this reason, researchers should examine parents' early maladaptive schemes of their children together with early maladaptive schemes. In addition, when evaluating early maladaptive schemes of their children, parents should not ignore early maladaptive schemes.

The suggestion for practitioners are as follows.

Parents' parenting styles are associated with early maladaptive schemas. It would be beneficial for practitioners to examine early maladaptive schemes while examining the parenting styles of individuals or while working on parenting styles. Parenting styles of parents should also be studied in sessions about individuals' schemas.

The researcher's limitations are as follows.

It was not possible to study in a larger sample. A similar study can be done with a larger sample in future studies. Only two generations between generations could be studied. In future studies, three generations can be evaluated within the scope of the study. While studying children's early maladaptive schemas, parents' schemas should also be studied.

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APPENDIX-A

Demografik Bilgiler

Cinsiyet:

Yaş:

Rumuz:

Medeni durumu:

En son mezun olduğunuz öğretim düzeyi:

Meslek:

Annenin en son mezun olduğu öğretim düzeyi:

Babanın en son mezun olduğu öğretim düzeyi:

Kardeş varsa kardeş sayısı:

Daha önce psikolojik yardım aldınız mı?:

APPENDIX-B

Young –Ebeveynlik Ölçeđi

Ařađıda anne ve babanızı tarif etmekte kullanabileceđiniz tanımlamalar verilmiřtir. Lütfen her tanımlamayı dikkatle okuyun ve ebeveynlerinize ne kadar uyduđuna karar verin. 1 ile 6 arasında, çocukluđunuz sırasında annenizi ve babanızı tanımlayan en yüksek dereceyi seçin. Eđer sizi anne veya babanız yerine bařka insanlar büyüttü ise onları da aynı řekilde derecelendirin. Eđer anne veya babanızdan biri hiç olmadı ise o sütunu boş bırakın.

- 1 - Tamamı ile yanlıř
- 2 - Çođunlukla yanlıř
- 3 - Uyan tarafı daha fazla
- 4 - Orta derecede dođru
- 5 - Çođunlukla dođru
- 6 - Ona tamamı ile uyuyor.

Anne Baba

7. ____ Beni sevdi ve bana özel birisi gibi davrandı.
8. ____ Bana vaktini ayırdı ve özen gösterdi.
9. ____ Bana yol gösterdi ve olumlu yönlendirdi.
10. ____ Beni dinledi, anladı ve duygularımızı karşılıklı paylaştık.
11. ____ Bana karşı sıcaktı ve fiziksel olarak şefkatliydi.
12. ____ Ben çocukken öldü veya evi terk etti.
13. ____ Dengesizdi, ne yapacağı belli olmazdı veya alkolikti.
14. ____ Kardeş(ler)imi bana tercih etti.
15. ____ Uzun süreler boyunca beni terk etti veya yalnız bıraktı.
16. ____ Bana yalan söyledi, beni kandırdı veya bana ihanet etti.
17. ____ Beni dövdü, duygusal veya cinsel olarak taciz etti.
18. ____ Beni kendi amaçları için kullandı.
19. ____ İnsanların canını yakmaktan hoşlanırdı.
20. ____ Bir yerimi inciteceğim diye çok endişelenirdi.
21. ____ Hasta olacağım diye çok endişelenirdi.
22. ____ Evhamlı veya fobik/korkak bir insandı.
23. ____ Beni aşırı korurdu.
24. ____ Kendi kararlarıma veya yargılarıma güvenememe neden oldu
25. ____ İşleri kendi başıma yapmama fırsat vermeden çoğu işimi o yaptı.
26. ____ Bana hep daha çocukmuşum gibi davrandı.
27. ____ Beni çok eleştirirdi.
28. ____ Bana kendimi sevmeye layık olmayan veya dışlanmış bir gibi hissettirdi.
29. ____ Bana hep bende yanlış bir şey varmış gibi davrandı.
30. ____ Önemli konularda kendimden utanmama neden oldu.
31. ____ Okulda başarılı olmam için gereken disiplini bana kazandırmadı.
32. ____ Bana salakmışım veya beceriksizmişim gibi davrandı.
33. ____ Başarılı olmamı gerçekten istemedi.
34. ____ Hayatta başarısız olacağıma inandı.
35. ____ Benim fikrim veya isteklerim önemsizmiş gibi davrandı.
36. ____

Anne Baba

37. ____ Benim ihtiya larımı g zetmeden kendisi ne isterse onu yaptı.
38. ____ Hayatımı o kadar  ok kontrol altında tuttu ki  ok az se me  zg rl   m oldu.
39. ____ Her  ey onun kurallarına uymalıydı.
40. ____ Aile i in kendi isteklerini feda etti.
41. ____ G nl k sorumluluklarının pek  o unu yerine getiremiyordu ve ben her zaman kendi payıma d  enden fazlasını yapmak zorunda kaldım.
42. ____ Hep mutsuzdu ; destek ve anlayı  i in hep bana dayandı.
43. ____ Bana g  l  oldu umu ve di er insanlara yardım etmem gerekti ini hissettirdi.
44. ____ Kendisinden beklentisi hep  ok y ksekti ve bunlar i in kendini  ok zorlardı.
45. ____ Benden her zaman en iyisini yapmamı bekledi.
46. ____ Pek  ok alanda m kemmeliyet iydi; ona g re her  ey olması gerekti i gibi olmalıydı.
47. ____ Yaptı ım hi bir  eyin yeterli olmadı ını hissetmeme sebep oldu.
48. ____ Neyin do ru neyin yanlı  oldu u hakkında kesin ve katı kuralları vardı.
49. ____ E er i ler d zg n ve yeterince hızlı yapılmazsa sabırsızlanırdı.
50. ____ I lerin tam ve iyi olarak yapılmasına, e lenme veya dinlenmekten daha fazla  nem verdi.
51. ____ Beni pek  ok konuda  ımarttı veya a ırı ho   r l  davrandı.
52. ____ Di er insanlardan daha  nemli ve daha iyi oldu umu hissettirdi.
53. ____  ok talepkardı; her  eyin onun istedi i gibi olmasını isterdi.
54. ____ Di er insanlara kar ı sorumluluklarımın oldu unu bana   retmedi.
55. ____ Bana  ok az disiplin veya terbiye verdi.
56. ____ Bana  ok az kural koydu veya sorumluluk verdi.
57. ____ A ırı sinirlenmeme veya kontrol m  kaybetmeme izin verirdi.
58. ____ Disiplinsiz bir insandı.
59. ____ Birbirimizi  ok iyi anlayacak kadar yakındık.
60. ____ Ondan tam olarak ayrı bir birey oldu umu hissedemedim veya bireyselli imi yeterince ya ayamadım.
61. ____ Onun  ok g  l  bir insan olmasından dolayı b y rken kendi y n m  belirleyemiyordum.

62. ____ ____ İimizden birinin uzağı gitmesi durumunda, birbirimizi üzebileceğimizi hissederdim.
63. ____ ____ Ailemizin ekonomik sorunları ile ilgili ok endişeli idi.
64. ____ ____ Küük bir hata bile yapsam kötü sonuçların ortaya çıkacağını hissettirirdi.
65. ____ ____ Kötümser bir bakışı açısı vardı, hep en kötüsünü beklerdi.
66. ____ ____ Hayatın kötü yanları veya kötü giden şeyler üzerine odaklanırdı.
67. ____ ____ Her şey onun kontrolü altında olmalıydı.
68. ____ ____ Duygularını ifade etmekten rahatsız olurdu.
69. ____ ____ Hep düzenli ve tertipliydi; değışiklik yerine bilineni tercih ederdi.
70. ____ ____ Kızgınlığını ok nadir belli ederdi.
71. ____ ____ Kapalı birisiydi; duygularını ok nadir açardı.
72. ____ ____ Yanlış bir şey yaptığımda kızardı veya sert bir şekilde eleştirdiğı olurdu.
73. ____ ____ Yanlış bir şey yaptığımda beni cezalandırdığı olurdu.
74. ____ ____ Yanlış yaptığımda bana aptal veya salak gibi kelimelerle hitap ettiğı olurdu.
75. ____ ____ İşler kötü gittiğinde başkalarını suçlardı.
76. ____ ____ Sosyal statü ve görünüme önem verirdi.
77. ____ ____ Başarı ve rekabete ok önem verirdi.
78. ____ ____ Başkalarının gözünde benim davranışlarımın onu ne duruma düşüreceğı ile ok ilgiliydi.
79. ____ ____ Başarılı olduğum zaman beni daha ok sever veya bana daha ok özen gösterirdi.

APPENDIX-C

Young Şema Ölçeđi- Kısa Form 3 (YŞÖ-KF3)

Yönerge: Aşağıda, kişilerin kendilerini tanımlarken kullandıkları ifadeler sıralanmıştır. Lütfen her bir ifadeyi okuyun ve sizi ne kadar iyi tanımladığına karar verin. Emin olamadığınız sorularda neyin doğru olabileceğinden çok, sizin duygusal olarak ne hissettiğinize dayanarak cevap verin.

Bir kaç soru, anne babanızla ilişkiniz hakkındadır. Eğer biri veya her ikisi şu anda yaşamıyorlarsa, bu soruları o veya onlar hayatta iken ilişkinizi göz önüne alarak cevaplandırın.

1 den 6'ya kadar olan seçeneklerden sizi tanımlayan en yüksek şıkkı seçerek her sorudan önce yer alan boşluğa yazın.

Derecelendirme:

- 1- Benim için tamamıyla yanlış
- 2- Benim için büyük ölçüde yanlış
- 3- Bana uyan tarafı uymayan tarafından biraz fazla
- 4- Benim için orta derecede doğru
- 5- Benim için çoğunlukla doğru
- 6- Beni mükemmel şekilde tanımlıyor

1. _____ Bana bakan, benimle zaman geçiren, başıma gelen olaylarla gerçekten ilgilenen kimsem olmadı.
2. _____ Beni terkedeceklerinden korktuğum için yakın olduğum insanların peşini bırakmam.
3. _____ İnsanların beni kullandıklarını hissediyorum
4. _____ Uyumsuzum.
5. _____ Beğendiğim hiçbir erkek/kadın, kusurlarımı görürse beni sevmez.
6. _____ İş (veya okul) hayatımda neredeyse hiçbir şeyi diğer insanlar kadar iyi yapamıyorum
7. _____ Günlük yaşamımı tek başıma idare edebilme becerisine sahip olduğumu hissetmiyorum.
8. _____ Kötü bir şey olacağı duygusundan kurtulamıyorum.
9. _____ Anne babamdan ayrılmayı, bağımsız hareket edebilmeyi, yaşitlarım kadar, başaramadım.
10. _____ Eğer istediğimi yaparsam, başımı derde sokarım diye düşünürüm.
11. _____ Genellikle yakınlarıma ilgi gösteren ve bakan ben olurum.
12. _____ Olumlu duygularımı diğerlerine göstermekten utanırım (sevdiğimi, önemseddiğimi göstermek gibi).
13. _____ Yaptığım çoğu şeyde en iyi olmalıyım; ikinci olmayı kabullenemem.
14. _____ Diğer insanlardan bir şeyler istediğimde bana “hayır” denilmesini çok zor kabullenirim.
15. _____ Kendimi sıradan ve sıkıcı işleri yapmaya zorlayamam.
16. _____ Paramın olması ve önemli insanlar tanıyor olmak beni değerli yapar.
17. _____ Her şey yolunda gidiyor görünse bile, bunun bozulacağını hissederim.

18. _____ Eğer bir yanlış yaparsam, cezalandırılmayı hakkederim.
19. _____ Çevremde bana sıcaklık, koruma ve duygusal yakınlık gösteren kimsem yok.
20. _____ Diğer insanlara o kadar muhtacım ki onları kaybedeceğim diye çok endişeleniyorum.
21. _____ İnsanlara karşı tedbiri elden bırakamam yoksa bana kasıtlı olarak zarar vereceklerini hissederim.
22. _____ Temel olarak diğer insanlardan farklıyım.
23. _____ Gerçek beni tanırlarsa beğendiğim hiç kimse bana yakın olmak istemez.
24. _____ İşleri halletmede son derece yetersizim.
25. _____ Gündelik işlerde kendimi başkalarına bağımlı biri olarak görüyorum.
26. _____ Her an bir felaket (doğal, adli, mali veya tıbbi) olabilir diye hissediyorum.
27. _____ Annem, babam ve ben birbirimizin hayatı ve sorunlarıyla aşırı ilgili olmaya eğilimliyiz.
28. _____ Diğer insanların isteklerine uymaktan başka yolum yokmuş gibi hissediyorum; eğer böyle yapmazsam bir şekilde beni reddederler veya intikam alırlar.
29. _____ Başkalarını kendimden daha fazla düşündüğüm için ben iyi bir insanım.
30. _____ Duygularımı diğerlerine açmayı utanç verici bulurum.
31. _____ En iyisini yapmalıyım, “yeterince iyi” ile yetinemem.
32. _____ Ben özel biriyim ve diğer insanlar için konulmuş olan kısıtlamaları veya sınırları kabul etmek zorunda değilim.
33. _____ Eğer hedefime ulaşamazsam kolaylıkla yılgınlığa düşer ve vazgeçerim.
34. _____ Başkalarının da farkında olduğu başarılar benim için en değerlisidir.
35. _____ İyi bir şey olursa, bunu kötü bir şeyin izleyeceğinden endişe ederim.
36. _____ Eğer yanlış yaparsam, bunun özürü yoktur.

37. _____ Birisi için özel olduğumu hiç hissetmedim.
38. _____ Yakınlarımla beni terk edeceği ya da ayrılacağından endişe duyarım
39. _____ Herhangi bir anda birileri beni aldatmaya kalkışabilir.
40. _____ Bir yere ait değilim, yalnızım.
41. _____ Başkalarının sevgisine, ilgisine ve saygısına değer bir insan değilim.
42. _____ İş ve başarı alanlarında birçok insan benden daha yeterli.
43. _____ Doğru ile yanlış birbirinden ayırmakta zorlanırım.
44. _____ Fiziksel bir saldırıya uğramaktan endişe duyarım.
45. _____ Annem, babam ve ben özel hayatımız birbirimizden saklarsak, birbirimizi aldatmış hisseder veya suçluluk duyarız
46. _____ İlişkilerimde, diğer kişinin yönlendirici olmasına izin veririm.
47. _____ Yakınlarımla o kadar meşgulüm ki kendime çok az zaman kalıyor.
48. _____ İnsanlarla beraberken içten ve cana yakın olmak benim için zordur.
49. _____ Tüm sorumluluklarımı yerine getirmek zorundayım.
50. _____ İstediğimi yapmaktan alıkonulmaktan veya kısıtlanmaktan nefret ederim.
51. _____ Uzun vadeli amaçlara ulaşabilmek için şu andaki zevklerimden fedakarlık etmekte zorlanırım
52. _____ Başkalarından yoğun bir ilgi görmezsem kendimi daha az önemli hissederim.
53. _____ Yeterince dikkatli olmazsanız, neredeyse her zaman bir şeyler ters gider.
54. _____ Eğer işimi doğru yapmazsam sonuçlara katlanmam gerekir.
55. _____ Beni gerçekten dinleyen, anlayan veya benim gerçek ihtiyaçlarım ve duygularımı önemseyen kimsem olmadı.
56. _____ Önem verdiğim birisinin benden uzaklaştığını sezersem çok kötü hissederim.

57. _____ Diğer insanların niyetleriyle ilgili oldukça şüpheliyimdir.
58. _____ Kendimi diğer insanlara uzak veya kopmuş hissediyorum.
59. _____ Kendimi sevebilecek biri gibi hissetmiyorum.
60. _____ İş (okul) hayatımda diğer insanlar kadar yetenekli değilim.
61. _____ Gündelik işler için benim kararlarıma güvenilemez.
62. _____ Tüm paramı kaybedip çok fakir veya zavallı duruma düşmekten endişe duyarım.
63. _____ Çoğunlukla annem ve babamın benimle iç içe yaşadığını hissediyorum-Benim kendime ait bir hayatım yok.
64. _____ Kendim için ne istediğimi bilmediğim için daima benim adıma diğer insanların karar vermesine izin veririm.
65. _____ Ben hep başkalarının sorunlarını dinleyen kişi oldum.
66. _____ Kendimi o kadar kontrol ederim ki insanlar beni duygusuz veya hissiz bulurlar.
67. _____ Başarmak ve bir şeyler yapmak için sürekli bir baskı altındayım.
68. _____ Diğer insanların uyduğu kurallara ve geleneklere uymak zorunda olmadığımı hissediyorum.
69. _____ Benim yararına olduğunu bilsem bile hoşuma gitmeyen şeyleri yapmaya kendimi zorlayamam.
70. _____ Bir toplantıda fikrimi söylediğimde veya bir topluluğa tanıtıldığımda onaylanılmayı ve takdir görmeyi isterim.
71. _____ Ne kadar çok çalışırsam çalışayım, maddi olarak iflas edeceğimden ve neredeyse her şeyimi kaybedeceğimden endişe ederim.
72. _____ Neden yanlış yaptığının önemi yoktur; eğer hata yaptıysam sonucuna da katlanmam gerekir.

73. _____ Hayatımda ne yapacağımı bilmediğim zamanlarda uygun bir öneride bulunacak veya beni yönlendirecek kimsem olmadı.
74. _____ İnsanların beni terk edeceği endişesiyle bazen onları kendimden uzaklaştırırım.
75. _____ Genellikle insanların asıl veya art niyetlerini araştırırım.
76. _____ Kendimi hep grupların dışında hissederim.
77. _____ Kabul edilemeyecek pek çok özelliğim yüzünden insanlara kendimi açamıyorum veya beni tam olarak tanımalarına izin vermiyorum.
78. _____ İş (okul) hayatımda diğer insanlar kadar zeki değilim.
79. _____ Ortaya çıkan gündelik sorunları çözebilme konusunda kendime güvenmiyorum.
80. _____ Bir doktor tarafından herhangi bir ciddi hastalık bulunmamasına rağmen bende ciddi bir hastalığın gelişmekte olduğu endişesine kapılıyorum.
81. _____ Sık sık annemden babamdan ya da eşimden ayrı bir kimliğimin olmadığını hissediyorum.
82. _____ Haklarıma saygı duyulmasını ve duygularımın hesaba katılmasını istemekte çok zorlanıyorum.
83. _____ Başkaları beni, diğerleri için çok, kendim için az şey yapan biri olarak görüyorlar.
84. _____ Diğerleri beni duygusal olarak soğuk bulurlar.
85. _____ Kendimi sorumluluktan kolayca sıyıramıyorum veya hatalarım için gerekçe bulamıyorum.
86. _____ Benim yaptıklarımın, diğer insanların katkılarından daha önemli olduğunu hissediyorum.
87. _____ Kararlarıma nadiren sadık kalabilirim.
88. _____ Bir dolu övgü ve iltifat almam kendimi değerli birisi olarak hissetmemi sağlar.
89. _____ Yanlış bir kararın bir felakete yol açabileceğinden endişe ederim.

90. _____ Ben cezalandırılmayı hakeden kötü bir insanım.

