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From the Editor

We share the March 2023 Turkish Counseling and Guidance Journal issue with bittersweet joy. On February 6, 2023, the people of Turkey and Syria witnessed the two most severe earthquakes of the century. We wish God's mercy on more than 50 thousand people who lost their lives in the quake, a speedy recovery to the injured, and patience for those who lost their relatives. In this process, the Turkish Counseling and Guidance Association, with its members in 81 provinces, provided psychosocial support to earthquake victims and continues to provide this service. We want to thank all our psychological counselor colleagues who contributed to this process for their outstanding efforts.

Since the release of our last issue, we have continued to develop the journal by holding meetings with the editorial team. These meetings aimed to increase the journal's impact factor to move it to ESCI and afterward to SSCI. We started by revising our template and bringing it a more professional look. Before we changed our journal template, we reviewed the layout of world-renowned journals. Thus, we are happy to have published the first issue of 2023 with our renewed design. However, our focus naturally shifted due to the earthquake disaster, and our work had to slow down for a while. After this issue, we will speed up and work harder to improve the journal.

In this issue, we have included a total of 10 articles. Five of these articles are quantitative, four are qualitative, and one is a scale adaptation study. One of the quantitative studies is a cross-cultural study comparing Turkish and French people. When the articles are analyzed according to the number of authors, it is seen that five of the ten articles have two authors, four have three authors, and one has four authors.

The authors of the articles published in this issue consist of academicians working in 15 different universities. These universities are in alphabetical order: Ankara University, Bahçeşehir University, Bilecik Şeyh Edebali University, Boğaziçi University, Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Gazi University, İnönü University, Kocaeli University, Maltepe University, Marmara University, Necmettin Erbakan University, Siirt University, Tokat Gaziosmanpaşa University, University of Lille (France), and Yalova University. I strongly believe that the articles published in this issue will make significant contributions to researchers and practitioners working in the field of counseling and guidance.

Publishing each issue of a scientific journal requires a great deal of effort. Therefore, I would like to thank the researchers who sent their articles, the editorial team who edited them, and the referees who reviewed and evaluated them. Finally, I would like to thank my young colleagues (Zeynep GÖRGÜLÜ, Ecem ÇİÇEK, Özge ERDEM, and M. Fatih KILIÇ) who put a lot of effort into publishing the journal on time and did the best in the layout and page arrangements of the journal.

Kind regards,

Prof. Dr. M. Metin PİŞKİN
Editor-In-Chief



A Measurement Tool for Evaluating Career Goal Inconsistencies Between Individuals and Parents: A Validity and Reliability Study of the Turkish Version

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ABSTRACT

In this study, a measurement tool that evaluates career goal inconsistencies between individuals and parents was adapted into Turkish. The sample group consists of 410 university students, aged between 18 and 31 years. The Discrepancies Between Individual-Set and Parent-Set Career Goals Scale (DBIPCGS), Career Stress Scale (CSS,) and Life Satisfaction Scale (LCS) were used as data collection tools in the study. The structure of DBIPCGS was tested by confirmatory factor analysis. The model goodness of fit values obtained in confirmatory factor analysis showed that the structure of the scale was confirmed. The internal consistency coefficient (Cronbach Alpha) of the scale was calculated as .78 for the ability dimension, .90 for the choice dimension, .92 for the enthusiasm dimension, and .93 for the total score of the scale. As a result of the correlation analysis conducted for the criterion validity, a positive relationship was found between DBIPCGS and the CSS, and a negative relationship with the LCS. As a result, DBIPCGS is a valid and reliable measurement tool that can be used in Turkish culture.

During the university years when the transition to adulthood coincides, individuals start to have a professional identity understanding (Arnett, 2000). Determining career goals is important in the development of professional identity (Erikson, 1968). Career goal is stated as the internal representations of the processes and results that the individual wants to achieve in the future regarding his / her career (Austin & Vancouver, 1996). It is accepted that the behaviors of individuals to achieve their goals in any subject are motivational antecedents (Ajzen, 1991). Therefore, it is pointed out that individuals with career-related goals will also be more likely to reach a professional career (Locke & Latham, 2006; Schoon & Polek, 2011).

Social cognitive career theory states that in addition to internal factors such as personality, interests, values, and self-efficacy, external factors such as environment, family, education and economic conditions are also influential on the career goals of individuals (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). In addition, individuals seek feedback from internal and external factors to adjust their goals and actions in line with their goals (Bandura, 1989). At this point, exogenous factors, especially parents, strongly influence individuals' career development processes (Blustein, 2001; Otto, 2000; Whiston & Keller, 2004). It is stated that variables such as relationships between individuals and their families and support received from their parents affect processes such as goals, determination, exploration, commitment, and self-efficacy related to the individual's career (Whiston & Keller,

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2004). As a result of these effects, it is stated that individuals build their career goals jointly with their parents (Young & Valach, 2004; Young et al., 2006). While certain consistency between individuals and parents in terms of career goals provides career support for individuals, possible discrepancies may be career barriers for individuals (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). When they have a common understanding with their parents regarding their career goals and receive support from parents, the individual's motivation and career optimism increase and career development progress positively (Keller & Whiston, 2008; Puklek Levpušek, Rauch, & Komidar, 2018). Therefore, when there are discrepancies between the career expectations and goals of individuals and parents, individuals experience difficulties in career-related activities such as career discovery and decision-making (Leung, Hou, Gatic, & Li, 2011; Sawitri, Creed, & Perdhana, 2020).

In a collectivist culture such as Turkey (Hofstede, 2001) it is known that family is effective in individuals' career processes (Bacanlı & Sürücü, 2011; Dursun & Kara, 2019; Solmaz, 2015; Özcan & Eranıl, 2018). With the influence of the collectivist culture, individuals in Turkish society, on the one hand, care about their families' preferences, on the other hand, it tries to determine their own career goals. This situation may cause conflicts between individuals and their parents about career goals, negatively affecting their career development and psychological well-being. When the literature in Turkey is examined, there are the Professional Development Assistance Scale (Hamamcı, 1996), Family Support in the Choice of Vocation Scale Vocation (Şeker ve Kaya, 2018), and The Career-Related Parent Support Scale (Güneş, 2015), which evaluate the contributions of families to the career development processes of individuals. Similarly, there are scales such as the Family Influence Scale (Özünlü & Bacanlı, 2015) and the Adolescent-Parent Career Congruence Scale (Bacanlı et al., 2018) that evaluate the effects of families on the career development of individuals. These measurement tools for students at high school and secondary school levels as well as are aimed at evaluating the effects of family on the individual's career process. In addition, the above-mentioned measurement tools are mostly aimed at evaluating parents' support and contributions on individuals' career development. However, as it is known, it is known that individuals, especially university students, experience inconsistency in various issues both within themselves and with their families when it comes to determining career goals. When the literature examined discrepancies between individual career goals and parents' career goals in Turkey has not been encountered directly into a measuring tool to evaluate. This study, it is aimed to adapt the DBIPCGS developed by Sawitri, Creed, and Perdhana (2020) into Turkish. It is thought that this adaptation study will contribute to the literature and researchers about career goals and determine career goal discrepancies between individuals and their families in career counseling centers.

Method

Study Group

In this study, the convenience sampling method was used. The convenience sampling method is to sample easily accessible groups suitable for the research in order to save the researcher's time, effort, and cost (Fink, 2003). The study group of the study consists of 410 university students, 279 (68%) female and 131 (32%) male, aged between 18 and 31 (\bar{x} =21.12; sd =1.96).

Ethical Process

In this study, the Social and Humanities Ethics Committee of Tokat Gaziosmanpaşa University reviewed the research and was given permission (REF: 21.05.2020/ 07.03). In addition, the participants participated in the study voluntarily.

Data Collection Tools

Demographic Information Form. It is a form prepared to collect participants' age, gender, class level, university and department they attend, and socio-demographic information.

The Discrepancies Between Individual-Set and Parent-Set Career Goals Scale (DBIPCGS). Developed by Sawitri, Creed, and Perdhana (2020), the scale aims to measure the discrepancy between the career goals of university students themselves and their parents. The scale is a six-point Likert type and consists of 15 items in total. There is no reverse-scored item in the scale. High scores obtained from the scale indicate that the

career goal inconsistency between the individual and their parent is high. The scale explains 68.58% of the total variance consisting of three sub-dimensions ability (5 items), choice (5 items), and enthusiasm (5 items). This structure obtained in the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was examined with the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and it is stated that the obtained model goodness of fit values ($\chi^2 / df = 1.90$; CFI = .97; TLI = .97 and RMSEA = .06) confirmed the structure in EFA. The Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient calculated in the scale development study was found to be .96 for the whole scale, .94 for the ability sub-dimension, .88 for the choice sub-dimension, and .93 for the enthusiasm sub-dimension.

Career Stress Scale (CSS). The measurement tool developed by Choi et al. (2011) and adapted into Turkish by Özden and Sertel-Berk (2017) evaluates the factors related to the career stress of university students. There are a total of 20 items in the scale consisting of the sub-dimensions of employment pressure, external conflict, and career ambiguity-lack of information. In the Turkish adaptation study, the construct validity of the scale was examined with exploratory factor analysis, and a structure consisting of a three-dimensional structure that explains 64% of the total variance was reached. Özden and Sertel-Berk (2017) stated that the factor structure they reached was similar to the original scale and that the structure of the scale was also validated through the data obtained from the Turkish sample. They found that the internal consistency coefficient of CSS (Cronbach Alpha) was .94 for the whole scale, .85 for the external conflict sub-dimension, .89 for the career ambiguity-lack of information sub-dimension, and .86 for the employment pressure sub-dimension. The Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient calculated on the data collected in this study was .95 for the whole scale, .94 for the career ambiguity-lack of information sub-dimension, .84 for the external conflict sub-dimension, and .84 for the employment pressure sub-dimension.

Life Satisfaction Scale (LSS). The Life Satisfaction Scale developed by Diener et al. (1985) was adapted into Turkish by Köker (1991). The scale is used to evaluate the general condition of individuals that they have obtained from their living conditions. The scale is a 7-point Likert type (1: not at all appropriate, 7: very convenient) and consists of five items and one dimension. In the adaptation study, in the reliability analysis of the scale, the test-retest reliability coefficient was found as .85 and the Cronbach Alpha internal consistency was found as .76. The internal consistency coefficient (Cronbach Alpha) of LSS calculated within the scope of this study was found .89.

Data Analysis

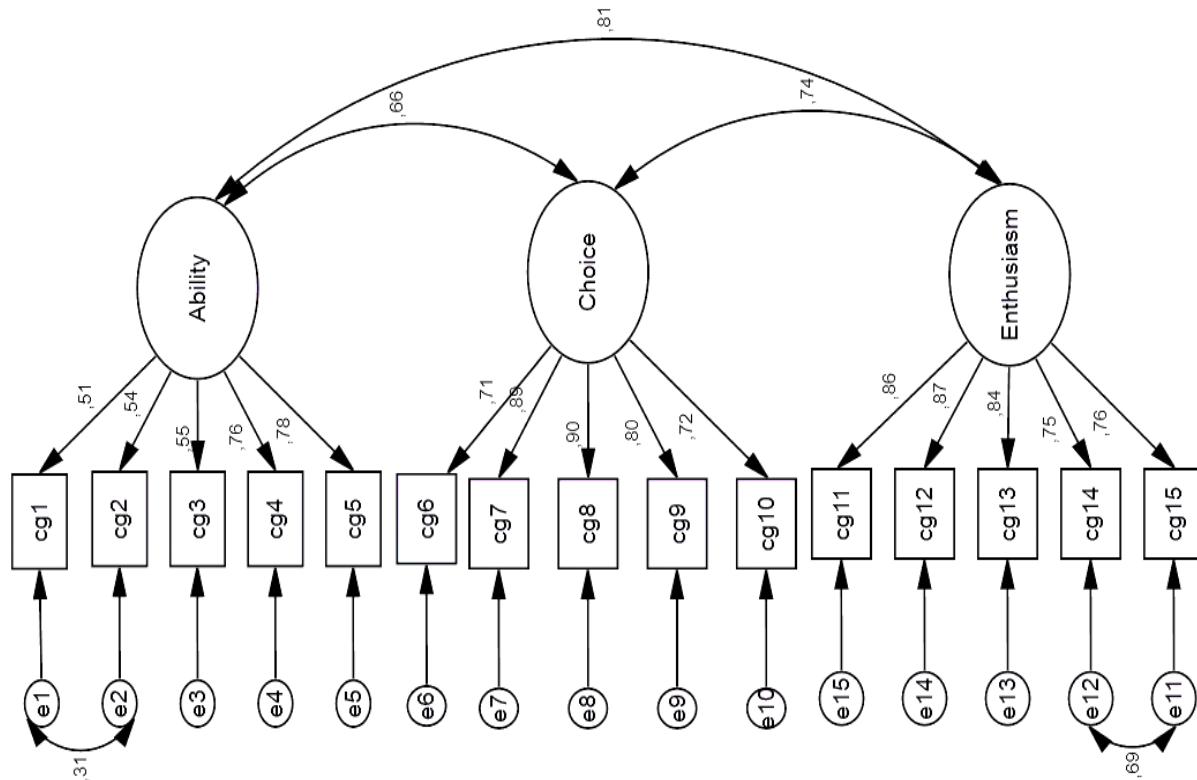
The construct validity of the scale was tested with confirmatory factor analysis. Whether the model obtained from CFA is valid or not is decided by looking at various model fit indices. In the evaluation of model fit in this study, $\geq .90$ for NFI (Bentler & Bonett, 1980), $\leq .10$ for RMSEA (MacCallum, Widaman, Preacher, & Hong, 2001; Bentler & Bonett, 1980), and .90 for IFI (Bollen, 1989), .90 for CFI (Vidaman & Thompson, 2003; Bentler & Bonett, 1980), $\geq .85$ for GFI (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1988), .80 for AGFI (Marsh, Balla, & McDonald, 1988) and the value (χ^2 / df) obtained from the division of the chi-square by the degrees of freedom (MacCallum, Brown, & Sugawara, 1996) values of 5 (MacCallum, Brown, & Sugawara, 1996) are expressed as acceptable values and these values were taken as reference in this study. To evaluate the item discrimination feature of the measurement tool adopted in the study, the significance of the differences in the item averages of 27% lower and upper groups was examined by independent sample t test analysis. In addition, to examine the criterion validity of DBIPCGS, the relationship between the Career Stress Scale (Özden & Sertel-Berk, 2017) and the Life Satisfaction Scale (Köker, 1991) was evaluated by calculating the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation coefficient. In addition, the internal consistency coefficients of the measurement tools used in the research were calculated and the item-total correlations were also examined.

Findings

Findings Regarding Structural Validity

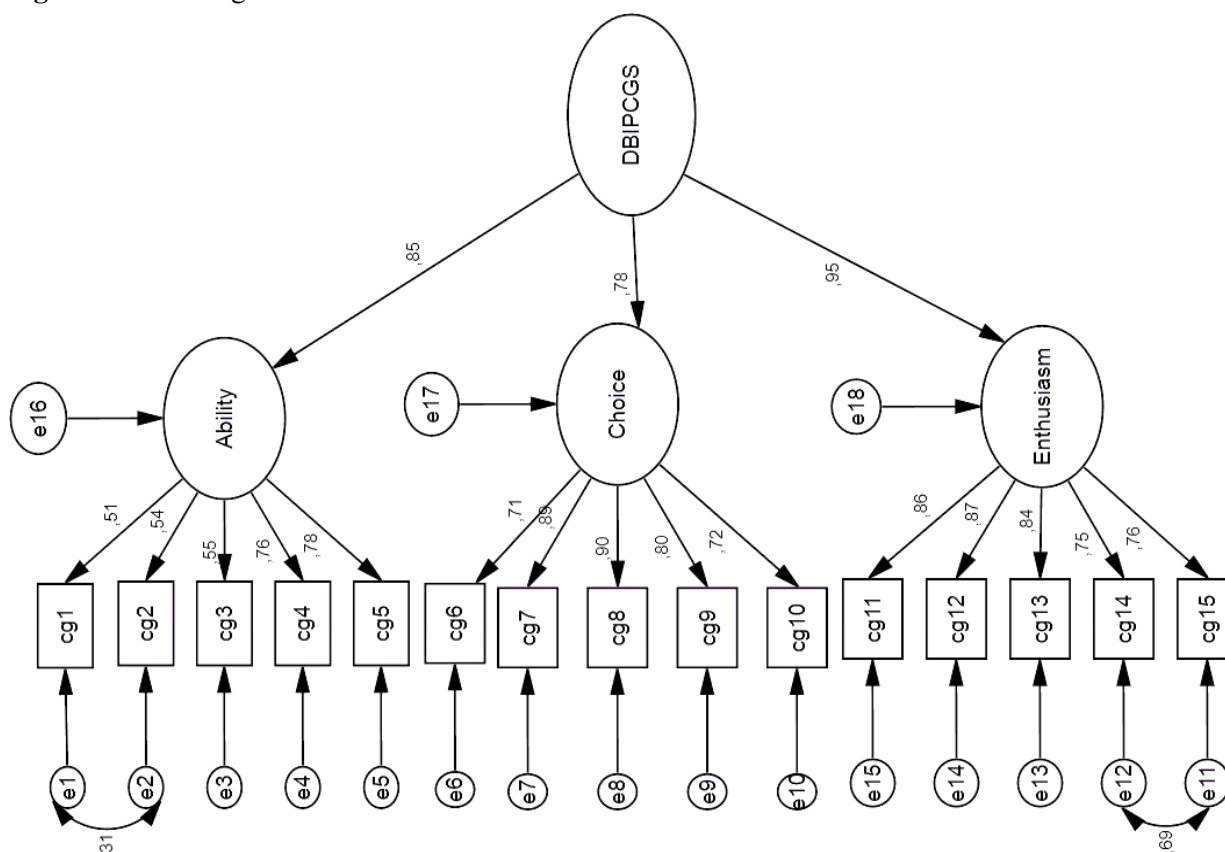
First and second-level CFA was performed to test the construct validity of DBIPCGS. As a result of the first level CFA, the model goodness of fit indexes was calculated as $\chi^2/df = 3.58$, CFI = .95, GFI = .90, IFI = .95, NFI = .93, TLI = .94, RMSEA = .079 (90% confidence interval .070-.089). These results were evaluated as having an acceptable fit for the scale. In addition, the regression coefficients and t scores of all paths were found to be significant ($p < .001$). The path diagram for the first level CFA analysis is presented in Figure-1.

Figure-1: Path Diagram for First Level DFA of DBIPCGS



After the first level CFA, second level CFA was performed to test whether the latent structure of the measurement tool was verified or not. The model goodness of fit indices reached as a result of the second level CFA were found as $\chi^2 / df = 3.57$, CFI = .95, GFI = .90, IFI = .93, NFI = .95, TLI = .93 and RMSEA = .079 (90% confidence interval .070-.089). In addition, the regression coefficients and t scores of all paths in the second level CFA were found to be significant ($p < .001$). The path diagram of the second level confirmatory factor analysis is given in Figure-2.

Figure 2: Path Diagram for Second Level DFA of DBIPCGS



Findings Regarding the Criterion Validity

To examine the similar scale validity of DBIPCGS, the correlation values between the Career Stress Scale (CSS) and the Life Satisfaction Scale (LSS) were examined. Correlation analysis results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Correlation Coefficients Between Scales

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|---|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|---|
| 1. DBIPCGS Total Score | 1 | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Ability | .83** | 1 | | | | | | | |
| 3. Choice | .83** | .54** | 1 | | | | | | |
| 4. Enthusiasm | .92** | .65** | .65** | 1 | | | | | |
| 5. CSS Total Score | .60** | .54** | .49** | .52** | 1 | | | | |
| 6. Career Ambiguity - Lack of Information | .53** | .50** | .41** | .47** | .94** | 1 | | | |
| 7. External Conflict | .61** | .46** | .64** | .50** | .77** | .63** | 1 | | |
| 8. Employment Pressure | .43** | .42** | .30** | .39** | .83** | .64** | .52** | 1 | |
| 9. LSS | -.35** | -.37** | -.27** | -.27** | -.56** | -.56** | -.42** | -.44** | 1 |

Note: n = 215; **p < .01

Table 1 shows that there is a positive significant relationship between the DBIPCGS total score and its sub-dimensions and the CSS total score and its sub-dimensions ($p < .01$). ($p < .01$). In addition, there is a negatively significant relationship between the DBIPCGS total score and its sub-dimensions and the LSS ($p < .01$). On the other hand, there is a negative correlation between the CSS total score and sub-dimensions used for criterion validity in the study and the LSS ($p < .01$).

Findings Related to Reliability Analyzes

To determine the reliability level of DBIPCGS, Cronbach's Alpha (α) was calculated with the internal consistency coefficient. The internal consistency coefficient of the scale calculated from the data collected in the current study was calculated as .78 for the ability dimension, .90 for the choice dimension, .92 for the enthusiasm dimension and .93 ,for the total score of the scale.

To evaluate the item discrimination feature of the measuring tool adapted in the study, the significance of the differences in the item averages of 27% lower and upper groups was examined by independent sample t test analysis. In addition, the item-total correlation of the items in the measurement tool was examined. The results of these analyzes are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Item Analysis Results of DBIPCGS

| Item | 27% Lower and Upper Groups | <i>n</i> | \bar{x} | <i>ss</i> | <i>sd</i> | <i>t</i> | Item-Total Correlation * |
|--------|----------------------------------|----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|--------------------------|
| Item1 | 1 | 110 | 1.64 | 1.03 | 218 | 12.06** | .52 |
| | 2 | 110 | 3.75 | 1.53 | | | |
| Item2 | 1 | 110 | 1.33 | 0.62 | 218 | 14.78** | .52 |
| | 2 | 110 | 3.86 | 1.69 | | | |
| Item3 | 1 | 110 | 1.13 | 0.36 | 218 | 9.34** | .48 |
| | 2 | 110 | 2.58 | 1.59 | | | |
| Item4 | 1 | 110 | 1.15 | 0.41 | 218 | 16.99** | .64 |
| | 2 | 110 | 3.71 | 1.52 | | | |
| Item5 | 1 | 110 | 1.41 | 0.76 | 218 | 14.63** | .64 |
| | 2 | 110 | 3.99 | 1.69 | | | |
| Item6 | 1 | 110 | 1.22 | 0.68 | 218 | 12.83** | .63 |
| | 2 | 110 | 3.47 | 1.71 | | | |
| Item7 | 1 | 110 | 1.05 | 0.25 | 218 | 14.16** | .71 |
| | 2 | 110 | 3.50 | 1.80 | | | |
| Item8 | 1 | 110 | 1.06 | 0.25 | 218 | 15.61** | .72 |
| | 2 | 110 | 3.85 | 1.85 | | | |
| Item9 | 1 | 110 | 1.09 | 0.29 | 218 | 17.58** | .71 |
| | 2 | 110 | 3.91 | 1.66 | | | |
| Item10 | 1 | 110 | 1.03 | 0.16 | 218 | 14.15** | .64 |
| | 2 | 110 | 3.34 | 1.70 | | | |
| Item11 | 1 | 110 | 1.09 | 0.35 | 218 | 30.38** | .83 |
| | 2 | 110 | 4.80 | 1.23 | | | |
| Item12 | 1 | 110 | 1.08 | 0.31 | 218 | 29.95** | .77 |
| | 2 | 110 | 4.86 | 1.29 | | | |
| Item13 | 1 | 110 | 1.14 | 0.44 | 218 | 26.83** | .74 |
| | 2 | 110 | 4.84 | 1.38 | | | |
| Item14 | 1 | 110 | 1.27 | 0.52 | 218 | 23.12** | .69 |
| | 2 | 110 | 4.73 | 1.48 | | | |
| Item15 | 1 | 110 | 1.21 | 0.49 | 218 | 24.70** | .72 |
| | 2 | 110 | 4.77 | 1.43 | | | |

Note: *n* = 410; ***p* < .001, 1 = 27% sub group; 2 = 27% upper group

In Table 2, it is seen that the differences between the mean scores of 27% of the lower and upper groups of DBIPCGS are significant at *p* < .001 level. In addition, corrected item total correlations for DBIPCGS range between .48 (item 3) and .83 (item 11).

Discussion & Conclusion

This study aims to adapt the DBIPCGS developed by Sawitri, Creed, and Perdhana (2020). For this purpose, a confirmatory factor was made to examine the construct validity of the scale. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the total and sub-dimension scores of DBIPCGS were calculated, and to test whether the

measuring tool made a discriminatory measurement, the significance of the difference in item score averages of 27% of the lower-upper group was analyzed with the independent group's t-test. Finally, to test the criterion validity, the correlation coefficient between DBIPCGS and the CSI and GDS was examined. The construct validity of the scale was examined by confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). It was observed that the model fit indices obtained as a result of the first level CFA performed in the study were between the limits specified in the literature and indicated acceptable fit ($\chi^2 / df = 3.57$, CFI = .95, GFI = .90, IFI = .93, NFI = .95, TLI = .93 and RMSEA = .079 (90% confidence interval .070-.089)). After this analysis, second-order confirmatory factor analysis was performed to evaluate the implicit structure of the scale and it was evaluated that the model fit indices calculated as a result of this analysis also indicate acceptable fit as $\chi^2/df = 3.57$, CFI = .95, GFI = .90, IFI = .93, NFI = .95, TLI = .93 and RMSEA = .079 (90% confidence interval .070-.089)). It is seen that the model goodness of fit indices obtained as a result of the first and second-level CFA are within acceptable bounds (RMSEA \leq .10 (MacCallum, Widaman, Preacher, & Hong, 2001; Bentler & Bonett, 1980); IFI \geq .90 (Bollen, 1989) CFI \geq .90 (Vidaman & Thompson, 2003; Bentler, 1990; Bentler & Bonett, 1980); TLI = .90 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007); NFI \geq .90 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980). When the results obtained in the first and second-level CFA are evaluated together, it can be said that the 15 items and three sub-dimensions in the original form of the scale were verified on Turkish university students.

For the criterion validity of DBIPCGS, correlations of the total score of the Career Stress Scale (CSI) the dimensions of CSI the pressure to find a job, the external conflict, career uncertainty-lack of knowledge, and Life Satisfaction Scale were examined. According to the results of the correlation analysis, a significant positive relationship was found between the ability, preference, and enthusiasm sub-dimensions of DBIPCGS and CSI total score and the sub-dimensions of CSI job-finding pressure, career uncertainty-lack of knowledge, and external conflict. However, a significant negative relationship was found with life satisfaction. These results can be interpreted when the career goal inconsistency between the individual and the parent increases, the career stresses perceived by individuals increase and their life satisfaction decreases. When the literature is examined, although no research directly examines the relationship between career goal inconsistency between individuals and parents and career stress and life satisfaction, there are studies on individual-parent career adaptation. In a meta-analysis study on career choice, it was reported that students living in a collectivist culture were affected by family expectations and those who were in harmony with their parents in career goals increased their career confidence and self-efficacy (Akosah-Twumasi, et al., 2018). In a study conducted on the career processes and life satisfaction of university students, it was found that there was a negative relationship between the family's values and beliefs, and the individual's life satisfaction with excessive family expectations for a career (Vautero, Taveria, Silva ve Fouad, 2020). The results of this research support the previous research. Therefore, these findings should be considered in career counseling practices in Turkey.

The internal consistency coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) for the total score of the scale was found to be .78, for the ability dimension, .90 for the preference dimension, and .92 for the enthusiasm dimension. It is stated in the literature that a reliability coefficient of .70 and above is sufficient (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). In the original development study of the scale, the reliability coefficient was determined as .96 for the total score, and it is seen that the coefficients in both studies are close. In addition, the corrected item-total correlations of the items in the measurement tool were examined in the study. In the literature, it is stated that each item must have a total correlation coefficient of .30 or more for a measurement tool to have a reliability feature (Büyüköztürk et al., 2017). It was observed that the corrected item-total correlations obtained in the study varied between .48 and .83. These results indicate that it has a measurement reliability feature. On the other hand, it is stated that a measurement tool should have a distinctive feature (Büyüköztürk et al., 2017). To determine the discrimination level of the Inconsistencies Between Individual-Parent Career Goals Scale, the difference between the item score averages of 27% in the lower and upper groups was examined with an independent sample t-test. As a result of the analysis, it has been concluded that the differences between the mean scores of 27% lower and upper groups are significant ($p < .001$).

The results of the analysis made indicate that the structure of DBIPCGS is verified on the Turkish sample and is a valid and reliable measurement tool that can be used in future studies. It is thought that the measurement tool adopted in this study may provide an opportunity to measure and evaluate the discrepancies in parent-individual career goals with a single measurement tool rather than measuring them with different tests. With this scale, researchers will be able to contribute to the literature by examining discrepancies between individual and parent career goals and relationship factors. On the other hand, this measurement tool can contribute to the determination of the parental effects of individuals on career goals in universities' career centers or guidance research application centers and develop support programs in this direction.

This research has some limitations. The adaptation study was carried out with the data obtained from university students. Therefore, the use of DBIPCGS adapted in this study is limited to university students. Furthermore, all data were obtained by a self-report method. Therefore, the collected data may contain all kinds of personal opinions.

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Evaluation in the Psychological Help: Psychological Group Counseling Experience from Members' Eyes

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ABSTRACT

Psychological counseling groups are distinguished from other groups by their intense therapeutic effect. This study was conducted to address questioning and disclosing members' perceptions of the group counseling process which is considered a gap in the literature. The study participants consisted of eight members who completed the psychological counseling process (14 sessions) with dynamic-oriented individual-centered groups in 2019-2020. Data were collected through a focus group interview, with a phenomenological research design to define and interpret detailed descriptions of members' perspectives and specific meanings. The Thematic Analysis template was used to analyze the data. Six themes emerged from the results: Feelings and thoughts in the first phase of the process, feeling of being group, effects of the process, the leader and the influence of his practices, separation anxiety experiences, and suggestions. This study, which aims to reveal the experiences of the members at the beginning, middle, and end of the process and the meanings they derive from these experiences, can be useful for intern students, supervisors, leaders, and co-leaders who will conduct group counseling.

“Loneliness does not come from having no people about one, but from being unable to communicate the things that seem important to oneself, or from holding certain views which others find inadmissible.” Carl Gustav Jung

People voluntarily or involuntarily become part of many groups throughout their lives. The most important difference of psychological counseling groups, which are the subject of this study, is their intense therapeutic effect (Koydemir, 2016). When properly experienced, this effect provides members with a relaxing, improving, and healing environment. This environment allows the client to tell others what is important to them and to listen, observe, and understand what is important to others. As a result, the client has the benefit of overcoming loneliness and saving others from loneliness. In a therapeutic group, members receive a support service in which they explicitly or implicitly ask the leaders to provide them with these benefits. In addition, each member

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supports the others as a hero of the social environment in an effective social life laboratory. According to Yıldırım and Durmuş (2015, p.23):

Group counseling is a professional practice in which members work on achievements such as change, development, awareness, and commitment to social life in a therapeutic environment using certain principles, techniques, methods, and theories and accompanied by a competent leader in the field of group counseling.

Although there have been many studies on the experiences and effectiveness of group counseling, these studies have not looked in depth at the overall experiences of clients concerning their experiences with the group counseling process. Group counseling has been shown to be effective in the areas of respect for differences (Yalçinkaya & Yücel, 2022), internet addiction and life satisfaction (Odacı & Çelik, 2017), dissociation awareness, and individuation (Şahan & Akbaş, 2017), peer bullying (Arslan & Akin, 2016), anxiety, depression, and self-esteem (Koutra, Katsiadrami, & Diakogiannis, 2010), academic self-efficacy (Sohrabi, Mohammadi, & Aghdam, 2013), and self- and occupational self-esteem (Arıcak, 1999). Some other studies focus on the development of assessment tools in group counseling (Ristianti, Danim, Winarto, & Dharmayana, 2019), group counseling-oriented supervision models (Daşcı & Yalçın, 2018), cultural perspective on group development phases (Kağnıcı, Çankaya, & Pamukçu, 2018), skills of counselors in group counseling (Pamukçu & Kağnıcı, 2017), resistance in group counseling (Yıldırım & Durmuş, 2015), quietness in group counseling (Yıldırım, 2012), and psychological counselors' views of supervision received in courses on group counseling practices (Büyükgöze- Kavas, 2011). Qualitative studies that focused on clients' experiences in group counseling included the group experiences of individuals diagnosed with bulimia nervosa (Laberg, S., Törnkvist, Å., & Andersson, 2001; Proulx, 2007), the illness experience, and the group process in eating disorders (Ergüney Okumuş, Başer Baykal, Devci, & Karaköse, 2018). On the other hand, there is no study in Turkey that deals with the group counseling process from the client's perspective. Accordingly, the aim of this study is to examine the common experiences of the members who completed the closed group counseling process (in which the process was started with the same members and ended with the same members, and the members who left the group were not replaced by new members) conducted in a dynamic-oriented-individual-centered, 14-session, based on their descriptions and evaluations of the entire process. Consistent with this goal, answers were sought to the following research questions:

1. What is the meaning of the experience of being a 'client' according to clients who experienced group counseling?
2. What is the nature and structure of the experience of being a client in group counseling?

This study aims to provide perspective to those working in the field of group counseling by showing the dynamics of the process from the members' point of view.

Methodology

Study Design

Ethical approval for the conduct of the study was obtained from the Ethics Committee for Scientific Research and Publications of Inonu University (document date and number: 12/06/2020-E.36208). In addition, the required informed consent was obtained from each of the participants. The study group of the study consisted of 8 female members who completed 14 sessions and approximately 28 hours of a dynamic-oriented-individual-centered group counseling process during the fall semester of 2019-2020 at a state university under the supervision of a leader and a co-leader.

Since this study aims to reveal, define and interpret the rich descriptions of the members who experience group counseling about their perspectives on group counseling and their unique meanings, it was conducted using the phenomenology design, one of the qualitative research designs. Table 1 below shows the research design.

Table 1. Research Design

| Research Design | Phenomenon | Aim |
|-----------------|--|---|
| Phenomenology | Psychological counseling experience with a group for 14 sessions | Understanding the members' Group Counselling experience |

Participants

The study group was selected using the homogeneous sampling method, one of the methods of purposive sampling. In homogeneous sampling, the goal is to go in-depth with small groups and participants with similar characteristics. Focus group interviews are usually conducted with groups of participants with similar characteristics (Patton, 2014). The fact that all participants were women was not the decision of the study team, but the result of the fact that almost all who applied for psychological support services were women. After the applications were announced, 22 candidates applied for group counseling. All of these candidates underwent clinical testing and anamnestic interviews. As a result, candidates who were suicidal, exhibited psychotic traits, had problems conforming to group norms, applied only to have a different experience (with an unclear behavioral goal), could not commit to regular attendance at sessions, and applied to gain work experience were not accepted as members of group counseling. Some of these members who met the exclusion criteria were referred to a psychiatrist, others to individual counseling and still others to the university's personality development department for psychoeducation. The ages of the 8 members of the group ranged from 19 to 21 years. Participants were given pseudonyms and these pseudonyms were used when mentioned in the results section.

Data Collection

The data of the study was collected using the technique of "focus group interview" considering the purpose of the research. A focus group interview is an interview about a specific topic with 6 to 10 participants who typically have similar experiences and lasts an average of 1 to 2 hours (Patton, 2014). The focus group interview process consists of intertwined phases. In this study, these phases were conducted as follows: In the interviews conducted by the researchers, once the purpose of the research and the boundaries of the topic were determined, the phase of determining the questions began. Since the moderator of the study was an expert in the field of individual and group counseling, the questions were determined during the process according to the topics. The questions that were formulated according to the process of the interview can be found in Appendix 1. For the focus group interview, after informing the participants regarding about the purpose of recording the session and ensuring its confidentiality, the participants' consent was obtained that the information they would share can be used for the sake of the research by preserving their anonymity. At the beginning of the focus group interview, the moderator provided the necessary information about the purpose of the research, the use of the data to be collected, and the process. In addition, important conditions for guiding group processes were met, such as having all members speak equally, being empathetic and objective, encouraging participants to speak, summarizing, allowing participants to share their views, and staying centered on the topic. In addition, the co-leaders took notes during the session that they thought were important. Consistent with all of these criteria, the videotaped focus group interview lasted 105 minutes.

Data Analysis

In this study, data were analyzed using the NVivo-10 program. First, the video recording and transcription data of the interview were uploaded to the corresponding program. The data were analyzed using the inductive thematic analysis method, in which the data were described in detail. Inductive analysis is a process of data coding that is independent of the researchers' analytic biases and is conducted without a predetermined coding framework. In thematic analysis, the researcher's aim is to draw readers' attention to important themes (Braun & Clarke, 2019). Due to the nature of qualitative research, it is not possible to clearly draw the boundaries of the phases. This is because these phases are interwoven and proceed in cycles. In this study, the thematic analysis template developed by Braun and Clarke (2019) was used because it was appropriate for analyzing the study data.

The researchers participated in both the focus group interview and the transcription of the videotaped data. The data obtained were read over and over again by the researchers and the necessary notes were taken in the process. According to Braun and Clarke (2019), this is the first phase of thematic analysis, as it allows for

familiarity with the data. While reading the data, the researchers considered what the data might mean from the general framework to the specific, taking into account the purpose of the research:

- How do members perceive their experience in group counseling?
- What was the impact of being admitted to group counseling?

The questions answered by the researchers and the notes taken formed the basis for the next phase.

Codes were created for the parts of the data that seemed important. From these codes, possible subthemes and main themes were created. As in the other phases, after this phase, the researchers went into an intense pace of work, checking if there was internal and external homogeneity and if there were unnecessary themes. The new codes that emerged in this context were included in the corresponding themes. In this way, the final theme map of the dataset was created.

Results

From many codes related to the process of evaluating group counseling from the members' point of view, subthemes were formed to address the basic elements. From these subthemes, 6 main themes were identified. The themes and subthemes are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2. List of Themes and Subthemes

| Themes | Subthemes |
|---|--|
| Feelings and Thoughts at the First Stage of the Process | Creating Therapeutic Tension Facilitating the Therapeutic Process |
| The Feeling of Being a Group | Sharing Painful Experiences of Members Transference |
| Effects of the Process | Intrapsychic Gains Interpersonal Gains Negative Effects |
| Leader and the Influence of His Practices | Raising awareness Activating Accepting the therapist as power |
| Separation Anxiety Experiences | Ambivalence Separation anxiety |
| Suggestions | Process oriented Leader oriented |

Feelings and Thoughts at the First Stage of the Process

The two subthemes that make up this theme are as follows: *Creating therapeutic tension* and *facilitating the therapeutic process*. The sub-theme of creating therapeutic tension consisted of the codes for recording the interviews in the first session, difficulty in self-disclosure, not finding an opportunity to talk, and having familiar faces in the group. In the first session of the group counseling process, members expressed that they felt uncomfortable because the group process was a new and unique environment. The unique features of this environment, such as audio and video recording, were another issue that made participants uneasy. Gül described this situation in the following words:

"When I first came here, I was very anxious because of the cameras."

Another problem that troubled members in the early sessions was that members saw people they knew in the group. For example, Burcu said the following:

"I was very eager to explain myself before, but when I saw them, I decided not to."

Sevgi, who knew Burcu before, also had similar feelings, saying the following sentences:

I noticed. When you had something to say, you looked at me. I experienced the same thing when I saw you."

Another factor that created therapeutic tension in the first session was that members had no opportunity to talk and thought that the process would always be this way. In the first session, the group leaders informed the members about confidentiality, voluntariness, duration, and number of sessions, exercises, practices, goals, and termination. Burcu made the following comments about this informational phase:

"There was an hour-long talk about the process. I was upset that it would always be like this."

The sub-theme of facilitating the therapeutic process consisted of the codes of considering leaders and members trustworthy, sincere, and meeting with them. In the eyes of members, events such as leaders providing information about the process, leaders explaining ethical principles, group members promising confidentiality, and members and leaders meeting facilitated the therapeutic process. All of these procedures helped group members develop a sense of trust. The fact that members met each other in the first session and promised that what was said in the group would remain confidential was an important factor that created a sense of trust. Eslem expressed this situation as follows:

"I was worried that what we were discussing here would leak out, but after we promised, I was relieved."

In the first session, after the process of group structuring, the group leader divided the members into pairs and gave them time to meet and talk outside. It was observed that this introductory activity reduced members' anxiety. The statements of Songül and Zehra, who were paired with each other, are as follows:

"I was also anxious at first, but then they brought us together. We talked and got to know each other. After that, I relaxed."

"When I was first called, I wanted to run away until I got here. When I arrived, I was as worried as my friends. After the leaders here explained the process, I was very relieved when I was assigned and came out. I warmed up even more."

The Feeling of Being a Group

This theme consisted of two subthemes: *Sharing painful experiences of members* and *transference*. If we look at the members' statements, almost all members stated that they felt they belonged to the group when they shared a negative experience about themselves (the crying wall exercise). On this topic, Eslem stated:

"I think each of us here talked about the worst day we ever had. That's when I realized that we are a group."

When a member trusts other members and tells them about a negative experience in her life, this strengthens the member's sense of belonging to the group, and other members who learn about the member's negative experience because they are trusted also feel a sense of belonging to the group. Sevgi commented on this situation as follows:

"I remember a certain moment when I felt that we are a group. In what we did with Burcu, her father died and she never dealt with it, it was never talked about in her family. We went to her father's funeral and we were very affected, we even cried a lot. At that moment you want to support her, but of course, you cannot do anything. I think at that moment we were like a group, we felt close to each other"

Apart from the moment when the negative experience was shared, it was observed that the transference made the members feel that they were a group. It can be seen that this transference event between members creates group belonging as members find a part of themselves in other members. Zehra commented on this issue as follows:

"During the individual work phase, everyone was in the middle and as we listened, we found ourselves. The group seemed to be specially selected. We all had parts of ourselves. I associated Gül with my sister. She talked about her sister in the middle and I was very impressed. I do not remember exactly what she said, but it was like my sister was speaking. I was crying at that time. I never expected something like that."

Effects of the Process

This theme consisted of 3 subthemes: *Intrapsychic gains*, *interpersonal gains*, and *negative effects*. The subtheme of intrapsychic gains consisted of the codes of gaining awareness in social relationships, self-awareness, and problem-solving. When evaluated within these gains, it appeared that the group counseling experience primarily improved members' awareness of their social relationships. For example, Gül said the following:

"When I talked about my relationship with my sister, I said that we could not have a sister-sister relationship and that it was because of me. After that, I approached my sister more sincerely as a sister. I realized this and improved it in my life."

As in the example-statement above, many members indicated that they gained insight about themselves in their relationships with their sister, father, or friends and that after this insight, they fixed some of the negative situations in their lives and formed more positive relationships. For example, Eda stated that she always blamed herself when she had problems with the people around her and that this situation disappeared after she learned in the group to evaluate things objectively

Members indicated that they became aware of issues such as their weaknesses and strengths, criteria for choosing friends, and the character structure of the person they would like to marry. For example, Eflin said the following:

"When I first came to this session, I brought the problem that I am not able to speak in public, but it turned out that I am very good at public speaking. I already love people and talk to everyone."

Another intrapsychic effect of the process is that it motivates members to solve what they see as a problem. For example, Songül complained about her relationship with her father, and that she communicated more with her father afterward:

"I complain so much, but what am I doing to change this situation?"

In the sessions, when a member expresses a problem in her daily life, it motivates the member to solve the problem and enables her to take action. Similarly, Eflin explained that she used to cry in the face of minor problems. After addressing this situation in the sessions, she stopped crying by listening to music and started thinking logically to cope with the situation.

The codes within the interpersonal gains subtheme are empathy and acceptance of differences. Within this subtheme, it appears that the most important interpersonal gain from this process was an increase in their empathy level. For example, Zehra said the following:

"When I talk to someone after the words I said come out of my mouth, I started thinking about how the other person is affected. I said that, but I also thought about what he/she is thinking now. For example, when a friend tells me about an event, I started to think not only about what he/she told me, but also about what he/she thought, what he/she felt, and why he/she did it. I used to look at things only from my own point of view. Now I can think about why he/she did that because he/she has a life too."

As can be seen from the sample statement, Zehra started to evaluate her actions in interpersonal dialogs from the other person's point of view. This acquisition also affected her acceptance of differences in interpersonal relationships. Similarly, Eda explained that she used to argue with her brother all the time, but then she realized that he is a different individual, that he does not have to be like her, and that she accepted him with his differences

The negative effects sub-theme is that members feel guilty, confront their past experiences, feel regret due to the over-sharing, and have new problems. Although the group counseling process was conducted for positive impacts, it can be seen that the process has both negative and positive impacts. Examining the members' statements, we find that the most negative effect of the process on the members is the confrontation with the past experiences and the feelings of guilt. For example, Burcu said the following:

"Now I think of the moment of my father's death, which I myself never thought of. I keep asking myself. Why did I tell such a thing? I never thought about it before, and I was very uncomfortable about why I reminded myself of it."

It turns out that the member, who lost her father as a child, experienced this mourning process years later and had difficulties in doing so. In the sessions, on the one hand, there is the completion of the unfinished works that the member has brought up, and on the other hand, the member recalls these experiences. In a similar example, Eflin explains that she used to have a stable life in which she suppressed things, but after the sessions, she became a person who constantly reflected and questioned. Another issue that members were negatively impacted by the process was their feelings of guilt. Members gained a certain amount of self-awareness during the sessions, thought they had made mistakes and felt guilty about it. For example, Gül stated that during the sessions she realized for the first time that her relationship with her brother was wrong and that she felt guilty for spending her time doing the wrong things. The same member stated that she had a bad relationship with her mother, that she was happy when she upset her mother, and that she then realized that this was very wrong and she felt guilty. The problem-solving attempts that members have made as intrapsychic gains from the process do not always turn out positively. If the member gains awareness during the session and takes action to resolve the problem, new problems may arise because the family system has changed. Eda stated that after the sessions she decided to reconcile with her brother, that she became very close to her brother in order to reconcile, but that in the meantime her relationship with her mother deteriorated.

Leader and the Influence of His Practices

This theme reflects members' evaluations of the practices they participated in during the process and how those practices affected their perceptions of the group leader. According to the majority of members, the leader and his practices increased their awareness of their problems and personalities (*raising awareness*), activated members especially through active participation in the process and resistance-breaking qualities (*activating*), and enabled them to accept the therapist as a power because of the leader's therapeutic skills (*accepting the therapist as power*). The majority of members who participated in group counseling perceived the leader and his practices as a process of raising awareness. This awareness influenced the members' views of their own lives, problems, and personality traits. For example, Eslem said the following:

"While I was telling something about myself, it was as if a mirror stood in front of me and asking me the same question again. This made me think out loud and raise my awareness a little. This technique was good because when they asked me again, I was thinking 'Ah! This is what I am saying' and I was analyzing it again."

For Eslem, this situation changed her way of thinking and created an awareness that was strong enough to surprise her. On the other hand, some members indicated that when they realistically assess the personality traits that play an active role in solving their problems, they actually adopt a destructive style. For example, according to Sevgi, her temperament seems to solve her problems for a short time, but immediately causes feelings of loneliness and regret that compulsively destroy her energy:

"Also, when I was sitting on the couch, he told me to put my angry personality on the couch and when I was sitting on the couch, I was really angry and that was very effective... I was afraid of myself and I wonder if other people were also afraid of me, of this state of mine. I realized that I could not take my angry personality any longer and I wanted the method to stop... I thought that in this state I was ahead in my arguments with other people, which created a brief feeling of happiness, but then regret and loneliness..."

In addition, some members indicated that they take a more realistic view of their problems. For example, Zehra (in an activity where stools represented family members and leaders asked members to place family members according to their psychological distance from them) said that:

"I thought my sister was too far away from me, but I did not put the stool that far away. I probably exaggerated this problem a little bit"

As can be seen, she dealt with her problem more realistically as her awareness increased. Similarly, Gül commented as follows:

"When we were explaining something, for example, when we were talking about our parents and brothers, they put a chair to make them concrete. I think it was very good that they did that. They measured the degree of our closeness, like sitting there. For example, how close the chair should be to you..."

The subtheme of activating includes active participation, breaking resistance, and directing emotions. On the subtheme of activating, Sevgi said the following:

"I was hesitant to talk about it because I was afraid that other members' opinions about me would change during the process, but although I felt very uncomfortable, it felt normal afterward... I talked about my relationship with my father. When I went to the center, I talked about my broken relationship with my father, and in the activity, I saw that I was using my mother as a bridge between me and my father... After the session I did something, I would not normally do, I went to my father and said, 'Dad, I am so far away from you, I cannot tell you anything, it makes me very sad, I really love you a lot, I am an individual now, I want you to respect my choices,' and I hugged him."

Although Sevgi initially perceived the leaders and practices as uncomfortable, they broke her resistance both in the group and after the sessions, allowing her to take an active role in issues affecting herself. In support of Sevgi's statements, Songül stated that the leader and the exercises triggered something in her and she felt more comfortable with the process. However, for a small number of members, this situation did not occur outside of the sessions, although it broke resistance and allowed for active participation during the process. The following sentence from Zehra can be used as an example:

"I say, okay, I will share what I have told here with my sister, but the closer I get to her, the less I am able to overcome the factors that prevent me from"

In addition, this subtheme also includes directing emotions. This directing was sometimes handled in the group and sometimes individually. For example, Songül said that the whole group cried together during Burcu's activity. This shows the role of practices in determining the emotional atmosphere in the group. For some members, this emotional guidance function continued after the sessions. For example, Zehra said

"After the sessions, I was still internally restless for hours and probably confronting myself... From time to time, my roommates were asking me why I was sad."

Another subtheme is the acceptance of the therapist as a power. Members reflect this in terms of increased regard for the therapist and identification with the therapist. For example, in one practice where Burcu was at the center, she said the following:

"It was very good that the leader was calm. Otherwise, I would have found it worse if the leader had been crying. I would have thought, 'Am I in such a bad situation?'... What they did seemed very extraordinary, I was very impressed, I even wrote it in my diary. The leader seemed superior in my eyes when he used the techniques... It was very impressive."

When a small number of members saw the leader's composure in the processes that were difficult for the group, they identified with the leader and asked themselves some negative, troubling questions. Gül, a student in the Department of Psychological Counseling and Guidance, identified with the leader and reported that she was concerned that she would not be able to do this type of practice in the future. For several members, this identification resulted in a negative evaluation of themselves, but for some others, surprisingly, it was evaluated just the opposite. For example, Eflin (another counseling student) said:

"When my friends came to the center, I thought about what I would say instead of our professors. It was like they would talk to me, what would I say here? Or I would notice something while something was being explained. I was hopeful, like I could see it, so I have expertise in the field, that's what I thought."

Separation Anxiety Experiences

This theme was composed of 2 subthemes: *Ambivalence* and *separation anxiety*. All participants indicated that the termination of the group had an impact on them, although to varying degrees and in different directions.

The ambivalence subtheme highlights participants' conflicting feelings about the end of the group process. Participants expressed the ambivalent feelings as the happiness of being rid of all or part of their problems, the peace of mind of continuing the process to the end, and the sadness of losing the opportunity to unburden themselves: for example, Burcu described this ambivalence as follows:

"I left this process stronger. I solved the problem; it was an opportunity for me. If I look at it from this point of view, I am happy, but I do not know what to do if I won't come here every week and relieve myself... When I come to the group, filled with water drops, I feel relieved as if I have left the rain... I feel sad."

While leaving the group is a source of privilege and joy for what it brings, Zehra's point of reference is the sadness of the emptiness that comes with the fact that the process of the group will never happen again. Gül expressed the conflicting emotions she felt as follows:

"Although I couldn't completely solve my problem, I feel happy that I have completed this process... I feel like I have been reborn from ashes, I am stronger now... When I get out of here, good things will happen... It also makes me sad that an environment like this will never happen again."

For some participants, the idea that group counseling will end is synonymous with separation anxiety, as this implies feelings of emptiness, sadness, and loneliness. For example, Sevgi expressed the following:

"Separations are very bad for me beforehand, I mean I think it will never end and I feel very sad even when I see someone for a week, we saw each other for a long time, we shared many things... We learned things, we lived and now we are on our own, let us see what we will do, we are alone and we cannot come and tell them anymore, for example I stayed quiet this week but I cannot come and tell them that I am alone... I was really affected... I will not see the leaders again and that makes me sad".

Sevgi felt that the separation was a difficult and unpleasant situation to deal with. She experienced feelings of sadness and loneliness because she will not see the leaders again and lose the environment where she could pass on what she had learned. For some members, this situation is a fear of the emptiness that comes from having to leave their habits. For example, Songül said the following:

"I was emptying my lava like a volcano... I feel like I have fallen into a void because I can never empty myself again."

Suggestions

This theme consisted of two subthemes: *Leader-oriented* and *process-oriented*. The leader-oriented subtheme consists of considerations the leader should make, such as being more natural and making members feel understood, and considerations the leader should not make, such as engaging in intense emotional exchanges. While the majority of participants agreed on what the leader should do, there was disagreement among some participants about what the leader should not do. For example, Zehra expressed the following:

"It seems very disingenuous to me when a counselor talks to the client with learned words; hmm, well, how do you feel now, that seems very disingenuous to me... Those words seem very formulaic and insincere to me... They should be more natural. I felt that I was not understood".

This comment reflects the assessment that leaders should be more natural. Many of the members made statements in support of Zehra. Sevgi stated that she felt that the leaders did not listen properly because they always sat and reacted in the same way. As you can see, members said that leaders should be more natural so that they feel understood and cared about. Some members thought having intense emotional exchanges is a behavior that leaders should not do. Sevgi commented as follows:

"What I said, yes, they are one of us, but I would not want them to explain it that way, I would not want to see them crying because they are leaders for me."

The intense emotional exchange of leaders was viewed positively by some members, as opposed to others. According to Eslem, it was considered positive because there was no status like subordinates and superiors; according to Zehra, it was considered positive because it was relaxing.

The subtheme for the process includes the evaluations of the exchanges between the members before, during, and after the process. According to the participants, these evaluations include some elements that should be included in the process and some elements that should not be included in the process. Eda said the following about what should have happened before the process began:

"If we had been informed about what theory we were going by, we would have been able to understand the process better, we would have been able to understand better why we were asked these questions."

According to Eda, participants could have benefited more from the process if they had known the group counseling process centered by which theory of psychotherapy would be based on if participants had been informed before the process began. Some participants stated that they should also be provided with video recordings so that they could self-evaluate and see their own progress during the process. Gül wanted the recordings shared with them to see how she expressed herself during the sessions, and Eflin wanted the recordings shared with them to see the difference between Eflin on the first day and Eflin on the last day. Watching the recordings is seen by the members as a tool for self-evaluation and to concretize their development.

Discussion

To the best of the researchers' knowledge, this study is the first study to question and uncover the perceptions of members who participate in group counseling about how they experience group counseling. This study analyzed the statements of members participating in the group counseling process about their experiences and found six themes that reflect these experiences. These are: *Feelings and thoughts at the first stage of the process, the feeling of being in a group, the effects of the process, the leader and the influence of his practices, separation anxiety experiences, and suggestions.*

It was observed that members who had not previously received individual or group counseling experienced tension in the first session due to the unique environment and principles of group counseling. The presence of a video recording increased therapeutic tension among group members. However, for leaders to receive supervision, they must have audio or video recordings. Even if they do not receive supervision, it is an important requirement for the leader to work under recording as it is a requirement of accountability and professionalism (Dutar & Karataş, 2018). Apart from this, another advantage of the recording device that does not overlap with this research finding is its ability to keep the client alive and active. Socrates' phrase "Speak so that I may see you" shows the role of recording devices in the group counseling process (Aveline, 1992). If one examines the literature, one finds that recording devices have some disadvantages as in this study. The client who has come to receive psychological counseling may have to accept the leader's conditions to solve some of his/her problems. In some situations, when the client feels weak and helpless, he/she has to allow the use of the recording device even if he/she does not want it. This can be explained by the abuse of the helpless client by the counselor in a position of power (Aveline, 1990). Even if the client consents to the use of the recording device, he or she may feel tense during the process. Clients who were physically or sexually abused in childhood may not talk about such issues in the presence of a recording device. People who are paranoid and have trust issues may be unable to seek mental health services for the rest of their lives because of such recordings (Aveline, 1992). Clearly, the presence of a recording device in group counseling has advantages and disadvantages and is open to discussion. It seems reasonable to discuss with members in the first session whether a recording device should be used in group counseling, and if so, what type of recording should be made, and to make a joint decision.

If the members are forced to speak in the first sessions of group counseling, there may be resistance, and it would be better if the leader informed about the process in this stage (Voltan-Acar, 1991). In analyzing the research results, it was found that the structuring phase gave members confidence in the process and facilitated

the therapeutic process. In fact, the lengthy structuring by the leader and the fact that members did not have enough say led to an increase in therapeutic tension for some members. In the early stages of the process, there may be members who do not want to talk, who primarily observe and try to adjust to the process, and members who want to adjust to the process by talking and sharing. Therefore, it seems useful for the leader to pay attention to individual differences in the group counseling process and to allow members to speak.

According to the members' statements, the presence of familiar faces among group members increased therapeutic tension. This negative effect can be explained by the concern of violating the principle of confidentiality. Group members can share information about themselves with someone outside the group, but should not share information about other members (Corey, Corey & Corey, 2010). The risk of violating this rule is higher in groups with members who already know each other. Yıldırım (2012) studied silence in the group counseling process and concluded that members in the same social environment cannot open up easily. In order for group leaders to minimize this risk, they should not keep members who already know each other in the same group (Çınarbaş, 2015). In group counseling processes conducted in schools, universities, or small settlements, members are more likely to know each other because of their common social environment. For example, after the group counseling process conducted in different universities in Turkey, the leaders were asked about the difficulties they faced, and 53% of the leaders stated that they faced difficulties because the members in their groups knew each other (Büyükgöze-Kavas, 2011). To overcome this risk situation, which the leader may not be able to control when forming a group, it may be necessary to take measures such as putting the issue on the agenda in the first stage of the group counseling process, identifying members who know each other, having members who know each other speak in the first meeting, making decisions, and referring them to other groups.

The study concludes that it is useful for members to practice getting to know each other to reduce their tension at the beginning of the group session. This finding is also consistent with the literature. Morganett (2005) states that exercises and activities can be used at any stage of the group. In particular, introductory activities are important in the first session to promote member cohesion and build trust. Introductory exercises reduce members' anxiety and prevent them from leaving the group (Güçray, Çolakkadıoğlu, & Çekici, 2009). Looking at the behavior of the members who went through the group counseling process, we find that the majority of the members asked questions in the first session to get to know the group members. Thus, it can be seen that if the group leader creates an environment for members to get to know each other at the beginning of the group and conducts appropriate exercises, the therapeutic tension will be reduced.

It was found that telling a negative experience about oneself in front of the group was the most important factor in creating belonging. It is known that group cohesion is one of the most important factors in the group counseling process (Yalom, 2005). In this study, it was found that this very important factor can be realized by "sharing a negative experience in front of the group". In line with this finding, Yıldırım and Durmuş (2015) concluded that the 'Crying Wall' exercise, which involved sharing negative experiences in the group counseling process, improved group affiliation. Similarly, Voltan-Acar (1991) found that the 'Sharing the Secret' exercise contributed to group cooperation.

It was observed that another important factor that increased group membership was transference. Some members of the group compared other members to their own sisters and transferred to these members. This made the members feel like part of the family and reinforced their belonging to the group. According to Yalom and Leszcz (2005), consistent with the findings of the current study, the same level of education, gender, and similar age of members paves the way for them to transfer to other members and feel a sense of belonging to the group.

Members indicated that through the group counseling process they gained more awareness about themselves and their relationships, found the motivation to solve problems, and increased their empathy. Although members come to group counseling to achieve their own specific goals, the process is a therapeutic one in which members gain awareness, develop self-confidence, and engage in social interaction (Voltan-Acar, 1993). Considering that psychological counseling is a process in which individuals gain awareness, it is clear that these goals are achieved and the process contributes to them. In fact, in a study consistent with the findings

of the present study, it was found that group members benefited from the group process (Ergüney Okumuş et al., 2018).

Although psychological counseling is a process designed to benefit members, it can also have negative effects on members. By its very nature, members gain some awareness, face events they have ignored, and experience negative emotions. In our study, some members expressed regret and guilt for bringing their suppressed emotions to the surface. Consistent with this study, Strauss, Schleu, and Frenzl (2021) found that the most common negative impact of mental health care was the resurfacing of unpleasant memories at a rate of 57.8% and unpleasant emotions at a rate of 30.3%. It is not surprising that some of the negative consequences that can occur with any treatment, from taking aspirin to having brain surgery, also occur with psychological treatments (Scott & Young, 2016). In a study conducted with 14,587 participants who had undergone psychological treatment, 5.2% of participants reported that the process had a lasting negative impact on them (Crawford et al., 2016). Of clients who underwent compulsory treatment, 29% exhibited new symptoms, and about a quarter suffered from labeling anxiety (Moritz et al., 2015). Whether members need to undergo these experiences, which are perceived as negative, is an important point of discussion. However, Crawford et al. (2016) found that individuals who were unsure of the type of treatment they were receiving had high rates of negative affect, while individuals who were adequately informed about treatment before it began had low rates of negative affect. Based on these findings, it is necessary for leaders to educate members about the potential advantages and disadvantages of the group counseling process at the very beginning of the sessions and to provide detailed information about the process in terms of professional ethics.

Another problem that negatively affects members is that solving one problem in the family causes another problem. In this study, one member improved her relationship with her sibling, but her relationship with her mother deteriorated. Such effects emanating from the family system are also found in the literature. For example, Don Jackson, who worked with a depressed woman, reported that the better the woman got, the more complaints came from her husband. When the sessions ended and the wife had fully recovered, her husband first lost his job and then committed suicide. This shows that the husband's equilibrium was based on having a sick wife (Fisher & Mendell, 1958, as cited in Polat-Uluocak & Bulut, 2011). Thus, even if the problem-solving phase of a member going through the group counseling process is successful, it may lead to other problems.

The leader's practices were found to be awareness-raising, supportive, activating, and accepting. In group counseling, the leader, with his personality traits, the techniques he uses, and his expertise in creating therapeutic conditions, is an effective therapeutic force that creates a therapeutic environment, clarifies members' behavioral goals, and helps them learn to give and receive help. This therapeutic force is also a factor in bringing about change in group members. Although all therapeutic forces in group counseling are influenced by each other (Voltan-Acar, 2015), the critical role of the leader and his practices in this interaction was noted by group members in this study. Consistent with the findings of this study, Bedi (2006) found that the leader is an important factor in the therapeutic alliance from the client's perspective.

Group members felt privileged, happy, and peaceful because they had achieved all or part of their behavioral goals and successfully completed the process. At the same time, however, they also felt sadness, grief, emptiness, and loneliness because they had not been reunited. While some participants were affected by the separation process in a normal way, others felt extreme anxiety. This finding is consistent with the literature. In the termination phase of group counseling, members may experience confusing negative emotions such as dissatisfaction, depression, unhappiness, and anxiety (Yalom, 2005; Corey & Corey, 2002). However, according to Öksüz and Voltan-Acar (2013), group termination has a positive effect on some members. It is hypothesized that the occurrence of such an outcome in this study is due to the individual characteristics of the members, their previous separation experiences, the importance they attribute to the group, their coping mechanisms when they separate, and whether or not they get what they want from the group.

Another finding of this study was that members wanted to know about the theory that the group would be based on before the process began. Members felt that this would allow them to benefit more from the process. This finding of the study is consistent with the literature. In fact, according to Corey (2005), it makes more sense for members to know the counseling theory they are being counseled on. In order to understand the

meaning of the questions asked by therapists, in other words, to be able to clearly answer the question "Why did the therapist ask me these questions?", members want to know what theory they are being counseled under.

Regarding the suggestion that leaders should act naturally/spontaneously, Deffenbacher (1985) states that for therapy to be good, the counselor must communicate effectively with the client and attach meaning to the work. According to Corey (2005), who concurs with the findings of this study, authenticity, sincerity, and honesty are among the characteristics of counselors. For a counseling relationship with young people to be successful, a genuine, non-imposed relationship and an appropriate level of sincerity, warmth, and empathy are essential (Geldard & Geldard, 2013). If this is not the case, clients may perceive the counselor as superficial and out of touch. The results of this study are consistent with this information.

One of the most unusual findings of the study is that members indicated that sharing video recordings made during the process would have a positive impact on the process. The reason for this finding could be that members want to track their own development during the process, reevaluate their own behavior and that of others because they are in their youth, or view themselves as a third eye from the outside. Consistent with the findings of this study, Beck (2001) suggests that clients can be made to look at the recordings as homework to reinforce what they have learned, but in group counseling, this could pose some problems in terms of protecting confidentiality.

Limitations

The members of this study were women aged 19-21 years studying at university. This limitation of the results obtained should be considered. In reviewing the literature, no information was found about group counseling from the perspective of male and female group members. Another limitation is that the group counseling in which these data were collected included the experiences of members who had a group experience conducted by doctoral students under supervision. Although the doctorate represents a higher level of training in therapy/counselor education, it may be necessary to question its authenticity due to the evaluation and performance concerns of the leaders.

Suggestions

The results of this study indicate that more research is needed. Conducting the study with participants with different cultural and sociodemographic characteristics could provide additional information about group counseling from the members' perspective. At the same time, studying how group counseling is experienced from the perspective of male members could contribute to this topic. The study shows that members perceived participation in group counseling as an opportunity to increase their awareness, take action to solve their problems and achieve interpersonal and intrapsychic benefits. Thus, the therapeutic power emanating from group counseling provides positive changes in individuals' lives. In order to support the individual's psychological well-being, growth, and development, studies can be conducted to facilitate access to such services and raise awareness of their importance. One of the criteria for selecting members when forming a group is that acquaintances, relatives, and friends should not be in the same group. However, when these studies are conducted at universities, it may be difficult to inquire about the acquaintance of applicant members with other members because of common social areas such as dormitories, libraries, and departments. Therefore, it will be useful to ask the question in the first meeting, "Are there members in this group who know each other and are concerned about this?" and address this situation at the outset. If you identify members who know each other before the group, it is useful to move one of these known members out of the group into another group or to work immediately within the group to overcome this difficulty (technical application, getting them to talk to each other at that moment, getting them to make decisions, etc.).

In the first meetings, members perceived negatively that the leaders kept the structuring too long and focused too much on the members' goals. It is common knowledge that the first sessions (initial phase) in group counseling are determined by the leaders, regardless of what theory they are based on. In these initial sessions, it is clear that the members focus on the leader and accept him as the object of attachment rather than interacting with each other. Also, in the first step of these initial sessions (Session 1), the leader has some work to do: he explains the purpose of the group, the rules, the process, commits the group aloud that the members will abide

by the rules and processes, introduces himself, and introduces the members to each other. Sometimes, due to the inexperience of the leader, this process can be very didactic and one-sided, leaving members feeling as if they are listening to a lecture or remaining passive during this first step. Because of this realization, during the first session the leader should be careful that the part where he explains the group process, how it works and the rules, does not become the "figure" and the group members do not become the "ground".

It is recommended that future group leaders pay attention to these points. Some members want to immediately apply what they have learned in group counseling to social life. This means that some members expect a quick and concrete change. During sessions, members should be informed that changes in the therapeutic environment may not occur immediately and that they may experience feelings of disappointment and ambivalence when they come to sessions because of the expectation of magic or fairy tales. In other words: When addressing your clients' behavioral goals in the first few sessions, ask the question, "What time do you give us and yourself to see or not see concrete changes in this regard?" In the therapeutic process, very painful things are being worked on, individuals may be hurt in ways they never expected, their attention and focus on daily life may deteriorate, and even their performance may decline. Information about this should be included in the structuring from the beginning. It is ethical for therapists to inform their clients, who perceive counseling and therapy as a relaxing process, as a miracle, and as the only positive change, and who come with this expectation, about these disadvantages as part of the structuring process.

This study determined group members' feelings and thoughts about ending the group, the importance they placed on the group, their methods of coping with such separations prior to, and whether they benefited sufficiently from the group. Future leaders of group counseling sessions can consider these factors when working with separation anxiety. Members felt that knowing what counseling theory they were being guided on would have a positive impact on the process. In the session, leaders should inform members what theory they are working from and what the requirements of that theory are. Finally, in future studies, a focus group interview involving both the group leader and group members can be used to discuss how group counseling is experienced from the leader's and members' perspectives.

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Examination of Psychological Counseling and Guidance Program Students' Psychological Resilience, Life Orientation, and Coping Resources during the COVID 19 Pandemic

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ABSTRACT

In this study, the coping sources with the levels of optimism and psychological resilience during the COVID 19 pandemic were examined. A descriptive survey model was used. Online information collection tools were sent to all students (320 undergraduate and master's students) enrolled in the Psychological Counselling and Guidance (PCG) program. The data obtained with the tools from both surveys answered by 196 participants were analyzed using the SPSS 17 program. Personal information form, the Brief Psychological Resilience Scale, and Life Orientation Scale were used. The results revealed that students' levels of resilience and optimism were high, their levels of optimism predicted their resilience, and they saw themselves as sufficient to cope with difficulties during the COVID 19 pandemic period. It can be said that positive character traits such as optimism and resilience protect people from the negative feelings caused by the COVID 19 pandemic. Implications for future research and practice were discussed.

COVID 19 pandemic has been influencing the world for about two years. The first COVID 19 case in Turkey was diagnosed on March 11, 2021, it was announced that measures should be taken to protect people against the pandemic throughout the country, and it was decided that education would be carried out remotely as of March 16, 2020, due to the pandemic. With this decision, university students' daily routines and living conditions have changed, and their whole life has been limited to the home environment. While trying to carry out the distance education period, which students had not experienced before, they had to remember their living habits with their families again.

Yorguner, Bulut, and Akvardar (2021) conducted a study with 2583 university students; after the universities suspended face-to-face education, 97% of the students left their place of residence (dormitory and home), and 85% returned and started living with their parents. In this period, 31% of the participants stated that they play more digital games, 73% use social media more, and 77% spend more time watching TV series and movies. In this case, young people have postponed their personal and career plans and distanced themselves from their social relations.

Although the World Health Organization stated that young people are not a risk group for being infected with COVID 19, Germani et al. (2020) stated that sudden changes in the lives of university students as of the developmental period they are in would cause psychological problems. In the study by Dhar, Ayithey, and

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Sarkar (2020), with 15,543 university students, 44.59% of university students have severe anxiety, and 48.41% have moderate anxiety due to the stress caused by the pandemic period. In addition, the lack of clear information about the universities' transition period to face-to-face education increases the uncertainty. As the result of this uncertainty; negative outcomes such as anxiety (Burns, Dagnall & Holt, 2020), depression (Wang et al., 2020), substance use, sleep and eating disorders (Liu et al., 2020), stress and insecurity (Wen, et al., 2021) have been reported by many different studies. In addition, Lai et al. (2020) stated that the difficulties experienced in reaching safe information about COVID 19 and reaching social support also cause serious anxiety and depression symptoms in university students.

Coping Strategies

University students who have high psychological resilience and positive thinking skills and who exercise experience fewer mental health diseases, and these are important coping strategies against diseases (Lai et al., 2020). Baloran (2020) examined coping strategies during the COVID 19 period in his study with university students and listed the most cited coping strategies as follows: Adhering to strict personal protective measures (e.g., mask and hand washing) (90.19%); avoiding public places to minimize exposure to COVID 19 (80.38%); to learn about the prevention and infection mechanism of COVID 19 (68.87%), using social networks such as Social media and Facebook, Twitter, TikTok, YouTube (58.87) and chatting with family and friends to reduce stress and get support (48.87%). In another study, Jin and Li (2021) stated the coping strategies that university students used during the COVID 19 pandemic as follows: social support (support from family and friends), acceptance (adaptation to unchanging events), psychological withdrawal (attention and mind diversion), benevolence (helping the person in need) and self-care (protecting one's health). In addition, the unhealthy coping strategies used were found to be avoidance, self-blame, and substance use. Such coping strategies cause more psychological distress and depressive symptoms (Kamaludin et al., 2020).

Psychological Resilience

For individuals to cope with difficult periods healthily, their high psychological resilience can be seen as a protective factor/has a mechanism that provides support. Smith et al. (2008) defined the concept of resilience as the ability to recover from stressful situations. In addition, Jakovljevic (2018), states that resilience includes the state of growth, development, and betterment. When we look at the studies on resilience among university students, it has been seen that students with high resilience have low psychological stress levels, have high academic success, and cope with academic difficulties more easily (Bovier, Chamot, & Perneger, 2004). It has been found that university students with low psychological resilience are more negatively affected by stressful situations and experience greater adjustment problems (Edward et. al., 2001). In addition, Quintiliani et al. (2020) stated that resilience skills have a protective effect on academic difficulties caused by the pandemic.

Optimism

The COVID 19 pandemic period is a stressful time for many people and has revealed many unusual situations. Situations encountered can be either positive or negative. However, the expectation that it will be positive is considered optimism (Scheier, Carver & Bridges, 2001: 205). Optimism is also used to mean the ability to adapt to life (Daco, 1989: 424). It is thought that it is important that young people who continue their higher education have a high level of optimism about coping with this new situation they face. Individuals who can go through this period strongly will be able to gain strength against various difficulties they will face in the future. Working with university students, Yu and Luo (2018) found that optimism protects against depression and anxiety by promoting positive coping.

Optimism and psychological resilience affect each other positively. This relationship has been evaluated within the scope of only a few studies in the literature. Eyni et al. (2020) tried to show the relationship between optimism and resilience, and anxiety caused by COVID 19 by using the modeling method. According to the results of the study, optimism, resilience and perceived social support play an important role in reducing the anxiety caused by COVID 19 in students, and supporting students through these three components mentioned above can be effective in reducing the anxiety caused by COVID 19. Similarly, Cetin and Anuk (2020)

investigated the resilience of university students during COVID 19 in Turkey. According to the results of the study, it was found that the level of resilience of students who think optimistically about the future is higher than students who think negatively.

As a result, it is thought that university students' academic/psychological needs have changed, and their psychological resilience levels have been affected by the pandemic conditions of COVID 19 pandemic. When we look at the program qualifications of the Guidance and Psychological Counseling field in our country, it is seen that there are outcomes that support students' coping and well-being. In the courses taken within the scope of this program (human relations and communication, psychological counseling principles and techniques, counselling theories, individual and group counselling), students get to know themselves, realize coping resources, and create new healthy coping resources. In addition, in this study, it is assumed that students who opt for the Guidance and Psychological Counseling department perceive life more optimistically and have a higher level of psychological resilience due to their dispositions and education. In this context, the researchers aimed to determine the academic/psychological needs of the students of the PCG program, their psychological resilience, and optimism levels, which are thought to help them cope with the pandemic period healthily and their evaluations of coping with difficulties.

For this purpose, answers to the following research questions were sought:

1. What is the relationship between the psychological resilience and optimism levels of the participants?
2. What are the participants' evaluations of coping with difficulties?

Method

Research Model

This research was designed in a descriptive survey model. It aims to examine the relationship between PCG undergraduate and master's students' psychological resilience and optimism variables during the COVID 19 pandemic by taking into account the time dimension and determining their evaluations for coping with difficulties.

Participants

The data were collected from students who continue their education in Guidance and Psychological Counselling (PCG) undergraduate and master programs at a university in the Marmara region in the 2019-2020 academic years. In this study, purposeful sampling method was used to recruitment participants. Data were collected by sending online information collection tools to all students (320 undergraduate and master's students) enrolled in the program on March 29, 2020, and August 18, 2020. Data were collected from 285 people in the first measurement and 214 in the second measurement. While the data were combined through pseudonyms, analyses were made using the data of 196 people who filled out the scales in both measurements. Written informed consent forms were obtained from all participants. The informed consent form included potential risks and benefits, confidentiality, and participants' rights to withdraw. Participants' nicknames were reserved by researchers.

Data Collection Tools

Brief Resilience Scale. The scale was developed by Smith et al. (2008) to determine the psychological resilience levels of individuals. The scale, adapted to Turkish culture by Dogan (2015), consists of 6 items. Three items of the scale are coded in reverse. The scale, prepared in a five-point Likert type, is answered in the range of "not suitable" to "completely suitable". The score distribution of the scale ranges from 0 to 30. A high score on the scale indicates high psychological resilience. The internal consistency coefficient of the scale was calculated as .83 and the Cronbach alpha reliability as .81.

Life Orientation Test. To determine students' life orientation, the scale was developed by Scheier and Carver (1985), adapted to Turkish by Aydın and Tezer (1991) with validity-reliability, and Cronbach's Alpha value was .72 and .80 in our study. The scale is in five-point Likert type and consists of 12 items, with the response options "0-strongly disagree", "1-disagree", "2-undecided", "3-agree", and "4-strongly agree". Items 3, 8, 9, and 12 on the scale were reverse scored. In addition, there are four items (2, 6, 7, and 10) that are not scored in any direction and are called filler items. The remaining four items (3, 4, 12, and 14) indicate pessimism, and

four items (7, 9, 10, and 15) indicate optimism. The score distribution of the scale ranges from 0 to 32. The increase in the score obtained from the scale indicates that the students' optimism levels increase.

Survey Questions. The survey, created by the researchers, includes demographic and rating questions. A five-point, a closed-ended question including answers ranging from "very insufficient" to "very sufficient" was asked for participants' self-assessment of coping with difficulties during the COVID 19 pandemic period.

In the second measurement, seven closed-ended questions were asked, which were thought to be related to coping with the difficulties they experienced during the COVID 19 pandemic, ranging from "slightly effective" to "very effective".

Statistical Analysis

SPSS v23.0 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA) software was used for data analysis. Descriptive statistics were used for scoring the participants' socio-demographic characteristics, resilience, and life orientation test. In both measures, resilience (Skewness first=-0.219; Skewness second=-0.051; Kurtosis first=0.189; Kurtosis second=0.088) and optimism (Skewness first=-0.341; Skewness second=-0.592; Kurtosis first=-0.438; Kurtosis second=0.318) variables were found to be normally distributed (Büyüköztürk, Çokluk, & Köklü, 2012).

Additionally, t-Test, correlation and regression analyzes were used to determine the relationship between participants' levels of resilience and optimism. Participants' evaluations of coping with difficulties were measured by survey questions. Frequency and percentage were given for each item of the questions asked within the framework of categorical variables and the qualitative dimension of the research.

Results

The characteristics of the participants are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Information about the participants

| | | First Measurement | Second Measurement |
|------------------------------|---------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| | | N (%) | N (%) |
| Gender | TOTAL | 196(100.0) | 196(100.0) |
| | Female | 158 (81.0) | 158 (81) |
| | Male | 38 (19.0) | 38 (19.0) |
| Class Level | 1 | 49 (25.0) | 49 (25.0) |
| | 2 | 48 (24.5) | 48 (24.5) |
| | 3 | 43 (21.9) | 43 (21.9) |
| | 4 | 44 (22.4) | 44 (22.4) |
| | YL | 12 (6.1) | 12 (6.1) |
| Number of people living with | Alone | 8 (4.1) | 4 (2.0) |
| | 2 people | 13 (6.6) | 13 (6.6) |
| | 3 people | 29 (14.8) | 33 (16.9) |
| | 4 people | 76 (38.8) | 76 (38.8) |
| | 5 people | 49 (25.0) | 49 (25.0) |
| | 6 people | 11 (5.6) | 11 (5.6) |
| | 7 and over | 10 (5.1) | 10 (5.1) |
| Number of rooms in the house | 1 room | 1 (0.5) | 0 |
| | 2 rooms | 26 (13.3) | 23 (11.7) |
| | 3 rooms | 87 (44.4) | 90 (45.9) |
| | 4 rooms | 57 (29.1) | 58 (29.6) |
| | 5 rooms | 20 (10.2) | 10 (5.1) |
| | 6 rooms | 5 (2.6) | 5 (2.6) |
| | Self | - | 2 (1.0) |
| COVID 19 Diagnosis Status | Family Member | - | 6 (3.1) |
| | Neighbor | 4 (2.0) | 29 (14.8) |
| | Relative | 20 (10.2) | 89 (45.4) |
| | None | 172 (87.8) | 70 (35.7) |

As seen in Table 1, 158 (81%) of the 196 participants in the data set in which the analyses were performed were female, and 38 (19%) were male. 49 (25%) of the participants were in their first year, 48 (25%) in their second year, 43 (22%) in their third year, 44 (22%) in their fourth year, and 12 (6%) are continuing their education in the master's level. In the first measurement, the participants were asked the number of people they lived with in their homes; 4.1% lived alone, 6.6% lived with two people, 14.8% lived three people, 38.8% living four people, 25% living with five people, 5.6% living with six people and 5.1% stating that they live with seven or more people. Additionally, participants were also asked how many rooms the house they live in has, and approximately 45 per cent of them stated that they live in a three-room house, 30 percent in a four-room house, 14 percent in a two-room house, and 11 percent in a five-room house. Similar results were found in the second measurement.

In both measurements, the participants were asked whether they had a relative diagnosed with COVID 19, and in the first measurement, 87.4% stated that they had no acquaintances, 10.1% stated that their relatives and, 2% stated that they had no acquaintances that their neighbors were diagnosed. In the second measurement, 35.7% reported that they had no acquaintance with the diagnosis, 45.4% reported that their relatives, 14.8% their neighbors, 3.1% their family members and, 1% themselves were diagnosed.

What is the relationship between the psychological resilience and optimism levels of the participants?

The descriptive statistics regarding the psychological resilience and optimism levels of the students during the COVID 19 pandemic are given in Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics on Psychological Resilience and Optimism levels

| | Psychological Resilience | | Optimism | |
|----------|--------------------------|--------|----------|--------|
| | first | Second | first | second |
| N | 196 | 196 | 196 | 196 |
| M | 19.37 | 19.02 | 27.90 | 27.43 |
| Range | 18.00 | 19.00 | 26.00 | 32.00 |
| Min | 10.00 | 10.00 | 13.00 | 8.00 |
| Max | 28.00 | 29.00 | 39.00 | 40.00 |
| SS | 3.41 | 3.37 | 5.03 | 5.60 |
| Skewness | -.219 | -.051 | -.341 | -.592 |
| Kurtosis | .189 | .088 | -.438 | .318 |

As seen in Table 2, the arithmetic mean of the participants' resilience scores was 19.37 ± 3.41 in the first measurement, 19.02 ± 3.37 in the second measurement. The arithmetic mean of optimism scores was 27.90 ± 5.03 in the first measurement and 27.43 ± 5.60 in the second measurement. Although cut-off scores were not determined during the adaptation phase of either scale, high scores from the scale indicate high levels of resilience (Doğan, 2015) and optimism (Aydın & Tezer, 1991).

Whether the psychological resilience and optimism levels of the students differed in the first and second measurements was examined with the related samples using t-Test analysis, and it was found that the students' psychological resilience levels during the COVID 19 pandemic [$t_{(195)} = 1.642, p > .05$] and optimism levels [$t_{(195)} = 1.495, p > .05$] did not differ in the first and second measurements.

To examine the relationship between students' psychological resilience and optimism, first of all, Pearson moments correlation analysis was performed, and it was found that there is a moderate positive correlation (first: .437, second: .426, $p < .01$) between psychological resilience and optimism levels in the first and second measurements. To understand the nature of the relationship between resilience and optimism, the data were analyzed by regression analysis, and the results are given in Table 3.

Table 3. Regression Analysis Results on Resilience and Optimism

| | Variable | B | Standard Error | β | T | p |
|--------------------|-----------|--------|-----------------------|---------|--------|------|
| First Measurement | Constant | 11.110 | 1.241 | | 8.955 | .000 |
| | Optimism | .296 | .044 | .437 | 6.766 | .000 |
| | R = .437 | | R ² = .191 | | | |
| | F= 45.781 | | p= .000 | | | |
| Second Measurement | Constant | 11.972 | 1.095 | | 10.931 | .000 |
| | Optimism | .257 | .039 | .426 | 6.563 | .000 |
| | R = .426 | | R ² = .182 | | | |
| | F= 43.067 | | p= .000 | | | |

In Table 3, it is understood that the optimism scores in the first measurement are significant predictors of the level of resilience ($R=-.437$; $R^2=.191$; $F= 45.781$; $p<.05$) in the first measurement, and the optimism scores in the second measurement are significant predictors of the level of resilience ($R=-.426$; $R^2=.182$; $F= 43.067$; $p<.05$) in the second measurement. When the explained variance is examined, it is seen that the optimism scores explain 19.1% of the total variance of the psychological resilience level in the first measurement and 18.2% in the second measurement. According to the regression analysis results of the first and second measurements; regression equations can be defined as Resilience= 11,110+0.296 Optimism for the first measurement and Resilience= 11,972+0.257 Optimism for the second measurement.

The data regarding the participants' evaluations regarding their self-efficacy in coping with the difficulties in the COVID 19 pandemic period in the first and second measurements are given in Table 4.

Table 4. Participants' self-evaluations on coping with difficulties

| Feel sufficient dealing with difficulties | First Measurement | | | Second Measurement | | |
|---|-------------------|-------|------|--------------------|-------|------|
| | f | % | Mean | F | % | Mean |
| Highly insufficient | 5 | 2.6 | | 3 | 1.5 | |
| Insufficient | 10 | 5.1 | | 11 | 5.6 | |
| Average | 76 | 38.8 | | 64 | 32.7 | |
| Sufficient | 84 | 42.9 | | 80 | 40.8 | |
| Highly sufficient | 21 | 10.7 | 3.54 | 38 | 19.4 | 3.71 |
| Total | 196 | 100.0 | | 196 | 100.0 | |

Evaluation of the participants in the first and second measurements, as they consider themselves competent to cope with the difficulties in the COVID 19 pandemic period in the first and second measurement; 2.6% - 1.5% were very insufficient, 5.1% - 5.6% were insufficient, 38.8% - 32.7% were moderately sufficient, 42.9% - 40.9% were sufficient, and 10.7 - 19.4% were quite sufficient.

In the second measurement, the students were asked about their evaluations of the resources to cope with the difficulties they experienced during the COVID 19 pandemic period, and their evaluations are presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Evaluations of the difficulties that participants experienced during the COVID 19 period

| | Very little effective | Less effective | Average | Very effective | Highly effective | Total |
|--|-----------------------|----------------|---------|----------------|------------------|-------|
| | % | % | % | % | % | % |
| Lessons I took during my education | 3,1 | 17,9 | 30,1 | 39,8 | 9,2 | 100,0 |
| Mt therapeutic skills | 3,6 | 3,6 | 38,3 | 36,7 | 17,9 | 100,0 |
| My social relationships | 3,1 | 5,1 | 16,3 | 41,8 | 33,7 | 100,0 |
| Living away from my family | 21,9 | 24,5 | 18,4 | 16,3 | 18,9 | 100,0 |
| Previous difficult life events | 7,1 | 21,4 | 25,0 | 28,6 | 17,9 | 100,0 |
| My positive attitude toward the future | 8,7 | 10,2 | 15,3 | 35,7 | 30,1 | 100,0 |
| Problem-solving skills | ,5 | 4,6 | 26,5 | 38,8 | 29,6 | 100,0 |

As seen in Table 5, the coping resources, which are highly effective as the students say, in coping with the difficulties they experience during the COVID 19 period are social relations (75.5%), problem-solving skills (68.4%), positive attitude toward the future (65.8%), therapeutic skills (54.6%), courses taken during their education (49%), difficult life events (46.5%) and living away from family (35.2%).

Discussion, Conclusions, and Suggestions

This study, it is aimed to determine the psychological resilience and optimism levels of PCG students during the COVID 19 pandemic period and their evaluations of coping with difficulties. In the study, measurements were made twice, at the beginning of the pandemic period (March 29, 2020) and five months after the announcement of the pandemic (August 16, 2020). In both applications, PCG undergraduate students' self-evaluation of psychological resilience, optimism, and the difficulties they experienced during COVID 19 were measured. The data obtained from the first measurement showed that their assessments of resilience, optimism, and coping with difficulties were above the average.

According to the results obtained from two applications, the psychological resilience and optimism levels of the students are above average. In the first and second measurements, the psychological resilience and optimism levels of the students did not differ. In this study, in the first and second applications, the students were asked how competent they were in coping with the difficulties they experienced during the COVID 19 pandemic period, and in both applications, the results were above average (in the first application; 38.8% moderate, 42.9% sufficient, 10.7% very sufficient and in the second application; 32.7% moderate, 40.8% sufficient, 19.4% very sufficient). In the second application, it was found that the average level of self-efficacy increased. In the studies on the effect of mental health in the literature during the period of COVID 19; It has been emphasized that there can be negative effects in every part of society (Askin et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2019; Wanng et al. 2020). Although there is no study with PCG students during the COVID 19 pandemic period, there are many studies with university students. Studies have shown that university students have an increase in mental health problems (Lai et al., 2020), an increase in anxiety levels (Dhar et al., 2020; Almicik et al. 2021), during the COVID 19 pandemic period, and that they do not feel well mentally (Aker & Midik, 2020). Meanwhile, being constantly exposed to news about deaths or infection worldwide as a result of COVID 19 caused individuals to experience psychological problems such as anxiety, restlessness and depression (Stankovska et al., 2020).

Along with the pandemic, the efforts of societies to produce quick solutions have created more positive effects in responding to the crises created by the pandemic in societies with relatively stronger family ties (Kocak & Harmancı, 2020). For individuals to cope with difficult processes healthily, their high psychological resilience can be considered as a mechanism that provides support. On the other hand, in a study conducted by Dusmez

and Yaycı (2020) with PCG students, it was found that there was a significant difference between the advanced and lower grade levels in the stress-coping behaviors of PCG students. In this case, it can be said that PCG training increases the coping skills of individuals. At the same time, it is thought that the psychological resilience and optimism levels of PCG students will be high in stressful situations as a result of the education they receive. In our study, it can be said that the students maintain their psychological resilience and that the support resources affect this.

To determine the dynamics behind students' resilience, the relationship between resilience and optimism levels and students' evaluations of coping with difficulties were examined. In another finding of the study, it was concluded that there was a significant relationship between students' resilience and optimism in both measurements and that optimism predicted resilience. When the literature is examined, it is seen that there is a high relationship between resilience and optimism (Karacaoglu & Koktas 2016; Padhy et al., 2015). Benson (2007) considers optimism as a tendency to see positive aspects in the events encountered. The results obtained to explain the sufficiency of their ability to handle the events experienced during the pandemic period by controlling their anxiety without catastrophizing. The diversity of coping behaviors has an important place in resilience (Cohen, 1984; Lazarus, 1993). Individuals with high psychological resilience have positive emotions, and these people use humor, optimistic thinking, and relaxation techniques as coping resources (Jin & Li, 2021). Beddoe et al. (2013) refer to optimism, competence, knowledge, and empathy in determining individual factors, which are one of the factors affecting psychological resilience. It is thought that positive character traits such as optimism and resilience will protect people from the feelings of anxiety and uncertainty caused by the COVID 19 pandemic. Furthermore, some studies found the religious and spiritual rituals are the most preferred coping strategies during the COVID 19 pandemic (Kadiroğlu, Guducu-Tufekci, & Kara, 2021; Salman et al., 2022).

In the order of priority, areas that the participants consider themselves competent to cope with difficulties are; social relations (75.5%), problem-solving skills (68.4%), positive attitude toward the future (65.8%), therapeutic skills (54.6%), courses taken during their education (49%), difficult life events (46.5%) and living away from family (35.2%). When the coping ways of the participants were examined, they made explanations about seeing the positive aspects of the events and providing support by transferring this perspective to their social environment. Being able to see the positive aspects of events is also a finding that coincides with optimism. At the same time, Matlin and Gawron (1979) stated the tendency of optimism toward positivity in the process of information processing.

Positive thinking, believing that this period will end, is the way of thinking that supports coping. Similarly, students' flexibility, positive thinking, and exercise were found to be predictors of less serious mental health effects during the pandemic period (Lai et al., 2020, Breslau et al., 2014). In parallel, Ogueji et.al. (2022) stated that coping strategies of individuals in England are socializing with loved ones (e.g., through video calls), "engaging in exercise", "being occupied with jobs", "being occupied with studies", "hope", "avoiding negative news on COVID 19. The lack of social and relationships experienced during the pandemic may negatively affect psychological well-being (Holt-Lunstad, 2007:127). In the study, the participants stated that they helped their families, friends, and those in need. In addition, most of them stated the courses they received as coping skills. We can talk about the importance of the courses given in the PCG field and having a program that provides competencies in dealing with crises and anxiety. Students emphasized the positive effect of sharing accurate information about the pandemic with their relatives in coping. Ocalan and Uzar-Ozcetin (2020) talked about the impact of having accurate information and taking precautions in reducing stress and anxiety during the pandemic period. Having a university education may have affected their scientific perspective.

It was revealed that the high levels of optimism and psychological resilience of PCG students and their social relations and problem-solving skills in coping with the difficulties they experienced during the COVID 19 pandemic period are related to the program they are studying. Akan (2022) also emphasized the importance of intervention programs to increase resilience in order to heal the psychology of individuals affected by the COVID 19 process.

It can be recommended to expand the data of this study with both students studying at different universities and students studying in different mental health fields (Social Services Applications and Psychology) in future

studies. In addition, it can be suggested that university students should be given courses that will increase their coping skills, increase their psychological resilience and optimism levels.

Limitations

The results of our study should be evaluated according to some limitations. One of these limitations is that it is intended for PCG students studying at a single university. In addition, it is limited to the coping resources that the researchers determined by using the literature.

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Investigation of the Relationship between University Students' Perception of Coping with Trauma and Self-Compassion and Life Stress by Mixed Method

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Life Stress, PACT.

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to examine the relationship between university students' perception of coping with trauma and their self-compassion and life stress levels. In the quantitative part of the study, data obtained from 754 students studying at different universities and departments in Turkey at undergraduate, graduate and Phd levels were used. The Perception of Coping with Trauma Scale, the Self-Compassion Scale, and the Updated Student Life Stress Inventory were used as data collection tools. Descriptive statistics, t-test, Pearson correlation analysis, stepwise regression analysis were used in data analysis. In the qualitative part of the study, the phenomenology method was used. The qualitative study group consists of 11 university students. A semi-structured interview form prepared by the researcher was used. Qualitative research data were analyzed by content analysis. In this study, a positive significant relationship was found between the perception of coping with trauma and self-compassion scale scores, a negative significant relationship between the perception of coping with trauma and life stress scores, and a negative significant relationship between self-compassion and life stress scores. In this study, Perceived Ability to Cope with Trauma (PACT) and Self-Compassion do not differ according to gender. Life Stress is significantly higher in female students than male students. Consciousness sub-dimension of self compassion significantly predicted perception of coping with trauma. In this research, 2 themes were determined, namely passive coping and active coping, among the views on post-traumatic self-judgment. Passive coping consists of 2 categories. These are: "Getting Out of Focus" and "Leaving it to Time". Active coping theme also consists of 2 categories. These are: "New Decisions" and "Rational Thinking".

The geography we live in, and especially our country, is one of the places where the diversity and intensity of potential trauma events is perhaps the highest. As Canan (2015) states, in ecology, border and side regions located where different living regions meet have much richer characteristics in terms of diversity. This is also true for psychology and educational sciences. In our country, earthquake, flood, avalanche, fire, death, disease, abuse, losses etc. Many types, and perhaps even many, of traumatic events can occur at the same time. This diversity also increases the ways to deal with them. The country we live in is becoming a place where exposure to trauma is increasing day by day. Although it is undesirable to experience trauma, it is not possible to avoid it. The reactions of people exposed to trauma and the perceptions of coping with a possible trauma vary in different dimensions. The degree of this change may differ depending on some variables related to the person

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and the traumatic life event (Kardaş, 2013). Therefore, it is thought that understanding the concept of "perception of coping with trauma" for this phenomenon, which may become inevitable, and understanding the relationship between life stress and self-compassion will guide preventive services and psychotherapy studies. Coping shapes emotions, just like psychological stress, by affecting the person-environment relationship and how it is evaluated (Lazarus, 1993, p:16). Coping is closely related to the concept of cognitive assessment and person-environment processes related to stress (Krohne, 2002). In the literature, coping has been studied as coping with stress. The concept of coping with trauma is still new. In addition, studies investigating the relationship between trauma phenomenon and positive psychology concepts are limited. Self-compassion is a protective feature that reduces the negative effects of trauma and is also a factor that can prevent individuals from developing psychopathology and provides a positive approach to painful and distressing situations (Karaoğlu & Erzi, 2019). Self-compassion and its sub-dimensions such as self-kindness, common humanity and conscious awareness can provide the opportunity to look at the psychological trauma experienced by people from different perspectives. It is important that which of the factors that cause life stress in university students has a significant effect on the perception of coping with trauma, and also how much self-compassion levels predict the perception of coping with trauma. Revealing this relationship and examining the subject in terms of various socio-demographic variables will provide a holistic view of the factors contributing to the process of coping with trauma, and guide preventive studies and therapy studies in the field of psychological counseling and guidance under the guidance of the findings obtained. The findings to be obtained as a result of the research; It will help teachers and counselors to understand students' experiences, attitudes and behaviors. It will help educators and counselors understand why some of their students show high levels of stress and what orientation they have in coping with trauma. It will help us to obtain information about how self-compassion, which can be developed, can contribute to the perception of coping with trauma.

Method

In this study, a mixed model, in which quantitative and qualitative research models are used together, was preferred. Mixed research is a research in which the qualitative research approach is used in one phase of the research and the quantitative research approach is used in the other phase (Johnson & Christensen, 2007).

Ethical Statement

Ethical approval was obtained from the Social and Human Sciences Ethics Committee of Necmettin Erbakan University before the study. In addition, an informed consent form was presented to the participants. It was stated that they could leave at any stage of the research if they wanted to.

Participants

The research group consists of undergraduate, graduate and doctoral students living in Turkey between the years 2021-2022 and volunteering to participate in the research. For quantitative research, 754 university students studying at different universities and departments were reached through Google Forms. The qualitative study group of the research consists of 3 undergraduate, 6 graduate and 2 Phd students living in Turkey in 2022 and volunteering to participate in the research. Face-to-face interviews were conducted with 11 university students studying at different universities and departments through Google Meeting. For the validity study, a qualitative form was created by taking the opinions of the field experts before the experiment application. After the interviews, the results of the research were examined by 2 participants, who were interviewed for internal validity. Participants confirmed the results.

Data Collection Tools

The data of the study were obtained by using Informed Consent Form, Personal Information Form, Perceived Ability to Cope with Trauma (PACT), Self-Compassion Scale, Student Life Stress Inventory and semi-structured interview form prepared by the researcher.

Analysis of Data

For the quantitative research, which constitutes the first part of the research, firstly, normality analysis was performed on the data. Then, frequency analysis, t test, Pearson Correlation Test, Stepwise Regression Analysis were used. Cases with a p value of $<.05$ were considered significant. SPSS 26 package program was used in the analysis of the data.

In the second part of the research, which is the qualitative part, the content analysis method was used. Content analysis is a systematic and repeatable technique in which some words of a text are expressed with smaller content categories, with coding based on a set of rules, most frequently used in social sciences (Büyüköztürk et al., 2019).

The Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficient for PACT was found to be .74. This value shows that the scale is quite reliable in the study group (Uzunsakal & Yıldız, 2018). The Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficient of the self-sensitivity scale was found to be .94. This result shows that the scale has high reliability in the study group (Uzunsakal & Yıldız, 2018). Student life stress scale Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficient was found to be .92. This value shows that the scale has high reliability in the study group (Uzunsakal & Yıldız, 2018). The skewness values in all scales ranged from -.440 to .414, and the kurtosis values ranged from -.790 to .115. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), skewness and kurtosis values between -1.5 and +1.5 indicate that the scores are normally distributed. Since the results obtained are also in the range of -1.5 to +1.5, the distribution of the data set was accepted as normal and parametric tests were used in the subsequent statistical analysis. In order to provide the assumptions of the regression analysis; First, the Durbin-Watson value should be between 1 and 3 to avoid auto-correlation. In addition, the closer this value is to 2, the less likely it is to be autocorrelated (Field, 2013; Bahar, 2019). In this study, the Durbin-Watson value was found to be 2,093. Another condition for regression analysis is; In order to avoid the multicollinearity problem, the VIF value should be below 2.5 (Allison, 1999) and the Tolerance value should be greater than .20 (Cleophas & Zwinderman, 2015). VIF and Tolerance values of all variables in this study comply with these conditions. Another condition for regression analysis; In order to avoid significant outliers, Cook's distance values should be less than 1 (Cook et al., 1982). In this study, Cook's distance value was found to be .026. As a result, the assumptions required for the regression analysis were provided.

Results

Table 1. PACT, self-compassion, life stress scales t-test results of university students by gender

| Variables | Gender | N | \bar{x} | Ss | T | p |
|-----------------|--------|-----|-----------|--------|--------|-------|
| PACT | Female | 574 | 93,59 | 13,422 | -1,504 | ,133 |
| | Male | 180 | 95,32 | 13,461 | | |
| Self-Compassion | Female | 574 | 79,87 | 20,041 | -,696 | ,487 |
| | Male | 180 | 81,04 | 19,018 | | |
| Life Stress | Female | 574 | 155,64 | 30,406 | 4,452 | ,000* |
| | Male | 180 | 143,94 | 31,935 | | |

When the table is examined, the "life stress" scores are at different levels in female ($\bar{x}=155.64$ SD=30.40) and male ($\bar{x}=143.94$ SD=31.93) university students. Since $P=.000<.05$, this difference is statistically significant in favor of women.

Table 2. Correlations between variables

| Variables | PACT | Self-Compassion | Life Stress |
|-----------------|---------|-----------------|-------------|
| PACT | 1 | ,292** | -,097** |
| Self-Compassion | ,292*** | 1 | -,648** |
| Life-Stress | -,097** | -,648** | 1 |

**p<.01

When Table-2 is examined, there is a positive significant relationship between PACT and self-compassion scale scores ($r=.292$, $p<.01$), and a negative significant relationship between PACT and life stress scores ($r=-$

0.97, $p < .01$). A negative significant relationship was found between self-compassion and life stress scores ($r = -.648$, $p < .01$).

Table 3. Stepwise regression for the prediction of PACT

| Model | | B | SE | β | t | p | Tolerans | VIF |
|-----------------------|---------------|--------|-------|---------|--------|------|----------|-------|
| 1 | Constant | 71,020 | 1,813 | | 39,182 | ,000 | | |
| | Consciousness | 1,718 | ,131 | ,430 | 13,075 | ,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 |
| Model 1: $R^2 = .185$ | | | | | | | | |
| 2 | Constant | 60,056 | 3,260 | | 18,423 | ,000 | | |
| | Consciousness | 2,065 | ,156 | ,517 | 13,234 | ,000 | ,695 | 1,439 |
| | Self-judgment | ,419 | ,104 | ,157 | 4,028 | ,000 | ,695 | 1,439 |
| Model 2: $R^2 = .202$ | | | | | | | | |

Note: Durbin-Watson: 2,093

When Table 3 is examined, it is seen that the multiple regression analysis was performed in two stages. As a result of the analysis, the perception of coping with trauma was significantly predicted in the second model ($R = .450$ $R^2 = .202$ $\Delta R^2 = .200$ $F(2-751) = 170.95$ $p < .001$). Considering the relevant beta values, the strongest predictor variable is the consciousness sub-dimension of self-compassion ($\beta = .517$ $p < .001$), followed by the self-judgment sub-dimension ($\beta = .157$ $p < .001$). Approximately 20% of the total variance of the dependent variable is explained.

Table 4. Self-judgment and criticism after the traumatic event

| Theme | Category | f | Sample Answer |
|---------------|------------------|---|--|
| Self-judgment | Regret and blame | 9 | <i>K7: ... back then, we blame ourselves for everything. I mean, I could have been elsewhere at that hour. I could be doing something else. I could have taken precautions, I could have been more prepared. I could have been more conscious. I always say this.</i> <i>K1: Why did this happen, if I could hold myself a little longer, if I could recover. Or maybe I criticized myself for being a little late in treatment. That criticism forced me to pull myself together for several months.</i> |
| | Acceptance | 5 | <i>K10: There was no criticism either to myself or to my environment, because because the possibilities required it, that is, I lived in a struggle to find a solution to the problem rather than being accusatory.</i> |

When Table 4 is examined, two themes, "Self-judgment" and "Acceptance", were determined from the opinions about the existence of self-blame and criticism after the traumatizing event. The theme of self-judgment consists of 1 category. These are: "Regret and Blame". The theme of acceptance consists of 1 category, "Be solution oriented".

Table 5. Coping with post-traumatic self-judgment

| Theme | Category | f | Sample Answer |
|----------------|----------------------|---|---|
| Passive Coping | Getting Out of Focus | 3 | <i>K5: "...Sometimes I cope with by not thinking about , by dealing with something else."</i> |
| | Leaving it to time | 2 | <i>K6: "And I'm still in that shocking, traumatizing effect of the event. So it took me a long time, I still think about it sometimes and feel sorry for those times. I think I left it for some time, I left it to the process."</i> |
| Active Coping | New Decisions | 3 | <i>K2: "...to cope with this, I started preparing for the language test afterwards."</i> |
| | Rational Thinking | 3 | <i>K1: "After I looked at other people, I researched the disease a little bit to see why it might be like this, and when I got down to the reasons, I said myself it can happen to everyone."</i> |

When Table 5 is examined, two themes emerged in coping with post-traumatic self-judgment. These are "Active Coping" and "Passive Coping".

Passive Coping consists of 2 categories. These are: "Getting Out of Focus" and "Leaving it to Time". Active Coping theme also consists of 2 categories. These are: "New Decisions" and "Rational Thinking".

Table 6. Advice for traumatized individuals.

| Theme | Category | f | Sample Answer |
|---------------------|----------------------|---|--|
| Individual centered | Spirituality | 5 | K6: <i>‘I will say this as a believer. hold on to God. Whatever you believe in the existence of the Creator, I believe in the existence of Allah because I believe in Islam. First of all, hold on to it. It is God who sent us to this world. Stand somewhere spiritually.’</i> |
| | Self Compassion | 4 | K4: <i>‘If they blame themselves, I suggest that they should not blame themselves.’</i> |
| | Professional Support | 4 | K8: <i>‘Better results are achieved with the help of a professional person. It is best to consult a professional person and move forward with him on this path.’</i> |
| | Socialization | 2 | K1: <i>‘Let him not look at that negativity, let him participate in social life a little more. Because I coped a little by participating in social life. He was impressed, too.’</i> |
| Life centered | Common Humanity | 4 | K2: <i>‘We need to find such common things. I would like to tell them not to upset themselves, that everyone experiences these things.’</i> |
| | Leaving it to time | 2 | K5: <i>‘Like me, don't rush yourself to experience things. You know, I have to experience this feeling, I have to accept it, I need to get over this situation immediately, I have to deal with it immediately, not as if I have to live and finish it, but by letting it flow; If we have to experience an emotion at that moment, maybe by letting it go, if you shouldn't, maybe by not experiencing it if you're not ready. But you know, they should live by not rushing things.’</i> |
| | Helping | 1 | K6: <i>‘Not all people are bad, and there are others who need our mercy. And the injured understand the injured much better. It has to be an ointment. Maybe this wound will not go away inside us. That wound has crusted over there, but we can be a balm with that wound. Our wound may be a wound for us, but it may be a balm for someone else. I think we should not let this go. I think the pain of that wound will ease.’</i> |

When Table 6 is examined, 2 themes have been identified, namely, "Individual Centered" and "Life Centered", regarding the opinions regarding the recommendations for individuals who have experienced trauma. The theme for individual centered consists of 4 categories: "Spirituality", "Self Compassion", "Professional Support" and "Socialization". The theme for the life centered consists of 3 themes: "Common Humanity", "Leaving it to Time" and "Helping".

Discussion

There was no significant difference between the mean scores of male and female university students from the PACT scale. Likewise, in the study of Arı and Cesur Soysal (2019) in which they adapted the PACT scale, no significant difference was found between males and females in terms of PACT total scores and subscales. In the original study of the PACT scale, only a low correlation was found between the future focus of the scale and gender (Bonanno, Horenczyk, & Noll, 2011).

Trauma-focused coping and future-focused coping are sub-dimensions of dealing with trauma. In the qualitative part of the research, the expression of both trauma-focused and future-oriented coping types as active and passive coping supports the quantitative part.

A positive significant relationship between PACT and Self-compassion scale scores; Negative significant relationship between PACT and Life Stress scores; There is a negative significant relationship between Self Compassion and Life Stress scores. The variable that predicts the PACT level is the consciousness sub-dimension of self-compassion. The perception of coping with trauma reveals the focus of trauma and future-oriented coping skills, while at the same time it is an important criterion for demonstrating positive adaptation to life-threatening trauma situations. According to the research conducted by Saita et al. (2017) on the Italian study group, it confirms that the perception of coping with trauma can be examined on two factor structures. These are the trauma focus and the future focus. According to the research results of Uzel (2020), problem-focused and emotion-focused coping are used together during distressing situations, but problem-focused coping is used more.

Cognitions such as self-evaluation, blame, and self-criticism after trauma are common post-traumatic changes (Lee, Scragg, & Turner, 2001). The qualitative part of the study also supports this result. After trauma, individuals can blame themselves and make intense criticism. The perception of coping with trauma increases and decreases with self-compassion. Low self-compassion is observed in traumatized individuals. After trauma, many negative self-assessments may occur. In many ways, these negative beliefs are the opposite of self-compassion (Scoglio et al., 2015). Self-compassion has been associated with many situations such as anxiety, avoidance, and self-judgment. The data on self-judgment in the qualitative part of the research confirm this. Since self-compassion does not evaluate oneself and others in a result-oriented manner, it can alleviate unbearable feelings of shame and guilt and can help transform these feelings (Neff, Hsieh, & Dejjterat, 2005). Adopting a self-compassionate stance is associated with less shame (Woods & Proeve, 2014) and less self-criticism (Hiraoka et al., 2015); (Winders et al., 2020). Self-compassion is an important resilience factor for those who have been traumatized as children. Self-compassion closely parallels the benefits of social support (Winders et al., 2020). For this reason, it can be thought that self-compassion-oriented studies will contribute to coping with important negative changes that may occur after trauma.

The first study investigating the link between post traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and self-compassion found that higher levels of self-compassion were significantly associated with fewer avoidance symptoms (Thompson & Waltz, 2008), and the findings suggest that individuals with higher self-compassion may be more willing to face problems (Winders et al.). Similarly, self-compassion may protect against the development of PTSD by reducing avoidance of emotional distress and facilitating desensitization. (Germer & Neff, 2015). In addition, self-compassion can increase awareness that challenges are a normal part of life (Bensimon, 2017; Winders et al., 2020). The qualitative part of the research also supports this.

According to the research findings, there is a negative significant relationship between PACT and Life Stress. As life stress decreases, PACT increases. Doğan's (2021) study with university students supports this finding: students with low stress use problem-focused coping, while students with moderate stress use avoidance-focused coping. Therefore, as stress increases, the use of active coping methods decreases. According to the research result of Seven Gürçen (2022); perceived stress significantly predicts the perception of coping with trauma. Knowles and O'Connor (2015) examined the perception of coping with trauma in the grieving process: The future focus dimension of the perception of coping with trauma predicts lower grief severity, as well as lower longing, loneliness, and perceived stress. In this study, a negative significant correlation was found between PACT and life stress scores ($r = -0.97$, $p < .01$). Similarly, in the study of Knowles and O'Connor (2015), a negative relationship was found between PACT and perceived stress. According to the study of Bartholomew et al. (2017) with war veterans in the USA, PACT; PTSD correlates negatively with depression, anxiety and alexithymia. Therefore, PACT has a significant relationship with negative mood states, supporting the findings of this study.

In the study, a negative significant relationship was found between life stress and self-compassion. Increases in self-compassion predicted fewer psychiatric symptoms and interpersonal problems. Since self-compassion relies on connecting with difficult emotions without self-judgment, it seems to lead to healthier psychological

functions (Schanche et al., 2011; Germer & Neff, 2015). Self-compassion can increase tolerance for negative emotions. Awareness can reduce anxiety and negative affect by reducing the tendency to insist on negative inner experiences (Valdez & Lilly, 2016).

In the qualitative part of the study, it is seen that university students generally use both problem-focused and future-oriented coping methods in coping with trauma. These findings are in parallel with the findings of a qualitative study conducted by Okay (2017) on university students. Accordingly, university students try to cope with the trauma, sometimes by targeting the distressing emotion, and sometimes by focusing on the future. Calhoun and Tedeschi (1998) revealed that people update their future plans after traumatic events. When asked what they did to cope with the trauma they experienced, K2 said: "I tried to cope by preparing for the exams and starting my master's degree. In other words, I started my master's degree to say I have a job, to relieve myself psychologically."

As seen in the "Common Humanity " category, which emerges when information is received from the participants about what advice they will give to individuals who have experienced trauma like themselves, the cognition that similar events not only happen to them but also to others plays an active role in coping. K7: "People who have experienced the most similar thing, that is, my classmates. Because in the end, like me, they lost all their friendships, schools, relatives, the city they lived in in fifty seconds within thirty seconds. I remember that we supported each other the most." K3: "...things happen to human beings in some way. This both comes from God and it happens to others as well." Based on these statements of the participants, "common humanity" is important in coping with post-traumatic injuries. Similar results were obtained in another study conducted with university students. Being with like-minded or feeling people reduces negative emotions and helps normalize reactions (Okay, 2017). Similarly, Parkes (2014) stated that people suffering from the same problem get closer to each other by creating social cohesion. Common humanity is also a sub-dimension of self-compassion. Common humanity is people's ability to use these emotions in a meaningful and positive way for their own benefit, instead of avoiding the negative emotions they experience when they are in a challenging event (Özyeşil, 2011). In this context, common humanity, which is a dimension of self-compassion, is seen as a meaningful variable for those who cope with trauma.

Guided by the research results, recommendations to researchers and practitioners are as follows:

- In this study, the prediction of the PACT variable by self-compassion was examined. In future studies, different independent variables (hope, resilience, self-efficacy, gratitude) that appear in the field of PACT and positive psychology can be used.
- Mixed method was used in this study. In future studies, experimental studies can be conducted on the effects of self-compassion on PACT and Life stress.
- In this study, PACT was found to have a positive and significant relationship with self compassion. Life stress, on the other hand, was found to have a negative significant relationship with self-compassion. Self-compassion can be delivered to more students through psychoeducational programs and its effect on challenging life events can be investigated with different variables.
- Psychological support units at universities can work on self-compassion to support students' PACT and contribute to reducing life stress.

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A Phenomenological Research on Creativity in the Psychological Counseling Process

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ABSTRACT

Creativity is an important phenomenon and has lately been taken into consideration in the field of counseling. The aim of this study is to explore the phenomenon of creativity in the counseling process against the backdrop of psychological counselors' experiences. The research uses a semi-structured interview form in accordance with this based on the descriptive phenomenological design. The study group consists of eight psychological counselors (6 women, 2 men) working with various theoretical orientations and age groups and were selected using criterion sampling, a purposeful sampling method. By the end of the research, four themes had been identified related to the phenomenon of creativity: psychological counselors' experiences regarding creativity, the facilitating factors of creativity, the inhibitory factors of creativity, and the functions of creativity. The results from the research have concluded that educational programs should be structured based on psychological counselors' creative skills and disseminated in the field.

Counseling is a professional mental health service that addresses many situations, events, and phenomena of life and attempts to find solutions in order for clients to develop and adapt (Gibson & Mitchell, 1990). Counseling has various phases. The first phase is the commitment phase, in which the client talks about their life story and the reason why they've applied for counseling. The possibility exists for an appropriate working accord to occur between the psychological counselor and the client during this phase, as well as the possibility of ending the meetings with the first session due to some difficulties that may arise between the psychological counselor and client (de Rivera, 1992; Vriend & Dyer, 1973). After an accord is achieved, psychological counselors use certain skills such as reframing, interpreting, and self-disclosure to help the client work on their transformation, development, and perception and look at their lives differently (Gladding & Batra, 2007). During these two basic phases as well as any other intermediate stages described in different counseling models, psychological counselors may experience certain difficulties and attempt to overcome these difficulties decisively. The use of creativity skills for overcoming these difficulties or making the counseling room a more effective place can be considered a very important issue for psychological counselors.

Looking at the general definition of creativity would be helpful before examining the psychological counselors' relationship with creativity. Creativity is a sequence of thoughts and actions that lead to a novel adaptive output (Lubart, 2001). Creativity has been the subject of various models as a phenomenon possessing stages. According to Wallas (1996), an important pioneer in this field, creativity consists of four stages: preparation, incubation, illumination, and verification. Following directly after the preparation stage, incubation is the stage in which a problem/situation is evaluated unconsciously. In this stage, the subject feels

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highly concerned about creativity until a solution is developed. This can take a very long time or may take a short time. Guilford (1950, p. 451) also noted a considerable consensus to be present in the fieldwork regarding all creative actions to involve these four important steps of preparation, incubation, illumination, and verification.

In the context of counseling, creativity is a skill that follows no particular line, has broad diversity, is teachable, and at the very least is encouraged (Cohen, 2001). Compared to many other subjects studied in the field of counseling, not much research can be said to have occurred regarding the phenomenon of creativity. Less than 1% of all research in counseling and psychology has been conducted on creativity (Gladding, 2011). In spite of this, a creative counseling process can help both psychological counselors and clients understand themselves and their environment differently, thus opening a new door onto better lifestyles along the way.

Counseling theorists have often emphasized the importance of creativity in their theories. Freud considered creativity to be a defense mechanism through the concept of the sublime; Adler saw clients' creative expressions as an indicator of growth and development and encouraged creativity in accordance with this. Gestalt theorists regard creativity as a tool for integration and change (i.e., trying strange or unconventional new behaviors; see Carson, 1999). According to the existentialist psychologist May (1994), creativity is the process of bringing things to life. Creativity requires passion and commitment. Symbols and legends are born through creative action, and creativity signals new life by revealing a potential that had been hidden. From the perspective of cognitive psychology, the development of divergent thinking as a concept closely associated with creativity and the enhancement of new visual images are often a prerequisite for behavioral change and emotional relief (Hocevar, 1980). Creativity in postmodern counseling orientations that focus on language, communication, and storytelling is seen to be developable by making use of artistic sources such as humor (Franzini, 2011), metaphor (Storlie et al., 2018), photography (Ginicola et al., 2012), and poetry (Canel, 2015). Although the concepts and contexts have changed, counseling theories are seen to place the phenomenon of creativity at the center of development and transformation.

Creativity is a learned skill and activity that psychological counselors often engage with in practice as well as in theory (Kottler & Hecker, 2002). According to Frey (1975), counseling in its most general sense is a creative initiative in which a client and psychological counselor combine their resources to create a new plan, develop a different perspective, formulate alternative behaviors, and start a new life. In addition, all therapeutic approaches that promote individual well-being involve parallel activities that improve creativity such as: (a) increased personal growth, awareness, and self-confidence; (b) advanced problem-solving capabilities (i.e. looking at a phenomenon or producing multiple paths to approach a situation); (c) advanced human relations; (d) powerful but more balanced internal locus of control and responsibility; and (e) the abandonment of traditional forms of living and the acquisition of new perceptions and roles (Carson, 1999).

Creativity is a critical phenomenon for the present and future of an effective psychological counselor. Gladding (2008) regards creativity as an important component in advancement any important cultural phenomena, including effective counseling. Important counseling theories and skills have been developed around creativity. If the existence of counseling is to be desired in the future, psychological counselors must study the art of expression, read a lot, and make themselves more creative by traveling and observing human nature in a variety of ways. A creative counseling process forces both the psychological counselor and the client to respond more definitively and boldly to their current interactions. It requires psychological counselors to use their imagination deeply and have the flexibility to flow freely through improvisation. The use of creativity in counseling encourages transformation in which every session inspires unexpected thoughts and actions (Keeney, 2010).

Due to creativity's important position in the counseling process, some researchers have also developed models and educational curricula that serve to improve psychological counselors' creativity. Buser et al. (2011) aimed to develop important skills such as flexibility during consultation, divergent thinking, and the ability to create new solutions using the SCAMPER (substitute, combine, adapt, modify, put to another use, eliminate, reverse) model. Lawrence et al. (2015) prepared an educational curriculum and suggested that creativity can be

improved through appropriate risk-taking, tolerance for uncertainty, and improvisation skills.

The scarcity of research on the phenomenon of creativity in the counseling literature and the lack of any scientific research focused on life in this regard can be said to be the most important reason for this research being conducted. Additionally, the types of qualitative research that occur in a field dominated by in-depth relations such as counseling are thought to be able to assist in concentrating on and understanding these subjective experiences and life. Starting from this point of view, the current research aims to explore the phenomenon of creativity, which can be considered of utmost importance in the counseling process, against the backdrop of the lives of psychological counselors; as such, it attempts to answer to the following questions:

1. How do psychological counselors perceive the phenomenon of creativity in the context of counseling?
2. What do psychological counselors feel and think during a counseling session when they experience creativity and when they are unable to experience it (when they feel blocked)?
3. What do psychological counselors do in their daily lives to improve their creativity?
4. What do psychological counselors think about the functions of creativity?

Method

Design

The study uses the descriptive phenomenological design. Phenomenology explores the ways in which a phenomenon is similarly experienced by several people. It attempts to transform the individual experiences related to the phenomenon into an explanation with a universal essence (Creswell & Poth, 2016; Langridge, 2007). Descriptive phenomenology attempts to describe the participants' expressions as they are instead of the researchers' comments. Researchers attempt to suppress their own experiences as much as possible throughout the process (Moustakas, 1994). This research seeks to uncover how psychological counselors experience the phenomenon of creativity in counseling based on the descriptive phenomenological design and to explore common experiences.

Sample

The study group for this research was determined using criterion sampling, a type of purposeful sampling (Schumacher & McMillan, 2006). The determined criterion is that the participating psychological counselors are actively seeing clients from different age groups. The study group is composed of individuals who've been referred by psychological counselors with whom the authors are affiliated. The study does not use real names; instead, each participant has chosen an alias. The participants' demographic information is as follows:

Muzeyyen is a 28-year-old female. She has been seeing adult clients with psychodynamic orientation for 4 years.

Irem is a 43-year-old female. She has been using systemic consultancy in her work with couples, families, and adults for 3 years.

Deniz is a 32-year-old female. She has been counseling adolescents, adults, and couples using eclectic therapy (psychodynamic, behavioral, psychodrama) for 7 years.

Ela is a 29-year-old female. She has been working with preschool and primary school clients using an experiential play therapy for 5 years.

Elif is a 27-year-old female. She has been counseling children and adolescents (13-25 years old) using narrative therapy orientation for 6 years.

Toprak is a 30-year-old male. He has been working with young adult (18-22 years old) clients using eclectic therapy (solution-oriented, cognitive behavioral therapy [CBT], logotherapy) for 6 years.

Yavuz is a 27-year-old male. He has been seeing child, adolescent, and young adult clients using a holistic approach (psychodynamics, CBT, schema therapy) for 5 years.

Oktay is a 27-year-old male. He has been working with child clients (2-9 years old) using systemic family therapy and experiential play therapy for 5 years.

Ethical Statement

This research was reviewed and given permission by the Institute of Educational Sciences Ethics Committee of Marmara University (Decision Number: 2100042399, Date: 1/20/2021). The participants also participated in the study voluntarily.

Instruments and Procedures

The data collection tool was initiated by scanning the existing literature on the phenomenon of creativity in counseling. The literature on this issue is seen to remain largely unexplored; therefore, draft questions have been prepared. The related questions were finalized through the opinions and suggestions of two expert counseling and guidance academicians who've been providing graduate and post-graduate courses on qualitative research methods. A semi-structured form was used in the interviews. This form was composed by surveying the literature on creativity and looking at the observations and impressions the authors have acquired from their own counseling sessions. The interviews were conducted individually with participants. Probe questions were asked as needed in addition to those on the form. The interview form contains the following questions:

1. Can you talk about the place creativity has in the context of counseling as a psychological counselor?
2. Can you convey a few instances during counseling sessions where you thought you were creative; what were your feelings and thoughts in these situations?
3. Can you convey a few instances in which you thought you were not creative (felt blocked) during counseling sessions; what were your feelings and thoughts in that situation?
4. Do you do anything in your daily life to improve your creativity in counseling sessions? If so, can you talk about them and explain how they've contributed to your creativity?
5. How do you feel about the function your creativity skills have in the counseling process?
6. How do you feel about the repercussions your creativity and/or lack of creativity have on your clients?

After agreeing upon the study group and obtaining the participants' voluntary participation, a brief explanation was made about the purpose of the study as well as a mention about the privacy policy. Due to the research coinciding with the COVID-19 (February 20 to April 1, 2021) outbreak, the sessions were conducted in the form of online video chats. Interview times varied between 30-40 minutes. The conversations were recorded with a voice recorder and then transcribed verbatim by the authors. The researchers, participants, and clients only used Turkish in the research. This English version of the article uses a translation of these transcriptions.

Data Analysis

The obtained data were first encoded on a sentence-by-sentence basis using the inductive method; abstractions were then made, and certain themes emerged. Afterward, a transition occurred from themes to categories using the deductive method (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Creswell & Poth, 2016). Lastly, the findings were interpreted descriptively using direct quotations.

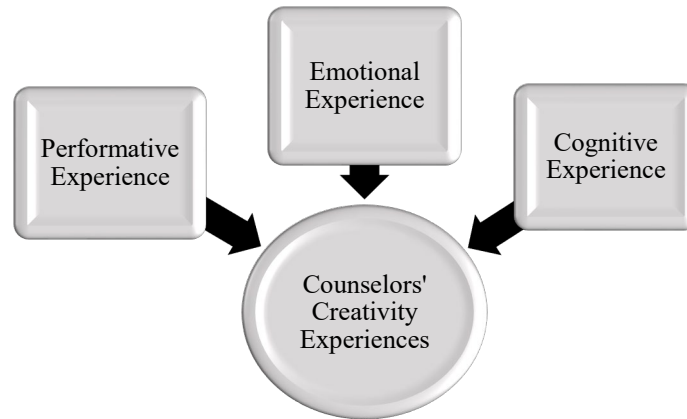
When evaluating the study in terms of credibility, transmissibility, and consistency, the internal credibility and validity of the research is based on the researchers' convictions that they've provided sufficient data (Merriam, 2009), that the participants have conveyed their real experiences, that the dialogues have been transcribed accurately, and that the structural descriptions are capable of explaining unique life experiences (Polkinghorne 1989). External validity in quantitative research is expressed as transmissibility. Qualitative research is based on understanding the experience of the individual. As such, participants' experiences are detailed and described adequately and appropriately; the data is generalized with the intention of making it accessible to other researchers (Guba & Lincoln, 1982). The themes in this research have been adequately and appropriately described in detail. The consistency and reliability of the research data were determined using the method of participant confirmation (Erlandson et al., 1993). The researchers interviewed some of the participants individually for a second time and asked them to evaluate the inferences and interpretations from the research findings. The participants confirmed the accuracy of the findings.

Results

The data obtained from the participants have been divided into four main themes: Psychological Counselors' Creativity Experiences, the Factors Facilitating Creativity, the Factors Inhibiting Creativity, and the Functions of Creativity. The sub-themes of the four main themes are described in detail below.

Psychological Counselors' Creativity Experiences

Figure-1: The Theme and Sub-Themes of Psychological Counselors' Creativity Experiences



As seen in Figure 1, the psychological counselors' creative experiences have been sub-thematized as performative experiences, emotional experiences, and cognitive experiences in accordance with the observations.

Performative Experience. The psychological counselors' performative creative experiences in sessions are understood to appear in various styles and techniques such as storytelling, imagery, changing positions around the room, adaptation, asking exploratory questions, interpreting, and gamification. The psychological counselors sometimes experienced the performative part of their creativity by adapting a ready-made technique to the relevant agenda. The experience of a counselor using the adaptation technique is a good example of this:

There was this child with whom I was having a hard time. I decided to explain the systems of feelings and thoughts from cognitive behavioral therapy. This child didn't talk, so we put circles on the ground with each circle representing emotions, thoughts, and behaviors. We completed the session by moving through these circles. (Elif)

The counselors reported that they sometimes conducted their performative experiences by using unique interventions based on the therapeutic requirements of their client's difficulty. As with the experience of a counselor who changes positions around the room:

Now, I don't know if this can be called creativity, but the first thing that comes to mind is this: I was seeing a couple. There were high tensions between them and acted very aggressively toward one another. They worked themselves up into a rage quickly. I was worried that they might resort to violence in the session at that moment. What I did at that time was to sit between them for a while, and when I sat between them, of course, the tension dropped and they laughed. At that moment we had prevented what might have ended up in violence. (Irem)

Emotional Experience. All psychological counselors tend to agree that the emotional experience of creativity is experienced as competence. Meanwhile, various emotions are also experienced alongside this feeling in a creative process, such as relaxation, satisfaction, pleasure, excitement, uniqueness, hope, and confidence. Some psychological counselors who regard the emotional experience of creativity as competence have reported this sense of competence to be impermanent:

There's something about this sense of competence. There's no certainty that this is going to continue like this. It's a competence that comes instantaneously in a way I did not plan. It's a state where things are back on the rails. I cannot be sure if this can or will ever happen again. (Ela)

According to some psychological counselors, the sense of uniqueness that appears during the creative process is not only felt by the psychological counselor but is also realized in the inner space shared by the psychological counselor and the client:

Creativity is the uniqueness that is felt between the psychological counselor and the client. I believe it is something collective that comes out in the moment and is unique to that client, something produced not only by the psychological counselor but also by the client. (Elif)

I would say that the sense of creativity belongs to a subjective space created uniquely by each client and psychological counselor. A third factor occurs between each psychological counselor and the client, and I would say that creativity is the space created in the context of this third factor and is dependent on that pair. (Yavuz)

Cognitive Experience. The psychological counselors stated experiencing the cognitive aspect of creativity in the forms of spontaneity, imagination, analysis, flow, and risk taking. Spontaneity was the most widely reported experience among the psychological counselors' cognitive descriptions of the moments of creativity:

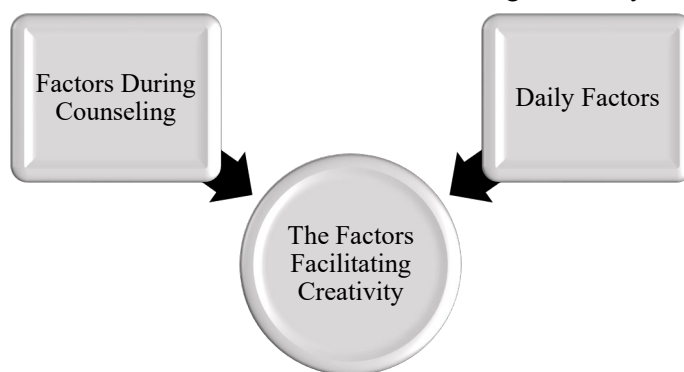
I plan some things ahead of time. By plan, I mean that I do not think that I will do such and such in the next session; instead, I have the subject in the back of my mind and am thinking of ways to work with them. It mostly comes about spontaneously within the session. (Deniz)

The following quotations is a cross-section imagination experience from one psychological counselor who was listening to a story from her client who was angry and blaming himself for doing the same things over and over again, despite being aware that he is hurting himself:

What my client talked about made me think of someone trying to leave somewhere but who gets scared every time they go out and thus go right back to the same place... He would return to the same place because it was his safe space, even though he wanted to leave. (Muzeyyen)

Facilitating Factors of Creativity

Figure-2: The Theme and Sub-Themes of the Factors Facilitating Creativity



As seen in Figure 2, the factors that facilitate the emergence of creativity as a skill are discussed under two sub-headings: factors during counseling and daily factors.

Factors During Counseling. What the psychological counselors had to say about the factors that facilitate creativity during counseling have been thematized as follows: the psychological counselor's experience-based competence, the psychological counselor's emotional blockage, the psychological counselor's relational attitude, the psychological counselor's intuition, the use of a ready-made technique, the ability to establish an appropriate therapeutic framework, and psychological counselor-client compatibility.

The factors that facilitate psychological counselors' creativity during a session consist of emotions with positive content such as competence and intuition, as well as emotional blockages with negative content such as anxiety and desperation. In order for creativity to emerge in a desired situation, the level of difficulty needs to be one the psychological counselor can manage:

One thing that a psychological counselor can clearly see is how to look at the situation professionally; if the client is opposed to this, I usually feel blocked at this point. Here is where something comes into play: creativity. It is like approaching a matter indirectly from a different direction. (Toprak)

According to the participating psychological consultants, the therapeutic framework needs to be properly structured in advance in order for creativity to develop. Creativity needs a solid foundation to emerge:

Yes, creativity is an integral part of counseling. But it has some essentials. I try not to ignore the importance of paying attention to these essentials. Creativity is good, but the other parts such as drawing up a nice framework for counseling are also very important. (Elif)

Daily Factors. The inferences the psychological counselors made about the daily facilitators of creativity have been sub-thematized as follows: art, literature, physical activities, educational activities, creative cognition, initiating new experiences, the psychological counselor's personal therapy style, and games. The psychological counselors stated that having various interests and activities in everyday life such as literature facilitate their in-session creativity:

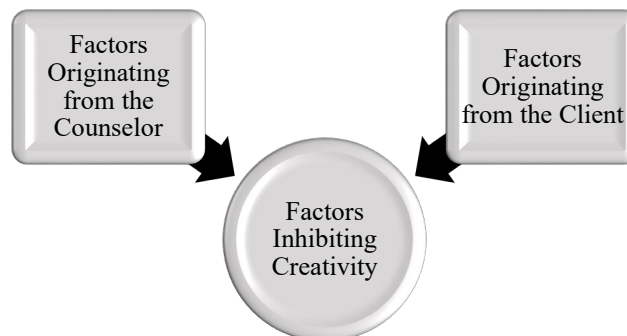
Literature and the stories people tell have contributed much to me because what we see there as clinical psychopathology is described so beautifully in a novel as a reflection of everyday life. Apart from labels and diagnoses, you can change the way you intervene by using literary stories. (Oktay)

Many of these interests and activities consist of unstructured and unconstrained activities such as creative mindfulness:

I love spending time in nature. The time I spend in nature; the calmness and tranquility, and the fact that I can evaluate myself, think, and contemplate... I think these contribute to me a lot. (Toprak)

Factors Inhibiting Creativity

Figure-3: The Theme and Sub-Themes of the Inhibitory Factors Of Creativity



According to the psychological counselors, creativity is sometimes blocked for various reasons, and therefore, the psychological counselor feels blocked. As seen in Figure 3, inferences made about the inhibitory factors of creativity were analyzed under two sub-themes: those originating from the psychological counselor and those originating from the client.

Inhibitory Factors Originating from the Psychological Counselor. These factors that inhibit creativity can be conveyed as follows: inexperience, tiredness, feeling overruled by the client's feelings, and the desire to get quick results. Inexperience was the theme most participants focused on. With experience comes the feeling of competence, which helps in finding solutions to blockages.

I'm no longer at the point where we get stuck together in the same spiral as the client. I can see more objectively. I find different solutions. I felt inadequate before... this is already the general sense of novice psychological counselors. It's because they don't have enough experience. Maybe it's about whether one has enough tools in one's toolbox. As the toolbox grew, it became easier for me to find more options. (Irem)

Psychological counselors' desire to get quick results is another important obstacle in the way of creativity:

I am a psychological counselor trying to get quick results. It's like I want to see some progress in two or three sessions. Yes, it's a long process, actually. I need to adapt myself more to that. In moments of despair like these, I wonder if I am not the right person for this. (Elif)

Inhibitory Factors Originating from the Client. Other factors that inhibit creativity were found to originate from the client as follows: clients not being ready, having emotional breakdowns, and resisting. According to the psychological counselors, clients' emotional breakdowns, especially when crying for a long time, hinders the client's creative ability:

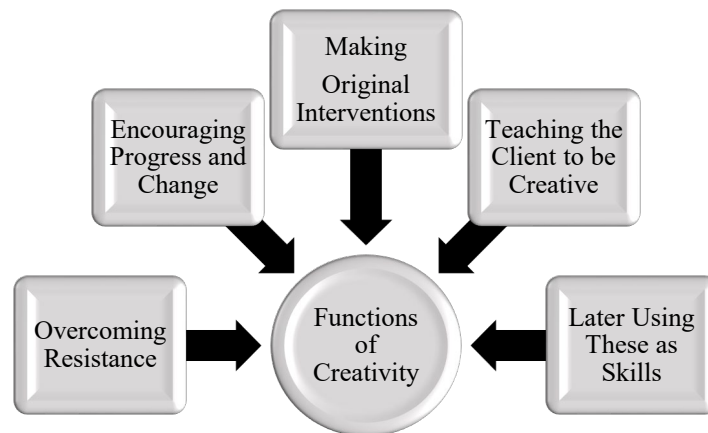
It was a session where a client described her sexual trauma. She was sharing this experience for the first time in her life in so many words. I guess she talked about it for about 20 or 25 minutes and cried. And I felt so powerless in the face of this situation, and all I had in mind was just, "She's so sensitive, don't hurt her." I had to act in such a way that wouldn't hurt her... because I felt so preoccupied after her speech that it was as if all the images in my mind and what I had described as creativity had completely disappeared. (Muzeyyen)

When a client's resistance is experienced in the form of unwillingness to look at the issues the psychological counselor points out, the psychological counselor may lose creativity:

One of my clients I have been seeing lately in particular was showing resistance to change and thought the problem was only related to his child. When I mentioned this to the client, I felt that we couldn't move forward; I felt blocked since whatever we talked about, he somehow found an excuse to deny his role. (Ela)

Functions of Creativity

Figure-4: The Theme and Sub-Themes of the Functions of Creativity



As seen in Figure 4, the inferences the psychological counselors made about the functions of creativity are sub-thematized as follow: overcoming resistance, encouraging progress and change, making original interventions, teaching the client to be creative, and later using these as skills. The psychological counselors feel that creativity makes them unique in a professional sense:

Access to information is now very easy. It may be useful for the client to hear things in a different context, rather than hear what they already know from me once again when talking about things in the consultation room. (Elif)

In addition to the functions provided for the psychological counselor, creativity can also become a skill for the client:

I observe that when I can be more creative, the clients can then apply these creative methods to themselves, or they can research different methods and use their own creativity. (Deniz)

Discussion

The first theme of this research aims to understand the phenomenon of creativity in counseling through the lives of psychological counselors and has been thematized as psychological counselors' creativity experiences. The experience of creativity has performative, emotional, and cognitive dimensions. This basic finding of the study is in line with those from Bergin and Garfield (1994), who stated that we live in an experiential and eclectic age, an atheoretical period, and that contemporary psychological counseling schools have an attitude toward eclectic interpretations of emotional, cognitive, and behavioral approaches. This research shows the creative effect walking has on the performative experience of creativity for both the counselor and client. Psychological counselors are able to overcome the blockage of dysfunctional cognitive skills while addressing clients' needs by activating bodily movement. Oppezzo and Schwartz's (2014) study, in which they proved the significant effect of walking on generating alternative thoughts, divergent thinking, and free flow of ideas, also presented an important finding about counselors' activeness. Structured techniques such as puppet therapy (Dillen et al., 2009), creative writing (Gladding & Wallace, 2018; Warren et al., 2010), and spectrogram (Kole, 1967) can be said to have an encouraging function for psychological counselors. Quite interestingly, the results from this research match with those from Carson et al.'s (2003) qualitative study that analyzed the role of creativity over 142 marriage and family psychological counselors. According to the results, psychological counselors who can be creative make use of Gestalt interventions such as performance art therapy (i.e., drawing problems/possible solutions); murals and collages; stories, parables, and tales that provide useful visuals for clients; writing a letter and other forms of narrative therapy; and various uses of empty chairs and mirrors. As can be seen, performance experience involves various applications. The defining point here is to stay in the context of the client's experience and needs. Creative experience thus emerges in the context of accurately detecting the client's relevant needs rather than directly applying ready-made techniques.

One of the key cognitive experiences of creativity has been identified as risk-taking. Counseling involves more than risk quantification. Whether for reflecting a client's unspoken feelings or for identifying inconsistencies, challenging inconsistencies, or expressing oneself, therapeutic work requires psychological counselors to step out of their safety zone. This is an act rarely undertaken and has no guarantee of success. According to Lawrance et al. (2015), given the ongoing nature of risk in counseling, psychological counselors must recognize this phenomenon and learn to distinguish between risky behaviors and appropriate risks. As a matter of fact, the current study found taking risks to be a cognitive experience of creativity, and psychological counselors are thought to possibly require a basis in creativity in order to take appropriate risks. Mitchell (2016) found counselors' taking risks to be important as long as the limits of the therapeutic relationship were taken into account and suggested some exercises that would serve to improve this cognitive experience.

According to Benjamin (1984), imagination is identified as one of the cognitive experiences of creativity and can help people imagine themselves in a situation and experience various outcomes. Imagination provides psychological counselors with an incubation period that allows ideas to be born. Csikszentmihalyi (1997) stated creative psychological counselors to be pliant and open to new ideas, to be tolerant of uncertainty, and to have a wide range of curiosity energy and vivid dreams. According to the findings from this current research, imagination has been found to be one of the most obvious cognitive experiences of creativity. Imagination is a visual resource that helps overcome the limited speech-based structure of counseling sessions when necessary.

The second theme of the study was thematized as the factors facilitating creativity and discussed under two sub-themes: factors in the consultation room and daily factors. One of the most important findings of this research can be said to have been identified in this theme: In order for psychological counselors to be able to express their creativity, they need to experience a considerable amount of psychological strain, such as emotional blockage. May (1994) positioned himself very close to this finding when he states that consciousness can only discover possibilities when it encounters limitations and a dialectical tension and that this is necessary for the emergence of awareness. For Hecker and Kotler (2002), experiencing a blockage is a tendency to initiate creativity. Most psychological counselors feel blocked during the counseling process with some clients,

whether once or several times. Counseling is process in which the psychological counselor and the client are able to benefit from their creativity because creativity typically arises from disappointment or the need for a solution. Keeney (2010) stated creative therapists to be subjected to many complaints from their clients in the first stage, that the first stage is like a quagmire for these therapists, and that the psychological counselor and client feel blocked in this stage, which leads the psychological counselor to desperation and, in turn, allows them to be creative. All the psychological counselors who participated in the research stated that, prior to the emergence of creativity skills, they had all felt blocked when trying to manage the flow of the session and that, by getting inspiration from that moment of blockage, they displayed creativity skills. This reveals a dialectical relationship to exist between creativity and feeling blocked.

Another noteworthy finding of the research is the determination of the importance of everyday activities among the factors facilitating creativity. Thomas and Morris (2017) claimed that everyday activities are an important issue that preserve and improve psychological counselors' creativity and self-care. Activities such as meditating, praying, visiting art museums, painting and drawing, and taking a walk while listening to music before or after a session are among the methods for preserving psychological counselors' creativity by taking some time for themselves. The findings from this research regarding everyday activities are also consistent with the general findings and recommendations in the literature. Having psychological counselors not be trapped in their professional role but instead come into contact with different aspects of life can be said to be a practical necessity.

The third theme of creativity in counseling has been thematized as the factors inhibiting creativity. This situation can also be referred to as a blockage in creativity and may be experienced due to both the psychological counselor and the client. The participants stated their inexperience as psychological counselors in particular and their desire to get quick results to have negatively affected creativity. Indeed, the results from the qualitative Oven and Lobe's (2018) qualitative study over 22 experienced psychological counselors revealed that the process of creativity involves the trial and error method before reaching the desired effect, that no recipe exists for creativity, that creativity is a complicated phenomenon, and that the different aspects of creativity should be taken into consideration in order to use it in counseling. The desire to achieve quick results in this study can be understood to be related to psychological counselors' professional experience, and this desire is understood to create performance anxiety and prevent creativity.

The fourth and final theme identified in the research is the functions of creativity. The functions of creativity help the therapeutic process and therefore facilitate clients' development and recovery. Oven and Lobe (2018) claimed creativity to be a therapeutic skill that connects and establishes bridges, which enables clients to express themselves. Creativity helps healthily eliminate the blockages that may sometimes inhibit the healing process. According to Hecker and Kottler (2002), the validation stage, being the final stage of the creativity process, is the stage where solutions are tested. Upon reaching this stage, the client will probably respond positively. The data obtained from the participating psychological counselors suggests that creativity supports and secures lasting healing processes by giving the client creative abilities in their lives.

Conclusion

The results of the research show creativity to be one of the main phenomena of counseling. Some conclusions may be drawn and recommendations made in light of the research findings. The determination that creativity is primarily a skill that can be developed is promising for counseling practices. Another important conclusion is that creativity is not one-dimensional. Creativity is experienced by psychological counselors in three different dimensions: performative, emotional and cognitive. Therefore, creativity can be said to not just be an intuitive experience in the moment but to also have a more complex and relational structure.

Evaluating every situation that occurs in the counselor-client relationship as creativity is impossible. However, creativity cannot be said to be a formative technique like other counseling techniques. Creativity can show itself sometimes by enriching and changing an existing technique or at other times by birthing a brand-new

idea and an accompanying intervention. Therefore, although encountering a purely creative experience is not be possible in the research findings, how creativity transforms into experience in the counselor's consciousness can be seen in research findings.

No research findings were seen in the literature that contradict the findings of this research in general terms. This is because the research theme has been concluded to remain mostly unexplored and the literature to be very weak in terms of this type of study. Increasing the number of quantitatively and qualitatively designed research is thought will make room for findings of different opinions in the discussions of upcoming research.

The fact that creativity appears in the context of a dialectical relationship is encouraging for psychological counselors who experience blockages. Having less experienced psychological counselors add their creativity skills to their technical work styles based on protocols will be an important gain in due course. For this reason, psychological counselors might enrich their creativity by developing themselves in their daily lives with tools outside their field such as art, nature, literature, and philosophy in addition to professional readings and education. The investments psychological counselors make in their creativity ultimately means that they are investing in their clients' creativity.

The participating psychological counselors were observed to have not participated in any training program that had directly enhanced their creativity during the training process. This finding suggests that most psychological counselors in the field often use their creativity without any creativity training. Programs that support psychological counselors' creativity with non-atheoretical/non-normative methods still being given little place in academic curricula leads us to the conclusion that psychological counselor creativity is an issue that is becoming more important day by day and one that needs more research.

This research contains some limitations. Although its qualitative design arrangement provides a wealth of data, its generalizability needs to be enhanced by structuring it with quantitative methods, mixed methods, and grounded designs. Many of the participating psychological counselors are individuals who have received or are receiving formal training in their fields and have 3-7 years of experience. Therefore, this research does not reflect the experiences of psychological counselors with less than 3 years of experience and who have no education other than undergraduate education. Conducting future studies with psychological counselors who are still at the beginning of their career as well as with those who are in the more advanced stages of their career with over 7 years of experience is considered important in order to overcome the existing limitations. Meanwhile, we know creativity often emerges in the counselor-client relationship. As such, this article also may serve as encouragement for future research to examine clients' roles in creativity and its repercussions on healing.

As result, major counseling theories reduce clients' subjective experiences to certain assumptions that sometimes cause their lived experience to be overlooked. A model starting from an unconventional experiential creativity experience may provide a simple therapeutic basis for the counseling process.

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Psychological Effects of the Pandemic on Turkish University Students During the Period of Returning to Universities

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ABSTRACT

The COVID-19 pandemic may have been psychologically stressful for everyone who was affected by it, but people who are predisposed to mental health problems may have felt it more intensely than others. Students at universities are one of these vulnerable populations. The uncertainty brought on by COVID-19 had a negative psychological impact on them, but this effect became more complex in the process of restarting education after a long break. The purpose of this study is to investigate the psychological situation of Turkish university students during the period when face-to-face education began to reappear as a result of the COVID-19 precautions being reduced. For this aim, the psychological situation of 224 Turkish students aged 17–25 was assessed using the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI), State and Trait Anxiety Scale (STAT), Connor Davidson-Resilience Scale (CD-RISC), Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS), and Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI). In addition, the students were asked about their life satisfaction, chronic illness, duration of physical activity, screen time, and needs of psychological support. The results revealed that during this period, students reported low levels of exercise and physical activity time, increased time spent in front of a screen, low life satisfaction, higher rates of receiving and needing psychological support, and higher levels of negative affect, depression, anxiety, and brief symptoms. Furthermore, the results showed that positive affect and resilience are protective factors for psychological health. The findings of the study highlighted the critical role of psychological support services at universities in promoting and preserving students' mental health.

While measures to protect people's physical health were prioritized with the COVID-19 pandemic (Sohrabi et al., 2020), mandatory social isolation of the population produced significant psychological consequences; thus, the adverse effects of this virus on psychological health such as loneliness, anxiety, depression (Galea et al., 2020), social withdrawal (Kato et al., 2020) have made it clear how crucial it is to pay attention to the pandemic's psychological effects (Brooks et al., 2020; Holmes et al., 2020; Rogers et al., 2020).

The pandemic's impact on psychological health could manifest itself in the short, medium, and long term. The short-term psychological impacts of the pandemic may resemble the first reactions to traumatic experiences (e.g., shock, freezing, fighting). There are many studies focusing on the short-term effects of the pandemic on psychological health (e.g., Braquehais et al., 2020; Carriedo et al., 2020; Dawson & Golijani-Moghaddam, 2020; Ripon et al., 2020). On the other hand, previous pandemics have shown that psychological effects of pandemic last longer than physical effects (Shigemura et al., 2020). Thus, the long-term psychological impacts of the pandemic could bring to mind the symptoms of Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder, which were limited

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results.

Long-term effects of pandemic on students

Although COVID-19 had an impact on several groups, one of the groups negatively affected by the epidemic was students. Especially, students' daily routines suddenly changed because of shifting to online education. Undoubtedly, the effects of this change might be different for primary school, high school, and university students. Especially, senior year high school students experienced increased stress because of the pressure of university entrance exams combined with the uncertainty of the exam's timing and conditions caused by COVID-19 (Giannopoulou et al., 2021). According to reports, depression and anxiety among senior high school students increased during the lockdown, and the level of psychological distress was a significant risk factor of poor psychological health during the lockdown. Moreover, It was highlighted that students taking the exam during Covid-19 had experienced higher anxiety than the others taking the exam before Covid-19 (Fernandez-Castillo, 2021). Even students of all educational level have experienced difficulties in different ways during Covid-19. However, there is a commonality between these groups: "new" daily routine has limited students' social support (Liu et al., 2020) although social support was reported one of the protective factors for psychological health (Li et al., 2021). Boyraz and Legros (2020) found that restricted social support was associated with the level of anxiety, depression, stress, and loneliness of university students. Additionally, spending more time in front of screen and social media, being exposed to bad news more frequently, and decreasing the level of physical activity are all risk factors for university students developing psychological symptoms (Browning et al., 2021; Fennell et al., 2022; Giri & Maurya, 2021; Islam et al., 2021).

However, thanks to the development of the Covid-19 vaccine, the virus's spread has been limited, and the normalization process has begun. As a result of this procedure, face-to-face education began in Turkey in September 2021. Thanks to the invention of vaccine, the virus' spread has been limited and the normalization process has begun. As a result of this procedure, face-to-face education began in Turkey in September 2021. During this period, university students begun their lessons by abiding to specific rules, such as wearing a mask and maintaining social distance in the classroom. It was suggested that this period, called "new-normal", could be a stressor for both university employees and students (Liu et al., 2020). Moreover, studies have found a link between psychological resilience (which is defined as the capacity of quickly recovering from a stressful circumstance and returning to one's usual life) and lower levels of anxiety, sadness, and physical symptoms (Doğan, 2015; Kılıç, 2014; Song et al., 2021). Before the COVID-19, most studies studies on the mental health of university students have generally focused on how well they adjusted to the university life (Özkan & Yılmaz, 2010), psychological state (İlhan et al., 2014), quality of life and happiness levels (Akyüz et al., 2017), depressive symptoms and hopelessness level (Çam & Erkorkmaz, 2008), leisure activities (Akyüz & Türkmen, 2016), and technology addiction (Demir & Kumcagiz, 2019). In the literature, few studies have been conducted to investigate the medium and long-term effects of the COVID-19 on psychological well-being of university students (Gündoğan, 2022; Horita et al., 2022). Therefore, focusing and understanding the "new-normal" and medium to long-term effects of the pandemic on university students' psychological health could be beneficial in preventing psychological disorders before they occur and/or later in reducing their severity.

Based on this need, the aim of this study was to examine the mid-term effect of COVID-19 on psychological health of university students. For this aim, students' psychological situations were investigated in terms of the level of depression, state anxiety, trait anxiety, psychological resilience, positive and negative affect, and brief psychological symptoms. The following research questions were attempted to be answered in the current study: (1) Do the variables of chronic illness, time spent on exercise, time spent on physical activity, time spent in front of screen, life satisfaction, receiving psychological support and needing psychological support have effect on depression, state anxiety, trait anxiety, resilience, psychological symptoms experienced by COVID-19 in the medium term? (2) Which of variables explain psychological symptoms experienced in the medium term of COVID-19?

Method

Participants

The sample of the current study consisted of 224 undergraduate students ($\bar{X} = 19.52$, $SD = 1.52$ years, range: 17 to 25). Data was collected from 23 different universities in Turkey, mostly from Yalova University ($N = 161$). 81.3% of the sample was first grade and the remaining sample consisted of second grade (4.5%), third grade (5.4%), fourth grade (6.7%) and preparatory grade (2.2%).

There is a demographic characteristic of sample in Table 1. Accordingly, 88.4% of the students do not have any chronic illness, 11.6% of them have a chronic illness; 33% of them received psychological support, 67% did not receive psychological support, 50.9% of them did not need psychological support, and 49.1% needed psychological support. Besides that, 51.3% of the students have been physically active for at least one hour a day for the past week and 64.7% of the students exercise at most once a week. Moreover, 55.4% of them spend their time on screen for more than four hours in a day. Finally, 44.3% of students have low life satisfaction and 55.7% high life satisfaction.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the sample ($N = 224$)

| Variables | N | Percentage (%) |
|------------------------------|-----|----------------|
| Had have any chronic illness | | |
| No | 198 | 88.4 |
| Yes | 26 | 11.6 |
| Taken psychological support | | |
| No | 150 | 67 |
| Yes | 74 | 33 |
| Needed psychological support | | |
| No | 114 | 50.9 |
| Yes | 110 | 49.1 |
| Exercise time | | |
| Low | 145 | 64.7 |
| High | 79 | 35.3 |
| Physical activity | | |
| Low | 109 | 48.7 |
| High | 115 | 51.3 |
| Screen Time | | |
| Low | 100 | 44.6 |
| High | 124 | 55.4 |
| SWL | | |
| Low | 99 | 44.3 |
| High | 125 | 55.7 |

Note. SWL = Satisfaction with life, N = Number of participants.

Data Collection Procedure

After receiving ethical approval from intuition of Yalova University Human Research Ethics Committee for the current study, a booklet was created on Google Form to collect data via online. Informed consent form and other measurement tools described below were included in the study. After participants read the description of the study offered the option of voluntary participation, other measurement tools were screened. To preserve the privacy of the participants, no personal information was included in the survey. Participation in the study last approximately 15 minutes. The data collection process, which started one month after the institutions started teaching, took a total of three weeks.

Data Collection Tools

Demographic Form. Age, socioeconomic status, whether they have had any chronic illness, time spent on exercise, time spent on physical activity, time spent on screen, satisfaction with life (SWL), taken psychological support and needed psychological support were questioned. In line with the aim of the study, the responses from the variables of Exercise time, Physical activity, Screen Time, SWL were grouped as low and high in scoring in order to reveal the effects of COVID-19 on psychological health. Thus, scores on time spent on exercise, time spent on physical activity, time spent on screen and SWL were used to separate participants into low and high. Time spent on exercise and time spent on physical activity were measured by 7-point scale whose cut-off point was 4. Time spent on screen was calculated by 14-point scale whose cut off point was 7. Moreover, SWL was measured by 10-point scale whose cut off point was 6. In order to decide the cut off points, the median point was taken into account.

Beck Depression Inventory (BDI). Participants' depression level was measured by BDI in this study. It is a self-report measurement developed to assess the level of depression with 21 questions. Each question is responded four possible answers rated by their intensity. Scores between 0-9 stand for no depression; 10-18 stand for mild-to-moderate depression; 19-29 stand for moderate-to-severe depression, and 30-63 stand for severe depression (Beck et al., 1988). Turkish version of BDI was developed by Hisli (1988). Internal consistency coefficient of the scale was .80. In this study, its Cronbach's alpha was .86.

State and Trait Anxiety Scale (STAT). STAT was developed to measure the level of state and trait anxiety (Spielberg et al., 1970). While state anxiety means how anxious people are under specific time and situations, trait anxiety means how anxious people are in general like a personality trait. Thus, the measurement has two separate scales to measure them which consist of 20 items each. These items are rated by 4-point Likert type scale. The Turkish version of the scale was developed (Öner & Le Compte, 1985), and whereas for the subscale of state anxiety, test-retest reliability was found between .26 and .86, for the subscale of trait anxiety, test-retest reliability was found between .71 and .86. In this study, Cronbach's alphas were .52 and .71 for the subscales of state and trait anxiety, respectively.

Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI). BSI was developed to measure several psychological symptoms with 53 items rated by 5-point Likert type scale (0 = not at all; 4 = extremely; Derogatis, 1992). BSI has nine subscales (i.e., anxiety, depression, somatization, hostility, phobic anxiety, obsession-compulsion, interpersonal sensitivity, paranoid ideation, and psychoticism) and three global indices of distress (global severity index, positive symptom distress index and positive symptom total). Its Turkish version was developed and grouped into five subscales (anxiety, depression, negative self, somatization, and hostility) while three global indices of distress stayed the same (Şahin & Durak, 1994). Its internal consistency coefficient was .98 for total score. In this study, its Cronbach alpha for total score was .96.

Connor Davidson-Resilience Scale (CD-RISC). CD-RISC was developed to measure the level of psychological resilience with 25 items ranged by 5-point Likert scale (0 = not true at all; 4 = true nearly all of the time) and higher scores stand for greater resilience (Connor and Davidson, 2003). Its internal consistent reliability was found as .89. The Turkish version of the scale was developed, and its Cronbach's alpha was reported as .92 (Kararmak, 2010). In this study, its Cronbach's alpha was .93.

Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS). PANAS is a self-report measurement created to measure positive and negative trait affect with 20 items (Watson et al., 1988). Each of both subscales consists of ten words describing feelings and emotions rated by 5-point Likert type scale (1 = not at all; 5 = extremely). Higher scores mean higher positive and negative affect level. Its Turkish version was created (Gencöz, 2000). Cronbach's alphas were .81 and .79 for positive and negative affect, respectively. In this study, its Cronbach's alphas were .89 and .86 for the subscale of positive affect and negative affect, respectively.

Data Analysis

Before conducting the analysis of correlational survey model, normally distribution was checked (between -1.50 and +1.50) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). All of the variables were normally disturbed (for depression .87 and 1.14; for state anxiety .40 and -.37; for trait anxiety -.05 and -.64; for positive affect -.12 and -.54; for negative affect .71 and -.09; for resilience -.36 and -.08; for psychological symptoms .52 and -.43; skewness

and kurtosis respectively). To analyze group differences on psychological health, Independent Samples t-test was conducted with the independent variables of chronic illness (whether they have had any chronic illness or not), exercise (how frequently they exercise in their free time), physical activity (how much they are active at less than 60 minutes in the last 7 days), screen time (time spent in front of the screen), satisfaction with life (SWL; how satisfied they are with their life), psychological support taken (whether they have taken any kind of psychological support) and psychology support needed (whether they claim they need any kind of psychological support). Dependent variables were depression, state anxiety, trait anxiety, positive and negative affect, resilience, and psychological symptoms including depression, anxiety, negative self, somatization, and hostility. In the second part of the analysis, a multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to explain the variance of the variable of psychological symptoms measured by BSI.

Results

Descriptive characteristics of continuous variables were shown at Table 2. The values of arithmetic mean, standard deviation and standard error mean, respectively; $\bar{X} = 30.21$, $SD = 8.75$, $S.E. \text{ Mean} = .58$ for positive affect, $\bar{X} = 20.88$, $SD = 7.88$, $S.E. \text{ Mean} = .53$ for negative affect; $\bar{X} = 86.78$, $SD = 18.43$, $S.E. \text{ Mean} = 1.23$ for resilience; $\bar{X} = 14.55$, $SD = 8.95$, $S.E. \text{ Mean} = .60$ for Beck Depression Inventory; $\bar{X} = 42.44$, $SD = 11.49$, $S.E. \text{ Mean} = .77$ for state anxiety; $\bar{X} = 45.55$, $SD = 10.97$, $S.E. \text{ Mean} = .73$ for trait anxiety; $\bar{X} = 116.98$, $SD = 39.31$, $S.E. \text{ Mean} = 2.63$ for Brief Symptom Inventory.

Table 2. Descriptive characteristics of continuous variables (N = 224)

| Variables | \bar{X} | SD | S.E. Mean |
|---------------------------|-----------|-------|-----------|
| Positive affect | 30.21 | 8.75 | .58 |
| Negative affect | 20.88 | 7.88 | .53 |
| Resilience | 86.78 | 18.43 | 1.23 |
| Beck Depression Inventory | 14.55 | 8.95 | .60 |
| State anxiety | 42.44 | 11.49 | .77 |
| Trait anxiety | 45.55 | 10.97 | .73 |
| Brief Symptom Inventory | 116.98 | 39.31 | 2.63 |

Note. \bar{X} = Mean, SD = Standard deviation, S.E. Mean = Standard error of the mean.

Descriptive statistics of the independent and dependent variables and the results of Independent Samples t-test analyses were shown on Table 3.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics of the independent and dependent variables and the results of independent t-test analyses.

| DV | | D | | | | | SA | | | | TA | | | | PA | | | | NA | | | |
|--------------------|--------|-----|-----------|------|-------|-----|-----------|-------|-------|-----|-----------|-------|-------|-----|-----------|------|-------|-----|-----------|------|-------|-----|
| | | N | \bar{X} | SD | t | p | \bar{X} | SD | t | p | \bar{X} | SD | t | p | \bar{X} | SD | t | p | \bar{X} | SD | t | p |
| IV | Groups | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Chronic illness | No | 198 | 14.23 | 8.96 | -1.49 | .14 | 42.09 | 11.61 | -1.25 | .21 | 44.95 | 11.03 | -2.11 | .04 | 29.73 | 8.48 | -2.32 | .02 | 20.53 | 7.80 | -1.89 | .06 |
| | Yes | 26 | 17.00 | 8.62 | | | 45.08 | 10.38 | | | 49.73 | 9.74 | | | 33.92 | 10.0 | | | 23.62 | 8.08 | | |
| Exercise time | High | 79 | 13.85 | 9.39 | -.87 | .39 | 42.67 | 11.83 | .22 | .82 | 42.62 | 11.45 | -2.95 | .00 | 32.75 | 7.80 | 3.27 | .00 | 20.65 | 8.51 | -.33 | .74 |
| | Low | 145 | 14.94 | 8.71 | | | 42.31 | 11.35 | | | 47.08 | 10.41 | | | 28.83 | 8.95 | | | 21.01 | 7.53 | | |
| Physical activity | High | 109 | 13.11 | 8.16 | -2.38 | .02 | 41.45 | 11.31 | -1.25 | .21 | 44.61 | 10.48 | -1.20 | .23 | 31.41 | 7.94 | 2.01 | .04 | 20.60 | 7.77 | -.53 | .60 |
| | Low | 115 | 15.92 | 9.47 | | | 43.37 | 11.64 | | | 46.36 | 11.40 | | | 29.08 | 9.35 | | | 21.16 | 8.00 | | |
| Screen time | High | 124 | 15.81 | 8.46 | 2.36 | .02 | 43.48 | 11.48 | 1.52 | .13 | 47.86 | 10.54 | 3.68 | .00 | 28.73 | 8.35 | -2.88 | .00 | 21.90 | 8.03 | 2.18 | .03 |
| | Low | 100 | 13.00 | 9.33 | | | 41.14 | 11.44 | | | 42.58 | 10.84 | | | 32.06 | 8.92 | | | 19.62 | 7.53 | | |
| SWL | High | 127 | 11.32 | 6.73 | -6.46 | .00 | 38.29 | 9.92 | -6.76 | .00 | 41.17 | 9.86 | -7.58 | .00 | 31.97 | 8.59 | 3.52 | .00 | 18.59 | 6.93 | -5.28 | .00 |
| | Low | 97 | 18.78 | 9.73 | | | 47.86 | 11.20 | | | 51.18 | 9.74 | | | 27.92 | 8.46 | | | 23.89 | 8.06 | | |
| Psych. sup. taken | No | 150 | 12.88 | 8.66 | -4.13 | .00 | 40.98 | 43.95 | -2.74 | .01 | 43.95 | 11.24 | -3.08 | .00 | 30.12 | 8.99 | -.23 | .82 | 19.41 | 7.26 | -4.14 | .00 |
| | Yes | 74 | 17.95 | 8.61 | | | 45.39 | 48.66 | | | 48.66 | 9.74 | | | 30.40 | 8.30 | | | 23.88 | 8.27 | | |
| Psych. sup. needed | No | 114 | 11.13 | 7.24 | -6.29 | .00 | 37.87 | 10.05 | -6.61 | .00 | 40.33 | 9.96 | -8.17 | .00 | 31.43 | 8.72 | 2.13 | .03 | 17.82 | 7.06 | -6.43 | .00 |
| | Yes | 110 | 18.10 | 9.20 | | | 47.17 | 11.00 | | | 50.86 | 9.30 | | | 28.96 | 8.64 | | | 24.05 | 7.44 | | |

| | DV | R | | | | PS | | | |
|-------------------|--------|-----------|-------|-------|-----|-----------|-------|-------|-----|
| | | \bar{X} | SD | t | p | \bar{X} | SD | t | p |
| IV | Groups | | | | | | | | |
| Chronic illness | No | 86.38 | 17.98 | -.88 | .38 | 114.12 | 38.67 | -3.06 | .00 |
| | Yes | 89.77 | 21.69 | | | 138.74 | 38.01 | | |
| Exercise time | High | 90.06 | 19.31 | 1.98 | .04 | 112.39 | 43.07 | -1.24 | .22 |
| | Low | 84.98 | 17.75 | | | 119.48 | 37.02 | | |
| Physical activity | High | 87.61 | 18.55 | .66 | .51 | 114.23 | 39.52 | -1.02 | .31 |
| | Low | 85.98 | 18.36 | | | 119.59 | 39.10 | | |
| Screen time | High | 82.88 | 16.03 | -3.53 | .00 | 124.21 | 38.30 | 3.13 | .00 |
| | Low | 91.60 | 20.08 | | | 108.01 | 38.87 | | |
| SWL | High | 90.75 | 18.44 | 3.80 | .00 | 103.44 | 33.53 | -6.41 | .00 |
| | Low | 81.58 | 17.16 | | | 134.71 | 39.41 | | |
| Psyc. sup. taken | No | 87.51 | 18.30 | .85 | .40 | 107.83 | 36.28 | -5.25 | .00 |
| | Yes | 85.28 | 18.72 | | | 135.52 | 38.90 | | |
| Psyc.sup. needed | No | 89.65 | 18.87 | 2.40 | .02 | 99.44 | 32.94 | -7.62 | .00 |
| | Yes | 83.80 | 17.55 | | | 135.16 | 37.17 | | |

Note. IV= Independent variables, DV = Dependent variables, D = Depression, SA = State anxiety, TA = Trait anxiety, PA = Positive affect, NA = Negative affect, R = Resilience, PS = Psychological symptoms, SWL = Satisfaction with life, \bar{X} = Mean, SD = Standard deviation.

People with any chronic illness had higher trait anxiety score ($t(222) = -2.11, p < .05$), higher positive affect score ($t(222) = -2.32, p < .05$), and higher psychological symptoms ($t(222) = -3.06, p < .05$) than people without any chronic illness had. Moreover, positive affect was differed on exercise level and physical activity level. People spending more time on exercising ($t(222) = 3.27, p < .05$) and physical activity ($t(222) = 2.01, p < .05$) had higher positive affect score than people spending less time spending on exercise and physical activity had. However, while people with high exercise level had less trait anxiety ($t(222) = -2.95, p < .05$) and higher resilience ($t(222) = 1.98, p < .05$) than people with low exercise level did, people with high physical level had less depression than people with low physical level ($t(222) = -2.38, p < .05$) did. Additionally, there were significant differences between people spending more and less time on screen in terms of depression, trait anxiety, positive affect, negative affect, resilience, and psychological symptoms. Higher time spent on screen was associated with higher depression ($t(222) = 2.36, p < .05$), higher trait anxiety ($t(222) = 3.68, p < .001$), lower positive affect ($t(222) = -2.88, p < .05$), higher negative affect ($t(222) = 2.18, p < .05$), lower resilience ($t(222) = -3.53, p < .05$) and higher psychological symptoms ($t(222) = 3.13, p < .05$).

Additionally, people who had taken any psychological support and people who had not taken any psychological support differed from each other on scores of the variable of depression, state anxiety, trait anxiety, negative affect, and psychological symptoms. The former had higher scores on all of them than the latter, $t(222) = -4.13, p < .001$, $t(222) = -2.74, p < .05$, $t(222) = -3.08, p < .001$, $t(222) = -5.25, p < .001$, respectively.

People who claimed that they needed psychological support differed from people who claimed that they did not need psychological support in terms of all dependent variables, for depression $t(206) = -6.29, p < .001$, for state anxiety, $t(222) = -6.61, p < .001$, for trait anxiety, $t(222) = -8.17, p < .001$, for positive affect $t(222) = 2.13, p < .05$, for negative affect, $t(222) = -6.43, p < .001$, for resilience, $t(222) = 2.40, p < .05$ and for psychological symptoms, $t(222) = -7.62, p < .001$.

Moreover, people with high SWL differed from people with low SWL in terms of all dependent variables, for depression $t(162) = -6.46, p < .001$, for state anxiety, $t(222) = -6.76, p < .001$, for trait anxiety, $t(222) = -7.58, p < .001$, for positive affect $t(222) = 3.52, p < .001$, for negative affect, $t(222) = -5.28, p < .05$, for resilience, $t(222) = 3.80, p < .001$ and for psychological symptoms, $t(222) = -6.41, p < .001$.

For the second part of the results, the multiple linear regression analysis was conducted for the variable of psychological symptoms measured by BSI. Correlation of the variables were shown at Table 4 and the results of the multiple linear regression analysis were shown at Table 5.

As can be seen in Table 4, while there was a positive relationship between BSI and negative affect ($r = .82, p < .001$); there were negative relationships between BSI and positive affect, resilience, and satisfaction with life ($r = -.23, p < .001$; $r = -.26, p < .001$; $r = -.43, p < .001$, respectively). Positive affect had a negative relationship with negative affect ($r = -.17, p < .001$), and positive relationships with resilience and satisfaction with life ($r = .63, p < .001$; $r = .31, p < .001$, respectively). Negative affect had negative correlations with both resilience and satisfaction with life ($r = -.32, p < .001$; $r = -.39, p < .001$, respectively). In addition, there was a positive relationship between resilience and SW ($r = .36, p < .001$).

Table 4. Correlations between the variables used for multiple linear regression analysis.

| Variables | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|-----------|---|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| 1.BSI | 1 | -.23** | .82** | -.26** | -.43** |
| 2. PA | | 1 | -.17** | .63** | .31** |
| 3. NA | | | 1 | -.32** | -.39** |
| 4. R | | | | 1 | .36** |
| 5. SWL | | | | | 1 |

Note. BSI = Brief symptom inventory, PA = Positive affect, NA = Negative affect, R = Resilience, and SWL = satisfaction with life.

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

With all predictors in the equation, it was found that $R^2 = .69, F(4, 219) = 123.46, p < .05$. The adjusted R^2 value of .69 indicates that more than two third of the variability in psychological symptoms measured by BSI was explained by these variables (see in Table 5). According to the results of multiple regression analysis to determine the predictive level of PA, NA, Resilience scale scores, and Life Satisfaction scores on BSI scores, all scores showed a high and significant relationship with BSI scores. When the results regarding the significance of the regression coefficients were examined, PA ($\beta = -.13$), NA ($\beta = .78$), Resilience ($\beta = -.11$), SWL scores ($\beta = -.13$) were found to have a significant effect on BSI scores ($p < .05$). In addition, considering the VIF and Tolerance values, it was decided that there was no multicollinearity between the variables.

Table 5. The result of the multiple linear regression analysis for the variable of psychological symptoms measured by BSI.

| Predictors | B | SD | B 95% CI [LL, UL] | β | t | p |
|--|-------|-------|----------------------|---------|-------|-----|
| Constant | 39.3 | 10.42 | [25.96, 67.01] | | 4.47 | .00 |
| PA | -.56 | .22 | [-1.0, -.13] | -.13 | -2.56 | .01 |
| NA | 3.90 | .20 | [3.49, 4.31] | .78 | 18.75 | .00 |
| R | -.24 | .10 | [-.02, -.45] | -.11 | -2.17 | .03 |
| SWL | -2.52 | .85 | [-4.20, -.83] | -.13 | -2.95 | .00 |
| R=.83 R²=.69 F_(4, 219)= 123.46, p <.05 | | | | | | |

Note. PA = positive affect, NA = negative affect, R = resilience, SWL = satisfaction with life.

Discussion

Pandemics that affect society with different way have clearly negative consequences on people's life (Trauer et al., 2011). From previous pandemics, it is known that psychological effects of pandemic last more than physical one (Shigemura et al., 2020). Even, some researchers reported that COVID-19 is a risk factor of panic, anxiety, depression and post-traumatic stress disorders (e.g., Jakovljevic et al., 2020). As a result, it is critical to reassess university students' psychological health and identify areas of need before returning to face-to-face education. Because of switching from face-to-face education to online education, especially young generation has exposed to adverse effects of pandemic in a variety of ways (Lee, 2020; Zengin & Şengel, 2020). It was reported that having stressors during pandemic, experiencing changes in daily life, switching to online education and diminished social support were the causes of increasing the level of anxiety of university students (Cao et al., 2020). With the increased number of diagnosis of depression, anxiety disorders (Costello et al., 2003) and internalizing problems (Görmez et al., 2017), university students could be more at risk in terms of experiencing psychological problems (O'Brien, 2010). Besides that, it was appointed that psychological health of university students is worsening by increased the level of anxiety and fear caused by pandemic (Mei et al., 2011). Moreover, psychological problems experienced during college may result in deteriorating mental health, which has the potential to impair individuals' daily functioning (Dursun et al., 2010).

Current research aimed to investigate psychological problems of university students in these days when face-to-face education has returned due to the release of the COVID-19 precautions. Examining the findings of the research, psychological support emerged as an important area of need. Students who stated needing psychological support had higher scores for depression, state anxiety, trait anxiety, negative affect, and psychological symptoms than those who stated not needing psychological support. Moreover, students who reported that they needed support, experienced lower resilience, and positive affect. Furthermore, it was shown that students who taken or needed psychological support had higher depression, state anxiety, trait anxiety, negative affect, and psychological symptom scores. Having a chronic disease was identified as one of the significant factors to this increase. People with chronic disease exhibited greater trait anxiety negative affect, and psychological symptoms than those without chronic disease. Other studies have supported the role of chronic illness in the psychological effects of COVID-19 on individuals (e.g., Özdin & Bayrak-Özdin, 2020). In addition, it was reported that individuals who felt anxious and depressed during COVID-19 and who needed psychological help had higher psychological symptoms than those who did not (Wang et al., 2020).

Physical activity has been difficult to maintain during the pandemic's stay-at-home period. In the context of the current study, it was observed that 64.7% of the students engaged in physical exercise no more than once

a week, while 55.4% spent more than four hours per day in front of the screen. According to other studies that support this finding, the physical activity level of university students was low during the pandemic, with 30.7% of students not being physically active (Bulguroğlu et al., 2021). A meta-analysis reported that approximately 40-50% of university students were not physically active (Keating et al., 2005). However, it was noted that inactivity is a significant factor in the decline of mental and physical health (Pinto et al., 2017). Additionally, physical inactivity significantly predicts high perceived stress (Aslan et al., 2020). In another research, it was supported there is a negative association between university students' physical activity level and depression symptoms, and a positive relationship with quality of life (Tekin et al., 2009). Students' exposure to online education and the pandemic may both contribute to an increase in the likelihood that they will lead a sedentary lifestyle. It was reported that this increase could have a negative influence on the quality of life of students (Bulguroğlu et al., 2021). Similarly, it was discovered in this study that people who spent more time on exercising and engaging in physical activity had a higher positive effect score than people who spent less time on it. In addition, those with a high level of exercise had lower trait anxiety and greater resilience than those with a low level of exercise, while those with a high level of physical activity had lower levels of depression. In addition, those with a high level of exercise had lower trait anxiety and greater resilience than those with a low level of exercise, while those with a high level of physical activity had lower levels of depression. Higher screen time was associated with higher depression, trait anxiety, negative affect, higher psychological symptoms, and lower positive affect and resilience. As a result of them, it can be said that presence of physical activity was pivotal in improving psychological health and this was supported by other research findings (eg., Fisher & Heymann, 2020).

Another finding of the study was that 44.3% of university students were dissatisfied their lives. Those individuals had higher levels of depression, state anxiety, trait anxiety, negative affect, and psychological symptoms, while those individuals had lower levels of resilience and positive affect. In addition, positive affect, negative affect, resilience, and life satisfaction were found as significantly associated with psychological symptom scores. While there was a negative relationship between psychological symptoms and positive affect, resilience and life satisfaction, psychological symptoms had a positive relationship with negative affect and life satisfaction. This finding may provide evidence that anxiety and depression of students having risen after the pandemic (Zhai & Du, 2020). According to reports, students find working at home more challenging than working at school and working at home is associated with greater levels of self-negation and depression (Chena et al., 2020). On the other hand, despite negative effects of COVID-19 on the psychological health of university students, resilience plays a crucial role on coping with those effects. People with high psychological resilience can deal with problems in their daily lives more effectively. Therefore, resilience can be viewed as a protective factor that helps in the reduction of stressors and prevention of psychological disorders. Çuhadar et al. (2014) discovered a negative relationship between BSI-measured psychological symptoms and level of resilience. According to Bozdağ (2020), people who experienced high levels of depression and anxiety during the COVID-19 have lower levels of psychological resilience than others.

There were some limitations of this study. Gender of the participants was not examined and majority of them were Yalova University students. In future studies, it is recommended that gender be look at to see how the mental health of college students varies by gender. Moreover, to improve the generalizability of the findings, larger number of university students from different cities should be included in the study.

In conclusion, the current study examined the psychological health of university students returning to face-to-face education after the COVID-19 pandemic in terms of the effect of chronic illness, duration of exercise, physical activity, screen time, level of life satisfaction, taking and needing psychological support, positive affect, negative affect, resilience, and psychological symptoms. According to the findings of the study, the

level of psychological symptoms of university students is positively associated with chronic illness, time spent doing exercise, physical activity, and in front of the screen, taking psychological support, needing psychological support, and level of negative affect. Furthermore, resilience and life satisfaction have emerged as protective factors in the improvement of psychological health. The current study yielded significant findings in determining the factors influencing the psychological health of university students who continued their education after the pandemic. This study suggests that providing psychological support services for university students and taking steps to increase the number of students who can benefit from these services are becoming increasingly crucial in order to meet the demand for psychological support and improve psychological health.

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Personality Traits, Interpersonal Conflict Resolution Strategies and Coping Skills among X, Y, Z Generations

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to investigate the differences in personality traits, interpersonal conflict resolution strategies, and coping skills among generations X, Y, and Z. The study included 433 participants (257 female and 176 male) which are composed of Generation X (n = 141), Generation Y (n = 165), Generation Z (n = 127). The data was obtained by the Demographic Information Form, The Big Five Inventory (BFI), Conflict Communication Scale (CCS) and Coping Skills Scale (The Brief- COPE). The study results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in personality traits (agreeableness, extraversion, openness to experience, conscientiousness, neuroticism) among the three generations. Additionally, Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z differed in their use of certain conflict resolution strategies (confrontation, emotional expression, and self-disclosure) and coping skills (substance use, suppression of competing activities, denial, restraint, positive reinterpretation, and planning).

In modern life, numerous phenomena are continuously changing and developing every day. Technology, in particular, has a great impact on individuals and their daily lives, including family, social and business relationships, as well as various fields such as economy, politics, culture, art and science. In this rapidly changing and developing world, it is necessary for individuals to adapt to technology and embrace change. This can lead to differences in individuals' perceptions, expectations, and perspectives, which in turn can affect their behavior. Generation classifications emerge as a result of these interactions (Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2013).

The Concept of Generation

People who are born in the same time period, share similar knowledge and experiences, live under similar conditions, have similar responsibilities, and are influenced by similar social, economic, cultural and political events (Kupperschmidt, 2000). Generational cohorts can also be shaped by the historical context of each country (Urlick & Arslantas, 2018). Therefore, Turkish generation classification proposed by Adıgüzel, Batur, and Ekşili (2014) was utilized in the present study. According to this categorization, those born between 1923 and 1945 were considered as the Silent Generation or Traditionalists, those born between 1946 and 1964 as the Baby Boomers Generation, those born between 1965 and 1979 as Generation X, those born between 1980 and 1999 as Generation Y, and those born after 2000 were considered as Generation Z.

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Individuals of Generation X (those born between 1965 and 1979) are often characterized as intelligent, mobile and highly educated thanks to technological advancements. They tend to be hardworking, independent and skeptical, with qualities such as being frugal, cautious, entertaining, competing and dynamic (Fox, 2011; Reilly, 2012). Individuals of Generation Y (those born between 1980 and 2000) have superior skills to use new technologies compared to previous generations, have the opportunity to achieve new standards in achieving the goals through relationships and communication. They are open to change and innovation, extraverted, impatient, but also have a high sense of trust (Gabriel, da Silva, & Moretti, 2014; Tarçalır, 2015). Generation Z (those born between 2000 and after) has been described as “New Silent Generation” due to their extreme individualization and tendency to live independently (Strauss & Howe, 1991). They are known for their interest in world tastes, their ability to quickly grasp and utilize technology (Berkman, 2009; Williams, 2010). While each generation has its own characteristics, personality is a deeper, more complex aspect that shapes how an individual interacts with adapts to their environment.

Personality

Personality described as the dynamic organization within an individual of those psychophysical systems that determine their unique adjustments to their environment (Allport, 1937). People have distinct personality traits that make them unique (Allport, 1961). Goldberg (1981) was the first researcher to use the concept of five factors to measure personality traits. Lately, McCrea and Costa (1985) introduced the “Big Five Model,” which identifies five main personality traits: Extraversion (E), Openness to Experience (O), Agreeableness (A), Conscientiousness (C) and Neuroticism (N). Each of these traits has sub-dimensions that differentiate individuals from one another. For example, extraversion includes traits such as being active, ambitious, assertive, sociable, expressive and talkative. Neuroticism includes traits such as being ashamed, emotional, anxious, worried, insecure, depressed, and angry. Conscientiousness includes features such as being careful, hardworking, responsible, organized, and persevering. Agreeableness includes traits like being good natured, forgiving, soft hearted, cooperative, courteous, flexible, and trusting. Openness to Experience includes traits such as being curious, artistically sensitive, original, imaginative, cultured, broad minded, and intelligent (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

Previous studies demonstrated that there are generational differences in personality traits. Brandt, Drewelies, Willis, Schaie, Ram, Gerstorf ve Wagner (2022) found that later-born cohorts had lower levels of agreeableness and neuroticism and higher levels of extraversion and openness to experience compared to earlier-born cohorts. In a study conducted with nurses revealed that Generation X has higher levels of agreeableness, conscientiousness and neuroticism than Generation Y (Emory, Lee, Kippenbrock, Boyd, Chen, & Harless, 2022). Lissitsa ve Kol (2021) found significant differences in personality traits between Baby Boomers, Generation X, Y and Z, particularly in terms of conscientiousness and neuroticism. Baby Boomers demonstrated the highest levels of conscientiousness, while Generation Z reported the highest levels of neuroticism. While Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z live together in society, conflicts from different personality traits are likely to occur.

Interpersonal Conflict Resolution Strategies

Interpersonal conflicts which occur in all kinds of groups in social life can have many reasons such as the background of the person or conflict, the structure in which the conflict is experienced, personal values, communicative processes, mutual obstacles, feelings of incompatibility and tension, anxiety, hostility or negative expressions (Barki & Hartwick, 2001; Cahn, 1990; Canary, Cupach, & Messman, 1995; Cupach & Canary, 2000; Dökmen, 1994; Mayer, 2000; Wall & Callister, 1995). Conflict resolution described as a process in which strategies are used to end the conflict and resolve problems through compromise (Jandt & Pedersen, 1996; Rahim, Garrett, & Buntzman, 1992). The positive or negative results of conflict are related to how it is perceived and which conflict resolution strategies are employed.

Goldstein (1999) focused on the communication styles of the individual which consist of strategies such as Confrontation, Public/Private Behavior, Conflict Approach/Avoidance, Self-disclosure, and Emotional Expression. The first important step to resolve the conflict is the confrontation of the parties involved. Confrontation, which plays a crucial role in effective and positive conflict resolution, refers to the degree of

confrontation of individuals during a conflict. Public/private behavior refers to the degree in which people are comfortable in their behavior during the conflict process. Some people are uncomfortable with the presence of third parties and limit their behavior, while others are comfortable in conflict situations, do not worry about the presence of others. Conflict approach/avoidance is directly related to how individuals perceive conflict in general; some may welcome it as constructive, positive and tolerant, while others may avoid it as they view it as destructive and negative. Self-disclosure refers to the degree to which individuals reveal information about themselves to another such as their needs, aspirations, goals, fears in conflict resolution processes. Lastly, emotional expression, which shows the degree to which individuals express their feelings, emphasizes that people express their emotions comfortably in conflict processes.

Personality plays a significant role in determining an individual's approach to conflict resolution. Research results indicated that extraversion, conscientiousness, openness to experience and agreeableness have a positive relationship with the integrating conflict style, but neuroticism has a negative relationship. Extraversion has a positive relationship with dominating conflict style, whereas dominating has a negative relationship with agreeableness and neuroticism. While extraversion, openness to experience and conscientiousness have a negative relationship with avoiding conflict style, it has positive relationship with agreeableness and neuroticism. Furthermore, the obliging conflict style was positively related to agreeableness and neuroticism, but negatively to extroversion. Additionally, agreeableness, extroversion, openness to experience, and conscientiousness have a positive association with the compromising conflict style (Antonioni, 1998; Ejaz, Iqbal, & Ara, 2012; Messarra, Karkoulin, & El-Kassar, 2016; Therani & Yamini, 2020; Wang, 2010).

Coping Skills

Coping described as the strategies that individuals use to adapt or adjust to challenging circumstances (Costa, Somerfield, & McCrae, 1996). These strategies, also known as coping skills, can be divided into categories such as problem-focused versus emotion-focused, functional versus dysfunctional, and approach versus avoidance (Garcia, Barraza-Pena, Wlodarczyk, Alvear-Carrasco, & Reyes, 2018). Problem-focused coping involves taking actions to address the stressor or reduce its impact. On the other hand, emotion-focused coping involves behaviors that aim to prevent, diminish, or reduce the emotional distress caused by the stressful situation (Garcia et al., 2018).

Cox and Ferguson (1991) explained functional coping in four dimensions as follows: approach coping, in which individuals address the stressor directly. Avoidance coping permits people to ignore the existence of the problem. Emotional regulation coping tolerates individuals to deal with the emotional effects of the stressor. Reappraisal coping, in which individuals change the meaning of the stressor. However, dysfunctional coping may involve avoidance, self-blame, or negative coping behaviors such as substance abuse (Crocker & Park, 2004) and a lack of reconstructive coping (Ekedahl & Wengström, 2006).

Several research indicated that conflict can have positive consequences such as growth of interpersonal relationships and shared understanding, contribution and balanced decision making (Chen, 2006; Kurtzberg & Muller, 2005; Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999; Pitt, 2005) and coping skills are the key determinants of the psychological adjustment and well-being (Monzani, Steca, Greco, D'Addario, Cappelletti, & Pancani, 2015).

To conclude, the studies about Generation X, Y, and Z are generally in the context of business life and technology. Hence, the findings of this study will be important to draw attention to the distinctive personality traits of generations, to understand the differences between the generations, to recognize the members of different generations and to establish a healthier communication with them. The current study aims to investigate the differences in personality traits, interpersonal conflict resolution strategies, and coping skills among Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z, filling a gap in the existing literature on this topic.

Method

Research Design

A correlational research model was used to investigate the differences in personality traits, interpersonal conflict resolution strategies, and coping skills among individuals from different generations (Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z). There are two types of correlational studies. In the type of correlation, the presence or degree of change among two or more variables is examined. In the comparison type, it is examined whether there is a difference according to the dependent variable in the groups that make up the based on the independent variable. This approach is used to study naturally occurring phenomena, does not involve manipulating or intervening in these phenomena (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2005). The correlational design is suitable for studying existing differences between variables, without the need for the researcher to manipulate or intervene in any way.

Participants

The current study consisted of 433 (257 female, 176 male) participants. Generation X was 141 (61 female, 80 male), Generation Y was 165 (107 female, 58 male) and Generation Z was 127 (89 female, 38 male) participants. Regarding the education level of participants, 2.1% of them ($n = 9$) were graduated from primary school, 2.5% of them ($n = 11$) were graduated from middle school, 28.9% of them ($n = 125$) were graduated from high school, 55.4% of them ($n = 240$) were graduated from university and 11.1% of them ($n = 48$) had Master's or doctoral degree. 37.6% of them ($n = 163$) were married, 38.8% of them ($n = 168$) were single and had relationship, 21.9% of them ($n = 95$) were single and had no relationship, 1.2% of them ($n = 5$) were divorced and 0.5% of them ($n = 2$) were widow. Regarding the socioeconomic level of participants, 4.8% of them ($n = 21$) were in low class, 84.3% of them ($n = 365$) were in middle class, 10.9% of them ($n = 47$) were in high class. Demographic characteristics of the samples were presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the sample

| Variables | | <i>N</i> | % |
|---------------------|--------------------------------|----------|------|
| Gender | Male | 257 | 59.4 |
| | Female | 176 | 40.6 |
| | Total | 433 | 100 |
| Birth Period | 1965 – 1979 | 141 | 32.6 |
| | 1980 – 1999 | 165 | 38.1 |
| | 2000 – 2005 | 127 | 29.3 |
| | Primary School | 9 | 2.1 |
| Educational Level | Middle School | 11 | 2.5 |
| | High School | 125 | 28.9 |
| | University | 240 | 55.4 |
| | Master's or Doctoral Degree | 48 | 11.1 |
| Marital Status | Married | 163 | 37.6 |
| | Single and has relationship | 168 | 38.8 |
| | Single and has no relationship | 95 | 21.9 |
| | Divorced | 5 | 1.2 |
| | Widow | 2 | .5 |
| Socioeconomic Level | Low Class | 21 | 4.8 |
| | Middle Class | 365 | 84.3 |
| | High Class | 47 | 10.9 |

Data Collection Instruments

The Big Five Inventory (BFI), which was developed by Benet-Martinez and John (1998), consists of 44 items and five subscales in order to measure the five personality factors (Extraversion, Neuroticism, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Openness to Experience). BFI is a five point-Likert type inventory, ranging from 1 = “strongly disagree” to 5 = “strongly agree”. The high scores obtained from each subscale show that the individual has that personality trait. The BFI was translated from English into 28 languages by Schmitt, Allik, McCrae, and Benet-Martinez (2007) and the Turkish validity and reliability study of this inventory was conducted by Sümer and Sümer (2005). In the Turkish adaptation study, the Cronbach’s α value for the “Extraversion” subscale was .74; for the “Neuroticism” subscale was .76; for the “Openness to Experience” subscale was .75; for the “Conscientiousness” was .77 and for the “Agreeableness” subscale was .67. The reliability analysis for BFI was also conducted in the present study, and the Cronbach’s α value was found as .61 for Agreeableness, .84 for Extraversion, .76 for Openness to Experience, .77 for Conscientiousness and .66 for Neuroticism.

Conflict Communication Scale (CCS) was developed by Goldstein (1999) and the validity and reliability study of the scale was conducted by Arslan (2005). The scale consists of five subscales including confrontation, public/private behavior, emotional expression, conflict approach/avoidance and self-disclosure. Each subscale constitutes 15 items and there are 75 items in total. CCS is a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) for each item. The high score from each subscale indicates a higher level of confrontation, self-disclosure, emotional expression, public behavior, and approaching to conflict. It was found that Cronbach’s α value in the “Confrontation” subscale as .70, in the “Private/Public Behavior” subscale as .83, in the “Emotional Expression” subscale as .75, in the “Conflict Approach/Avoidance” subscale as .83, and in the “Self-Disclosure” subscale as .75. In the current study, the Cronbach’s α value was found as .69 for confrontation, .83 for public/private behavior, .83 for emotional expression, .77 for conflict approach/avoidance, and .71 for self-disclosure in the present study.

The Brief-COPE (Coping Orientation to Problems Experienced) was developed by Carver, Scheier, and Weintraub (1989) to measure the different behavior styles when people show in situations that will cause stress. This inventory has 14 subscales, and there are 28 items in total. Individuals' responses are “1 = never do anything like this”, “2 = I do very little like this”, “3 = I do this moderately” and “4 = I do it mostly” in the form. Scores are obtained between 2 and 8 for each subscale. The validity and reliability study of Coping Skills Scale was conducted by Bacanlı, Sürücü, and İlhan (2013). It was found that the internal consistency coefficients of the subscales are as follows: Instrumental Social Support .78, Humor .92, Venting of Emotions .70, Substance Use .84, Acceptance .56, Suppression of Competing Activities .50, Religion .90, Denial .69, Behavioral Disengagement .59, Mental Disengagement .62, Restraint .39, Positive Reinterpretation .76, Emotional Social Support .85, and Planning .70. In the current study, the Cronbach’s α value for the instrumental social support subscale was .69, for the humor subscale was .90, for the venting of emotions subscale was .48, for the substance use was .86, for the acceptance subscale was .58, for the suppression of competing activities was .53, for the religion subscale was .86, for the denial subscale was .67, for the behavioral disagreement subscale was .66, for the mental disagreement subscale was .59, for the restraint subscale was .61, for the positive reinterpretation subscale was .70, for the emotional social support subscale was .52, for the planning subscale was .70.

Data Collection Procedure

The approval of Bahçeşehir University Ethics Committee (December 27, 2019, 20021704-604.02) was taken before starting the data collection process. Since the data were collected online, Informed Consent Form were given online to the participants. All four data collection instruments were prepared by using the website https://www.google.com/intl/tr_tr/forms/about/ at Google Forms as an online survey tool and were delivered to the participants via social media platforms such as Whatsapp Groups, Facebook and Instagram. It takes about 25 minutes to answer the scales. Data collection process took 3 months.

Data Analyses Procedure

In order to conduct statistical analyses, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was employed in the present study. First of all, mean, standard deviations, minimum and maximum values were controlled with the purpose to determine descriptive characteristics of the variable. Before conducting any statistical analysis, 6 participants were excluded from the data because they were outliers. Whether the subdimension scores obtained from personality traits, interpersonal conflict resolution strategies and coping skills scales differ according to Generation X, Generation Y, and Generation Z has been tested with Multiple Variance Analysis (MANOVA). In order to use MANOVA, kurtosis and skewness were analyzed to determine suitability of the scores to normal distribution. The skewness indices ranged between -1.06 and 1.52, and kurtosis indices ranged between -1.19 and 1.21. These indices fall within the acceptable range of -3 to 3 for both skewness and kurtosis (Kline, 2011) and indicated that the data was distributed normally.

Another assumption required for the use of MANOVA is to ensure the homogeneity of the variance-covariance matrices. The null hypothesis that the variance-covariance matrices are the same in all three groups was tested by using the Box's *M* test. If the assumption of homogeneity is met, this statistic should be non-significant. The significance of the Box's *M* test is affected by the number of participants. In cases where the number of participants is high, the Box's *M* test can easily be significant (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In this case, the significance level should be taken as .025, .01 (Mertler and Vannatta, 2010) or .001 (Pallant, 2005); if this assumption is also not met, it is suggested to use Pillai's Trace result instead of Wilks' Lambda (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In this study, due to the homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices is not met, Pillai's Trace value was used, and Bonferroni correction was applied to reduce the possibility Type-1 error and the statistical significance value was taken as .0125 instead of .05.

Results

Results Concerning the Differences in Personality Traits as a Function of Generation X, Generation Y and Generation Z

For the purpose of investigating the possible differences among the personality traits of Generation X, Generation Y and Generation Z, MANOVA was carried out using the subscales scores of Big Five Inventory (BFI). Box's *M* Test showed that the variance-covariance matrices are not homogeneous [Box's $M = 65.20$; $F(30, 539031.13) = 2.137$, $p = .000$]. It was yielded that there was a significant difference between the three groups on the linear combination of dependent variables ($p < .05$). The fact that the Box's *M* results revealed a significant difference between Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z, the criterion of Pillai's Trace was seen as more robust when the group sizes were unequal (Pillai, 1955). The mean scores, standard deviations and number of participants according to the subscales of personality traits of the individuals in Generation X, Generation Y, and Generation Z were presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Distribution of the subscales of personality traits by generations

| Subscales | Group | <i>N</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|------------------------|--------------|----------|----------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Agreeableness | Generation X | 141 | 35.68 | 4.13 | .24.825 | .000 | .104 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 34.48 | 4.19 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 31.98 | 4.82 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 34.14 | 4.60 | | | |
| Extraversion | Generation X | 141 | 29.78 | 5.30 | 8.516 | .000 | .038 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 29.15 | 6.16 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 26.84 | 6.84 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 28.68 | 6.22 | | | |
| Openness to experience | Generation X | 141 | 38.68 | 5.01 | 13.404 | .000 | .059 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 38.63 | 5.77 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 35.58 | 6.05 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 37.75 | 5.78 | | | |
| Conscientiousness | Generation X | 141 | 37.28 | 4.58 | 59.106 | .000 | .216 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 33.91 | 5.11 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 30.40 | 5.82 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 33.98 | 5.82 | | | |
| Neuroticism | Generation X | 141 | 22.00 | 4.86 | 7.370 | .001 | .033 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 23.67 | 5.04 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 24.34 | 5.76 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 23.32 | 5.28 | | | |

The MANOVA results, which were applied to the scores obtained from agreeableness [Pillai's $\Lambda = .268$, $F(2, 432) = 24.83$, $p = .000$, $\eta^2 = .104$], extraversion [Pillai's $\Lambda = .268$, $F(2, 432) = 8.52$, $p = .000$, $\eta^2 = .038$], openness to experience [Pillai's $\Lambda = .268$, $F(2, 432) = 13.40$, $p = .000$, $\eta^2 = .059$], conscientiousness [Pillai's $\Lambda = .268$, $F(2, 432) = 59.11$, $p = .000$, $\eta^2 = .216$], neuroticism [Pillai's $\Lambda = .268$, $F(2, 432) = 7.37$, $p = .001$, $\eta^2 = .033$] subscales of personality traits yielded that there was a statistically significant difference in personality traits according to the generations. As a result of the Scheffe test conducted to determine between which groups are significantly different from one another according to the sub-dimension scores of personality traits revealed that agreeableness level of Generation X ($M = 35.68$) was higher than Generation Z ($M = 31.98$) ($p < .125$). Moreover, agreeableness level of Generation Y ($M = 34.48$) was higher than Generation Z ($p < .125$). Extraversion level of Generation X ($M = 29.78$) was higher than Generation Z ($M = 26.84$) ($p < .125$). Additionally, extraversion level of Generation Y ($M = 29.15$) was higher than Generation Z ($p < .125$). Openness to experience level of Generation X ($M = 38.68$) was higher than Generation Z ($M = 35.58$) ($p < .125$). Furthermore, openness to experience level of Generation Y ($M = 38.63$) was higher than Generation Z ($p < .125$). Conscientiousness level of Generation X ($M = 37.28$) was higher than Generation Y ($M = 33.91$) and Generation Z ($M = 30.40$) ($p < .125$). Besides, conscientiousness level of Generation Y was higher than Generation Z. Neuroticism level of Generation X ($M = 22$) was lower than Generation Y ($M = 23.67$) and Generation Z ($M = 24.34$) ($p < .125$). Moreover, neuroticism level of Generation Y was lower than Generation Z, as shown in Table 2.

Results Concerning the Differences in Interpersonal Conflict Resolution Strategies as a Function of Generation X, Generation Y and Generation Z

In order to examine the possible differences among the conflict resolution strategies of Generation X, Generation Y and Generation Z, MANOVA was employed to the subscales scores of Conflict Communication Scale (CCS). Box's M Test indicated that the variance-covariance matrices are not homogeneous [Box's $M = 52.82$; $F(30, 539031.13) = 1.731$, $p = .000$]. It was found that there was a significant difference between the three groups on the linear combination of dependent variables ($p < .05$). The fact that the Box's M results revealed a significant difference between Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z, the criterion of Pillai's Trace was seen as more robust when the group sizes were unequal (Pillai, 1955). Table 3 shows the mean

scores, standard deviations and number of participants according to the subscales of interpersonal conflict resolution strategies of the individuals in Generation X, Generation Y, and Generation Z.

Table 3. Distribution of the subscales of interpersonal conflict resolution strategies by generations

| Subscales | Group | <i>N</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|-----------------------------|--------------|----------|----------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Confrontation | Generation X | 141 | 76.89 | 8.83 | 6.662 | .001 | .030 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 75.10 | 9.21 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 72.78 | 9.59 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 75.00 | 9.32 | | | |
| Public/private behavior | Generation X | 141 | 48.31 | 12.04 | .132 | .876 | .001 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 47.60 | 12.89 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 48.15 | 13.36 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 48.00 | 12.74 | | | |
| Emotional expression | Generation X | 141 | 76.53 | 9.75 | 9.058 | .000 | .040 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 78.61 | 11.47 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 73.00 | 12.23 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 76.29 | 11.39 | | | |
| Conflict approach/avoidance | Generation X | 141 | 49.46 | 11.01 | 4.245 | .015 | .019 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 52.68 | 11.71 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 52.89 | 10.31 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 51.69 | 11.17 | | | |
| Self-disclosure | Generation X | 141 | 70.64 | 8.54 | 7.404 | .001 | .033 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 74.23 | 10.01 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 70.51 | 10.14 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 71.97 | 9.74 | | | |

The results of MANOVA indicated that Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z differentiated according to confrontation [Pillai's $\Lambda = .125$, $F(2, 432) = 6.66$, $p = .001$, $\eta^2 = .030$], emotional expression [Pillai's $\Lambda = .125$, $F(2, 432) = 9.06$, $p = .000$, $\eta^2 = .040$] and self-disclosure subscale [Pillai's $\Lambda = .125$, $F(2, 432) = 7.40$, $p = .001$, $\eta^2 = .033$]. However, Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z did not differentiate in terms of conflict approach/avoidance [Pillai's $\Lambda = .125$, $F(2, 432) = 4.25$, $p = .015$, $\eta^2 = .019$] and public/private behavior level [Pillai's $\Lambda = .125$, $F(2, 432) = .132$, $p = .876$, $\eta^2 = .001$]. As a result of the Scheffe test conducted to determine between which groups are significantly different from one another according to the sub-dimension scores of interpersonal conflict resolution strategies revealed that confrontation level of Generation X ($M = 76.89$) was higher than Generation Z ($M = 72.78$) ($p < .125$). Emotional expression level of Generation X ($M = 76.53$) was higher than Generation Z ($M = 73.00$) ($p < .125$). Moreover, emotional expression level of Generation Y ($M = 78.61$) was higher than Generation Z ($p < .125$). Self-disclosure level of Generation X ($M = 70.64$) was lower than Generation Y ($M = 74.23$) ($p < .125$). Furthermore, self-disclosure level of Generation Y was higher than Generation Z ($M = 70.51$) ($p < .125$), as shown in Table 3.

Results Concerning the Differences in Coping Skills as a Function of Generation X, Generation Y and Generation Z

For the purpose of examining the possible differences among the coping skills of Generation X, Generation Y and Generation Z, MANOVA was employed to the subscales scores of Brief-COPE. Box's M Test indicated that the variance-covariance matrices are not homogeneous [Box's $M = 311$; $F(210, 450656.71) = 1.413$, $p = .000$]. It was yielded that there was a significant difference between the three groups on the linear combination of dependent variables ($p < .05$). The fact that the Box's M results revealed a significant difference between Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z, the criterion of Pillai's Trace was seen as more robust when the group sizes were unequal (Pillai, 1955). Table 4 indicated the mean scores, standard deviations and number of participants according to the subscales of coping skills of the individuals in Generation X, Generation Y, and Generation Z.

Table 4. Distribution of the subscales of coping skills by generations

| Subscales | Group | <i>N</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|-------------------------------------|--------------|----------|----------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Instrumental social support | Generation X | 141 | 6.60 | 1.33 | 3.774 | .024 | .017 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 6.48 | 1.41 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 6.14 | 1.49 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 6.42 | 1.42 | | | |
| Humour | Generation X | 141 | 4.84 | 1.82 | 2.110 | .123 | .010 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 5.03 | 2.00 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 5.33 | 2.00 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 5.06 | 1.95 | | | |
| Venting of emotions | Generation X | 141 | 5.59 | 1.56 | 1.174 | .310 | .005 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 5.84 | 1.46 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 5.64 | 1.58 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 5.70 | 1.53 | | | |
| Substance use | Generation X | 141 | 2.72 | 1.39 | 4.545 | .011 | .021 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 3.00 | 1.57 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 3.32 | 1.90 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 3.00 | 1.63 | | | |
| Acceptance | Generation X | 141 | 5.83 | 1.55 | 3.413 | .034 | .016 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 6.23 | 1.39 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 6.23 | 1.50 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 6.10 | 1.48 | | | |
| Suppression of competing activities | Generation X | 141 | 5.74 | 1.38 | 6.337 | .002 | .029 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 5.15 | 1.41 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 5.40 | 1.52 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 5.42 | 1.45 | | | |
| Religion | Generation X | 141 | 5.77 | 2.03 | 2.660 | .071 | .012 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 5.21 | 2.20 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 5.44 | 2.03 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 5.46 | 2.11 | | | |
| Denial | Generation X | 141 | 3.84 | 1.74 | 5.443 | .005 | .025 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 3.48 | 1.46 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 4.11 | 1.74 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 3.78 | 1.66 | | | |
| Behavioral disengagement | Generation X | 141 | 3.40 | 1.51 | 2.754 | .065 | .013 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 3.36 | 1.48 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 3.76 | 1.65 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 3.49 | 1.55 | | | |
| Mental disengagement | Generation X | 141 | 5.25 | 1.62 | 1.700 | .184 | .008 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 5.26 | 1.63 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 5.57 | 1.56 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 5.35 | 1.61 | | | |

Table 4. (cont'd) Distribution of the subscales of coping skills by generations

| Subscales | Group | <i>N</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> | η^2 |
|---------------------------|--------------|----------|----------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Restraint | Generation X | 141 | 6.08 | 1.27 | 8.571 | .000 | .038 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 5.44 | 1.38 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 5.59 | 1.50 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 5.69 | 1.40 | | | |
| Positive reinterpretation | Generation X | 141 | 6.64 | 1.20 | 14.218 | .000 | .062 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 6.49 | 1.35 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 5.79 | 1.60 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 6.33 | 1.43 | | | |
| Emotional social support | Generation X | 141 | 5.81 | 1.50 | 1.144 | .320 | .005 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 5.61 | 1.40 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 5.57 | 1.38 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 5.66 | 1.43 | | | |
| Planning | Generation X | 141 | 7.09 | 1.09 | 10.559 | .000 | .047 |
| | Generation Y | 165 | 6.85 | 1.18 | | | |
| | Generation Z | 127 | 6.40 | 1.49 | | | |
| | Total | 433 | 6.80 | 1.28 | | | |

The MANOVA results, as shown in Table 4, revealed that Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z differentiated according to substance use [Pillai's Trace = .205, $F(2, 432) = 4.55$, $p < .011$, $\eta^2 = .021$], suppression of competing activities [Pillai's Trace = .205, $F(2, 432) = 6.34$, $p < .002$, $\eta^2 = .029$], denial [Pillai's Trace = .205, $F(2, 432) = 5.44$, $p < .005$, $\eta^2 = .025$], restraint [Pillai's Trace = .205, $F(2, 432) = 8.57$, $p < .000$, $\eta^2 = .038$], positive reinterpretation [Pillai's Trace = .205, $F(2, 432) = 14.22$, $p < .000$, $\eta^2 = .062$], and planning subscale [Pillai's Trace = .205, $F(2, 432) = 10.56$, $p < .000$, $\eta^2 = .047$]. However, Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z did not differentiate in terms of instrumental social support [Pillai's Trace = .205, $F(2, 432) = 3.77$, $p < .024$, $\eta^2 = .017$], acceptance [Pillai's Trace = .205, $F(2, 432) = 3.41$, $p < .034$, $\eta^2 = .016$], humor [Pillai's Trace = .205, $F(2, 432) = 2.11$, $p < .123$, $\eta^2 = .010$], venting of emotions [Pillai's Trace = .205, $F(2, 432) = 1.17$, $p < .310$, $\eta^2 = .005$], religion [Pillai's Trace = .205, $F(2, 432) = 2.66$, $p < .071$, $\eta^2 = .012$], behavioral disengagement [Pillai's Trace = .205, $F(2, 432) = 2.75$, $p < .065$, $\eta^2 = .013$], mental disengagement [Pillai's Trace = .205, $F(2, 432) = 1.70$, $p < .184$, $\eta^2 = .008$], emotional social support levels [Pillai's Trace = .205, $F(2, 432) = 1.14$, $p < .320$, $\eta^2 = .005$]. As a result of the Scheffe test conducted to determine between which groups are significantly different from one another according to the sub-dimension scores of coping skills revealed that substance use level of Generation X ($M = 2.72$) was lower than Generation Z ($M = 3.32$) ($p < .125$). Suppression of competing activities level of Generation X ($M = 5.74$) was higher than Generation Y ($M = 5.15$) ($p < .125$). Denial level of Generation Y ($M = 3.48$) was lower than Generation Z ($M = 4.11$) ($p < .125$). Restraint level of Generation X ($M = 6.08$) was higher than Generation Y ($M = 5.44$) ($p < .125$). Moreover, restraint level of Generation Z ($M = 5.59$) was lower than Generation X ($p < .125$). Positive reinterpretation level of Generation X ($M = 6.64$) was higher than Generation Z ($M = 5.79$) ($p < .125$). Moreover, positive reinterpretation level of Generation Y ($M = 6.49$) was higher than Generation Z ($p < .125$). Planning level of Generation X ($M = 7.09$) was higher than generation Z ($M = 6.40$) ($p < .125$). Furthermore, planning level of Generation Y ($M = 6.85$) was higher than Generation Z ($p < .125$).

Discussion

Individuals from different generations live together in the society. Generations can be defined as groups of individuals with common values, beliefs, expectations and behaviors, born at certain date intervals, affected by similar social, political and economic events, assigned similar responsibilities under the circumstances (Akduman & Yüksekbiçgili, 2015). Since there are various factors that make a difference between generations, the purpose of this study was to examine the differences between personality traits, interpersonal conflict resolution strategies, and coping skills among Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z. The results revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in personality traits (agreeableness, extraversion, openness to experience, conscientiousness, and neuroticism) according to Generation X, Generation Y and Generation

Z. Generation Y is often characterized as extroverted and open to change and innovative (Silva et al., 2014: 35; Tarçalır, 2015), while Generation Z tends experience extreme individualization and loneliness due to their reliance on social networks and online communication (Strauss & Howe, 1991). They prefer to communicate online and it is almost impossible to communicate with them face to face (Topçuoğlu, 2007; Türk, 2013). Therefore, it is possible that Generation Z had the highest level of neuroticism and lowest level of extraversion compared to Generation X and Generation Y. study conducted with school administrators who are in Generation X in terms of age and work experience indicated that they have the highest score for agreeableness score compared to the sub-dimensions of extraversion, neuroticism, conscientiousness, and openness to experience (Yıldızoğlu, 2013).

On the other hand, Generation Z is generally more knowledgeable, more equipped and more curious than previous generations. Therefore, they tend to be more independent, innovative, researcher, and curious (Kavalcı, 2015). This might be due, in part, to the fact that they have access to a wide range of information through various portable technological devices (Akdemir et al., 2013). One might expect, then, that they would have a higher score for openness to experience. However, the current study found that Generation Z actually had the lowest score for openness to experience compared to the other generations. On the other hand, Generation X has lived through a number of significant economic, political and social crises, such as the Vietnam War, the fall of the Berlin Wall, the 1980 military coup, the right-left conflicts, the oil crisis (Türk, 2013). Since they had to make great efforts to adopt to the changing world conditions (Adıgüzel et al., 2014), which could potentially lead to higher score for openness to experience compared to Generation Z. Consistent with the finding of this study, a study conducted with the managers belonging to Generation X have the highest level of openness to experience compared to extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism (Tozkoparan, 2013).

Another finding of the present study was that Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z differentiated according to confrontation, emotional expression, and self-disclosure subscale of interpersonal conflict resolution approaches scale. Generation X and Y was higher in confrontation, emotional expression, and self-disclosure than Generation Z. However, there were no significant differences among the three generations in terms of conflict approach/avoidance and public/private behavior. Consistent with the findings of this study, a study conducted with executive and instructive nurses who might be considered as Generation X based on their age and work experience revealed that the most frequently used conflict resolution strategies were confrontation and avoidance (Valentine, Richardson, Wood, & Godkin, 1998). In a similar vein, another study conducted with managers, confrontation was the most frequently used conflict resolution strategy (Yılmaz & Öztürk, 2011). On the other hand, a study conducted with adolescents who could be considered as the members of Generation Z found that they frequently use confrontation and emotional expression from interpersonal conflict resolution strategies (Aydınlı, 2014). One might expect that members of Generation Z, who tend to prefer online communication to face-to-face interaction, would not use confrontation and emotional expression as conflict resolution strategies.

Moreover, the results of the present study indicated that Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z differentiated with regard to substance use, suppression of competing activities, denial, restraint, positive reinterpretation, and planning subscale of Brief COPE. However, there were no significant differences among Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z in terms of instrumental social support, acceptance, humor, venting of emotions, religion, behavioral disengagement, mental disengagement, emotional social support levels. Supporting the finding of this study, substance abuse is more common among younger individuals (Swendsen, Conway, Rounsaville, & Merikangas, 2002), one might expect that Generation Z would use substance as a coping skills more frequently than Generation X. Adolescents are starting to use alcohol at younger ages (Altıntoprak, Akgür, Yüncü, Sertöz, and Coşkunol (2008), while older adults are less likely to use alcohol or drugs to cope with their problems (Segal, Hook, and Coolidge, 2001). Accordingly, it is possible that people may gain new ways of coping as they get older.

Generation X is more likely to engage in other activities as a coping mechanism in difficult situations compared to Generation Y. Generation X, with their life experiences, may have developed an idea that whether they can

effect a change in a situation. If they can, they actively address it; if not, they disengage and passively accept the situation (Phillips & Trainor, 2014). On the other hand, Generation Z, who has the highest level of neuroticism, tends to use denial as a coping style. In other words, they refuse to believe that the stressor exists or is real. In a similar vein, a study conducted with adolescents who spent significant amount of time playing online games found that they tended to use denial as a coping strategy (Schneider, King, & Delfabbro, 2017).

Generation X has the highest level of restraint compared to Generation Y and Generation Z. They are more likely to wait for an appropriate opportunity to act. Consistent with the findings of the present study, Segal, Hook, and Coolidge (2001) found that older adults tend to use restraint as a coping strategy more frequently. Fatalism, or the belief that events are predetermined and cannot be changed, is a fundamental phenomenon in Turkey (Orhan, 2017), and may influence members of Generation X to choose restraint and positive reinterpretation as coping skills. Generation X has the ability to consider events in a broader context in order to make sense of their lives (Keeling, 2003). The fact that Generation X has lots of life experiences compared to other generations, they may be more likely to evaluate the demanding situations or events in a more positive way. Hence, it was expected that Generation X would have the highest level of positive reinterpretation. Consistent with the findings of the current study, Diehl, Coyle, and Labouvie-Vief (1996) found that older adults tended to evaluate difficult situations more positively than younger adults. In addition, Lazarus and Folkman (1987) also concluded that older adults preferred to use more positive reinterpretation and restraint as coping strategies. In a similar vein, Phillips and Trainor (2014) concluded that younger adults evaluated difficult situations less positively than older adults.

Generation X tends to use planning as a coping skill, thinking about how to deal with stress, taking steps to address the problem and developing action plans. They have the highest score for planning compared to other generations. Generation Z, on the other hand, appears to be less likely to use planning compared to Generation X and Generation Y. This finding is not in line with previous research that has suggested that adolescents, who are the member of Generation Z, mostly use planning as a coping strategy (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989; Esia-Donkoh, Yelkper, & Esia-Donkoh, 2011; Skinner & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2007; Thuen & Bru, 2004). It is possible that there are contextual or cultural factors that may influence how different generations cope with stress. Further research is needed to examine these potential explanations and to better understand the coping strategies used by different generations.

To conclude, there are differences in personality traits, interpersonal conflict resolution strategies and coping skills among Generation X, Y, and Z.

Conclusions

The results of the current study revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in agreeableness, extraversion, conscientiousness, openness to experience and neuroticism subscales of personality traits according to Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z.

Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z differentiated according to confrontation, emotional expression, and self-disclosure subscale of interpersonal conflict resolution approaches scale. However, Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z did not differentiate in terms of conflict approach/avoidance and public/private behavior level.

Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z differentiated according to substance use, suppression of competing activities, denial, restraint, positive re-interpretation, and planning subscale of coping skills scale. On the other hand, Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z did not differentiate in terms of instrumental social support, acceptance, humor, venting of emotions, religion, behavioral disengagement, mental disengagement, emotional social support levels.

Limitations

The limitations of the study were evaluated in terms of both internal and external validity. Internal validity threats included the use of self-report measures and the data collection process. It should be noted that self-report measures are based on individuals' subjective perceptions of the relevant topics, and may be influenced by social desirability biases, which refer to the tendency of some participants to respond in a way that they believe will be viewed favorably by others, rather than providing honest responses (Lavrakas, 2008). This can

result in less authentic or genuine responses. External validity threats included the use of a relatively small sample size, which may limit the generalizability of the findings to the broader population of Turkey.

Another limitation of the present study was the data collection process. The data was collected through an online form. Hence, the people who participated in this research limited to those with an internet usage information. Although the demographic characteristics are known to a certain extent via online data collection, there is no way to fully understand the characteristics of the individuals responding to the survey (Andrade, 2020). Moreover, collecting data online might create an anxiety that their data will be in the hands of someone else (Fan & Yan, 2010).

Implications

Implications for Researchers

As there have been limited research studies related to Generation X, Generation Y, Generation Z in a Turkish context, more research needed to have clearer and more ideas about the characteristics of these generations. It is recommended that future studies aim to expand the sample size and include a wider range of participants from different cities in Turkey in order to increase the generalizability of the findings and better represent the population of Turkey. Future research could explore the moderation of personality traits on the relationship between conflict resolution strategies and coping skills, as well as the impact of other factors such as self-esteem, resilience, and attachment styles. Additionally, it would be valuable to examine the role of cultural and familial influences on these processes.

It is also suggested that future researchers consider using the Online Photovoice (OPV) method to conduct a research on personality traits, interpersonal conflict resolution strategies and coping skills or similar issues. The use of OPV as a research method has the potential to increase the validity and reliability of study findings, as it allows for the collection of data from a diverse range of sources and perspectives (Doyumğaç, Tanhan, & Kıymaz, 2021).

Implications for Practitioners

The findings of this study have practical implications for a variety of settings where individuals from different generations may interact, including psychological counseling and school counseling, universities, workplaces, institutions, associations, communities, and organizations.

Psychological counselors and school counselors can develop educational programs or activities that highlight the differences in personality traits, conflict resolution strategies, and coping skills among the generations, and use these programs to help students or parents become aware of these differences. They can also create workshops on these topics to provide more in-depth information and training to parents or other interested individuals. They can help students to develop their interpersonal conflict resolution strategies. Teachers could also model these skills in their interactions with students and facilitate group activities that allow students to practice using these strategies. They can also encourage them to use healthy coping skills when faced with stress or challenges. Instructors at universities can benefit from an awareness of the unique personality characteristics of different generations when interacting with their students. This can help to foster a more harmonious and conflict-free environment. Managers and human resources professionals can use the knowledge of these differences to adapt their leadership styles or seek support from psychological counseling centers to address potential intergenerational differences in the workplace. Experts from municipalities and public education centers can use the findings of the study to educate citizens on the differences between the generations and promote public awareness through the use of seminars and workshops. By increasing understanding and tolerance of these differences, they may be able to facilitate more positive interactions in their communities.

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Parental Control, Self–Construal and Well-Being: Evidence from Individualistic and Collective Culture

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to examine the associations of perceived parenting, self-construal and psychological flourishing from a cross-cultural perspective. Instruments tapping into four types of perceived parenting style (psychological control, behavioral control, autonomous support, and responsiveness), positive and negative affect, relational self and flourishing were administered to a sample of 579 university students from France (n = 325) and Türkiye (n = 324). Latent profile analysis (LPA) and ANOVA tests were performed. The results showed that French university students presented lower levels of positive affect, negative affect, and psychological flourishing compared to Turkish university students. Differences were found between these two groups in terms of psychological and behavioral control, and their respective consequences on self-construal and psychological flourishing. Turkish parents present higher levels of psychological and behavioral control in their relationships with their children compared to their French counterparts.

Parental attitudes toward childrearing have been an important topic for a long time (Deci et al., 1994). Parental control has been reported to be influential in adolescents' problematic behavior (Albrecht et al., 2007), low academic achievement (Marbell & Grolnick, 2013), and low self-esteem (Bean et al., 2003). Besides those findings behavioral and psychological control of the parents has been found to be related to adolescent well-being (Bean et. al., 2006; Kocayörük et. al., 2021). Self-construal is another element that develops in the family and is affected by the family attitude (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005). The current study aimed to compare the perceived parenting, self-construal and psychological functioning of late adolescents in two countries; France and Türkiye. French culture shows a predominantly individualistic orientation, which tends to support autonomy and reduces control in daily interactions (Hofstede, 2001). On the other hand, Turkish culture shows both collectivist orientation characteristics emphasizing in-group loyalty, family ties, obedience to elders, and individualistic orientation characteristics such as encouraging offspring's financial autonomy (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005). The significance of this study to contribute a better understanding of the associations between parenting, self-construal and well-being in two cultural groups (individualist versus collectivist). Moreover, the different parenting relationships were explored in each group for to characterize the better parenting relationships profile in terms of self-construal and well-being in French and Turkish groups. In addition, all profiles were compared for parenting relationships and its consequences on self-construal and well-being. Despite the recent growth interest in the father's contributions, it is still not a common practice in research on parent-adolescent interactions to take special elements of both maternal and paternal parenting into account.. Inconsistent finding

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have been found in the few studies that have distinguished between mother and paternal influences on adolescents' adjustment. On the other hand some the studies revealed disparities in the impacts of male and maternal parenting.. For instance, findings of the researches state connections with mothers prone to be closer, although fathers are perceived as being in a position of authority, also mother support and control are more essential than paternal support and control (e.g., Mastrotheodoros et al. 2018). It was hypothesized that the Turkish parenting relationships profiles were characterized with higher behavioral and psychological control levels associated with lowest self-construal and well-being than French parenting profiles. The research question of this study is as follows: Is there a difference between the self-construal and well-being of Turkish and French adolescents according to their perceived parental attitudes?

Literature Review

Parental Behaviors and Well-Being of Adolescents

Parental behaviors have been considered a crucial issue in the relations between parents and children for a long time and have yielded disputable findings since the time it appeared in the literature (Grolnick & Pomerantz, 2009). Literature has been also many attentions to influence of parenting on children that how child rearing practices play an important role in the regulation of children's behavior (Deci et al., 1994). On the basis of the results of a variety of investigations, more recent studies have reported a modest relationship between parenting practices and adolescents' developmental outcomes including problem behaviors such as delinquency and aggressive (Amato & Fowler, 2002), lower achievement orientation (Ingoldsby et al., 2003) or including positive effect such as psychosocial well-being (Barber, 2002; Kocayörük et. al., 2015) and self-esteem (Bean et al., 2003). Given this association, there are two ways in which parenting influences might account for the relationship between parenting practices and adolescents' developmental outcomes. In these ways, parental control such as psychological control and behavioral control, and supportiveness such as autonomous support and responsiveness have been depicted as crucial parenting behaviors in the relations between parents and children.

Parental control refers to practices such as parents controlling and regulating the activities and habits and directing the thoughts and feelings of their children and ensuring their children's dependence on them. Barber (1996) claimed to make it easier to examine the effects of control by dividing the controlling practices into two parts: practices controlling the child's psychology and practices controlling the child's behavior.

Psychological control is considered a manipulation through psychological aspects such as pride, guilt, love, and shame (Barber, 1996). Barber suggests that psychologically controlling parents tend to use these manipulative techniques to make their offspring meet their demands and expectations. Moreover, such parental intervening might be an intrusion of the offspring's personal domain and/or disrespect towards the offspring's individuality (Barber, 1996). Loeb et al. (2021) emphasize that perceived parental psychological control in early adolescence potentially undermines autonomy and leads to less positive outcomes in adulthood. More controlling environments cause the lack of integrity and increase problematic behaviors (Albrecht et al., 2007). Consequently, psychological control has adverse effects on adolescent functioning such as high depressive symptoms (Barber, 1996), poor self-esteem (Bean et al., 2003), poor academic engagement (Marbell & Grolnick, 2013), low grades (Wang et al., 2012), and negativities in the search for the meaning of life (Shek et al., 2021).

Contrary to psychological control, parental behavioral control describes parental practices aiming to regulate the child's behaviors in various domains such as manners, children activities, and peer relationships by setting clear rules and expectations for children and providing necessary feedback regarding their progress (Barber, 1996; Grolnick & Pomerantz, 2009; Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010). There is much evidence that behavioral control is found to be influential on adolescent's well-being, academic achievement and behaviors in society. For instance, Bean et al. (2006) revealed that behavioral control was found to be more related to better adolescent functioning and parental support and behavioral control yielded less problematic behaviors and higher academic and social success. Behavioral control of the parents of the adolescents is not interpreted as

negative by children and the behavioral control practices do not make the adolescents feel more worthless (Kindap et al., 2008; Selçuk et al., 2022). Similarly, such parental attitudes were associated with a higher level of emotional well-being (Wang et al., 2007), and self-esteem (Bean et al., 2003). Those studies suggest that parental behaviors appear as central issues related to self and well-being.

On the other hand, the level of acceptance and warmth of parents express towards to their children could be conceptualized as parental autonomy-support. Explicitly, parental autonomy-support refers to parental practices meeting the psychological and emotional needs of the children by allowing them to think autonomously and make their own decisions about their lives and free time activities (Manzi et al., 2012). According to Bean and colleagues (2006) well-being can be explained by being aware of one's own capabilities, being able to cope with daily stress, being productive, having positive emotions, and mental and social functionality, all of which can be managed by parental support. The authors also stated that parental support is significantly and negatively related to youth depression regardless of the adolescent's grade level and gender. Moreover, numerous studies have revealed that autonomy-supportive parenting contributes to well-being (Wang et al., 2007) and parental autonomy support has also been found to be associated with child adjustment (Deci et al., 1994) and self-esteem (Bean et al., 2003).

Parenting and Relational Self-Construal

Cross et al. (2000) defined relational self as how people identify themselves with their close relationships in a society. The concepts of individualism and collectivism present the possibility of making a systematic comparison of cultures and defining the behavioral indicators of different cultures. Individualism is defined as being emotionally independent from society, organization, and other communities whereas collectivism is seen as one's dependency on family, relatives, and society (Hofstede, 2001). Self-construal is considered as mediation for the effects of culture on person's various social behaviors in the cultural context (Levine et al., 2006). In other words, people create their relational selves with the relationships in which they develop within the society. It has been argued that Western cultures, such as European countries, tend to think themselves as autonomous or separated from others (independent self-construal) while collectivist cultures, such as Japan or China, tend to think themselves as interdependent with close others (interdependent self-construal) (Cross et al., 2000; Marcus & Kitayama, 1991).

Kağıtçıbaşı (2005) suggests that parental behaviors also play important roles in the development of self-construal. In her Family Change Theory, she describes three models of family: model of interdependence, model of emotional/psychological interdependence, and model of independence. In the model of interdependence, parents explicitly apply control over their children in order to maintain material and psychological interdependency. The model of independency is characterized by less parental control but parental autonomy support. In the last model, psychological interdependency, parents apply control over children to maintain psychological interdependency and support children's autonomy at the same time. Kağıtçıbaşı states that the situation that leads to the development of the autonomous-related self is the combined autonomy and control orientation in parenting.

Similarly, Soenens and Vansteenkiste (2010) define a conceptual framework for parental psychological control and the promotion of independence/dependence. In their conceptual framework, there are four possible patterns of parent-child relationships. In the first pattern, parents might exert psychological control over their children in order to encourage their reliance on them. As a result of guilt induction, blame and other parental psychological manipulation tactics, children are likely to become more interdependent. On the contrary, in the second pattern, parents might exert psychological control in order to encourage the independence of their children. Parents provide no guidelines for the children to be independent but use guilt induction and social comparison when their offspring are not able to be independent. In the third pattern, parents allow children to be dependent on themselves without exerting any psychological control tactics. In the last pattern, parents actively encourage children to be independent. They make sure that the children make their own decisions by supporting their autonomy as much as possible. This theoretical framework supports the pivotal role of control in parental behaviors towards children. Given the model of association between self-construal and well-being, the concepts of "being" and "wellness" are culturally constructed (Marcus & Kitayama, 1999).

Method

Participants and Procedure

The study consisted of 579 university students. They were recruited from undergraduate level of Humanities (France) and Psychological Counselling departments (Turkiye). Participant's age was between 17 and 25 years (Mean of age= 20.35, SD= 3.89). Turkish sample is composed of 324 undergraduate students with 218 females and 106 males (Mean of age= 20.23, SD= 2.95). French sample is composed of 255 undergraduate students with 198 female and 57 males (Mean of age= 20.78, SD= 3.27).

The data was collected during the 2017 Spring semester both in Turkiye and France. The ethical permission was granted from Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University Social Sciences and Educational Sciences Ethics Committee before the data collection (Date: 29.08.2014 No: 2014/19). After the participants were informed about the research, the volunteers completed the scales including perceived parenting, flourishing, self-construal and affection (positive and negative affect) scales. The data were administrated in a class hour with completion time between 20 and 30 minutes.

Instruments

The Leuven Adolescent Perceived Parenting Scale (LAPPS). It was originally developed by Soenens et al. (2004) for Dutch-speaking adolescent living in Belgium and has been adapted in different language such as French (Delhayé et al., 2012) and Turkish (Sevim, 2014). Internal consistency coefficients for the French version of the scale ranged from .76 to .90 for the adolescent-mother version, and between .71 and .91 for the adolescent-father version; Turkish version of the scale ranged from .58 to .88 for the adolescent-mother, and between .67 and .91 for the adolescent-father. The LAPPS is a 28-item self-report scale that evaluates the parental behaviors (mother and father separately) toward adolescent consists in four dimensions: Behavioral control, Psychological Control, Autonomy, and Responsiveness, and each dimension include 7-items (e.g., "My mother/father is very strict with me", "My mother/father will avoid looking at me when I have disappointed her/him", "My mother/father helps me to choose my own direction", "My mother/father makes me feel better after talking over my worries with her/him") Respondents indicated their score on 5-points Likert scale ranging from 1 ("Completely disagree") to 5 ("Completely agree"). Higher scores indicate a higher level of the related sub-scale. In the current study, the internal consistency of the scale was satisfactory (Turkish sample, Cronbach alpha ranged from .64 to .71 for mother, Cronbach alpha ranged from .66 to .75 for father; French sample, Cronbach alpha ranged from .67 to .75 for mother, Cronbach alpha ranged from .64 to .73 for father).

The Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS). Watson et al. (1988) developed the original form of The Positive and Negative Affect Scale and it has been adapted in French by Bouffard and Lapierre (1997) and Turkish by Gençöz (2000). The internal consistency coefficients for the positive affect was .88 and negative affect was .87 for the original scale; and .83 and .86 for the Turkish adaptation, respectively. The validity and reliability study of the French version of the scale was conducted by Gaudreau et al. (2006) and it was found to have acceptable reliability and validity (internal consistency coefficients were between .74 and .91). The PANAS includes 20 self-report item that measures the positive (10 item) and negative (10 item) affect. Respondents indicated their score on 5-points Likert scale ranging from 1 ("Very Slightly or Not at All") to 5 ("Extremely"). Higher scores for each subscale indicates higher level of positive or negative affect. In the current study, the internal consistency of the scale was satisfactory (French sample: alpha = .84; Turkish sample: alpha = .87).

The Psychological Flourishing Scale (PFS). This scale is about measuring the present subjective well-being state. Diener et al. (2010) developed the original form of the scale. It has been adapted French by Villieux et al. (2016) and Turkish by Akın and Fidan (2012). The reliability of the Turkish version of the scale was determined as .83, and it was .81 for the French adaptation. PFS is used to evaluate psychological flourishing. Scale includes eight items associated one question. All of the 8 items are evaluated by respondents on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("Strong Disagreement") to 7 ("Strong Agreement"). Overall psychological

flourishing score is calculated by combining scores on 8 items. Higher overall scores are related to higher psychological flourishing. In the current study, the internal consistency of the scale was satisfactory (French sample: $\alpha = .83$; Turkish sample: $\alpha = .85$).

Relational-Interdependent Self-Constraint Scale (RISC). The instrument was developed by Cross et al. (2000) to evaluate relational-interdependent self-construal. Validity and reliability of French version of the scale was done by Larabie (2015) and internal consistency coefficients were calculated between .88. Validity and reliability of Turkish version of the scale was done by Akin et al. (2010) and the internal consistency coefficient was determined as .85. Participants rated 11 items on a 7-point Likert scale (1-strongly disagree to 7-strongly agree), possible range of scores are between 11 and 77 and higher scores indicate higher levels of interdependence. In current study, Cronbach's alpha across the studies was found satisfactory (French sample: $\alpha = .68$; Turkish sample: $\alpha = .75$).

Statistical Analysis

First, a comparison of the Turkish sample ($n = 324$) and the French sample ($n = 255$) in the context of perceived parenting, negative and positive affect, self-construal, and flourishing was made with SPSS v.20 using t-test. Second, we run Latent profile analysis with Latent Gold 4.5 software allows characterizing each sample in the light of perceived parenting and identifying and comparing the different parenting profiles in each sample. Latent Gold 4.5 software was used to test profile solutions of 2 to 6 classes (Vermunt & Magidson, 2002). Latent profile analysis was performed to determine the most appropriate number of profiles and compositions in both Turkish and French samples. In the latent profile analysis, four dimensions of the Leuven Adolescent Perceived Parenting Scale were taken into consideration (Responsiveness-RS; Behavioral Control-BC; Psychological Control-PC; Autonomy Support-AS). Optimal number of perceived parenting profiles and their relationships with other variables of the study were found by considering the identification of the profiles. The recommendations of Lanza, Collins, Lemmon and Schafer (2007) were used to test the models. Akaike Information Criterion (AIC, Akaike, 1987), Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC, Schwarz, 1978) and Entropy values were used to determine the best model fit. The lower values of AIC and BIC associated with a higher Entropy value indicate optimal model compatibility. Third, a One-way MANOVA was conducted for the profile check. For the analysis, five perceived parenting profile groups was considered as the independent variables and the four dimensions of the perceived parenting considered as the dependent variables. Then, ANOVA tests and New Man Keuls' post hoc test were run to compare the different profiles on each dependent variable.

Results

Group comparison between Turkish and French

A group comparison between with Student's t-test revealed significant differences (see Table 1). Systematically, the Turkish group reported a higher level of psychological control ($M_{\text{father}} = 2.99$; $M_{\text{mother}} = 3.05$) compared to the French parents ($M_{\text{father}} = 2.24$; $M_{\text{mother}} = 2.32$, $p < .001$). The autonomy support of the Turkish group ($M_{\text{father}} = 3.81$; $M_{\text{mother}} = 4.03$, $p < .001$) was higher compared to the French parents ($M_{\text{father}} = 3.43$; $M_{\text{mother}} = 3.65$, $p < .001$). The Turkish group also reported a higher level of father responsiveness compared to the French group ($M_{\text{Turkish}} = 3.84$; $M_{\text{French}} = 3.24$, $p < .001$). No difference was found regarding mother responsiveness or behavioural control. The Turkish group also presented a higher level of Positive Affect ($M = 3.39$, $p < .001$) and Negative affect ($M = 2.54$, $p < .001$), Self-construal ($M = 5.42$, $p < .001$) and Psychological Flourishing ($M = 6.28$, $p < .001$) than the French group.

Table 1. Comparison of Student's t-test on Turkish sample and French sample

| | Mean TR | SD | Mean FR | SD | t value | p |
|------------------|---------|------|---------|------|---------|-----|
| Age | 20.44 | 2.09 | 21.08 | 3.82 | -2.58 | .01 |
| Parenting | | | | | | |
| RS. Father | 3.84 | 0.76 | 3.24 | 1.20 | 7.34 | .00 |
| BC Father | 2.48 | 0.89 | 2.42 | 0.79 | 0.89 | .37 |
| PC Father | 2.99 | 1.02 | 2.24 | 0.95 | 9.09 | .00 |
| AS Father | 3.81 | 0.73 | 3.43 | 0.69 | 6.48 | .00 |
| RS. Mother | 4.20 | 0.64 | 4.20 | 0.92 | 0.04 | .97 |
| BC Mother | 2.36 | 0.82 | 2.46 | 0.83 | -1.48 | .14 |
| PC Mother | 3.05 | 1.02 | 2.32 | 1.05 | 8.48 | .00 |
| AS Mother | 4.03 | 0.66 | 3.65 | 0.56 | 7.20 | .00 |
| Variables | | | | | | |
| Positive Affect | 3.39 | 0.75 | 3.07 | 0.70 | 5.29 | .00 |
| Negative Affect | 2.54 | 1.12 | 1.66 | 0.62 | 11.35 | .00 |
| Self-Construal | 5.42 | 0.72 | 5.19 | 0.96 | 3.21 | .00 |
| P. Flourishing | 6.28 | 0.33 | 5.45 | 0.87 | 15.83 | .00 |

Note. Turkish sample n= 324 ; French sample n= 255, N = 579

RS= Responsiveness, BC = Behavioral Control, PC =Psychological Control, AS = Autonomy Support,

P. Flourishing. = Psychological Flourishing

Considering the findings, Turkish sample appeared to be the simultaneously more controlled (PC) and more autonomy supported (AS) group. No difference was found between the Turkish and French sample regarding Father and Mother Behavioral Control, and Mother Responsiveness. This particular result with the Turkish group characterized simultaneously by highest level of autonomy support and control which has been conducted thorough exploration of each sample (Turkish and French) in the light of perceived parenting.

Perceived parenting profile analysis

Latent profile analysis (LPA) indicated two possible solutions: (1) the Turkish and French groups represent two large homogeneous populations or (2) the Turkish and French groups represent two large heterogeneous populations composed of many homogeneous populations. These homogeneous populations within the larger populations represent the different perceived parental profiles.

When the results of the analysis are examined in the light of the current literature, it is evaluated that a two-profile situation is more suitable for the Turkish group. The entropy, BIC and AIC all suggested a well-fitted solution with two-profiles for perceived parenting (entropy = 0.8385, BIC= 15322.22, AIC= 14547.16). For the French group the entropy, BIC and AIC suggested a well-fitted solution with three-profiles (entropy = 0.8388, BIC= 12890.95, AIC = 12136.66). The means of the Leuven Adolescent Perceived Parenting Scale subscales for each profile are reported in Table 2 and presented in Figure 1 for Turkish and French groups.

For the Turkish sample, Profile 1 corresponded to 41.05% of the Turkish sample (n = 133, "High RS - AS Profile") and was characterized by high levels of RS and AS for father and mother. Profile 2 corresponded to 58.95% of the sample (n = 191, "Moderate RS - AS – High PC Profile") and was characterized by a moderate level of RS – AS, and high levels of PC for father and mother.

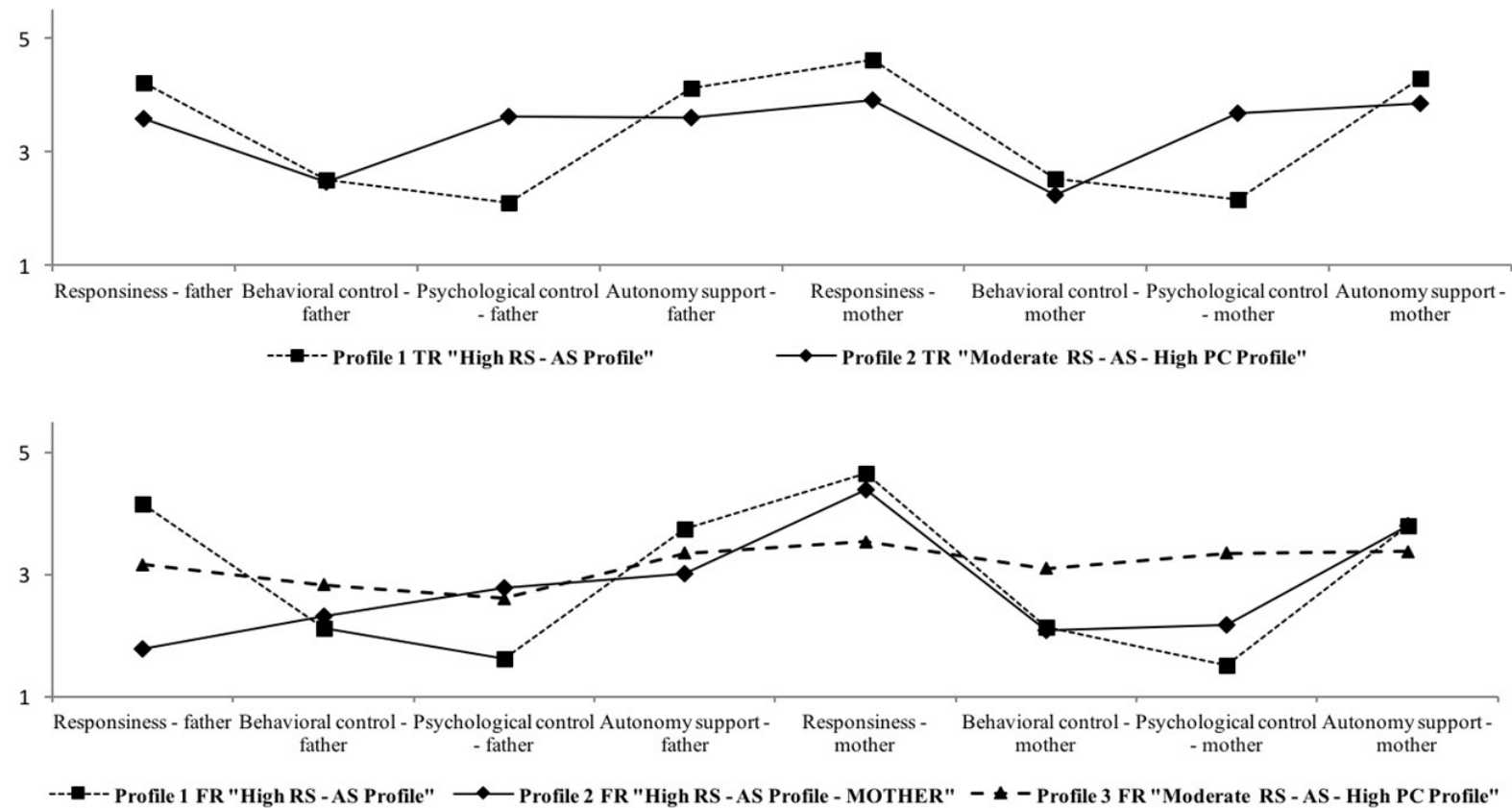
For the French sample, Profile 1 corresponded to 23.92% of the French sample (n = 61, "High RS - AS Profile") and was characterized by high levels of RS and AS for father and mother. Profile 2 corresponded to 41.18% of the sample (n = 105, "High RS - AS Profile – Mother") and was characterized by high levels of RS and AS for mother only. Profile 3 corresponded to 34.90% of the sample (n = 89, "Moderate RS - AS – High PC Profile") and was characterized by a moderate level of RS - AS, and high levels of PC for father and mother.

The MANOVA results showed significant differences between the five groups on the Leuven Adolescent Perceived Parenting Scale dimensions [$F(8, 32) = 59.36, p < .001$]. This latter result confirmed that the number

of profiles was valid in the sample (see Figure 1). No difference was found between the five profiles in terms of age (Table 2).

ANOVA and New Man Keuls' post hoc tests were used to analyze the relationships between perceived parenting profiles and Psychological Flourishing, Self-construal and PANAS. The results indicated a significant relationship between the perceived parenting profiles and the variables of the study (Psychological Flourishing, Self-construal and PANAS) (Table 2). First, profile 1 TR ("High RS - AS Profile") and profile 1 FR ("High RS - AS Profile") were associated with the highest level of Positive Affect [$F(4, 574) = 7.39, p < .001$], Self-construal [$F(4, 574) = 15.84, p < .001$], Psychological Flourishing [$F(4, 574) = 73.65, p < .001$], and the lowest level of Negative Affect [$F(4, 574) = 137.81, p < .001$]. However, Profile 1 TR presented systematically higher levels of PC, BC and AS for father and mother compared to Profile 1 FR. No difference was found between these profiles in terms of RS. Second, no significant differences were found between Profile 2 FR ("High RS - AS Profile – Mother") and the profile 3 FR ("Moderate RS - AS – High PC Profile") in terms of the study variables. These two profiles were related with the lowest level of Positive Affect, Self-construal and Psychological Flourishing. Third, two similar profiles found in both the Turkish sample (Profile 2 TR "Moderate RS - AS – High PC Profile") and the French sample (Profile 3 FR "Moderate RS - AS – High PC Profile") were characterized by a moderate level of RS - AS, and high levels of PC for father and mother. In this profile, Turkish university students presented higher levels of positive affect, negative affect and psychological flourishing compared to French university students, but the level of self-construal was similar in both groups. Although similar perceived parenting profile to the French Profile 3 FR ("Moderate RS - AS – High PC Profile"), the Turkish sample showed a high levels of difference on positive affect, negative affect and psychological flourishing were found (Despite being similar to the French Profile 3 FR ("Moderate RS - AS – High PC Profile"), the Turkish sample was found to have a high level difference on positive affect, negative affect and psychological flourishing). However, the Profile 2 TR presented higher levels of RS, PC and AS for father and mother compared to Profile 3 FR. While Profile 3 FR presented a higher level of BC compared to Profile 2 TR.

Figure 1. Optimal profile solutions for Turkish sample (2 profiles) and French sample (3 profiles).



Note: RS = Responsiveness, AS = Autonomy Support, PC = Psychological Control

Table 2. Means and Standard deviations for study variables as a function of clusters.

| | Profile 1 TR (n=133) | | Profile 2 TR (n= 191) | | Profile 1 FR (n=61) | | Profile 2 FR (n=105) | | Profile 3 FR (n=89) | | | | |
|-----------------|---------------------------|------|--------------------------------------|------|---------------------------|------|------------------------------------|------|--|------|--------|-----|------|
| Profiles | "High RS - AS Profile" | | "Moderate RS-AS/ High PC Profile" | | "High RS - AS Profile" | | "High RS - AS Profile - MOTHER" | | "Moderate RS - AS/ High PC Profile" | | F | p | η² |
| | (41.05 %) | | (58.95 %) | | (23.92 %) | | (41.18 %) | | (34.90 %) | | | | |
| | Mean | SD | Mean | SD | Mean | SD | Mean | SD | Mean | SD | | | |
| age | 20.44 _a | | 20.43 _a | | 21.20 _a | 4.25 | 21.16 _a | 2.65 | 20.88 _a | 3.99 | 1,82 | .12 | 0,01 |
| Parenting | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| RS Father | 4,21 _a | 0,75 | 3,58 _b | 0,66 | 4,15 _a | 0,70 | 1,79 _c | 0,72 | 3,16 _d | 0,85 | 142,01 | .12 | 0,50 |
| BC Father | 2,51 _a | 0,87 | 2,46 _a | 0,90 | 2,13 _b | 0,64 | 2,31 _a | 0,90 | 2,83 _c | 0,70 | 9,41 | .01 | 0,06 |
| PC Father | 2,09 _a | 0,69 | 3,62 _b | 0,68 | 1,62 _c | 0,56 | 2,78 _d | 1,00 | 2,60 _d | 0,88 | 154,35 | .01 | 0,52 |
| AS Father | 4,12 _a | 0,68 | 3,60 _b | 0,69 | 3,74 _b | 0,47 | 3,00 _c | 0,84 | 3,35 _d | 0,63 | 36,80 | .01 | 0,20 |
| RS Mother | 4,62 _a | 0,46 | 3,91 _b | 0,58 | 4,65 _a | 0,52 | 4,38 _c | 0,78 | 3,54 _d | 1,00 | 60,16 | .01 | 0,30 |
| BC Mother | 2,53 _a | 0,90 | 2,24 _b | 0,73 | 2,15 _b | 0,65 | 2,08 _b | 0,66 | 3,09 _c | 0,76 | 27,22 | .01 | 0,16 |
| PC Mother | 2,15 _a | 0,75 | 3,68 _b | 0,66 | 1,52 _c | 0,53 | 2,18 _a | 0,85 | 3,35 _d | 0,69 | 222,60 | .01 | 0,61 |
| AS Mother | 4,28 _a | 0,61 | 3,85 _b | 0,63 | 3,80 _b | 0,49 | 3,81 _b | 0,45 | 3,37 _c | 0,62 | 33,45 | .01 | 0,19 |
| Variables | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Positive Affect | 3,40 _a | 0,71 | 3,39 _a | 0,78 | 3,14 _b | 0,76 | 3,03 _b | 0,65 | 3,02 _b | 0,67 | 7,39 | .01 | 0,05 |
| Negative Affect | 1,63 _a | 0,59 | 3,18 _b | 0,96 | 1,54 _a | 0,52 | 1,70 _a | 0,73 | 1,77 _a | 0,63 | 137,81 | .01 | 0,49 |
| Self-Constraint | 5,74 _a | 0,70 | 5,19 _b | 0,65 | 5,43 _c | 0,88 | 5,05 _b | 1,02 | 5,01 _b | 0,95 | 15,84 | .01 | 0,10 |
| P. Flourishing | 6,26 _a | 0,35 | 6,29 _a | 0,31 | 5,70 _b | 0,68 | 5,23 _c | 0,99 | 5,30 _c | 0,91 | 73,65 | .01 | 0,34 |

Note. Turkish sample n= 324 ; French sample n= 255, N = 579

RS. = Responsiveness, BC = Behavioral Control, PC =Psychological Control, AS = Autonomy Support, P. Flourishing. = Psychological Flourishing

Discussion

The findings provided evidence that adolescent's perception and reports on controlling and autonomy-supportive parenting differed in the Turkish and French samples, but the predictive power of such parenting on adolescent's perception of responsiveness parenting was found to be similar in the two countries when High RS - AS Profile (Profile 1 TR – Profile1 FR) was taken into consideration. This means that adolescents' perceived responsiveness of parents is not significantly different when the autonomy-supportive parenting in both cultures is considered. On the other hand, Turkish adolescents reported a higher perception of mother and father behavioral controlling and autonomy support compared to French adolescents. Turkish adolescents also presented a higher score on psychological control of parents compared to French adolescents, with respect to High RS - AS Profile.

Furthermore, Turkish adolescents reported higher positive affect, self-construal and flourishing scores than French adolescents. Although cultural relativist perspectives on well-being have called into question the uniformity of the undermining role of parenting with psychological control (e.g., Soenens et al., 2015), the empirical evidence to date yielded by research comparing both the Turkish and French generally does not support such perspectives. There are several possibilities for such findings. In collectivist cultures, since parental control might be the norm children might be more likely accept it (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005; Rudy & Grusec, 2006). For instance, in collectivist cultures (e.g. China), parental control is not perceived very negatively by children and is more accepted, so its negative effects are not as strong as in Western countries (Rudy & Grusec, 2006). As a result, it might have less negative effects on the developmental outcomes. Indeed, in collectivist cultures, the detrimental effect of parents making decisions on behalf of children is limited, because children's perception of their parents' decisions as their own provides an opportunity for them to harmonize with their parents. Considering this frame of reference, the positive affect, self-construal and flourishing scores of Turkish adolescents are higher than their French counterparts when they perceived autonomy and supportiveness from their parents even if their parents exerted psychological control. In collectivist cultures, as control has been seen as a part of good parenting and may exert control more deliberately and calmly, it has less negative effect. (Wang et al., 2007). Another possible explanation is that the meaning of psychological control differs in every culture. Such parenting constructs might be related to the way parents show their care and love towards their children in the collectivist cultures (Chao, 1994).

In addition, Turkish adolescents also report higher negative affect than French adolescents. The possible explanation may be the style of internalization. Self-Determination Theory (SDT) distinguishes between several types of behavioral regulation, which differ in the extent to which they reflect internalization into the self. SDT posits five styles of internalization, namely a motivation, external regulation, introjection regulation, identified regulation and autonomy-supportive style. SDT claims that if parents are autonomy supportive, adolescents would feel competent, related, and autonomous. To integrate a regulation, people must grasp its meaning and synthesize that meaning with respect to their other goals and values. On the other hand, close relations are desired rather than individualistic separation which explains the existence of parental control. The resultant self is the "autonomous-related self" which is different from both the (autonomous-) separate self and the (heteronomous-) related self (low SES/rural) family (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005). Separate self is typical in Western individualistic family patterns and related self is typical in traditional collectivist families. This combination indeed points to the compatibility of "control" and "autonomy" orientations in child rearing, a finding that supports Kağıtçıbaşı's family model of emotional (psychological) interdependence.

Given the results of the current study, introjection involves regulation but does not involve total acceptance and may be the type of "autonomous-related self." This is a relatively controlled form of regulation in which behaviors are carried out to avoid relative guilt or anxiety, or to achieve pride. Psychological control can cause negative feelings for the children/adolescents; however, introjection style of regulation allows them to harmonize and be compatible with their parents, which as a result makes them feel better. Findings to date are consistent with SDT's (Deci & Ryan, 1985) notion that there is a universal need for autonomy and controlling environments harm to the fulfilment of autonomy.

Conclusion

To summarize, this cross-cultural study examined the relationships between parental control with self-construal and psychological flourishing of children within both Turkish and French group. Differences were found between these two groups in terms of psychological and behavioral control, and their respective consequences on self-construal and psychological flourishing. Clearly, the Turkish parents present higher levels of psychological and behavioral control in their relationships with their children compared to French parents. These results are consistent with Kağıtçıbaşı's (1996, 2005) prediction. In addition, the Turkish group, which is characterized in literature as a collectivist-oriented culture presented systematically higher levels of autonomy support compared to French parents in all group comparisons (Table 1) and also in each profile (Table 2). This result shows that the Turkish group no longer corresponds entirely to a collectivist culture but does not fulfil the criteria of an individualistic culture either. These results support the pivotal role of psychological and behavioral control in Turkish parental behaviors, and Turkish parents seem to give gradual importance to support for autonomy. These findings may contribute to a better comprehension of mechanisms that organize the parental relationships in Turkish and French parents. Behavioral and psychological controls are clearly not adaptive parental behaviors in France but represent adaptive behaviors in Türkiye. The strict transposition of the individualist culture parental control is not adaptive for the Turkish context. In addition, Turkish parents seem to be partially adopting individualistic parenting practices, which are mostly important according to autonomy support.

Limitations and Suggestions

A number of limitations should be emphasized in this study. First limitation is that the sample consisted of university students from urban areas in Türkiye. These adolescents groups are exposed to Western society through media, such as TV programs that promote Western values. Future studies should examine the associations among the study variables using data from adolescents and children living in rural areas. Second, the present study is a casual comparative study, and it aims to figure out the direction of causal links between parental characteristic and child developments. It is obvious that children who have already internalized respect and family values require less compulsion, and they may also have parents who are more supportive of their liberty. Although, not unique to Turkish culture, adolescents who have more positive affect and psychological well-being tend to have parents who Parenting that is psychologically controlling has detrimental effects even if it has been demonstrated to encourage the internalization of hierarchical values and predict more affiliation with family values. This study is also limited with university students (ages between 18 and 25) and middle-income families.

While evaluating the results of this research, a few other limitations should also be taken into account. Firstly, the cross-sectional design precluded examining the casual relationships between the effects. In particular, it made it more difficult to accurately gauge the indirect consequences. But, research also demonstrates that as adolescents mature, parents' and adolescents' perspectives on parenting converge more (Mastrotheodoros et al. 2018). In addition, adolescents' self-reported on all measured constructs, which may have enhanced the connections between the variables. In keeping the mind, gender of the adolescents might be considered for the prospective studies that gender of adolescents provides more detail information about the relations between parent and adolescent. Finally, since developmental age was the main emphasis, university students in France and Turkey were sampled. It could be argued that the developmental contexts offered by high school versus university provide different. To address the limitations of this study, future research utilizing longitudinal designs, samples from both high school and university settings, and multi-informant assessments is necessary.

The type of internalization of family values requires further explanation in emotional/ psychological - independence culture and collectivist culture. According to results of this study, it is crucial for counselors or family therapists to enhance clients to explore what parent practices may be resulted in endorsement of self (individualistic or relational) and how to develop different perspectives and experiences with the mainstream culture to help with cultural adjustment.

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Examining Mother-Child Agreement in the Reports of Child Competence by Maternal Education and Gender

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to examine whether the level of agreement between mothers' and children's reports of children's self-perception across different areas differ(s) by child gender and maternal educational level. The sample consisted of adolescents aged between 9 and 14 and their mothers (N = 270). Adolescents filled out Harter's Self-Perception Profile for Children (SPPC; 2012) to assess their competence in different domains (e.g., social adjustment, school success). The instructions for SPPC were modified for mothers to evaluate their children's perception of competence. The reports of mothers and their children were compared, and the results indicated low-to-moderate agreement between mothers-child dyads about children's sense of competence. Second, children were found to have a higher global sense of self-worth and perceive themselves as more competent in social, behavioral, and athletic areas when compared to their mothers' perceptions. Finally, it was determined that the agreement between the mother-child dyad differs by the mothers' education level and the child's gender. Accordingly, low-educated mothers perceived their children as less behaviorally competent than the children themselves did. Regarding social competence, the perception of low-educated mothers differed with their daughters but not with their sons. The results were discussed in view of the context of Turkish mothers' socialization and gender role expectations.

More than two decades ago, Harter (1999) defined self-perception as the traits one knowingly accepts and uses to describe oneself by referring to the duality between the I-self as 'knower' and the Me-self as 'known object'. This dynamic cognitive process is comparable to reformulating a scientific hypothesis or theory with each new piece of information (Epstein, 1973). As Cooley (1902) described with the concept of the "looking-glass self" (p. 184), one's self-perception grows out of interactions and experiences with his or her significant others, which serve as social mirrors. Therefore, children's developing self-related beliefs are considered to be associated with their social interactions, especially with their parents. Hattie (1992) suggested that "parental evaluations, interests and expectations" play an essential role in promoting children's self-concept (p. 189). In that sense, the existing literature primarily focuses on a more tangible area: the impact of parents' beliefs about their children on children's subject-based self-concept (Frome & Eccles, 1998; Gniewosz et al., 2014; McGrath & Repetti, 2000; Phillips, 1987). In that sense, parents as "expectancy socializers" communicate their expectations regarding their children's competence in various areas through direct and indirect ways. Direct ways can be exemplified by encouragements, comments or messages about the difficulty level of a task (Parsons et al., 1982, p. 311), whereas indirect ways by finding a tutor, helping with their homework (Gniewosz et al., 2014). A considerable amount of evidence shows that parents' earlier beliefs regarding their children's

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capabilities predicted adolescents' later self-perceptions about science (Bleeker & Jacobs, 2004), math (Pesu et al., 2016); literacy (Pesu et al., 2018); English (Frome & Eccles, 1998), German (Gniewosz et al., 2014), achievement, domain-general school-related abilities (Spinath & Spinath, 2005) and physical competence (Bois et al., 2002; Bois et al., 2005). Furthermore, parents' beliefs were better predictors of children's later performance than children's actual performance or previous accomplishments such as grades or performance rankings (Jacobs & Eccles, 1992). Some findings seem particularly striking in that parents' appraisals about their children's capabilities (Phillips, 1987) and mothers' satisfaction with their grades (McGrath & Repetti, 2000) were stronger predictors for children's self-perceptions of general academic competence than actual records of achievement especially in the transition to higher school level (Gniewosz et al., 2012). A more recent study showed that parents' perceptions of their adolescent's abilities mediated the influence of actual performance on their self-perceptions (Gniewosz et al., 2014). This indicates that parents act as interpreters of information about actual competence records for their children's self-perceptions.

Although previous findings pointed to the strong influence of parents' appraisals on children's self-perceptions, meta-analytic findings showed that parents and children agree to a small-to-moderate degree about their social and behavioral functioning (Renk & Phares, 2004), social and emotional skills (Gresham et al., 2017) and mental health, explicitly internalizing and externalizing problems (De Los Reyes et al., 2015; Lohaus et al., 2020). These relatively recent findings seem align with the previous ones of a meta-analysis of 119 studies, which revealed low-to-moderate convergence between self- and proxyreports (namely, parents, teachers, peers, and mental health workers) about behavioral/emotional problems (Achenbach et al., 1987). Some empirical studies show a moderate degree of parent-adolescent agreement about children's achievement in academic areas such as Math and English (Bornholt & Goodnow, 1999). On the other hand, some studies showed that the level of agreement between parents' perception of their children's competence and children's self-perception differs depending on the area (Epkins, 1998; Montgomery, 1994). For example, the agreement was higher in social and scholastic competence than the areas of athletic skills, physical appearance, and behavioral competence (Epkins, 1998). Given these findings, the first aim of this study was to compare mothers' perceptions about their children's capabilities to children's self-perceptions in domain-specific areas (i.e., school achievement, sports performance, social skills, physical appearance, and behavioral competence) as well as a global sense of self-worth.

Previous studies suggest that the discrepancy between mother and child perceptions of children's psychological functioning is a risk factor for adverse outcomes such as child behavior problems and harsh parenting practices (De Los Reyes & Kazdin, 2006; Ferdinand et al., 2004). These findings highlight the importance of studying potential discrepancies in mother-child perceptions as a predictor of child and family functioning. However, it is not clear whether they are generalizable to the non-WEIRD (Westernized, Educated, Industrialized, Rich, Democratic; Brummelman & Thomaes, 2017) populations, who are underrepresented (only 3% of the samples of published studies) in psychology literature (Nielsen et al., 2017). Familial relationships in Turkey, where this study was conducted, are characterized by intergenerational "psychological/emotional interdependence" of family members even when material interdependencies decrease due to urbanization and modernization (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2017). On the contrary, Western societies are identified by the independent family model displaying autonomy in both material and emotional realms. In the model proposed by Kağıtçıbaşı (2017), individualism and collectivism can exist side-by-side, indicating that autonomy goes together with relatedness. In that sense, Turkish mothers' parenting socialization values demonstrate differences based on socio-demographic characteristics such as their educational level (Altan-Aytun et al., 2012; Durgel et al., 2012; Yağmurlu et al., 2009), and their whereabouts (rural vs. city; Imamoğlu, 1998). This study, drawing on a Turkish sample of mother-child dyads from different backgrounds, may thus contribute to a reconsideration of Western normativity in the pertinent literature.

Moderators of Mother-child Agreement on Child Outcomes: Child Gender and Maternal Education

Previous findings point out that individual characteristics of informants, such as gender, age, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, social desirability, and mental well-being may lead to variation in self-reports and agreement with others (De Los Reyes & Kazdin, 2005; Lohaus et al., 2020). The second aim of this study is to examine whether the level and pattern of the agreement in mother-child dyads differ by child gender and maternal

educational level. Existing findings regarding whether mother-child discrepancies in their perceptions of child psychological outcomes vary by child gender seem mixed. Some findings showed no gender differences in discrepancy between mothers and children reports about children's anxiety disorders (e.g., Affrunti & Woodruff-Borden, 2015; Choudhury et al., 2003; Grills & Ollendick, 2002; Pereira et al., 2015). However, others indicated that the agreement between parents' and children's reports was stronger for depressive symptoms in girls and aggression in boys (Epkins & Meyers, 1994). Furthermore, some studies revealed contradicting results for their anxiety disorders, such that parents showed somewhat higher agreement with their sons (Rapee et al., 1994). In contrast there was a higher agreement between mothers and their daughters (van Doorn et al., 2018). Other studies showed that parent-son agreement was significantly more substantial regarding behavioral disorders (Reich et al., 1982) and depressive symptoms (Angold et al., 1987). In addition, another line of research shows that children's self-perceptions of their psychosocial and behavioral outcomes may vary by gender. Accordingly, the results demonstrated that girls view themselves as more competent in behavioral conduct (Cole et al., 2001; Kuzucu et al., 2013; Guimaraes, 2015) and academics (Fu et al., 2020) than boys. On the other hand, in comparison with boys, they perceive themselves less athletic and less physically attractive (Cole et al., 2001; Guimaraes, 2015; Kuzucu et al., 2013; Mendelson et al., 1996); less socially capable and less self-worthy (Guimaraes, 2015; Noordstar & Volman, 2020; Van den Bergh & Marcoen, 1999). It seems that child gender is a crucial predictor for the level of their agreement with their parents and children's self-perceptions with no empirical consensus.

Existing findings regarding the relationship between parental education and informant discrepancies are mixed. Youngstrom and colleagues (2000) also showed that parents with a higher socioeconomic status (SES) agreed more with their male adolescents about their externalizing problems than those with a lower SES. It is not very unreasonable to expect high-educated parents to be more involved with their children's academic life and hence more knowledgeable about their strengths and weaknesses as they are more familiar with the education system (Räty et al., 1999). On the other hand, De Los Reyes and Kazdin (2005) argue that the supposed relation between the two is likely to be spurious and results from other informant characteristics. For instance, some studies revealed that when other characteristics, such as informants' mood, were considered, the SES was found to be unrelated to informant agreement/discrepancy (e.g., Chi & Hinshaw, 2002). According to Bornstein et al. (2003), maternal education seems to be the most reliable predictor among other SES demographics in predicting children's behavioral outcomes. Moreover, particularly in developing countries like Turkey, family income may not always reflect the educational background of family members (Yağmurlu et al., 2009), and economic status tends to be susceptible to change (McLoyd, 1998). Thus, in our study, maternal education level used as a moderator variable rather than family SES.

Overall, the question as to whether there are any child or mother characteristics moderating the concordance between the beliefs of the dyad regarding the child's capabilities and sense of self-worth seems unanswered for a non-WEIRD sample, our study examines whether the degree of agreement/discrepancy between Turkish children's self-evaluations and their mothers' perceptions about how their children view and feel about themselves varies by child gender and maternal educational level.

Method

Sample

The sample of this study included 270 middle school children with a mean age of 11.69 ($SD = 1.35$) and their mothers, who were recruited through the convenience sampling method. Being a middle school student was used as an inclusion criterion, while having any special education needs was used as an exclusion criterion in sample selection. No exclusion criterion was set for mothers. Of the participants, 54.1% were female, 52.2% were students at public schools, and the rest were at private schools. Their grade level ranged from 5th to 8th grade in middle school, and the proportion of students was similar across the grade levels. About 59.9% of mothers completed high school and/or higher degrees, and 55.6% were housewives. The average family income (monthly) was less than 6000 Turkish Liras (about 320 US dollars). The distribution of fathers' educational level was also included as an indicator of the SES of the families that participated in the study. Table 1 presents other demographic characteristics of the sample.

Table 1. Mother-Reported Demographic Characteristics

| | Mothers' Education | | Fathers' Education | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|-------|--------------------|-------|
| | n | % | n | % |
| Primary School | 79 | 30.7% | 53 | 21.2% |
| Middle School | 24 | 9.3% | 31 | 12.4% |
| High School | 65 | 25.3% | 86 | 34.4% |
| Vocational Sch. of Higher Edu. | 23 | 8.9% | 9 | 3.6% |
| University | 46 | 17.9% | 54 | 21.6% |
| Master's degree | 10 | 3.9% | 13 | 5.2% |
| Others | 10 | 3.9% | 4 | 1.6% |
| Mothers' Employment Status | | | | |
| Housewife | 150 | 55.6% | | |
| Employed | 107 | 39.6% | | |
| Monthly Income (Turkish Liras) | | | | |
| Less than 2000 | 53 | 19.6% | | |
| 2000 – 5999 | 123 | 45.6% | | |
| 6000 – 9999 | 39 | 14.4% | | |
| More than 10000 | 31 | 11.5% | | |

Procedure

Ethical approval from the Institutional Review Board for Research of the university and permission from the Ministry of Education were obtained in 2017. The project was announced at five different schools through the help of school counselors, and the informed consent and family information forms were sent to the mothers via their children. Children of participating mothers were asked to participate in the study, and their consent was also received. The children gave their consent to participate in the study and filled out the forms on school grounds. Data were collected between May and November 2017 through home visits or in schools.

Measures

Harter's self-perception profile for children (SPPC) - child and mother forms. Harter's (1982) Self-Perception Profile for children, which was developed to measure children's self-evaluation in terms of scholastic (i.e., Perception of their cognitive and academic abilities), social (i.e., Perception of social skills and acceptance by others), athletic competence (i.e., Perception of competence in sports), physical appearance (i.e., Contentedness of one's looks), behavioral conduct (i.e., Behaving as they supposed to), and global sense of self-worth (i.e., General evaluation of oneself as a person) through 36 items was filled out by both mothers and children. However, the sum of domain-specific competence beliefs does not generate global self-worth; instead, it is separate construct (Harter, 2012). This questionnaire has a "structured alternative format" in which the participant is given two statements about children (i.e., scholastic competence: *Some kids often forget what they learn, but other kids can remember things quickly*), and they are expected to choose one of them "really true for me" and "sort of true for me" (Harter, 2012, p.4). Each item is scored from one (i.e., a low sense of

competence) to four (i.e., a high sense of competence). Harter (2012) stated that the same items could be used to examine adults' perception of competence regarding their children. Therefore, the same questionnaire was used for the mothers to measure their perception of their children. In mothers' form, only the instruction was modified (i.e., some kids find it hard to make friends but others find it pretty easy to make friends), and the response choices were changed to "really true for my child" and "sort of true for my child" but the items and the format of the scale remain unchanged. The original version has sufficient internal consistency, reliabilities, and validity (Harter, 2012). The Turkish form was adapted by Şekercioğlu (2009), and the original design of the Self-Perception Profile of Children (SPPC) was found to be reliable and valid for Turkish culture. In this study, Cronbach's alpha coefficients of subscales ranged from .58 to .80 for Child Form and from .55 to .74 for the Mother Form. It was suggested that to investigate the agreement between the perception of adults and children in related areas, Harter's SPPC can be used (Harter, 2012).

Family Information Form. In this form, the mothers reported the birth date, gender, school type, and grade level of their children participating the current study, and also their own and husband's educational level, their current employment status and monthly income of their family.

Statistical Analyses

The Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS – v. 23) was used to analyze the data. Six dependent variables for self-report and mother-report measures were used: scholastic competence, social competence, athletic competence, physical appearance, behavioral conduct, and general self-worth. The studies of discrepancies or agreement between different informants on child outcomes have been noted as a methodological issue as difference scores between the raters were used in some studies (e.g., De Los Reyes & Kazdin, 2005) while correlation coefficients were presented in others as indicators of multi-informants' agreement (e.g., Achenbach et al., 1987; Berg-Nielsen et al., 2003). In this study, the agreement between mothers and pre-adolescents was examined by using 95% confidence intervals (CI) of the mean difference and Cohen's d. In this study, for the second research question, a one-way between-group multivariate analysis of variance was conducted to investigate whether self-reports and mothers' reports differ based on some demographics. For maternal education as moderator of a discrepancy, the mothers were categorized into two groups as low educated ($n = 103$) continued school for compulsory education for 8 years or less and high educated mothers ($n = 144$) continued school more than 8 years.

Results

Descriptive Statistics And Consistency Between Scores of Mothers' and Children's Reports

Table 2 presents the mean scores of mothers' and children's reports, their associated 95% confidence intervals (CI) of the mean difference, and standardized effect sizes (d). The effect size was categorized into three groups, $d = 0.2$ as small, $d = 0.5$ as medium, and $d = 0.8$ as large (Cohen, 1988).

As Table 2 shows, the effect size was low-to-moderate for the total sample; mothers underrated their children's perception of their competence in four areas, namely social, athletic, and behavioral competence and general self-worth. A glance at gender differences in mother-child agreement demonstrates that girls rated their social and athletic skills and general self-worth higher than their mothers did while mothers scored their daughters' scholastic performance higher than the daughters themselves. On the other hand, boys rated themselves as more competent in the behavioral domain and general self-worth than their mothers thought whereas the mothers rated their sons' perception of physical appearance higher than the boys themselves. Regarding whether the mother-child agreement differs by maternal education, the results revealed that the low-educated mothers underrated their children's competence in the areas of social and behavioral domains and their general sense of self-worth. On the other hand, the high-educated mothers underrated their children's athletic competence and a general sense of self-worth while they overrating their children's academic competence.

Table 2. Mothers' and children's reports on self-perception profile

| Self-Perception Profile domains | Mother-report <i>M</i> (SD) | Child-report <i>M</i> (SD) | 95% CI | <i>Cohen's d</i> | Mother-report <i>M</i> (SD) | Child-report <i>M</i> (SD) | 95% CI | <i>Cohen's d</i> |
|---|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------|------------------|--|-------------------------------|-------------------|------------------|
| <i>Full Sample (N = 235)</i> | | | | | | | | |
| Scholastic Competence | 3.22 (.57) | 3.16 (.61) | [-0.02, 0.14] | 0.10 | | | | |
| Social Competence | 2.98 (.56) | 3.11 (.57) | [-0.21, -0.05]** | 0.21 | | | | |
| Athletic Competence | 2.92 (.59) | 3.02 (.62) | [-0.19, -0.02]* | 0.15 | | | | |
| Physical Appearance | 3.18 (.64) | 3.11 (.74) | [-0.03, 0.17] | 0.10 | | | | |
| Behavioral Conduct | 3.06 (.62) | 3.19 (.58) | [-0.21, -0.05]** | 0.21 | | | | |
| General Self-Worth | 3.24 (.54) | 3.45 (.55) | [-0.29, -0.12]*** | 0.32 | | | | |
| <i>Female (N = 126)</i> | | | | | <i>Male (N = 109)</i> | | | |
| Scholastic Competence | 3.35 (.54) | 3.23 (.62) | [0.02, 0.22]* | 0.21 | 3.07 (.57) | 3.07 (.58) | [-0.14, 0.12] | 0.01 |
| Social Competence | 2.98 (.57) | 3.15 (.61) | [-0.29, -0.06]** | 0.27 | 2.98 (.55) | 3.07 (.52) | [-0.20, 0.03] | 0.14 |
| Athletic Competence | 2.88 (.61) | 3.00 (.67) | [-0.23, -0.01]* | 0.18 | 2.97 (.56) | 3.05 (.56) | [-0.22, 0.05] | 0.12 |
| Physical Appearance | 3.11 (.68) | 3.12 (.79) | [-0.13, 0.13] | 0.01 | 3.27 (.59) | 3.11 (.67) | [0.02, 0.31]* | 0.21 |
| Behavioral Conduct | 3.18 (.61) | 3.27 (.57) | [-0.21, 0.02] | 0.15 | 2.93 (.60) | 3.10 (.57) | [-0.28, -0.06]** | 0.28 |
| General Self-Worth | 3.23 (.57) | 3.46 (.57) | [-0.34, -0.11]*** | 0.42 | 3.25 (.50) | 3.43 (.53) | [-0.30, -0.06]** | 0.29 |
| <i>Mothers' education < 8 years (N = 98)</i> | | | | | <i>Mothers' education > 8 years (N = 126)</i> | | | |
| Scholastic Competence | 3.10 (.56) | 3.12 (.57) | [-0.16, 0.11] | 0.04 | 3.32 (.57) | 3.19 (.64) | [0.02, 0.24]* | 0.21 |
| Social Competence | 2.85 (.56) | 3.03 (.52) | [-0.30, -0.05]** | 0.27 | 3.08 (.54) | 3.19 (.60) | [-0.22, -0.00] | 0.18 |
| Athletic Competence | 2.86 (.56) | 2.94 (.59) | [-0.21, 0.06] | 0.11 | 2.94 (.62) | 3.09 (.64) | [-0.26, -0.03]* | 0.22 |
| Physical Appearance | 3.15 (.68) | 3.10 (.74) | [-0.12, 0.21] | 0.05 | 3.23 (.62) | 3.15 (.73) | [-0.05, 0.20] | 0.11 |
| Behavioral Conduct | 2.91 (.65) | 3.13 (.59) | [-0.36, -0.90]** | 0.34 | 3.18 (.58) | 3.23 (.56) | [-0.15, 0.04] | 0.10 |
| General Self-Worth | 3.09 (.56) | 3.33 (.59) | [-0.39, -0.10]** | 0.33 | 3.35 (.49) | 3.54 (.51) | [-0.30, -0.09]*** | 0.34 |

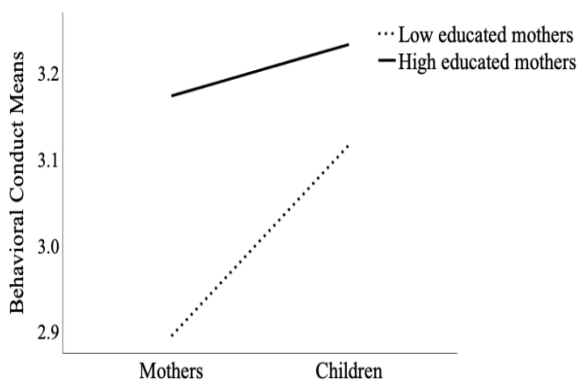
* $<.05$, ** $<.01$, *** $<.001$

The Moderating Role of Child Gender and Maternal Education Level on Mother-Child Agreement

Mixed design analysis of variance (ANOVA) with one within-subjects, and two between-subjects factors (mother-child dyad \times gender \times mother education level) was used to compare mother's reports and children's self-reports separately for six domains of self-perception and examine whether the child gender and mother's education level moderate the agreement between mothers' reports and child's reports on children's self-perceptions.

In the area of behavioral conduct, the ANOVA results showed no significant three-way interaction, $F(1, 220) = 1.61, p = .21$, however, the two-way interaction between mother-child dyad in mothers' education was significant $F(1, 220) = 4.06, p = .05$, indicating that the mothers' educational level had a moderating role in mother-children agreement as illustrated in Figure 3. While high-educated mothers' perceptions and their children's self-perceptions regarding children's behavioral competence did not differ significantly $t(125) = -1.07, p = .29$, low-educated mothers' perceptions significantly differed from those of their children regardless of their gender. In that sense, children ($M = 3.13, SD = .59$) perceived themselves more behaviorally competent than mothers ($M = 2.91, SD = .61$) perceived them, $t(97) = -3.33, p = .001$.

Figure 1. The moderating role of maternal educational level in mothers' and children's reports of behavioral conduct



The results showed significant results for a three-way interaction in social competence, $F(1, 220) = 4.57, p = .034$. To further examine this three-way interaction, one within-subjects (mother-child dyad) one between-subjects (level of mothers' education) ANOVA was conducted separately for girls and boys. The mothers' education level had a moderating role in the agreement between mother-daughter dyads, as in Figure 2. Accordingly, there was an agreement between high-educated mothers and their daughters in terms of how socially competent they are, as shown by the insignificant t -test difference, $t(67) = -.80, p = .43$. On the other hand, low-educated mothers' perceptions ($M = 2.85, SD = .54$) significantly differed from their daughters' self-perceptions ($M = 3.14, SD = .54$) in this domain, $t(53) = -3.26, p = .00$. These results indicated that the daughters of low-educated mothers perceived themselves as more socially competent than their mothers thought. Nevertheless, the mothers' educational level did not have a moderating role in the agreement of the mother-son dyad, as the two-way interaction (mother-child dyad \times mother education level) was not significant.

Figure 2. The moderating role of maternal education level in mothers' reports and girls' self-report of social competence

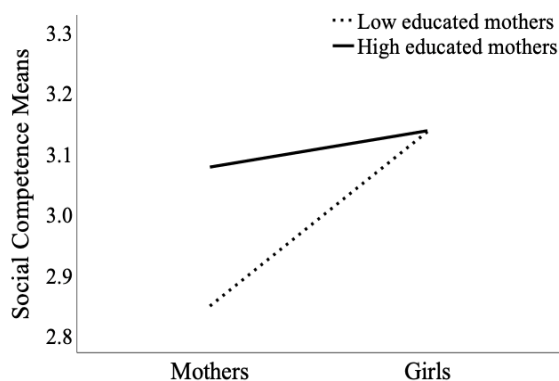
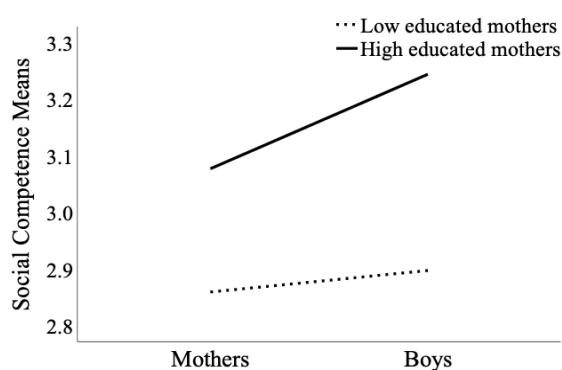


Figure 3. The moderating role of maternal education level in mothers' reports and boys' self-report of social competence



Discussion

Previous studies that compared self- and proxyreports revealed that parents and children agreed to a small degree about children's social and behavioral functioning (e.g., Renk & Phares, 2004) and mental health (e.g., De Los Reyes et al., 2015). There is some evidence showing that parents' beliefs about their children's capabilities predicted children's later self-perceptions of domain-general (Spinath & Spinath, 2005) and domain-specific (Bleeker & Jacobs, 2004) skills beyond children's actual performance (Jacobs & Eccles, 1992). Given previous findings that some informant characteristics may influence discrepancies between children's and parents' reports on children's psychological functioning (De Los Reyes & Kazdin, 2005), it seems critical to investigate whether there are any child or mother characteristics moderating the concordance between the beliefs of the dyad, especially among non-WEIRD samples. This inquiry can shed light on the generalizability of existing findings to Western populations. In this study, we examined whether the degree of agreement between mothers' and their preadolescent children's ratings on children's competence in various areas of functioning differs with respect to maternal education and child gender in a sample of Turkish mother-child dyads. Three striking results can be gleaned from this study. First of all, our findings showed a mother-child perception discrepancy in that children perceived their skills as better than their mothers in many areas (i.e., social, behavioral and athletic competence a general sense of self-worth). Second, low-educated mothers' perceptions significantly differed from those of their children regarding children's behavioral competence although there was no such discrepancy between high-educated mothers' and their children's perceptions in this domain. Third, maternal education level predicted mother-child agreement on children's social skills differently in boys and girls. It only moderated the agreement between mother-daughter dyads. Whereas high-educated mothers agreed with their daughters regarding their social skills, low-educated mothers underrated their daughters in this domain.

Our findings supported previous meta-analytic ones showing a small-to-moderate agreement between mothers and their children on children's psychological (Achenbach et al., 1987; De Los Reyes & Kazdin, 2005; Renk & Phares, 2004) and social-behavioral functioning (Renk & Phares, 2004), which points out the importance of obtaining multi-informant ratings given that one source is not replaceable with the other. Our results specifically demonstrated that children perceived their social (e.g., some kids find it hard to make friends), behavioral (e.g., some kids know what they shouldn't do) and athletic (e.g., some kids wish they could be a lot better at sports) skills as better and felt more worthy (e.g., some kids are very happy being the way they are) than their mothers did. Previous research showed that parent-adolescent agreement is much stronger about the child's externalizing behaviors that are bothersome and observable compared to the internalizing ones, which might be concealed by the child or overlooked by the parent for some reasons (e.g., Achenbach et al., 1987; Angold et al., 1987; Kemper et al., 2003; Thompson et al., 1993). Regarding children's social competence, some of the behaviors that pre-adolescents use to build and maintain positive social relationships with peers

may not be salient to their mothers (Karver, 2006). Thus, it is possible that mothers' information about how satisfied their teenage sons or daughters are with the number of their friends or the quality of their friendships may be limited, unless there are warning signs. The same argument may apply to the discrepancy in perception of the child's sense of global self-worth in a dyad. Kemper and colleagues (2003) found that mother-child agreement was even smaller for invisible notions such as low self-worth compared to behavioral manifestations of internalizing problems such as social withdrawal and crying. Thus, it may not seem surprising to identify a remarkable perception discrepancy in the mother-child dyad regarding the child's functioning in the aforementioned domains.

We also found that the degree of agreement on children's behavioral competence in mother-child dyads was moderated by maternal education level and child gender. Accordingly, while high-educated mothers' perceptions converge on their children's self-perceptions, low-educated mothers underestimated their children's behavioral competence regardless of gender. In Harter's scale, behavioral conduct is assessed by asking respondents to report the extent to which children behave as they are supposed to behave (Harter, 2012). Although the family in Turkish culture is characterized by the synthesis of relatedness and agency (i.e., the construct of 'autonomous-related self', Kağıtçıbaşı, 1996, 2017), some findings show that low-educated mothers in Turkey are more likely to prioritize the former over the latter in their socialization goals (Yağmurlu et al., 2009). Thus, particularly in early adolescence, children's attempts for self-enhancement or individuation might be perceived as nonconforming and undesirable by low-educated parents, which may widen the discrepancy in perceptions of the child's behavioral competence in the dyad.

Our results demonstrated that the mother-child agreement on children's social competence was moderated by both maternal education level and child gender together. Further analyses showed that maternal education level was a significant moderator of the agreement on a child's social skills that help them make friends, become popular, and get accepted by classmates for girls but not for boys. Accordingly, low-educated mothers' perception significantly differed from their daughters' self-perceptions in that they underrated their daughters' social skills. On the other hand, no discrepancy was found in the perceptions of low-educated mothers and their sons, as the boys' self-perceptions were already low, just like how their mothers perceived them. It seems critical to provide possible answers to why low-educated mothers had a lower level of confidence in the ability of their daughters to build friendships and gain popularity among peers. One tentative explanation could be related to mothers' gender-differentiated social and behavioral expectations that might be more pronounced in low-educated mothers. It is known that maternal education level is inversely related to gender stereotypes in that the lower the education level, the higher the gender stereotypes that parents hold (Endendijk et al., 2013; Jan & Janssens, 1998). Substantial research demonstrates the effect of parents' gender-stereotypical beliefs on how they perceive their children's competence.

Furthermore, these beliefs are not restricted to academic domains. For instance, parents perceived that boys are better at team sports, whereas girls have better social skills (Jacobs & Eccles, 1992; Eccles et al., 1990). Recent research also reveals that parents convey direct and indirect messages about how girls and boys are supposed to behave in their 'gendered parenting' practices (Mesman & Groeneveld, 2017). Given these findings, the moderating effect of maternal education and child gender on the mother-child agreement cannot be considered independently of mothers' gender stereotypes. Thus, future research can examine the impact of maternal education and child gender on mother-child agreement covaries with mothers' gender stereotypes. Such inquiries could provide more robust explanations on why there is a relatively wide perception gap between low-educated mothers and their daughters and why this gap exists only for (low-educated) mother-daughter dyads (and only about social competence), but not for mother-son dyads.

Another possible explanation regarding the mismatch between low educated mothers and their daughters in terms of their social competence might be related to these mothers' 'egocentric bias' (Lagattuta et al. (2012). This term indicates that parents' sense of well-being shapes their perceptions of their children's well-being, either in a negative (e.g., depressed mothers tend to underestimate their children's behavioral functioning; Chi & Hinshaw, 2002; and anxious parents are more likely to perceive their children anxious; Lagattuta et al., 2012; mothers with trauma symptoms report their children as more traumatized; Exenberger et al., 2019) or positive direction (e.g., happier mothers tend to overestimate their children's level of happiness; López-Pérez

& Wilson, 2015). Low-educated mothers are likely to have limited opportunities to establish and maintain socially rewarding relationships in urban life due to low income and a lack of occupational experiences. The ensuing social isolation may shape their perception of their daughters' social lives.

It is also striking that there is a significant gap between the sons of high-educated mothers and those of low-educated ones in terms of their self-perceptions of social skills in contrast to the daughters of low-educated mothers who perceived their social skills as good as those of high-educated mothers. The answer to the question of why boys with high-educated mothers perceive their social skills (i.e., popularity, making friends) as being stronger than boys with low-educated mothers might be directly related to socio-economic factors such as that the first group may have more chances to attend peer activities (e.g., sport clubs, birthday parties, weekend trips, summer camps) that promote their friendships than the latter group. However, this explanation does not apply to the girls with low-educated mothers who perceive themselves as competent enough to establish and maintain friendships. Consequently, considering their self-reports, it seems that preadolescent boys are at a greater risk than girls in terms of keeping peer relationships if they come from less educated homes.

Contrary to our expectations, maternal education did not moderate mother-child perception discrepancy about children's academic competence. Previous research showed that highly educated parents have a refined view of children's academic skills (Räty, 2006; Räty et al., 1999), and maternal education level predicted mothers' perception of their children's scholastic abilities (Pomerantz & Dong, 2006) and children's grades and academic self-efficacy (Lv et al., 2018). This is probably because both parents' and children's perceptions rely on the results of objective assessment tools of academic success (e.g., grades or scores of standardized tests) and higher-educated parents may access school reports, most of which are shared through school websites or mobile apps or they might be just more knowledgeable about cognitive skills and academic performance in general. On the other hand, it is important to note that, differently from the aforementioned studies, we used a proxy measure of children's self-perception through particular items in Harter's scale (e.g., A mother endorses if the following statement is fully or partly true for her child: "Some kids *feel* that they are very good at school work") in addition to asking them what they think about how capable their children are (e.g., "Some kids are really slow in finishing their school work"). Thus, the mother-reported data we obtained not only capture mothers' perceptions of their children's capabilities but also their perceptions regarding how their children view their own abilities, including scholastic ones. In this sense, the measurement tool we used in this study is not exactly comparable with those used in previous ones (e.g., mothers rated how good their child was at math, science, social studies, reading, spelling, and English in the studies conducted by Pomerantz & Dong, 2006 and Räty, 2006). Keeping this measurement difference in mind, we argue that high-educated parents might be better at keeping track of their children's school success, but this does not necessarily make them better informants about how successful or smart their children *feel* themselves. Furthermore, since the previous studies reported lower academic outcomes and self-perception predicted by the mother-children discrepancy in academic aspirations (Lv et al., 2018) and academic expectations (Wang & Banner, 2014), it is possible to assume that parents' own thoughts, feelings, and hopes regarding their own children's future contributes or hinders their children's academic self-perception and school success.

Some limitations of the study should be acknowledged. First, De Los Reyes and Kazdin (2005) stated that the association between parental SES and multi-informant (e.g., parent-child) discrepancy in child psychopathology might be explained by other characteristics of the informants such as informants' well-being, which is compatible with the depression-distortion hypothesis (e.g., Chi & Hinshaw, 2002; Richters, 1992) and the relationship between the dyad (e.g., Treutler & Epkins, 2003). It is known that a low education level, particularly in a developing country like Turkey, brings a number of other stressors, including younger maternal age (e.g., Fox et al., 1995) and fewer economic resources and maternal psychopathology (e.g., Brody et al., 1994; Meyrose et al., 2018) that may challenge the mother-child relationship and affect the mothers' perception about her children. Since the current study was carried out as part of a larger project, the number of variables included in this study remained limited. Future studies that examine the role of cumulative stressors in mother-child perception discrepancy on child competence may provide more robust results. Furthermore, given the importance of multi-informant on assessing children's well-being and competence perceptions, fathers and teachers could also be part of larger examination.

Second, we focused on a specific developmental period, namely preadolescence (9 to 14 years), in this study. However, previous work revealed conflicting results: while in some studies, parent-child convergence was higher in preadolescence compared to adolescence (e.g., Tarullo et al., 1995), there was more concordance in parent-teenager dyads compared to earlier age groups in a different study (e.g., Reich et al., 1982). Future studies should target samples with a more comprehensive age range so that the level of multi-informant agreement can be compared across different developmental periods. Third, based on meta-analytic findings, De Los Reyes and colleagues (2015) argue that there might be within-person variations across contexts or time points of assessment. Our study was cross-sectional, and data were collected from May to November 2017, meaning that most of the respondents filled out the questionnaire during the summer holiday. Repeated assessments of children's self-perceptions about their competence, especially in academic domains, at different time points during the academic year would have enabled us to detect within-person variance over time.

Despite its limitations, our findings provide some implications for research and methodology. Our results support previous findings that are based on Western samples in which parents and their preadolescent children agree to a small to moderate degree regarding children's competence (Achenbach et al., 1987; De Los Reyes & Kazdin, 2005; Renk & Phares, 2004). They are also in line with previous literature that maternal characteristics are crucial predictors of mother-child perception discrepancy regarding the child's social-behavioral competence (e.g., Chi & Hinshaw, 2002; Råty et al., 1999; Youngstrom et al., 2000). On the other hand, our findings revealed that the most considerable discrepancy was between the low-educated mothers' and their daughters' perceptions of the latter's social skills. In a non-WEIRD country such as Turkey in which strong kinship bonds and interdependence characterize the family among family members (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2017), the endorsement of more conventional parenting such as mothers' different parenting values (e.g., conformity; Yağmurlu et al., 2009); parenting practices (e.g., parent-centered parenting; Durgel et al., 2012), and emotion socialization (e.g., the use of punishing and reasoning; Altan-Aytun et al., 2013) is differed by maternal educational level. Therefore, it seems critical to study parents' socialization values and gender-differentiated upbringing practices in relation to parent-child perception discrepancy regarding the child's psychological and social-behavioural functioning. The question as to if implicit and explicit gendered messages parents and other caregivers convey to their parenting practices in the upbringing of their children widen or narrow down the perception discrepancy of the dyad in gender groups remains unanswered and deserves scientific attention.

It is also essential to acknowledge some methodological issues. Researchers use different techniques to calculate multi-informant discrepancy or agreement, which has been noted as a methodological issue (De Los Reyes et al., 2015). Whereas difference scores between the raters were used in studies (e.g., De Los Reyes et al., 2015), correlation coefficients were computed as indicators of multi-informants' agreement in some others (e.g., Achenbach et al., 1987; Berg-Nielsen et al., 2003). In this study, the agreement between mothers and pre-adolescents was examined using difference scores, and statistical significance was tested with the 95% confidence interval of the difference in means. Furthermore, the Generalized Linear Model repeated measure was used to analyze the moderation effect of variables such as maternal education and child gender on the agreement between mothers and their children.

Overall, the parent-child discrepancy in perceptions of the child's competence is a risk factor for the child's psychological wellbeing (Ferdinand et al., 2004; Ferdinand et al., 2006) as well as the overall functioning of the family (De Los Reyes & Kazdin, 2006; Grills & Ollendick, 2002). Also, since the mothers' early perceptions of their children's capabilities predicted their later self-perception more strongly than children's actual performance (e.g., Bleeker & Jacobs, 2004; Bois et al., 2002), their perception and the discrepancy between mothers and their children play an important role in their children's well-being through their self-perception. Our findings showed that the degree of agreement between Turkish mothers and their preadolescent children is low and mothers tend to underrate their children's social-behavioral competence and sense of self-esteem. Furthermore, since children's self-competence perception was associated with depressive symptoms (Kuzucu et al., 2013), this supports the importance of competence perception on mental well-being. For future research, we recommend that since parents' gender stereotypic beliefs and socialization goals are related to parental education (Endendijk et al., 2013; Yağmurlu et al., 2009) and child gender (Angold et al., 1987; Rapee et al., 1994; Reich et al., 1982) should be studied in relation to parent-child perception discrepancy to understand what factors hinder low-educated mothers and their preadolescent daughters from agreeing on what

they can and cannot do in social life. Also, it is essential to investigate further its relationship with adolescents' psychological adjustment and well-being to develop policies and programs to support children from lower economic backgrounds.

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Data Availability: The data used in this study is available upon request from the corresponding author.

Ethics Approval and Consent to Participate: The participants were reached after the approval of the Ethics Committee of Boğaziçi University with the 03.03.2017 date and 2017/06 number was obtained for the study.

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Examination of the Factors Affecting the Adjustment of the Children of Divorced Families

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to investigate the systemic relationships in the school and family environments that may influence the divorce adjustment of children aged 6-11 from the point of views of their parents, teachers and school counselors. Bronfenbrenner's Socio-Ecological Theory provides the basis for this study, explaining how personal characteristics and context interact to influence human development and behavior. In this qualitative study, phenomenological design was used to provide a comprehensive understanding of the children's adjustment to parental divorce. Thematic content analysis was used to analyze 27 interviews with 9 parents, 8 teachers, and 3 psychological counselors of 10 children. The findings reveal that children's adjustment to parental divorce examined under five themes: a) family microsystem, b) school microsystem, c) mesosystem d) exosystem and e) macrosystem. The first theme is divided into four categories: Family structure, custodial parent-child relationships, noncustodial parent-child relationships and relationships with root family. The second theme is divided into three categories: The teacher-student relationship, peer relationships, and the school counselor-student relationship. The third theme is divided into two categories: Teacher-parent collaboration and school counselor-parent collaboration. The fourth theme is divided into three categories: Dynamics of the education, law, and economic systems. The fifth theme is divided into two categories: The socioeconomic structure and the sociocultural structure. As a result, supporting children's adjustment to divorce requires a comprehensive approach and collaborative interventions at multiple levels.

Divorce is one of the situational family crises that today's families are likely to encounter, resulting in drastic changes in family structure. According to the data of the Turkish Statistical Institute [TUIK] (2022) on divorces in 2021, 36% of divorces occur in the first five years of marriage, followed by marriages of six to ten years with a rate of 27%. It is stated that 56.15% of the divorces are seen in families with children. Nazlı (2020) emphasized that 800-900 thousand families are exposed to stress factors per year on average in the pre-legal, legal and post-legal divorce process, and approximately two and a half million people are affected by this process. Although divorce does not have a positive or negative meaning on its own, the process of reorganization in the family brings with various difficulties in the short and long term (Sayan Karahan, 2022).

Divorce means much more than the legal termination of marriage of two people who are in a marital relationship. The transitional stage of divorce is complex phenomenon and occurs at different levels such as the inner level of individual psychological dynamics, the interactional level of couple and family dynamics,

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and the outer level, which includes the wider social system. In this process, the fact that the people who decide to divorce are also parents complicates the situation (Johnston et al., 2009). Although the effect of divorce on spouses is undeniable, it is frequently emphasized in the literature that the group most affected by divorce is children (Bryner, 2001). Considering that divorce puts a strain on even adults' coping skills, results in intense emotions over a variety of losses and uncertainties, and is challenging to adapt to, it is not surprising that children's coping mechanisms are inadequate, and that the divorce process endangers their development. However, divorce has a 'potential' impact on children. This idea emphasizes that children might not always suffer adverse effects from the process and that the outcomes are highly dependent on factors related to the child, parent, and divorce process (Amato, 2000).

The findings regarding the effects of divorce on children, as well as their magnitude and persistence, can be described as complex (van der Wal, Finkenauer ve Visser, 2019). According to some studies, the effects of divorce on children are irreversible and devastating, and children bear a traumatic burden in terms of psychological well-being and social relationships even years after the divorce (Amato, 1994; Wallerstein & Lewis, 2004). On the other hand, some studies show that less than a quarter of the children of divorced families face serious or persistent difficulties, and most children adjust well after the initial impact of divorce (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1982; Walsch, 2012). Furthermore, Wallerstein and Lewis (2004) stated that while some children have seemed to adjust to divorce, they may experience difficulties in later developmental stages; in other words, they introduced the concept of the 'sleeping effect of divorce'. However, a few of those studies have shown that as a result of their parents' divorce, some children experience positive emotions such as happiness and relief (ASAGEM, 2011; Strksen, Thorsen, Verland ve Brown, 2012). In this context, it is fairly obvious that the outcomes of studies on the impact of divorce on children are complicated and requires extensive research.

Divorce is a stressful and anxiety-inducing process for children. Although many children are capable of sensing negativity in the family environment prior to divorce, the news of divorce is frequently met with surprise (Hetherington, et al., 1982). Following the shock reaction, children are confused and anxious about what will happen to themselves and their parents, and what will change in their lives (Turkarslan, 2007). On the other hand, the nature and intensity of the conflicts experienced in the family environment prior to the divorce decision can cause children to exhibit various negative reactions much earlier and can also differentiate children's reactions to the divorce decision (Hetherington & Stanley-Hagan, 1999). After divorce, children may be concerned about another loss or sudden change in their family, and they may worry about their parents' well-being for many years. This anxiety is linked to the belief that their own emotional survival is dependent on keeping parents safe. It is frequently combined with fears of being abandoned, lost, ignored, or even destroyed in parental conflict (Johnston et al., 2009). It is clear that the children are concerned that the only people whose parents are divorced are their own parents, and that everything will be terrible, the parent with whom they do not live refuses to communicate with them, and they will be abandoned or left alone. Children who find themselves in this situation frequently become annoyed and blame themselves. The intensity and quality of these feelings may vary depending on the severity of the losses associated with the divorce process, and whether they can receive adequate economic, emotional, and social support. As a result, children may exhibit more intense emotional symptoms, ranging from sadness to depression. (Cangelosi, 1997; Kleinsorge & Covitz, 2012).

In response to the intense emotions and individual tendencies they experience during this process, children may engage in behaviors such as internalization (eg., depression) and externalization (eg. aggression and impulsivity). Additionally, it is reported that kids may exhibit regressive behavior at this time (Weaver & Schofield, 2015). In this context, children's anger issues, insecurity, depression, poor self-perception, fear of rejection, lack of self-confidence, low self-esteem, low self-regulation, deterioration in perception, low social responsibility, proclivity to crime, and risk of encountering problems in social relationships are all mentioned (Amato 2014; Kelly & Emery, 2003). In addition to psychological and social problems, they can exhibit

symptoms with physical consequences (eg., body aches and digestive problems) (Luecken & Fabricius, 2003). These behaviors mentioned in first group can be observed in the child's interactions with his parents, peers, teachers, and close environment (Hetherington & Stanley-Hagan, 1999). It is noteworthy that individual dynamics such as the child's age, gender, temperament and character traits, and ability to recover reveal that not every child is affected by this process at the same rate, and even if the effects of the event are the same, the reactions and timing of these reactions may differ (Turkarslan, 2007). Having a position where the child can prove and develop his or her abilities, having a friendship relationship prior to the divorce process, and having positive temperament characteristics such as being extroverted and having sense of humour are among the protective factors that support adjustment to divorce (Emery & Forehand, 1996). In addition, children's self-esteem and perceived control may be resources that buffer the impact of parental divorce on children's adjustment, either as a promoter or a barrier (van der Wall et al., 2019).

It is stated that common reactions of children may differ depending on the child's developmental stage (Hetherington, 1989). According to studies, the child's symptoms increase with starting school and peer interaction, and the reactions given are mostly expressed in behavioral dimensions. Disobedience, reacting against the teacher, jealousy in peer relationships, power struggles with peers, blaming parents, and aversion to school can all be observed (Saglam, 2011; Turkarslan, 2007). In addition to the developmental period, many situations such as predivorce period, the announcement of the divorce decision, the changes experienced after the divorce, and the regulation of post-divorce relations, have an impact on the adjustment of the child. Changes in the relationships (with children and each other) and parenting skills, new family dynamics, the child's social support opportunities and individual resources in the family environment all come to the fore in terms of adjustment (Kelly & Emery, 2003).

Negative emotions experienced by parents as a spouse have an impact on their parenting abilities. In this context, it is possible that the parent spends less quality time with the child, is more reactive to the child in a negative manner, establishes less emotional and physical closeness with the child, is less supportive, provides less control, and fails to provide consistent discipline to the child (Hetherington & Cligempeel, 1992). The child may feel inadequate and helpless, and may turn to inappropriate resources to meet his physical and emotional needs. From another perspective, the child observes how the parents cope with the divorce, so the parents' coping behaviors send important messages to the child. On the other hand, parental adjustment appears to be positively related to the ability to form a co-parenting relationship and receive social support, both of which have positive effects on children's adjustment (Jacobs et al., 1986; Stallman & Ohan, 2016). After the divorce, single-parent families may form new family structures that include close relatives such as grandparents-aunt or step-parent. Although it may be advantageous for these people to assist the mother or father with child care, there may also be risks such as the weakening the mother-child or father-child relationship and child neglect (Baker et al., 2008).

According to the research findings, one of the most significant changes associated with divorce is a weakening or complete break in the relationship with the other parent (Peters & Ehrenberg, 2008; Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980). Persistent conflicts, which are common following divorce, make it difficult for the child to cope with the divorce and may result in increased emotional arousal and difficulty in managing negative emotions (Davies & Cummings, 1994). Conflict-related emotions that parents struggle to manage can lead to dysfunctional behaviors such as limiting and sabotaging child-parent interaction, either explicitly or implicitly, through motivations to protect the child, keep the child on their side, or harm the other parent (Bancroft & Silverman, 2002). Children from divorced families are said to have more negative sibling and peer relationships because they reflect family dynamics and communication patterns (Waddell, Pepler & Moore, 2001).

In the aftermath of divorce, the school environment is just as important as the family environment. School is a transitional environment in which children spend more time after the family -possibly more time than the family- and open up to the outside world by interacting with adults and peers except the family members. As a result, schools are not only a place where students' academic development is supported, but they also play an important role in their emotional and social development (Domitrovich et al., 2017). The difficulties that children face as they adjust to divorce are mirrored in the school environment (Havermans, Botterman &

Matthijs, 2014; Wood, Repetti & Roesch, 2004). Through the social comparison process, children can evaluate themselves differently from their peers; this inadequacy can result in outcomes such as a decrease in academic interest, withdrawal from peer groups and bullying (Wallerstein, 1986; van der Wall et al., 2019). On the other hand, children of divorced families, may face psychological exclusion and labeling because this connection is reciprocal (Gulay, 2011). The finding that children who has alternative areas will be more protected against adverse consequences in order to arrive at a more accurate perception about themselves and their situation in the world highlights the significance of the school environment and puts the idea of trauma-sensitive schools (Plumb, Bush & Kersevich, 2016) and school based family counseling (Gerrard, Carter & Ribera, 2019) on the table. From this point of view, it can concluded that every member of the school system has variety of roles and duties to support children.

Although the findings on whether and how parental divorce affects children's adjustment are not always clear in the literature, there is a consensus that children who experience parental divorce are at risk for a variety of adverse developmental outcomes. In the related literature, internalizing/externalizing problems and academic achievement are frequently included as indicators of adjustment. However, it is assumed that the child's adjustment to divorce is a phenomenon that is too broad to be evaluated based on the symptoms experienced by the child. When studies on children's adjustment to divorce are examined, it's concluded that understanding the relationship between the concepts of 'divorce' and 'child' requires a systemic approach that includes individual and environmental dynamics. In this context, Bronfenbrenner's Ecological System Theory (1979, Akt. Bronfenbrenner, 1992) appears to be useful in understanding the experiences of children from divorced families. A five-layer influencing model suggests that the child's environment influences their development by interacting with the child's individual characteristics. The microsystem is the first layer and has the most influence on the child's development. Family, teacher, and peer groups are examples of microsystems. The mesosystem is the complex dynamics formed by the interaction of microsystems. The interaction of factors in the school and family environment is referred to as a mesosystem. The third layer, the exosystem, consists of resources, practices, and procedures that are not directly involved in the child but have an impact on it. The next layer, the macrosystem, addresses issues concerning the general structure of society. Within the scope of the chronosystem, the reflection of socio-historical and socio-cultural environmental conditions on the life of the individual and their effects on their experiences over time are evaluated. This model is based on the principles that a) systems affect each other, b) changes in one system may not be sufficient for change, c) family members affect each other, and d) culture has an effect on development.

It is seen that the child is affected by the divorce process at different levels with the effect of the dynamics involving the individual, familial and wider environment and society (Emery & Forehand, 1996; Fagan & Churchill, 2012). Increasing divorce rates, as well as the short- and long-term effects of divorce, highlight the importance of identifying the mechanisms that affect children and shaping interventions. When the growing number of researches on the factors affecting the child's adjustment to divorce in school and family living areas is examined, it is thought that these two areas are not examined ecologically in a unity and relatedness, and this study can fill the gap in the literature. In this context, an examination of the factors influencing the child's adjustment to the divorce process, in accordance with ecological theory, will be beneficial on both an individual and social level. In this study, the adjustment process of the children and the possible hindering and/or helpful factors within their ecological systems tried to understand from the point of view of the children's parents, teachers, and counselors. As a consequence, the purpose of this study is to investigate the systemic relationships in the school and family environment that may influence the divorce adjustment of children aged 6-11. The following questions are investigated within the scope of the research:

1. Which factors influence children's adjustment to divorce in the family life area?
2. Which factors influence children's adjustment to divorce in the school setting?
3. What other systemic and environmental factors influence children's adjustment to divorce?

Method

This is a qualitative study that employs the phenomenological method. With the assumption that social reality is a phenomenon that varies depending on context, time, and culture and cannot be generalized; qualitative research is the researcher's attempt to make sense of things in his natural environment using inductive and deductive approaches in terms of the meanings people assign to events. These applications turn the world into a collection of representations such as field notes, interviews, speeches, photographs, and recordings (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Patton, 2014). The phenomenological pattern provides rich data and serves as a guiding framework for understanding cases with insufficient information (Yildirim & Simsek, 2016). The primary goal of phenomenology is to reduce individual observations of a phenomenon to a universal explanation (van Manen, 2017). In this study phenomenological approach was utilized to comprehensively reveal the experience of children's adjustment to divorce. Also deductive approach was adopted as Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems Theory has given direction to data analysis and the name of the main themes.

Study Group

The study group of this research consists of the nine custodial parents, eight classroom teachers, and three school counselors of ten primary school children whose parents are divorced. Criterion-based sampling and snowball sampling methods, both of which are classified as purposeful sampling types, were used to determine the study group. Criterion-based sampling is the study of situations that meet a set of predetermined criteria using a list of criteria created by the researcher or pre-prepared (Cresswell, 2013). In this study, the criteria for the parents are that at least one year has passed since the separation/divorce and that the parent preferably has custody/continues to live with the child. These criteria were determined based on the literature. According to Amato (2000), legal divorce is not determinative in terms of children's adjustment, and studies show that various difficulties occur for 1-3 years following changes in family structure (Korkut, 2003). Also the criterion of having known the child for at least one semester period was determined for school counselors and teachers to get sufficient information. In cases where it is difficult to reach the units about the research subject, snowball/chain sampling provides access to other individuals through individuals who have comprehensive knowledge about the subject. Considering the research subject, it is seen that this method is also functional especially in interviews with parents.

Demographic information about the study group is summarized in two tables below. The first table includes demographic information of children and parents.

Table 1. Demographic information of children and parents

| Code | Age | Gender | Divorce/Separation | Elapsed time | Custody | Parents' Age | Number of Children |
|------|-----|--------|--------------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|--------------------|
| C1 | 7 | Boy | Legal divorce | 3 years | Mother(E1) | 30 | 2 |
| C2 | 7 | Boy | Legal divorce | 3 years | Mother(E1) | 30 | 2 |
| C3 | 9 | Boy | Legal divorce | 5 years | Mother(E2) | 34 | 1 |
| C4 | 11 | Girl | Separation | 3 years | Mother(E3) | 31 | 2 |
| C5 | 9 | Boy | Legal divorce | 4 years | Father (E5) | 30 | 1 |
| C6 | 10 | Girl | Legal divorce | 7 year | Mother(E4) | 34 | 1 |
| C7 | 10 | Girl | Legal divorce | 8 year | Father (E6) | 36 | 1 |
| C8 | 10 | Girl | Legal divorce | 5 year | Mother(E8) | 35 | 4 |
| C9 | 6 | Boy | Seperation | 5 year | Mother(E7) | 31 | 1 |
| C10 | 9 | Boy | Legal divorce | 8 year | Mother(E9) | 34 | 1 |

The second table includes demographic information of teachers and school counselors.

Table 2. Demographic information of teachers and school counselors

| Occupation | Code | Age | Gender | Professional experience | Acquaintance time |
|--------------------|------|-----|--------|-------------------------|-------------------|
| Teacher | O1 | 23 | Female | 6 months | 6 months |
| Teacher | O2 | 43 | Female | 21 years | 3 years |
| Teacher | O3 | 50 | Female | 28 years | 4 years |
| Teacher | O4 | 30 | Female | 7 years | 3 years |
| Teacher | O5 | 36 | Female | 12 years | 1 years |
| Teacher | O6 | 40 | Female | 18 years | 2 years |
| Teacher | O7 | 50 | Female | 25 years | 3 years |
| Teacher | O8 | 45 | Female | 20 years | 3 years |
| School counselor* | P1 | 32 | Female | 8 years | 1-4 years |
| School counselor | P2 | 38 | Male | 13 years | 1-4 years |
| School counselor * | P3 | 35 | Female | 10 years | 1-4 years |

Note: * Had a postgraduate degree

Data Gathering

Permissions were obtained before the data collection process. First, draft interview questions were prepared separately for parents, teachers, and school counselors. Second, the views of two experts were solicited. Between December 2021 and February 2022, 27 interviews were conducted as part of the process. Interviews with parents lasted approximately 45 minutes, interviews with teachers lasted approximately 30 minutes, and interviews with school counselors lasted approximately 15-20 minutes. Particular attention was paid to spend time with the parents and to create a sense of trust before the interviews. At the end of the interview, the parents were emotionally controlled and various therapeutic skills were used to leave them with positive feelings. During the data collection process, supervision support was provided by the thesis advisor.

Analysis of Data

The fundamental process in qualitative data analysis is content analysis. Content analysis is defined as a qualitative data reduction and interpretation effort that aims to determine basic coherences and meanings from large amounts of qualitative data (Patton, 2014). Preparing and organizing data, coding the data, bringing the codes together and reducing them to themes, and finally presenting the data in the form of figures, tables, or a discussion are all part of data analysis. In line with this process, the audio recordings obtained from the interviews were transcribed and field notes were organized within this framework. During the coding phase, the data was read repeatedly until mastery and comprehension were achieved. Following that, repetitive regularities were labeled with keywords or phrases, revealing the first patterns. The interviews were then meticulously handled and coded line by line. Following the tabulation of the obtained codes, cross-case analysis was carried out, and similar codes repeated in different interviews were reviewed and arranged to ensure expression similarity. Then, based on the literature and the statements of the interviewees, the possible relationships between these codes were evaluated. The related codes were attempted to be combined under categories and themes, which are larger meaningful units.

Several steps have been taken to ensure the trustworthiness of the data analysis process (Creswell, 2013). The researcher began the phenomenological analysis by "bracketing" the past experiences, perspectives, and comments on the subject that shaped the approach and interpretations of the study. This has enabled the researcher to become aware of her prejudices regarding the phenomenon and to examine it from a new and open perspective, without assigning meaning to it prematurely. In the study, observation and interview data were combined and interpreted using theoretical approaches related to divorce adjustment, family systems, and child development. A significant amount of time has been spent in the field to thoroughly understand the individuals and the context. During the interview, issues that appeared contradictory or incomprehensible were brought back into focus and presented to the participants for verification. In the writing phase of the research, intense description was used, and the comments were supported by quotations. Throughout the research,

collaboration with the thesis advisor was established, and feedback was provided when needed. Furthermore, supervisor has a role as an internal auditor of the data analysis. As a result of participant triangulation, the investigated phenomenon was examined and evaluated by various observers from various perspectives.

Role of the Research Team

The research team consists of a faculty member and a graduate student working in the field of psychological counseling and guidance. The main researcher is the graduate student who also the first author of the study. She had a undergraduate degree in the same major and has studied family counseling, divorce counseling, and qualitative research at the undergraduate and graduate levels. Besides formal education process, she made observations in Ankara Family Courts and schools before and during the thesis process. Field observations have been an enriching experience for the researcher in shaping the research process and interpreting the research findings. Furthermore, she received feedback on the interviews from the thesis advisor throughout the process, allowing her to identify any biases that may have affected the research process. During this process, the researcher discovered that she had a child-centered approach. The other member of the research team, the thesis advisor, has 30 years of professional experience and specializes in school and family counseling. She teaches family counseling and divorce counseling at the undergraduate and graduate levels. She worked as a consultant and supervisor on this study. As previously stated, she also plays a role in the data analysis process.

Findings and Comments

The findings obtained from the interviews can be classified into five themes: Factors related a) family microsystem, b) school microsystem, c) mesosystem d) exosystem and e) macrosystem. The first theme is divided into four categories: Family structure, custodial parent-child relationship, noncustodial parent-child relationship, and relationships with root family. The second theme is divided into three categories: The teacher-student relationship, the school counselor-student relationship and relationship with peers. The third theme is divided into two categories: The teacher-parent collaboration and school counselor-parent collaboration. The fourth theme is divided into three categories: Dynamics of education, law, and economic systems. The fifth theme is divided into two categories: The socioeconomic structure and the sociocultural structure. The table containing the themes, categories and sub-categories is presented below.

Table 3. Themes, categories and subcategories

| Themes | Categories | Subcategories |
|---------------------------|--|---|
| Family microsystem | Family structure | a complex family with one or more root family members, a family with a step-parent, a single parent family. |
| | Custodial parent-child relationship | adjustment of the parents to the divorce process, parental attitudes, emotional difficulties experienced by the child, the effect of the other parent on the parent-child relationship |
| | Noncustodial parent-child relationship | quality of the pre-divorce relationship, the events witnessed during the divorce process, the rupture of the relationship, the failure to keep the promises made, the ambivalent feelings experienced by the child |
| | Relationships with root family | the parenting role played by root family members, the role of root family members on special occasions |
| School microsystem | The teacher-student relationship | problems with defying authority, problems with academic success, teachers' perception of children from divorced families, sensitiveness, self disclosure, teachers' efforts to support the children |
| | The school counselor-student relationship. | indirect interventions, problems working with teachers, direct interventions, school based family counseling |
| | Relationship with peers | positive observations about the relationships of peers with their parents, withdrawal, bullying, low tolerance for adversity, effects of children's role in the family on peer relationships, parents' attitudes about peer relationships, individual characteristics |
| Mesosystem | The teacher-parent collaboration | conflict between parents, parents' emotional adjustment to divorce, attitudes of the teacher |
| | The school counselor-parent collaboration | lack of regular participation of parents, parents' attitudes about seeking help |
| Exosystem | Dynamics of education | difficulty in finding and adapting psycho educational programs, finding suitable place for interventions, teacher education |
| | Dynamics of law | problems with joint custody, limited scope of mediation |
| | Dynamics of economic system | lack of financial support and employment opportunities economic crises, effects of pandemic on single parent families |
| Macrosystem | The socioeconomic structure | lack of financial support for single parent families, effects of pandemic |
| | The sociocultural structure | society's negative view of divorce, values placed on having family and children, difficulty of intervene family circumstances |

Family Microsystem

There are four categories in the family microsystem: a) family structure, b) custodial parent-child relationship, c) noncustodial parent-child relationship and d) relationships with root family.

Family Structure. It was discovered that the children were raised in various family structures, including a) a complex family with one or more root family members, b) a family with a step-parent, and c) a single parent family. According to the interviews, different problems were encountered depending on the family structure. It is seen that complex family structures that include root family members are more common. This family structure provides benefits to parents such as providing care for the child, receiving economic support from the family when needed, and being able to devote personal time to him/herself. E1 explained this as follows:

"I can occasionally leave the kids with their grandmother to have some alone time. Thanks to my parents, my father was driving the kids to and from school while I was at work. With the economic support of my father, I took the kids to kindergarten." (E1)

However, it has been observed that there may be problems in the family with roles, boundaries, and disciplining children. C7's teacher O3 stated that there were conflicts and border problems in the family, stating: *"It is a structure that has both ties to each other and can say very unethical things to each other"* in reference to the house arrangement in which the grandfather, uncle, father, and child live together. E4, on the other hand, stated that her own parents granted her child's every wish and spoiled her:

"She was a very spoiled child. It bothers me and I was trying to help her changing behaviour. But my mother has always been understanding towards her."

In this category, it has been observed that single-parent families, in particular, face greater economic and practical challenges. Economic factors such as the fact that women must return to work after divorce and work in unqualified/temporary jobs due to their educational status, the difficulty of finding a job during the pandemic, and the parents' health problems all increase anxiety.

"What happened to me, the entire burden was on my shoulders. In other words, it is extremely difficult to make a living, especially for children... I mean, if you are sufficient for one, you will be unable to keep up with the other, not only financially, but also spiritually." (E3)

The negative impact of these difficulties on spending time with the child was the most frequently mentioned:

"Since I work and C3 is always at school, the time we spend together is limited and he often complains. He is often upset that I am not with him." (E2)

Custodial Parent-Child Relationship. In this category, a) adjustment of the parents to the divorce process, b) parental attitudes, c) emotional difficulties experienced by the child, and d) the effect of the other parent on the parent-child relationship stand out as sub-categories. With separation/divorce, parents experience shock, confusion, and helplessness, and they feel worthless. During the separation/divorce process, parents used phrases like "I was devastated," "I fell into a void," "I thought I was crazy," and "I was stuck in the middle." It was stated that the emotions of the parents changed over time in terms of intensity and quality, but some parents continued to have psychological symptoms such as being unable to stay in one place for an extended period of time, sleep problems, and sudden mood swings.

"I mean, sometimes I can't stay in a place for too long, sometimes I can't go to bed, sometimes I wake up from my sleep." (E1)

"Perhaps they are an expression of my experiences (during the divorce process); I am aware that that occasionally I react unexpectedly. My mood fluctuates a lot from time to time." (E2)

Furthermore, almost all of the parents reported feeling exhausted and fatigued on a regular basis. In this context, parents mentioned family-specific difficulties such as having more than one child, caring for the child as the opposite-sex parent, having health problems of the child/parent, and the child's developmental stage.

"I am 35 years old, but believe me, I feel like I am 50." (E8, victim of violence, divorced 5 years ago, mother of four children)

"I'm finding it extremely difficult because she is a girl. We talk and chat, but I am unable to learn anything about her problem because she won't tell me." (E6)

The experiences of the parents are not only related to the divorce process, but also to the roles and responsibilities they assume in the marriage relationship:

"My life hasn't changed all that much. I was alone even though I was married. I go everywhere by myself."
(E1)

It was also discovered that parents who were unable to establish a co-parenting relationship after divorce felt relatively more inadequate:

"There are times when I have difficulties, it would be a lie if I said that it does not happen. It is extremely difficult to transform into two people because you become both a mother and a father. This burden is extremely difficult to bear. Sometimes I go insane thinking that I am insufficient."(E1)

About half of the parents stated that they were in constant conflict with their ex-spouse. They were observed to have an avoidant or aggressive attitude during this process, and the parents' anger made the co-parenting relationship difficult. In her interview with E3, a 31-year-old secondary school graduate mother, P1 stated:

"I don't think she's been able to get through the divorce process emotionally. This is consistent with the information she has provided. I can see this very clearly in the mother's reactions because she speaks more angrily in matters such as the child's meeting with his father and the frequency of meeting with his father."
(P1)

Some parents seem to have less difficulty managing their emotions and distinguishing between their own and their children's needs. E1, C1 and C2's mother, described the situation as follows:

"I always told him to come, I didn't separate him on such children's special days. Even after the first few months of our most recent separation - a month later - it was our children's birthday, and even on that birthday, although I was very angry, I only took a picture for my children in the same frame." (E1)

Related the first subcategory, short-term psychiatrist support and drug use, trying to forget by being caught up in the flow of daily life, benefiting from social support, and getting new jobs/occupations are among the coping methods used by parents in the process of adjustment to divorce.

"I enrolled in X University, because daily temporary works are difficult due to my illness. I was enrolled in three courses, for example. I was constantly studying." (E3)

It is remarkable that none of the parents were involved in the psychological counseling/psychotherapy process. E1 describes her frustration as follows:

"I know there are treatments available, but I'd rather cover it up and bury it. To be honest, I don't want to experience that over and over." (E1)

Although the majority of the parents stated that they received important support from their parents, relatives, friends, and even neighbors during the adjustment process; a few parents expressed negative changes in their social life as a result of the divorce:

"I usually stay at home and don't go out. I have a children that I have to look after. I do not have a life outside, I do not have a social life." (E6)

Related to this, some of the parents stated that they were hesitant to get help from their extended family because they were afraid of upsetting their parents. Some parents felt they were a burden to their parents, while others felt guilty towards their parents:

"Because you intend to shoot it out. I don't mean to shout that loudly. Even after the divorce, I lived alone. I tried to restrain myself so that my family would not be upset, and others would not be upset for my family."
(E2)

Among the coping methods, surviving the process by holding on to the child has emerged as a very common pattern:

"I live for them, I try to do something for them, I have nothing else." (E8)

"I made an effort to calm down, hugged my child, and tried to move on by spending time with him and taking care of him. I attempted to forget (E7)."

Some of these parents stated that 'they were very fond of their children'. In particular, as a reflection of this motivation, they have high expectations and concerns about the academic success of their children. It was found that they tried a variety of ways such as special courses and giving awards, to increase academic achievement:

"They expect academic success (in return for what they do). All that matters to her is her son's academic success. Oh, my son! I want him to do his homework, reading, and so on. However, she is not aware that the primary needs of the child are love, attention and respect at work, as well as the feeling and acceptance of his existence." (P1)

Another pattern that appears in parents who overcome this process by clinging to their children is that they create an isolated life. As a result of this lifestyle, children experience separation anxiety from their mothers and cannot separate their feelings from their mothers:

"We were not exposed to any additional factors that would influence C3. I was present in C3's life, but he had school when I was not. Maybe he had a nursery for an hour before I got home from work. We always had that flow, so I was always there. That is why we went through the process that became so similar. ... All he wants is to be close to me, to see me at home. For example, if I'm 10-15 minutes late, he says, 'You're already late, mom,' and this has always been the case." (E2)

"She is very attached to me. Whenever I am sad for some reason, she cries too." (E8)

While some children are overprotected for divorce-related reasons, others are "neglected" for the same reasons. C7's teacher, O3, stated that *"Her needs are not met quickly, they are met late. Not because of lack, but because of neglect."*

It is also observed that parents' adjustment to the divorce process has an impact on their parenting attitudes. Parenting attitudes stands out as a distinct sub-category because they are not a dimension to be evaluated solely under parental adjustment to divorce. It has been observed that some parents do not set limits for their child, allow them to do whatever they want and try to compensate financially for the time they are unable to spend with their child due to long working hours. The majority of the parents, on the other hand, stated that they had an authoritarian attitude and struggled to demonstrate the appropriate attitude towards being a single parent:

"There is no father where discipline is required, where father's usually step in. So I join in as well. My behavior towards my children is ebbing and flowing at the moment. When I'm strict, I'm strict like a father, but I can't keep such a balance." (E1)

It has been observed that parental attitudes can differ between children and cause problems. Regarding E1's attitude, the school counselor shared his observations about the children as follows:

"The second grade boy, who is more mature, has been given a heavy burden. C1 is more like the youngest child in the family and spoiled as if he is a younger brother. Because C2 is the man of the house and they both have different missions, which causes problems." (E1)

In addition, the difference between parents' attitudes/caregivers and its effect on the relationship with the child was expressed by the 30-year-old housewife mother E4 as follows:

"He takes the child to all kinds of entertainment; I always care about her lessons. I make her bored, I make her bored." (E4).

It is seen that the parents' individual adjustment process and parental attitudes, as well as the experiences of the children in the process, affect the parent-child relationship. According to the custodial parent, almost all of the children in the focus are afraid of losing their caregiver parents as a result of the divorce, and they express this verbally/nonverbally. Fear of loss manifests itself in a variety of behaviors, including avoiding upsetting and comforting the parent, worrying when the parent is sick, showing interest in the parent, and trying to protect the parent by not expressing their wishes and needs:

"She exclaimed, 'Look, no!' She stated that she did not wish to receive any gifts for her birthday. She advised me not to buy a gift or anything. She explained why. 'Let's be happy, you (her sister and mother) be happy, that's enough for me.'" (E3)

"When I'm ill or fall from somewhere, or have a headache, for instance. She comes right away and gives me medicine and massages'" (E4)

It has also been observed that some parents have an attitude that trigger this anxiety:

"I told the kids, 'Look, I come home, I iron your clothes, I make your breakfast every morning, I dress you, I make you do your homework, I take care of you, I give you a bath, we somehow have our dinner... So, maybe I shouldn't.'" (E1)

Aside from the fear of losing, parents mentioned their children's need for attention and the difficulties they encountered in meeting this need in various dimensions:

"For example, he does not normally ask me for help when making extra books, but he does want me to sit next to him. You are a working mother and you have a lot of responsibilities at home. So you won't be able to do that during the time he desires. But that is what he expects, and such things break him.'" (E2)

"She is always eager to spend time with me. This means going somewhere, doing something, eating, drinking, traveling, and playing games. Let's go to dinner together, play together, go to the park, do this together, and go shopping for me!" (E4)

The majority of the parents interviewed stated that their children were "easily offended" and "easily angry." The reasons for anger include not fulfilling/postponing the child's wishes on time and the child's insistence on something. When the statements of the parents are examined, it is revealed that the emotional intensity of the child changes depending on the quality of the relationship established between the parent and the child as well as the individual characteristics of the children. E4, explained her child's feelings as follows:

"She gets angry easily with her friends, but calms down quickly; not against me, of course. Her resentment toward me lasts a long time."

In contrast, E2, the mother who claims to have a happy and calm relationship with her child, described the situation as follows:

"He is frowning but it returns to normal after 2 minutes."

It is also seen that the attitudes and behaviors of the other parent can influence the child's feelings toward his parent. C6's mother, E4, described her child as follows:

"The child was hostile to us every time she went. She treats me as if I'm the enemy, not her mother."

Noncustodial Parent-Child Relationship. It has been observed that the relationship between the noncustodial parent and the child has an impact on the child's adjustment to divorce. In this relationship, sub-categories such as the a) quality of the pre-divorce relationship, b) the events witnessed during the divorce process, c) the rupture of the relationship, d) the failure to keep the promises made, and e) the ambivalent feelings experienced by the child emerged.

However, when the effect of this relationship on adjustment was evaluated, it was discovered that custodial parents' own perspectives about this relationship should also be taken into consideration, since no interviews with the noncustodial parent were conducted. While some parents believe that their children are not affected by their refusal to make statements about their fathers; others may notice emotional fluctuations in their children on occasion.

"He didn't even know it (the divorce). We started living with his grandmother and uncle, and not much has changed. He is happy, he is not affected."

"C1 became irritable, began to hurt his friends, had a disagreement with his teacher... My other son (C2) was always in his own world, but he was very angry.'" (E1)

Except for one parent, all parents stated that the parent-child relationship had been broken for periods ranging from two to three months to one and a half years. According to some parents, the child's relationship with the other parent is completely broken.

"They couldn't see each other for a year, a year and a half at first. Because I've been through a lot of adversity, partly because of my greed and partly because of his..." (E1)

On the other hand, this relationship may evolve over time:

"C3's father did not become a father to C3 until I got married for the second time. C3 felt the lack of it...He's there now (with his father), and it's enjoyable. They see each other every 15 days." (E2)

Parents discussed the quality of the child's relationship with the noncustodial parent prior to the divorce and its impact on the child's adjustment:

"Because they were already very young, when their minds are clear, all they remember is that their father comes home late and is constantly working, you know. 'Mom, my dad never came home, he was working,' one of my children said." (E1)

Various reactions of children to the change in their relationships with their noncustodial parents emerged from the interviews. Parents stated that their children blamed themselves, were uncomfortable with the words "mother" and "father," had crying fits or crying at night, were envious of children with fathers and their faces drooped in the presence of other fathers with children.

"One thing piqued my interest. We were learning to read and write, so we did dictation. When we first learned to write the word "dad," he told me, "Teacher, I don't have a father, I have an uncle." (O5)

"She doesn't like hearing the word: mother." (O3)

Aside from these reactions, it was noted that the children refused to meet with their fathers. It was discovered that the children's feelings of longing, love, hope, and anger were in conflict, making it difficult for them to cope with the ambivalent feelings they experienced. E3 shared a memory when the child missed and called the other parent, but got angry and hung up after the phone rang busy.

Most of the interviewed parents stated that they tried to involve the father in the process and to improve the father-child relationship by mediating. On the other hand, in some cases, the custodial parent may have an impact on the emotions experienced by the children:

"C9 has negative feelings toward the father, but the main reason is communication with the mother. He is more reliant on his mother, and he hasn't seen his father in years, so he has negative feelings. However, he will not be able to react in this manner if he sees his father." (P2)

Also, the effects of the events witnessed and/or directly experienced by the children in the divorce process on the children's adjustment were come forward in the interviews. These events can be identified as one-time or ongoing negative interactions between the step-parent/parents' partner and the child, attendance at court, witnessing domestic violence, confiscation of belongings in the house, and living on the street.

"There was fighting, insults, alcohol, and everything else. We were able to divorce thanks to the children's testimony. (crying) We came here on our own and built a home. I don't regret getting divorced, but I'm sad because my children are exposed to it." (E8)

"Because the children were exposed to very different situations, such as the presence of someone in their father's life, the child calling and someone else answering the phone... my child had no idea what swearing was, and for the first time (I heard), my child was swearing on the phone when that woman answered the phone." (E3)

Apart from the negative events witnessed or directly experienced, the effect of the other parent's failure to keep promises on children has been observed:

"For example, he asked his father for a computer, but his father did not buy when he promised. The following day, he had a fever and became ill. He usually has a fever and gets sick. He makes account and feel sad." (E1)

In the interviews, it was seen that the coping skills of the children differed but the pattern of not expressing their feelings to the other parent and reflecting them to others was prevalent:

“There was always a breaking point when you confronted the father, that is, there was nothing like questioning him, calling him to account, or reacting.” (E2)

“C1 became a little more irritable, tried to hurt his friends, stood up against his teacher; it was sometimes too much for me as well, and it made me very depressed. As if I am responsible for this separation.” (E1)

In line with this, another common pattern is to ignore the other parent. It was revealed that the children questioned their existence because they did not feel the presence of the other parent in their lives. They sought the relationship they could not establish with the noncustodial parent, in the relationships they established with the custodial parent and other adults. In this context, the shares of O5, the teacher of C9 who has no communication with his father; and P1, C2's school counselor, can be evaluated:

“Something caught my attention. Now we are learning to read and write, so we dictate dad. When he first learned about it, he said: ‘Teacher, I have no father, I have uncle.’” (O5)

“Psychologically, the child requires a man's love and care. For example, my son is in C2's class. While I am playing games with my son, C2 is attentive. Because of me C2's favorite is my son and also C1 feels close to me as a result. I try not to turn him away, either.” (P2)

Relationship with Root Family. In the interviews, the direct and indirect effects of the family of origin on the child's adjustment to divorce were revealed. Since the indirect effect seen through the economic and practical support of the parent is discussed in the family structure category (see first theme), it will not be discussed again. In this category, the parenting role played by root family members when the parent is not physically and/or emotionally available and the role of root family members on special occasions will be discussed.

In cases where the custodial parent is physically or emotionally unavailable, there is a more direct interaction between the child and the grandparents, and these people can also play the parent role. E6, the 36-year-old father, who started a job away from home after the divorce process explain this situation as follows:

“She saw my mother as her mother, she was the one who was always interested in her, you know, she knew she was her grandmother, but she called her with the word of mother.” (E6)

According to the parents' interviews, the support of the root family and relatives played a significant role especially on 'special days'.

“We are sad during the holidays because our father is, to put it mildly, irresponsible. There is no such thing as visiting the children. For example, he hasn't seen them for two months. During the holidays, children become (upset), but I still try to entertain them. I'm not sure, I take them to a shopping mall... There are a few children from my relatives that they love very much, I take them to them. I'm trying to compensate for that lack.” (E1)

When the findings are examined, the feelings expressed by parents and children after divorce in the interviews overlap with the findings in the literature (Gross & Barrett, 2013; Pickhardt, 2011). On the other hand, the discovery that the negative effects of some unresolved emotions persist even after many years have passed over the critical 1-3-year period (Korkut, 2003) suggests that there may be sociocultural and economic phenomena in the way these emotions are experienced. This interpretation appears to be supported by frequent use of dysfunctional coping mechanisms and a desire to avoid or fail to benefit from professional mental health services. Furthermore, it has been observed that the relationships established with both parents following the divorce are influenced by the parents' adjustment, and interventions for establishing a co-parenting relationship are required, particularly for the parents to cope with the feelings of inadequacy. The influence of parents can be seen in the emergence and regulation of the child's ambivalent feelings as well as strong emotions such as fear of loss. In this context, parents are encouraged to redefine their post-divorce parenting roles and relationships with their children in order to adjust. Relationship arrangements, particularly in families with root family members or step-parents, should be made with great care. As a result, family environments in

various structures formed after divorce can be said to play a critical role in meeting the physical and emotional needs of the child, and this finding overlaps with the literature (Ahrons, 2004). However, it is seen once again that children are not only affected in this process, but also actors who give unique reactions and shape their relationships. In line with this, it is critical to expand mental health services to include divorced parents, children, and even grandparents.

School Microsystem

In the interviews, it was seen that the dynamics of the school environment may also be effective in the adjustment of children to divorce. These dynamics can be examined in three sub-categories as a) teacher-student relationship, b) relations with peers, c) school counselor-student relationship.

Teacher-Student Relationship. Almost all of the teachers interviewed described their interactions with their students as 'positive, good, and nice.' The questions asked to embody their relationships revealed that the children hugged their teachers, drew pictures of them, wanted to talk to them, and their relationships with teachers are similar to other students. On the other hand some teachers stated that some of the students in this group had problems with defying authority. Among the behaviors mentioned were refusing to complete writing assignments and leaving the exam paper blank:

"C4, let's write on the notebook, let's do it! So while I try to motivate her like this, the kid says: 'I'm not doing it'. (I asked) Why don't you do it? (She answers) I don't want it, I won't!'" (E3)

Another issue raised by the teachers during the interviews was academic success. The students' academic achievement levels were stated to range from low to medium. A few of the teachers stated the following about the impact of family circumstances on academic success:

"He (E5) has difficulty in getting his child to do his homework because he works in shifts. He explained, 'I call my mother and tell her how to do it.' That's why he (C5) struggles in class. If someone is interested, he will be much more successful. Because her father works and her grandmother is elderly..." (O1)

Several teachers used the phrase "I would not have guessed if I hadn't learned that the child's parents were divorced" during the interviews. This circumstance was discovered to be related to teachers' perceptions of children from divorced families. It has been observed that teachers label the children of divorced families as "vicious, problematic and morally undeveloped:

"Children from divorced families, as far as I can tell, are a little more like this; they become vicious and naughty. But this girl is not at all like that; she is a very mature..." (O2)

According to the interviews, a significant portion of the children experienced the process "within themselves." In line with previous finding, there was a risk that teachers' perceptions of divorced children would render them 'invisible,' particularly those who experienced the process differently. Both school counselors and parents expressed this situation as follows:

"There are too many children with behavior problems in that class (C5's teacher's class). There are three or five of them, and she did not make such a request about C5..." (P3)

"I stated, 'Teacher, I mean, I'm having strange feelings in this' (child). I mean, I was wondering if something was wrong with her psychology. This girl... Do you not notice anything?" (E3)

On the other hand, it was discovered that a group of teachers did not consider their parents' divorce as a factor that could affect children and cause problem behaviors. Some of them were unaware that the children's parents were divorced.

"Teachers are not aware of the psychology of children. Even the best teacher did not do anything extra, perhaps he did not talk with them, can I tell you that? Even the best teacher learns that his/her parents are getting divorce through the risk maps we want..." (P3)

According to the teachers' statements, some of them were more sensitive to the impact of divorce on children. It has been observed that the teacher's individual experience is effective in the development of this sensitivity, and this sensitivity can also exist apart from the teacher's professional experience.

"I mean, I always talk about in class, I don't just say 'mom', I don't just say 'dad'. Sometimes, if the parents are working, the grandparents also take care of them, and I include them too. When I was online last year, C1... there was a picture of a girl and her father on screen. C1 was locked in there, he wasn't interested or anything. Then... I don't remember if he turned off the camera, he showed a reaction. You know, her mother was surprised, I said: 'Don't be surprised, you know, probably with this father... with a daughter and father...' " (O6)

"He's been irritated for two weeks. When I approached him (with his father), he said, "It's not like that at our house; I'll talk to his mother." When his father confronted her, she shared that he was also attempting to push his brother at her house, too. (O1)

The majority of the teachers interviewed stated that the children did not discuss family issues with them, shared only superficially, were hesitant to answer questions about their families, or did not give correct answers:

"He does not talk about his personal life, his mother or father, or his brother. He has nothing to say. For example, I have a little nephew. I go to him (C5) and share something about my nephew so that he can share with me. He doesn't say anything about. " (O1)

Gender and changes over time related to self-disclosure are also mentioned in this context:

"When there is a problem, C11 can come and tell me, but not in the way that girls talk. Girls come and pour their hearts out, so they tell about everything, including family problems. It's fine, but they're more than just boys. " (O6)

*(Regarding her relationship with C7 following the death of her grandmother, who was like a parent to her)
"For example, when she doesn't come to school, I ask why. She thinks a lot about the question. You get the impression that she's hiding something, and I get the impression that she's not telling the truth. " (O3)*

The interviews revealed that the teachers' efforts to support the child were limited. A few teachers stated that they spoke with the school counselor about the child's and family's situation, others stated that they observed the child and chatted with the student during breaks, and still others stated that they invited/called the parents for an interview.

"When I ask O9 how many divorced students are in her class... When I mentioned there was a study, she mentioned C4... She stated that she believed the divorce had a negative impact on the child's social and emotional development. As a result, we can obtain assistance. But, once again, I've taken the first step. " (P1)

"She speaks very well, and since we didn't meet last year, there were times when we talked for hours on the phone because of a pandemic... We are in constant communication. " (O6)

Interviews with teachers revealed that they were experiencing a variety of difficulties in supporting the child. The high course load and the difficulty of getting involved in family-related issues were two of these difficulties:

"Since his parents are divorced, I want to take care of him more. But I don't have time anyway. The lesson last half an hour. 10 minutes of this is spent opening and checking students' notebooks and book pages. He also spends time with his friends during break. " (O1)

"You can't get too deep into it because it's a bit of a complicated here. As a teacher, how much can you get into people's private lives?... Actually, I guessed some things, but it is very difficult to get involved and fix them because there are wounds and problems all over the family. " (O3)

According to the findings, providing the necessary socioemotional support to the child may be negatively impacted by socially based shared negative perceptions of divorced families and children of divorced families as well as by limited knowledge about how divorce affects children. Consistent with the findings, some studies shows that teachers' opinions regarding divorce and children of divorced families are vary and emphasized that the importance of teachers' awareness of children of divorced families and hey have varied opinions regarding divorce and children of divorced families (Veinberg, 2015). While it is understandable that differences in self-disclosure and asking for help in the relationships that children establish with their teachers

are caused by gender, time, and various individual characteristics of children, it is important that teachers take the necessary steps to establish a trust-based relationship that is not only academically focused, but also allows them to express themselves.

Relationships with Peers. According to the results of the interviews, more than half of the children have problems with their peer relationships. These problems include hitting, pushing, snoring, getting into verbal fights, and being bullied by their peers. It has been observed that problems with peers are related to some family dynamics.

"Children are acutely aware of their father's absence. I also know they are upset, I know they wanted to cry but couldn't, and I know my son became very angry at school (to his friends) as a result of this..." (E1)

Positive comments about their parents, whether made consciously or unconsciously in the relationship between children and peers, as well as positive observations about the relationships of peers with their parents, have been shown to have an effect on children's peer behaviors:

"This period (violence) returns, that is, it does not end; it repeats. Children see fathers because they see them in school. I've heard that fathers occasionally come to pick up their children from school. I'm not sure. Some kids say, 'I did this with my father over the weekend.' In schools... I believe it occurs frequently at our school. Children are very cruel; they say things to children that will upset them." (E1)

In the interviews, it is seen that most children have a low tolerance for adversities and mistakes that are shown to them by their peers, even if they are not directed at them. According to interviews with parents, teachers, and school counselors, some children have a rigid attitude towards their peers, and in some cases, even their teachers.

"Mom, for example, 'When someone does something wrong, I just snap back,' she says." (E3)

"When he is angry, he returns home immediately and is easily irritated by his friends." (E4)

According to the interviews, children's behaviors in their interactions with their peers are also influenced by their parents' attitudes and the child's role in the family:

"When the child arrived at school, he was extremely happy. He (C9) was overjoyed to go to school because they had isolated themselves at home. He is a good student who does not cause any problems in class. He adores and respects his classmates and teacher." (P2)

(describing her reaction when her child has a disagreement with one of her peers as follows) "Don't come and tell me about the negative thing you experienced with your friend; if you're going to be offended, don't play with anyone, sit here." (E4)

"You will call me big brother, I am older than you," he tells his friends. He is attempting to replicate the experience at school. He is an act of extreme defense against C1; if something happens, a few people go there, and he may be involved. Maybe C1's thing (problem behaviors) is a role that he's given himself as a result of C2's maturity." (P2)

It can be seen that some of the child's individual characteristics are also brought to the fore when establishing relationships with their peers. These characteristics are leadership, the ability to express their wants and needs, the ability to find creative solutions, and assertiveness.

"A very popular boy, a boy that other boys want. He's quite active, so they always ask me, 'Is C1 in your class?' He's a very popular kid." (O6)

The findings are consistent with previous findings that children can reflect family patterns to the school environment and that their individual characteristics can protect them during the process (Emery & Forehand, 1996; Turkarslan, 2007). With starting school, children can position themselves by comparing themselves and their parents to their peers and other adults in school settings. This situation can be especially difficult for the children of divorced parents, and if the proper approach is not taken, it can lead to them having negative perceptions of themselves and others. While being able to interact positively with peers is an important skill for this developmental period, it is also thought to be important to make various interventions to support these skills, particularly in supporting the development of children from divorced families.

School Counselor-Student Relationship. In interviews with school counselors, it was discovered that children were mostly supported indirectly. Interventions included interviewing parents and caregivers, interviewing teachers, and referring. In some cases, it was stated that it is possible to work directly with children who were referred to the counseling service. When the reasons for being referred to guidance service were examined, reasons such as absenteeism, showing less interest in the lesson, difficulties with homework/studying, and displaying an aggressive attitude in peer relationships were discovered. When working with children on these issues, school counselors stated that they make observations and use behavior charts. They stated that they addressed the issue directly with the students and intervened in the problem behavior by assisting them in developing positive behaviors.

“For example, when the weather is good, I try to go outside and play ball with them just to have something to do. It feels great for him, and they are overjoyed. In this regard, I have the opportunity to observe both in the classroom and in the game setting.” (P2)

Some school counselors, on the other hand, have stated that they would rather work on the underlying causes of the problem than the problem behavior and they will use a more systematic and comprehensive helping process that includes a variety of strategies:

“If we discuss the work I will do with Q4, we will move the process forward on two legs. The first focuses on academic abilities. Following that, we will investigate where the child is in terms of social and emotional development. What is she experiencing and how is she developing her coping skills during the divorce process? We will also focus on individual interviews here... I intend to employ various approaches and methods, such as the drawing analysis technique and play therapy.” (P1)

Some of the school counselors addressed their interactions with teachers and parents while working with children from divorced families. The second one is will be discussed under the mesosystem. Among the issues encountered with the first subcategory are teacher’s emphasis on problem behavior and academic success, not being sensitive to the child’s psychological state, not applying the suggestions made, and not supporting the guidance and psychological counseling activities:

“Even if the child is academically unsuccessful, if he exhibits problematic behavior, the teacher sees it as a problem... For example, C6’s mother reported that her grades had dropped, but the teacher believes there is no problem because there is no problem behavior in the classroom.” (P3)

“For example, if this child is excluded from the classroom because he is a neglected child, the teacher’s role is critical for this child to be accepted by his peers in the classroom. At this point, the teacher can reshape the classroom groups, bring him together with the popular students in the class, assign important duties and responsibilities in the classroom, and highlight the things he can do to increase the child’s self-confidence. However, they also hesitate to put it into action.” (P1)

In light of the school level and the developmental level of children, school counselors mostly make indirect interventions. To be able to support the child in this context, it is necessary to collaborate with parents and teachers through scheduled consultation meetings and seminars to build working relationships and help them develop knowledge and skills. On the other hand, the limited interventions implemented within the school system suggest that child-focused and school-based family counseling and guidance services should be developed and strengthened. Existing literature suggest that working on issues such as developing peer relationships, increasing academic success, and emotion regulation can have a protective effect in assisting with divorce adjustment (Masten & Reed, 2002). In line with research findings, various individual (e.g play therapy) and group interventions made in the school setting help improve children to adjust divorce (Rose, 2009; Sentürk Aydın, 2013).

Mesosystem

The mesosystem is divided into two categories as: a) teacher-parent collaboration and b) school counselor-parent collaboration.

Teacher-Parent Collaboration. In the interviews, the majority of the teachers stated that they were able to work with custodial parents who take care of their children and make an effort for them. It is important to note that nearly all of the teachers stated that they only knew the custodial parent. In some cases, the teacher appears to be caught in the middle of a conflict between the parents.

“The father is constantly calling the school to inquire about the status of his son. He contacts the teacher and the school principal. (He says) When I come, I'd like to meet the child. Because the mother does not want her child to see him, we are powerless to intervene.” (P1)

It has been observed in some cases that the parents' adjustment to divorce influences this collaboration. While C4's teacher O7, complained that the mother was always trying to reach her and could give inconsistent answers in the interview with the counselor, C3's teacher O3 stated the following about her collaboration with E6:

“I'm speaking with the father; I don't know exactly how I set up the collaboration because he says okay to everything I say: I do it, I handle it. This is frequently stated. But it has no effect; it is not an appeal response. He's doing something, he believes everything I say, he claims it's true, he claims his reasons, whatever they are. But no result.”

As mentioned before, the attitude of the teacher, as well as the situation of the parents, are also effect this collaboration. C4's parent described her conversation with the teacher as follows:

“But this year, our teacher, she was convinced and said that C4 will not be able to improve in any way...” (E3)

Counselor-Parent Collaboration. The striking pattern in relationships between school counselors and parents is that they occur at the counselor's request and when a 'problem' arises. The interviews between the counselor and the parents are mostly 'child-oriented,' and the parents do not want psychological support for themselves. It seems remarkable that a few parents and teachers wanted to get support through this research and that they made their first appointment with a school counselor after the interview.

Although school counselors stated that they made progress by working with the child, they also stated that certain circumstances made the process difficult. The school counselors emphasized the effect of not being able to include the noncustodial parent in the process, in addition to the difficulty experienced in the regular participation of the custodial parent:

“It would be far more beneficial if we could include the father, as well as the entire family, in the process. He needs a father, someone to hold his hand, stroke his hair, and spend time with him.” (P2)

“Most parents have an understanding that: you talk to the child, you do something, you change the child, after the meeting success must have increase, children must have gain the ability to study, and the child's desire must have come. They come expecting very specific, very pill, or very magic wand solutions.” (P1)

According to school counselor (P1), some parents even prevent their children from seeking professional help.

“When I begin talking to the child without even requesting an interview- because I have identified a student or been referred by the teacher- the parent may ask, ‘Why are you taking my child?’ and may say, ‘I don't want you to meet with my child.’ I'm in a situation where I get a lot of reactions like this.” (P1)

The attitudes of teachers' and school counselors' towards divorced families/children, as well as the adjustment of the parents, have an impact on the teacher-parent and school counselor-parent relationships. Establishing a problem and child-centered interaction, as well as lack of active and regular parental participation in the process have a negative impact on collaboration and holistic intervention. As a result, the child's adjustment to divorce is influenced by the interaction of the family and the school systems.

Exosystem

The dynamics of education, economy, and legal system, which are associated with the child's adjustment to divorce, are discussed in three categories at this level.

System of Education. During the interviews, school counselors stated that they were unable to find a suitable place where confidentiality could be assured while working with children from divorced families, and that they

were having difficulty finding and adapting psycho-educational programs appropriate for the children's characteristics. However, during the pandemic period, there were deficiencies in the execution of child-focused family psychological counseling, which resulted in an inability to provide sufficient information about the situations of children and families, and thus an inability to provide adequate care. The statements of the school counselors reveal the educational dynamics that influence children's adjustment to divorce:

"I was working with a student body that was predominantly inclusive... I'm having difficulty adapting the existing program there because there are issues with the child's mental state... basically, what I need is a program appropriate for the level and place." (P1)

"I spoke with him (C4) after a long time; after the pandemic period." (P3)

One of the risk factors associated with this system in the context of the adjustment of children from divorced families is the education process of teachers. The findings from previous chapters on teacher-student, teacher-parent, and teacher-school counselor relationships revealed that most teachers are insensitive to how and through which mechanisms children are affected by the divorce process. Although the individual factors relating to this situation are explained, it is believed that systemic inferences such as teacher training can also be made. Education is regarded as one of the most important tools in developing sensitivity and awareness on various issues.

The Legal System. According to the findings of the interviews, 80% of the parents who took custody were mothers (see Table 1), and this finding appears to be consistent with the country's divorce statistics (TUIK, 2022). In the interviews most parents stated that they did not receive alimony for a variety of reasons. Furthermore, noncustodial parents withdraw their financial and emotional support and relinquish their parenting roles. E3, mother of two, expressed this as follows:

"What happened to me, the entire burden was on my shoulders. In other words, it is extremely difficult to make a living, especially for children... I don't just mean financially, but also emotionally. After all, if you're enough for one, you won't be able to keep up with the other."

When the literature is examined, it is thought that the failure to follow the joint custody procedure, the limited scope of mediation, and its inadequacy in increasing psychological adjustment in terms of quality can be considered risk factors.

The Economic System. According to interviews, single parents often worked long shifts and temporary jobs during the divorce process. Some parents worked multiple jobs to make ends meet, and the pandemic reduced their employment opportunities. Increasing economic stress forces parents and children to live with their root family and exposing them to a variety of adversities. It has been revealed that in exchange for the support they receive in child care, parents who live with their families take on the task of providing economic livelihood for the families, and the burden has increased. E4 stated that she moved to his mother's house during the divorce process and worked very hard because she was the only one who made a living in the house. She went on to say that she couldn't care for her child because she was exhausted, and that it was a time when her mother was responsible for almost all of her child.

Although the practical and relational difficulties caused by economic difficulties in the lives of the child and the parent were explained in the previous section, it is seen that this situation is also related to systemic dynamics. Only one of the parents interviewed stated that she received bread aid from the municipality as well as monthly financial support from the social security agency because she was unable to work due to health issues. In this context, it is assumed that divorced parents should be supported within the framework of the system in order to improve the quality of life for themselves and their children.

Macrosystem

Society's Economic Structure. Although divorce reduces family income, large-scale phenomena such as economic crises and unemployment rates exacerbate the disadvantaged position of single-parent families.

However, the conditions caused by economic conditions are critical because they pose a variety of risks to the parent, child, and parent-child relationship as mentioned before.

Society's Sociocultural Structure. In terms of adjustment, the values adopted in collectivist cultures, as well as the importance placed on the family and the child, have both risk-increasing and protective effects. During the interviews, it was discovered that some teachers and school counselors shared the society's negative view of divorce. Furthermore, from sociocultural perspective, the information obtained about children's peer relationships can be reveal that children continue to share this point of view that exists in society.

“Even after the divorce, I lived alone. I tried to restrain myself so that my family would not be upset, and others would not be upset for my family.” (E2)

Another prominent aspect in relation to is, almost all of the parents interviewed stated that they received support from their families in various dimensions, including economic, social, emotional, and practical support, and some parents expressed this as 'their family takes care of them.' Relevant quotations will not be repeated because they have already been covered in previous sections. In this context, it is possible to assert that the social value placed on family ties and children has a protective effect in some cases.

On the other hand, it was discovered that parents prioritized their children's needs over their own, that the majority of their concerns were about their children, and that they even lived for their children. Although this situation appears to be beneficial for children at first glance, it appears to be ineffective in practice. Even when there is a risk of harming people, sayings like "don't get involved in the husband and wife argument" demonstrate that "family privacy" is valued in society. It is risky not to intervene when parent-child adjustment should be supported, especially in light of the domestic violence phenomenon that often accompanies divorce cases. One of the teachers' statements clarified this social value and approach:

“As a teacher, how far can you go into people's private lives?... Actually, there are some things that I guessed, but getting into it and fixing it is extremely difficult.” (O3)

Results

When the findings obtained from the five themes were examined, it was discovered that the parents' adjustment to divorce affected their parenting attitudes and skills, as well as their relationship with their child, and that the new family structures formed after the divorce had different strengths and difficulties. However, children are not only affected by this process; it has been observed that individual and developmental characteristics, as well as individual experiences, influence their adjustment. Second, according to the research, the phenomenon of adjustment to divorce, should not be handled only within the family system; it reveals that the attitudes and behaviors of actors such as teachers, peers, and school counselors influence the process by interacting with other systems. Furthermore, wider applications such as teacher education, employment opportunities, mediation and joint custody, and the indirect effects of society's economic and social structure are factors that should be considered in terms of children's adjustment to divorce. As a result, supporting children's adjustment to divorce requires a holistic approach and organized interventions at various levels.

Limitations

The research's study group consists of custodial parents, classroom teachers, and school counselors of children from divorced families aged 6 to 11. The research findings are restricted to the information obtained from the study group participants. A limitation of the study is that no children or noncustodial parents were interviewed directly. This limitation is due to the researcher's lack of experience working with children for potentially traumatic life events, as well as the difficulty in contacting the noncustodial parent.

Suggestions

Based on the research findings, the recommendations made to researchers, practitioners and legislators in the field are as follows:

1. Because this study is limited to 10 parents, eight teachers, and three school counselors, interviews with different participants (for example, the divorced family child, his/her root family, his friends, his parent who

does not have custody) at different education levels can be conducted to examine the adaptation levels of primary school children to divorce.

2. Experimental research can be conducted in which interventions such as psychoeducation and group counseling in order to improve children's adjustment to divorce are designed, implemented, and evaluated. These practices can also be designed for noncustodial parents, grandparents, or teachers.

3. Alternative approaches and methods, such as the use of online processes in child-oriented family counseling, interactive practices to increase teacher and parent cooperation, and consultation can be included.

4. It may be useful to raise and broaden the scope of practices such as joint custody and mediation, as well as economic empowerment of disadvantaged families.

5. Arrangements can be made to improve access to mental health services for divorced parents, children, and other family members living together.

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