THE RELATIONS BETWEEN MATERNAL REARING BEHAVIORS

AND

SCHOOL COMMITMENT

IN

TURKISH IMMIGRANT AND NATIVE CHILDREN

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ABSTRACT

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The goal of the present study was to explore and compare the association of family collectivist values, perceived achievement values and maternal rearing behaviours with school commitment among immigrant and native Turkish preadolescent children in Norway and Turkey respectively. For the purpose of this study, 208 mother-child dyads (105 from Norway, 103 from Turkey) participated in the current study. The data was collected by a questionnaire battery including a Demographic Category Sheet, Short-EMBU (Egna Minnen Betraffende Uppfostran- My Memories of Upbringing), School Commitment Scale, Family Collectivist Values Scale, and Perceived Achievement Values Scale. Quantitative study was conducted to investigate study variables. Research questions revealed that 1) In terms of school commitment, there is no significant difference between two groups; 2) Turkish native children have more family collectivist values than Turkish immigrant children; 3) Turkish immigrant mothers and their children have more achievement values than Turkish native families; 4) Considering both Turkish immigrant and native's scores, perceived maternal emotional warmth, perceived maternal control, perceived maternal rejection, child' s collectivistic family values, and maternal emotional warmth are significantly correlated to children's school commitment; 5) For the Turkish immigrant children perceived maternal

emotional warmth, perceived maternal control, and perceived achievement values predict school commitment, whereas for the Turkish native children, the predictors of school commitment are gender, perceived maternal emotional warmth, and perceived maternal control. For the Turkish immigrant mothers, maternal emotional warmth is predictor of their children's school commitment while for Turkish immigrants' mothers, gender and maternal rejection are predictors of school commitment.

Keywords: Maternal Rearing Behaviours, School Commitment, Perceived Achievement Values, Family Collectivist Values

To my husband, Utku Köz

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

1. Introduction

1.1. Background and Overall Aim

At the beginning of the 21st century, immigration, which is people`s movement from one country to another for residential rather than visiting aims (UK Border Agency, 2012), has been one of the increasingly prominent issues faced by western countries. The number of international migrants worldwide proceeded to grow rapidly from 173 million in 2000 to 258 million in 2017 (United Nations, 2017). While many people migrate to escape political violence and persecution, others migrate to create better economic opportunities for themselves and their children.

For many migrant groups resettling in their destination countries implies confrontation with new cultural values. Values has an essential role in encouraging action and guiding the selection or evaluation of actions, policies, people, and events (Schwartz, 2010, 2012). Values underlie the developmental goals parents have for their children, and thereby their parenting styles and strategies (Kagitcibasi & Ataca, 2015; Kohn, Scotch, & Glick, 1979). Even if there are values that are universal across cultures such as achievement and benevolence, the relative importance of each values differs, often as a function of the society's natural resources, social and economic factors, and thereby constitute the unique cultural make-up of different cultural groups (Schwartz, 1992, 1999, 2012). Likewise, there are dimensions of parenting strategies that are universal across cultures, however, the relative importance endorsed to each strategy varies according to the cultural make-up of particular group (Kagitcibasi, 1970, 1990, 1996, 2007, 2013; Kagitcibasi, Ataca, & Diri, 2010;). Broadly speaking, cultural groups are often characterized as either *collectivist* or *individualist* according to their relative endorsement of values such as personal choice, intrinsic motivation, self-maximization, orientation to the larger group, respect, and obedience (Tamis-LeMonda et al., 2008). Even if there is significant within-group variation in the degree to which they endorse collectivist or individualist values, within this framework Turkey typically characterizes as collectivist and Norway as individualist cultures (Hofstede, 1980a, 1983).

For the individual immigrant and his or her family, adapting to a new culture involves learning new languages, behavioral patterns, values and beliefs, that over time may result in changes and modifications of their own behaviors and values (Berry, 2001, 2003). Such

processes of adaptation to new cultures and changes in behavior and values are often referred to as *acculturation* (Berry, 2003). Needless to say, there is considerable variation between and within immigrant groups regarding to what extent they adopt the values and parenting strategies of the receiving countries (Arends-Tóth & Van de Vijver, 2003; Citlak, Leyendecker, Schölmerich, Driessen, & Harwood, 2008; Daglar, Melhuish, & Barnes, 2011; Park, Kim, Chiang, & Ju, 2010; Plunkett & Bámaca-Gómez, 2003). Thus, to get information about potential changes in cultural values among Turkish immigrant parents in Norway, the present study compares basic values and parenting strategies between Turkish immigrants in Norway and native Turks in Turkey. For ease of reading within this research, we categorized the two groups as Immigrant (Turks) and Native (Turks), respectively.

For the receiving countries, one major concern for policies and practices regarding immigration is to what extent the immigrants and their offspring integrate into the labor market and educational institutions. For immigrant background children and youth from low and middle income countries, education is particularly important, as it is one of the safest means for upward social mobility (Helland, 2006). Also from the perspective of many immigrants, the desire to have a better life and for upward mobility can be achieved by the means of education (Heath, Rothon, & Kilpi, 2008; Kao & Tienda, 1995; Sue & Okazaki, 1990). That is, immigrant parents typically perceive educational achievement as a trigger factor for their children's social and economic advancement (Fordham & Ogbu, 1986; Hermansen, 2016). Besides, children's perception of their parents' achievement orientation may affect their own aspirations and they may try harder to achieve academically. Many studies revealed that education aspirations, which can be influenced by immigrant students` perceptions of parental educational expectations, their acculturation, and their self-esteem (Carranza, You, Chhuon, & Hudley, 2009) are high among immigrant students or youth refugees (Kao, 1995; Shakya et al., 2012; St–Hilaire, 2002; Stevenson & Willott, 2007). Based on this hypothesis, the present study compares achievement values of Turkish immigrants in Norway and native Turkish in Turkey.

In the research literature, there are many studies concerning the associations of different parenting styles with educational outcomes across cultures and national groups (Brown & Iyengar, 2008; Chao, 1994; Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts, & Fraleigh, 1987; K. Kim & Rohner, 2002; Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991; Leung, Lau, & Lam, 1998; H.-S. Park & Bauer, 2002; Peng & Wright, 1993; Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 1994). Nevertheless, there is shortness of research focusing on parenting styles and achievement among specific immigrant groups in the Norwegian

context. To our knowledge, there is no comparative study comparing school commitment and parenting styles between immigrant Turks in Norway and native Turks in Turkey. Such knowledge may contribute to our understanding of how immigrant groups change and adapt to new socio-cultural contexts and may support educational and integration policies to promote social mobility and social equality in the population. Thus, based on Bronfenbrenner`s ecological model of human development, which will be explained later, the present study addresses some of these gaps by examining and comparing parenting styles` influences on school commitment among Turkish immigrant children in Norway and Turkish native children in Turkey. To obtain a broader cultural perspective, we also examine if endorsement of family collectivist values predicts school commitment among immigrant and native Turkish children.

In summary, the goal of the present study is to explore and compare the association of family collectivist values, perceived achievement values and parenting style (we will define it as maternal rearing behaviours) with school commitment among 5th, 6th, and 7th grades of immigrant and native children in Norway and Turkey, respectively. Thus, this study can highlight on the Turkish immigrant families' acculturation process -whether they behave according to the cultural values of the receiving country or those of their country of origin. The results can help developmental and counseling psychology researchers and pedagogues to understand variation in the association between values, rearing behaviors, and school commitment in both countries and to discuss culturally appropriate strategies and interventions that can improve student achievement and school commitment.

1.2. Turkish Immigrant Context of Norway

1.2.1. The Majority is Born in Turkey

According to Statistics Norway webpage (2018), the immigrant population in Norway includes foreign-born individuals who migrated by themselves, and Norwegian-born persons with two foreign-born parents and four foreign-born grandparents. They currently make up 17.3 % of the total Norwegian population. According to Statistics Norway webpage, there are approximately 746 661 immigrants and 169 964 are Norwegian-born to immigrant parents (Statistics Norway, 2018).

The total Turkish population in Norway is 23 340. According to Statistics Norway's webpage (2018), foreign-born immigrants have the highest population distribution in the total

Turkish population (11 632), which is followed by Norwegian-born to immigrant parents (6 975).

According to Korhan, "Turks actually started to migrate to Norway in the end of 1950s. The first Turkish community in Norway consisted of individual migrants who were motivated by personal reasons and those who came through friend invitation or ship work" (2014, p. 47). In the late 1960s, because of fast-growing economy and population shortage, Norway accepted labour migrants from Morocco, Yugoslavia, Turkey, and Pakistan. This initial immigration was followed by family reunion (Cooper, 2005). Turks, like other groups, continued to immigrate to Norway until the immigration ban in 1974/75. After the immigration ban, the increase in the Turkish immigrant population has mainly come through family immigration, which includes family reunification and family establishment (Henriksen, 2007).

1.2.2. Low School Attainment and High Discrimination

With regard to the adaptation of the Turkish immigrants to Norway culture, Turks like Somalis are slow in attaining social mobility (Oppedal, 2017). This could be related to the findings showing that educational attainment among Turks is relatively low and the drop-out rate is relatively higher than other immigrant groups. If we only look at those over the age of 20, the school / student share among those with Turkish backgrounds is especially low, 24 percent, since they choose vocational education (Henriksen, 2007; Løwe, 2008; Pettersen & Østby, 2014). When comparing first-generation to second generation of Turkish immigrants, the former has a limited education, whereas the latter are more involved in higher education (e.g. 80 percent of all ages 16-18 participate in upper secondary education). However, this is still lower than the average 89 percent of immigrants from non-Western countries. This generational difference was confirmed in another study claiming that young people with Turkish background have fathers with relatively low education levels (Henriksen, 2007; Løwe, 2008). Social background can provide an significant explanation for the relatively low educational level of Turkish origin (Fekjaer, 2007). With regard to comparison of the social mobility between generations, second generation members of Turkish minorities are more likely to experience upward mobility when compared to first generation members (Heath et al., 2008; Thomson & Crul, 2007). For instance, a study conducted in Norway revealed that the second-generation immigrant minorities are more upwardly mobile as compared to their native peers. This may be related to the fact that children of immigrants show higher career

ambitions and grow up in mobility-enhancing resources provided by their families and communities (Hermansen, 2016). In a study comparing the level of psychological well-being between Turkish-heritage adolescents in Norway and Sweden, Turks in Norway displayed lower levels of well-being than Turks in Sweden (Virta, Sam, & Westin, 2004). Lack of adaptation among Turkish –originated people in Norway was attributed in part to a higher degree of sensing discrimination which is among the strongest negative predictors of wellbeing and sociocultural adaptation (P. Vedder, Sam, & Liebkind, 2007; Virta et al., 2004). Løwe (2008) showed that young people with a Turkish background often feel more discriminated against in the housing and labour market in Norway than other immigrant groups. Importantly, there are macro, exo,- meso,- and micro level factors of the immigrant developmental context (Brofenbrenner, 1994; Oppedal & Toppelberg, 2016) that can contribute to strengthening or weakening educational aspirations and commitment among Turkish immigrant children. In the present study, we focus on some of the micro-, exo-, and macro-level factors found to support or reduce immigrant children`s school commitment, such as cultural values and parent-child interaction (Phalet & Schönpflug, 2001b; Shah, Dwyer, & Modood, 2010). By employing a comparative study design, we aim to contribute with new knowledge about school commitment in immigrant acculturation context.

1.3. School Commitment

1.3.1. Concepts and Definitions

In the research literature, there are many studies focusing on students' relations to school such as school connectedness, school engagement, school attachment, and school bonding (Brown & Evans, 2002; Hawkins, Guo, Hill, Battin-Pearson, & Abbott, 2001; Jenkins, 1997; Libbey, 2004).

Hirschi first introduced the concept of "school bonding" in his 'Social Control Theory' to explain the causes of the crime (Hirschi, 1969a; Hirschi, 2002). Hirschi states that, delinquency rises from weak bonds to common social institutions such as schools and families. More specifically, like family, the school is one of the basic institutions that promotes individual's commitment to social values. Thus, one of the cause of crime and violent behaviours is the reduced commitment of individuals to schooling.

There are many concepts, such as achievement motivation, motivation to learn, and attitude toward school, which are used for school bonding. However, there is dissimilarity

between these concepts. That is, student`s affect, cognition and behavior are comprehensively emphasized on school bonding, whereas preferences and desires are mainly emphasized on achievement motivation. Besides, motivation to learn can be used instead of school commitment although there are some differences between these concepts (Maddox & Prinz, 2003). In the research literature, there are many studies concerning academic motivation, achievement motivation, school achievement, school motivation, academic achievement, and educational achievement etc. (Gutman & Midgley, 2000; Köseoglu, 2015; Lane, Lane, & Kyprianou, 2004; Singh, 2011; Tella, 2007; Urdan & Maehr, 1995; Wigfield, 1994; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000).

Maddox and Prinz (2003) suggested that school bonding assessment measures should assess four dimensions of school bonding proposed by Murray and Greenberg (2001). These dimensions are attachment to school (caring about others in school), beliefs (accepting school rules), school commitment (the priority to school for youth and valuing educational goals), and school involvement (participation in school activities) (Hirschi, 1969b; Jenkins, 1995; Maddox & Prinz, 2003).

School bonding is perceived as a combination of attachment, involvement, performance, and commitment (Cernkovich & Giordano, 1992). Although commitment is defined as "the acceptance of the value of achievement and investment, which for youths is seen primarily in the desire to attend college and attain a high-status occupation" (Wiatrowski & Anderson, 1987, p. 67), school commitment is defined as "personal investment in school activities and the priority the school holds for youth" (Maddox & Prinz, 2003, p. 32). Another definition of school commitment is

"the degree to which the student has a 'stake in conformity' that insulates him or her from involvement in delinquency. This is reflected by such matters as the extent to which he or she invests time and effort in academic activities, gets good grades, shows concern for future achievement, and has high aspirations for the future" (Cernkovich & Giordano, 1992, p. 270).

School commitment consists of beliefs about future achievement and getting good grades, and behaviors such as homework completion and studying (Cernkovich & Giordano, 1992; Finn & Rock, 1997; Hirschi, 1969a; Jenkins, 1995).

In the present study, school commitment includes school motivation and perceived school competence in terms of the child's feelings about school, homework, teachers, and achievement.

1.3.2. Predictors and Outcomes of School Commitment

|Several studies revealed that students with high level of school commitment are less likely to engage in crime, school misconduct, substance use, delinquent behavior, and non-attendance in schools (Cernkovich & Giordano, 1992; Jenkins, 1995, 1997; Simons, Johnson, Conger, & Elder, 1998; Thornberry et al., 1991). In other words, indicators of social, emotional, and school-related adjustment are correlated with students' insight of the quality of their relationships with teachers and bonds with the school (Murray & Greenberg, 2001).

Some research studies investigated the relation between school commitment, which is often referred to as the rational element of the bonding, and educational outcomes (Bryan et al., 2012; İhtiyaroğlu & Demirbolat, 2016). Although we are more interested in various factors that can predict and cause strong commitment among child and youth in this research study, many studies revealed that students' higher academic achievement like having higher GPAs is a result of their commitment to school, their school work, their higher levels of behavioral engagement, and their investment in school (Dotterer & Lowe, 2011; Sciarra & Seirup, 2008; Stewart, 2008). In line with these findings, another study found that students' academic confidence and good attendance predict academic success (Szalacha, Marks, Lamarre, & Coll, 2005). Despite the lack of focus in the literature on to correlation between school commitment and academic achievement, based on these findings, we can assume that there might be a relation among academic achievement, school commitment, and dropout risk. Research has shown that students who have high levels of school achievement show a lower dropout risk than those who report lower levels of school achievement (Lessard, Poirier, & Fortin, 2010). Korpershoek, Kuyper & van der Werf (2015) demonstrated small and positive correlations between school commitment and academic achievement. Besides, they reported that various motivation factors and school commitment components are significantly related to students' academic achievement (Korpershoek, 2016). Another study demonstrated that school commitment beliefs have a positive relation with academic achievements (Bryan et al., 2012).

The research literature indicated that the main predictor of educational outcomes is parenting styles, which will be explained in the following section. Ryan and Adams (1995) have suggested that children`s academic and social outcomes are mainly related to family characteristics and processes, which they called "*Family-School Relationships model*". This model includes *child behaviours or accomplishments* like school achievement, *child personal traits or accomplishment* like self-esteem, *school-focused parent-child interactions* such as

parental support, authoritative parenting style, family cohesion, parental beliefs, *and context of family* like ethnic group. Based on this model, previous studies found that authoritative parenting style has significant positive correlation with academic achievement and higher academic performance in school (Aunola, Stattin, & Nurmi, 2000; Dehyadegary, Yaacob, Juhari, & Talib, 2012; Dornbusch et al., 1987; H.-S. Park & Bauer, 2002; Pinquart & Kauser, 2017; Pong, Johnston, & Chen, 2010; Steinberg, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989; Steinberg et al., 1994; Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbusch, & Darling, 1992; Turner, Chandler, & Heffer, 2009; Yasmin, Kiani, & Chaudhry, 2014), especially in Western or North-American cultures. Authoritative parenting styles refer to behaviours such as parental involvement, parental monitoring of their children, parental acceptance or warmth, behavioural supervision and control, and granting the child psychological autonomy (Chen, Liu, & Li, 2000; Gray & Steinberg, 1999; Rafiq, Fatima, Sohail, Saleem, & Khan, 2013; Steinberg, 1990; Steinberg, Dornbusch, & Brown, 1992; Steinberg et al.,1989; Steinberg, Lamborn, et al., 1992). Taking into consideration these findings, emotional warmth (support), control (overprotection), and rejection will be our study variables regarding to maternal rearing behaviours, which will be explained later.

Table 1 summarizes some of the research findings regarding significant predictors of children's school outcomes.

Table 1

Some Studies Predicting School Achievement, Motivation, And Engagement

Category	Factors	Important findings	References
Parental characteristics	Parental autonomy support	Parental autonomy support is positively linked to children's teacher-rated competence and adjustment, and school grades and achievement.	Grolnick and Ryan, 1989
	Three aspects of authoritative parenting: 1. Acceptance 2. Psychological autonomy 3. Behavioral control	Warmth, democratic, and firm parenting styles positively affect adolescent's outcomes such as achievement and doing better in school.	Steinberg, Elmen, and Mounts, 1989
	Family factors: 1. Family climate 2. Style of socialization 3. Goal orientations	All three family factors have significant effects on students` academic motivation and achievement goals which in turn, influence their motivation.	Leal-Soto et al., 2013
	Parental classification: 1. Authoritative 2. Authoritarian 3. Indulgent 4. Neglectful	There is an association between indulgent parenting and adolescents' higher school misconduct and their less engagement.	Lamborn et al., 1991
	Parenting: 1. Discipline 2. Monitoring 3. Family problem solving 4. Positive reinforcement 5. Involvement	A strong association between positive parenting and academic achievement.	Patterson and Yoerger, 1991
	Parenting style: 1. Authoritative 2. Authoritarian	Authoritarian parenting distinguishes studentship and school academic achievement.	Chen, Dong, and Zhou, 1997
	Parenting style: 1. Authoritative 2. Authoritarian 3. Permissive	Authoritative parenting style is positively associated with students' academic adjustment.	Hickman, Bartholomae, and McKenry, 2000
	Parenting style: 1. Authoritative 2. Authoritarian 3. Permissive	There is a positive relation between authoritarian parenting with grades (school performance)	Dornbusch et al., 1987
	Parental influences	Multivariate mix of parental factors affects Math achievement.	Campbell and Mandel, 1990
	Authoritative parenting styles: 1. Parental encouragement 2. Parental monitoring Parental practices: 1. Parental expectations 2. Parental beliefs	There is a significant positive predictive effect of parental encouragement, parental expectations, and parental beliefs on children's school achievement.	Areepattamannil, 2010
	Parenting: 1. Parental expectations 2. Parental involvement	Early parenting factors are crucial for children's academic achievement.	Englund et al. 2004
	Parenting practices: 1. Parenting support 2. Parenting control	There is a negative relation between low supportive and high controlling parenting practices and Math achievement.	Gadeyne, Ghesquire, and Onghena, 2004

Table 1

(Continued)

Category	Factors	Important findings	References
Child characteristics	Self-efficacy	Self-efficacy seems to play an important role in predicting academic achievement.	Köseoglu, 2015
	Self-efficacy	There are reciprocal relations between students` beliefs in their efficacy for self-regulate learning, perceived self-efficacy, their academic goals and their final academic achievement.	Zimmerman, Bandura, and Martinez-Pons, 1992
	Self-esteem	Academic adjustment is significantly predicted by self-esteem.	Hickman, Bartholomae, and McKenry, 2000
	Inner motivational sources: 1. Control understanding 2. Perceived competence 3. Perceived autonomy	These three inner motivation types predict children performance, children's motivation and their achievement in school.	Grolnick, Ryan, and Deci, 1991
	Achievement motivation Self-concept	Achievement motivation and self-concept are significantly associated with academic achievement.	Awan, Noureen, and Naz, 2011
School and teacher characteristics	Variables associated with achievement in higher education	There is a close association between social interaction in courses and student achievement.	Schneider and Preckel, 2017
	School community	Within schools, sense of school community is significantly associated with academic attitudes and motives.	Battistich et al., 1995
	Teacher involvement, structure, and autonomy support	There is a reciprocal relationship between teachers' behavior and students' engagement in the classroom.	Skinner and Belmont, 1993
Peer network characteristics	Popular and peer rejected children	Peer and friends play a role in developing self-concept which affect the academic achievement.	Chowdhury and Pati, 1997

(Areepattamannil, 2010; Awan, Ghazala Noureen, & Anjum Naz, 2011; Battistich, Solomon, Kim, Watson, & Schaps, 1995; Campbell & Mandel, 1990; Chen, Dong, & Zhou, 1997; Chowdhury & Pati, 1997; Dornbusch et al., 1987; Englund, Luckner, Whaley, & Egeland, 2004; Gadeyne, Ghesquière, & Onghena, 2004; Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Grolnick, Ryan, & Deci, 1991; Hickman, Bartholomae, & McKenry, 2000; Köseoglu, 2015; Lamborn et al., 1991; Leal-Soto, Onate, Ulloa, & Maluenda, 2013; Patterson & Yoerger, 1991; Schneider & Preckel, 2017; Skinner & Belmont, 1993; Steinberg et al., 1989; Zimmerman, Bandura, & Martinez-Pons, 1992)

While summarizing predictors related to the parental characteristics above, factors were categorized in terms of children`s perception of their parents, or parents self-report. It is important to specify whose report was used, parent or child when comparing outcomes across studies, since the results may differ based on reporter (Pasch, Stigler, Perry, & Komro,

2010). Therefore, we will examine both child and mother`s report in the present study in order to see possible results differences. We also examine if there are significant relations between the children's perception of their mothers' rearing practices and values and the mothers' self-reports of these variables. This can provide information about the similarities and differences in their perceptions.

Not only the rearing behaviors of the parents, but also the cultural context the family is embedded within, can influence on children's school motivation. For example, the degree to which children and / or their parents endorse family collectivist values in terms of prioritizing the well-being of the family over one's one needs, influence aspiration and motivation level of the children, and their choice of school tracks (Phalet & Lens, 1995; Phalet & Schönpflug, 2001a, 2001b; Verkuyten, Thijs, & Canatan, 2001). A study demonstrated that the children whose parents consider education as a tool for upward mobility are more likely to do better in the school (Spera, Wentzel, & Matto, 2009). Although it has revealed that the Turkish students have stronger family-oriented achievement motivation (Verkuyten et al., 2001), the present study can contribute new findings to the existing research literature. Achievement, aspiration and cultural values are further discussed in the next section.

1.3.3. Acculturation in Developmental Context

Immigration involves several losses and changes in values, communication, and behavior which may create conflicts. These conflicts can lead to some negative consequences for both parents and children. For instance, some researchers demonstrated that immigrant children and adolescents are at greater risk of mental, social, and emotional adjustment problems, even if there is significant variation between groups with different national backgrounds (Aronowitz, 1984; Beiser, Dion, Gotowiec, & Hyman, 1995; Leavey et al., 2004; Mohammadi, Fombonne, & Taylor, 2006; Murad, Joung, Lenthe, Bengi-Arslan, & Crijnen, 2003; Oppedal & Røysamb, 2004; Roberts, Roberts, & Chen, 1997). Some researchers also demonstrated school related issues such as language difficulties or discrimination in school can cause some problems among immigrants (Adair, 2015; Söhn & Özcan, 2006; Stevenson & Willott, 2007). For instance, in a study, it revealed that the lack of Dutch language skills among the Turkish and Moroccan children caused poor achievement in primary school. Moreover, poor language skills made schools underestimate the abilities and potential of immigrant students (Crul & Doomernik, 2003). Another study showed that school underestimated many immigrants` abilities and potential because of their poor

language skills (Stevenson & Willott, 2007). Besides, parents' lack of language skills was associated with lower level of parental involvement, which had a direct effect on child`s achievement (Englund et al., 2004), at school (Turney & Kao, 2009). With regard to discrimination, a study demonstrated that immigrant students are more expected to have negative attitudes about school and have lower academic performance when they perceive discrimination from their teachers and peers (Stone & Han, 2005).

While interacting with the receiving culture, parents and children may differ from one another since they have different attitudes and identities (Buki, Ma, Strom, & Strom, 2003). More clearly, intergenerational conflict can arise due to the fact that immigrant parents, who maintain the origin culture values, display little change in their values, and their children can adapt better to the receiving country's culture as compared to their parents (Kwak, 2003; Rick & Forward, 1992). For instance, conflict between family and children could arise from children's insisting upon their autonomy whereas parents insist on the necessity of family cohesion and the obligations of their children (Kwak, 2003). In spite of all the challenges, research findings point out that the majority of immigrant children are adapting well to the challenges of acculturation, and show positive developmental outcomes (Sam, 2000; Zhou, 1997).

Children's development takes place within layers of contexts that may influence them in a variety of indirect and direct ways (Krishnan, 2010). Bronfenbrenner's ecological model of human development has often been used to illustrate these different layers and social settings (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, 1986). This model can provide an approach to understand how children`s development is affected not only by their immediate social relationships, but also by more distal institutions and systems. Bronfenbrenner distinguishes between five environmental systems; the micro system, mesosystem, exo-system, the macro system, and the chronosystem that influence children`s development direct and/or indirect ways (Bronfenbrenner, 1986). This model has been further elaborated by Oppedal and Toppelberg (2016) to better accommodate the bicultural developmental contexts of immigrant background children and youth by highlighting social settings in which interaction is mainly guided by majority culture and other social settings. *"The Acculturation Developmental Model"* (Oppedal & Toppelberg, 2016) also includes a separate transnational macro level system, in addition to the national macro system, to illustrate the transnational lives of immigrant children, and that there development also may be subject to influences from their parents' country of origin.

Here, we will primarily stress on the macro and micro levels that affect child's school commitment. The macro level is the largest and most distant system in child's ecological context. It is composed of the cultural or subcultural contexts, with reference to the beliefs systems, customs, life course options as well as the political and economic systems (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, 1986).

The micro level is the most immediate environment which has a direct influence on child's development. This level includes the interaction between child and his/her family, school personnel, and peers (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, 1986, 1994). While parents' parenting values and goals may result from macro system influences, these values are expressed in the parent – child interactions through parents' styles in child-rearing in the micro level. That is, within the ecological developmental framework, parenting style, parental achievement values and family collectivist values are embedded in the proximal parent – child interaction in the micro system. To sum up, contextual conditions such as socioeconomic conditions, cultural values, practices, and their ongoing changes affect parent-child relations (Trommsdorff & Nauck, 2001), which in turn influence the organization of child's learning environments, and affect child's developmental outcomes (Kagitcibasi, 1996).

With regard to school commitment, although school is one of the major parts of the exosystem, the relations between teacher and child, or peers and child at school occur in microsystem (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, 1986) Therefore, these two systems are important for the socialization of children. Specifically, for immigrant children, school is the essential area for acculturation (Vedder & Horenczyk, 2006).

According to the acculturation attitude model (Berry, 2001), there are four main strategies that immigrant background individuals employ to resolve the challenges related to culture change versus culture maintenance: *assimilation strategy* -adopting receiving countries' values and not maintaining the values of original culture, *separation strategy* -preserving the original culture and little contact to the dominant culture, *integration strategy* -maintaining the original culture as well as adopting dominant culture, and *marginalization strategy* -interesting neither in maintaining the original culture nor in maintaining the dominant culture. Most favourite acculturation strategy practiced by immigrants is integration, which is the combination of cultural adaptation and maintenance (Berry, Phinney, Sam, & Vedder, 2006). Research findings demonstrated that acculturation attitudes can be influenced by factors at all system levels of the ecological contexts such as immigration policies on the macro level, discrimination in the exo-system institutions, the level of contact between immigrants and non-immigrants in the meso-systems, and finally the direct

interactions between the child and other participants in the micro systems' social settings (Berry et al., 2006; J. S. Phinney, Berry, Vedder, & Liebkind, 2006).

The relationship between acculturation and academic development has been investigated in many researches, and supported that acculturation toward the receiving culture is positively associated with academic performance, self-efficacy, educational goal expectations, educational goal aspirations, and college attendance (Acoach & Webb, 2004; Carranza et al., 2009; Flores, Navarro, & DeWitz, 2008; Flores, Ojeda, Huang, Gee, & Lee, 2006; Hurtado & Gauvain, 1997; López, Ehly, & García-Vásquez, 2002; Manaster, Chan, & Safady, 1992; Miranda & Umhoefer, 1998; Nekby & Rödin, 2010). For instance, in a study, Mexican American high school students who was strongly Anglo-oriented bicultural and found out to be highly integrated, have a tendency to have higher academic performance (López et al., 2002).

Within the immigrant context, educational achievement, educational expectation, educational aspiration, and motivation have positive effects on immigrants' academic outcomes (Brinbaum & Cebolla-Boado, 2007; Kao, 1995; Kao & Tienda, 1995, 1998; Kristen, Reimer, & Kogan, 2008; Plunkett & Bámaca-Gómez, 2003; Ramos & Sanchez, 1995). In line with these findings, St-Hilaire (2002) demonstrated that for the great majority of Mexican-origin students in the eighth and ninth grades, education was valued as an instrument for being successful in the United States, and students had positive educational values, aspirations, and expectations while entering high school. Furthermore, Shakya et al. (2012) demonstrated that newcomer refugee youth developed strong aspirations for higher education in Canada. Likewise, another study conducted in UK revealed that there were high levels of aspiration and motivation amongst young refugees since they viewed higher education as a route out of poverty and discrimination (Stevenson & Willott, 2007). As we mentioned earlier, these aspirations might be related to upward mobility demand.
To understand the academic outcomes of children of immigrants, it is imperative to consider the immigrant parents` role. Many researches showed that immigrant parents strongly emphasize the significance of their children's getting a good education and consider educational success as an adaptive strategy for their children's social and economic enhancement (Burns, Homel, & Goodnow, 1984; Leyendecker, Lamb, Harwood, & Schölmerich, 2002).

Besides, several studies indicated that immigrant parents hold higher educational expectations which influence their children`s academic performance and educational aspirations (Brinbaum & Cebolla-Boado, 2007; Carranza et al., 2009). In a study conducted with Portuguese, Dominican, and Cambodian immigrant families, the majority of immigrant children were found in positive academic pathways and all parents demonstrated strongly valuing their children's education (Szalacha et al., 2005). Another research revealed that the parents' and children's expectations get improved by high levels of parent-child interactions in which higher shared family expectations increase achievement (Hao & Bonstead-Bruns, 1998). However, although high levels of immigrant parental achievement values have been linked to positive outcomes such as academic success, they can cause some negative outcome like emotional problems (Daniele Evelin Alves, Gustavson, Røysamb, Oppedal, & Zachrisson, 2014).

Considering the Turkish immigrants, when they immigrate to a new country, they can be exposed to some conflicts which result from acculturation process. These conflicts may bring about some problems related with children's psychological, behavioural, educational, and emotional development (Daglar et al., 2011; Murad et al., 2003; Sowa, Crijnen, Bengi-Arslan, & Verhulst, 2000; Stevens et al., 2003; Strohmeier & Dogan, 2012).

Regarding to Turkish immigrants' school related outcomes, the findings are inconsistent and complex. A study found that Turkish minorities tended to express higher educational aspiration and achievement than natives, which were accompanied by group-family loyalty beliefs (Phalet & Claeys, 1993). In line with group loyalty beliefs, another study confirmed that Turkish early adolescents were more of a collectivist cultural group and had a much stronger family-oriented achievement motivation. Among the Turks, family-oriented motivation was not only relatively high but was also positively related to task-goal orientation, academic performance, and perceived competence. Regarding the achievement motivation and task-goal orientation, they were significant positive predictors of grade-point average and negative predictors of absenteeism (Verkuyten et al., 2001). In another study carried out in German demonstrated that Turkish students held higher aspirations and Turkish students' high educational ambitions seemed to be promoted by a status upward mobility desire (Salikutluk, 2016). Following this, Kristen et al. (2008) reported that Turkish immigrants were more likely than Germans to enter a tertiary school although their performance were lower than Germans in primary and secondary school. In another study supporting these findings claimed that students whose mother had been born in Turkey

showed significantly higher aspirations than their peers from North West EU (Teney, Devleeshouwer, & Hanquinet, 2013). In another study, it revealed that Turkish immigrant mothers supported academic and professional success more strongly as compared to German mothers (Durgel, Leyendecker, Yagmurlu, & Harwood, 2009).

On the other hand, there are some researches which are not supportive on Turkish immigrants' social and educational outcomes (Crul & Doomernik, 2003; Heath et al., 2008; Jonsson & Rudolphi, 2010). For instance, it revealed that "Turk migrants in Belgium, as in other Western European countries, are among the most disadvantaged members of society in terms of education, affluence, and employment (Tielens 2005; Verhoeven 2000 as cited in Güngör & Bornstein, 2009, p. 540). In support of this finding, in the Netherlands, it indicated that ethnic minorities such as Turks and Moroccans attended lower levels of education and scored lower on achievement tests due to the social class and merit problems (Van de Werfhorst & Van Tubergen, 2007). In line with this study, Agirdag et al. (2011) revealed that among different immigrant groups, Turkish students tended to achieve less than 'other' immigrant students. Another study conducted in German claimed that Turkish children had a considerably lower level of schooling at different stages of school education, and their academic competences were below average (Söhn & Özcan, 2006). The reason behind lower schooling could be related to social class background such as the lower parental education and occupational class (Van de Werfhorst & Van Tubergen, 2007).

1.4. Parenting Style in Cultural Context

1.4.1. The Definition of Parenting Style

In the research literature, 'parenting styles' and 'parenting practices' have been used in a way that can be exchanged (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Generally, parenting styles are defined as "sets of behaviors that are communicated to the child and cause an emotional climate in which parental behavior is expressed. It includes both behaviors in which parents explicitly represent their parenting practice as nonverbal behaviors and spontaneous emotional expressions" (Leal-Soto et al., 2013, p. 331; Steinberg, 2001).

Darling and Steinberg defined 'parenting style' as:

A constellation of attitudes toward the child that are communicated to the child and that, taken together, create an emotional climate in which the parent's behaviours are expressed. These behaviours include both the specific, goal-directed behaviours through

16

which parents perform their parental duties (to be referred to as parenting practices) and non-goal-directed parental behaviours, such as gestures, changes in tone of voice, or the spontaneous expression of emotion (1993, p. 488). On the other hand, Darling and Steinberg (1993) defined as 'parenting practices' as "behaviours defined by specific content and socialization goals" (1993, p. 488). They claimed that parenting practices are best comprehended as operating in properly constrained socialization domains, such as academic achievement. Besides, they argued that the development of specific child behaviours like academic performance and acquisition of particular values are directly affected by parenting practices. According to them, parenting practices can be seen as "the mechanisms through which parents directly help their child attain their socialization goals (1993, p. 493)", which comprise various important parenting constructs, such as parental belief and parental expectations (Jeynes (2010) as cited in Areepattamannil, 2010).

1.4.2. A Brief History of Parenting Typology, Pattern and Dimensions

Though most early parenting researchers addressed to characterize general parenting dimensions and their correlates, starting with the 1960s, the researchers has aimed at to describe a global parenting styles. Actually, the parenting style concept was introduced to Diana Baumrind, and her perspective of socialization revealed that parenting styles are crucial in children's development. She classified three kinds of parenting styles, namely, *authoritative, authoritarian,* and *permissive. Authoritarian parents* have highly demanding character who try to shape and control their children`s behaviour by using certain punitive and directive discipline strategies. They are unresponsive and expect from their children to obey authority. Besides, they do not allow their children to be independent. *Authoritative parents* use bidirectional, open communication with their children. While monitoring their children`s behaviour, they show emotional warmth and support to their children when needed, and let their children live out their potentials within clear defined framework, still they expect mature behaviour from their children. *Permissive parents*, who show a tendency to be warm and nurturing toward their children, believe in their children`s autonomy and behave in no punitive way. That is, they do not like conflicts and over use of discipline, yet provide few guidelines and rules. Nevertheless, when socializing with their children, they are usually dismissive and unconcerned (Baumrind, 1966, 1967, 1971, 1972, 1989, 1991ab, 2005; Baumrind & Black, 1967).

Maccoby and Martin (1983) elaborated on Baumrind`s parenting conceptualization by using a two-dimensional framework, since Baumrind did not summarize parenting dimensions in her earlier studies. They suggested a conceptual structure that Baumrind's parenting styles could be viewed as combinations of differing levels of *"parental demandingness* and *parental responsiveness." Parental responsiveness* (i.e. warmth, acceptance, involvement) implies to the level that parents respond to the child's needs, whereas parental demandingness (i.e. control, supervision, maturity demands) is the level of requirements, control, or expectations parents have towards to children (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). The main differences between Baumrind`s and Maccoby and Martin`s conceptualization of parenting style is that Baumrind defined one type of permissive parenting while Maccoby and Martin differentiated between two types of permissive parenting style, namely indulgent and neglecting (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). The former is described as low on demandingness-control but high on responsiveness-acceptance, whereas the latter is described as low on both demandingness and responsiveness (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Based on Maccoby and Martin`s conceptualization of demandingness and responsiveness, Baumrind further used these concepts for recategorizing her parenting typology (Baumrind, 1991).

Although Baumrind`s and Maccoby and Martin`s dimensions of parenting have been investigated by many researcher (Chen et al., 1997; Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg et al., 1994), Barber used slightly different labels in his studies (Barber, Stolz, Olsen, Collins, & Burchinal, 2005). Barber et al. (2005) clarified the relation between parental behavior and psychosocial outcomes by differentiating dimensions of parenting into three, namely, *parental support, psychological and behavioural control*.

Darling and Steinberg (1993) claimed that Baumrind distinguished two aspects of demandingness: restrictiveness which was called as *'psychological control'*, and firm control which was called as *'behavioural control'*. To understand the nature of control, Barber tried to conceptually and empirically distinguish psychological control from behavioral control. The findings supported that psychological and behavioral control are empirically independent dimensions of family interactions since in each dimension, the control is focused on different features of the child's development (Barber, Olsen, & Shagle, 1994; Smetana & Daddis, 2002).

In the model, *parental support,* which refers to "varied behaviors with 'affective, nurturant, or companionate' qualities, is related to the adolescent's degree of social initiative"

(Barber, Stolz, Olsen, Collins, & Burchinal, 2005, p. 139). According to them, other than social initiative, perceived parental support is linked with lower depression.

Psychological control refers to "parents' actions that invoke the child's cognitions, emotions, and other features of psychological experience (e.g., attempts to change the child's thoughts or feelings; ignores or diminishes child's statement and views; withdraws affection etc.)" (Barber et al., 2005, p. 139). It revealed that when preadolescents and adolescents are exposed to psychological control, psychological control predicts their internalized problems like depression, and in some cases, it may lead to externalized problems like delinquency (Barber, 1996; Barber, Maughan, & Olsen, 2005; Barber et al., 1994). In line with these findings, high levels of psychological control are linked with more delinquent problems and more anxiety/depression (Pettit, Laird, Dodge, Bates, & Criss, 2001). In a study conducted in Turkey showed that increased psychological control leaded to increased internalization and externalization behavior problems in girls, and it leaded to externalization behavior in boys (Kındap, Sayıl, & Kumru, 2008).

Behavioral control dimension refers to "parents' monitoring and knowledge of child's activities and associates" (Barber et al., 2005, p. 139). In this dimension, parents try to regulate and construct child's behavior which can lead to externalized problems like being more aggressive and socially disruptive (Barber, 1996; Barber et al., 1994).

1.4.3. The Current Study's Model

In line with Barber`s model, Perris, Jacobsson, Lindstrom, von Knorring, and Perris (1980) proposed four factors of parenting style, namely: Rejection, Emotional Warmth, Overprotection, and Favoring by designed EMBU Scale (Egna Minnen Betraffende Uppfostran [EMBU]; "my memories of upbringing") which depends on self-report measure. The present study employs an assessment measure that has been developed and validated within several numbers of cultures (Arrindell et al., 1999; Cüre & Danışman, 2015; Deković et al., 2006; Dirik, Yorulmaz, & Karancı, 2015).

Based on acculturation attitudes, immigrant families may show different parenting styles with regard to child rearing. The research literature implies substantial variation in the conceptualization of parenting styles. Thus, the previous models are too complex. Specifically, some frameworks involve parenting styles that include several dimensions, making it difficult to disentangle the unique impact of each dimension. Nevertheless, even if they have different names in different models, three dimensions of parenting appear to be universal across models

and cultures: *emotional warmth or support, overprotection or control*, and *rejection.* In the current study, we chose these three dimensions instead of styles. Thus, we will use "maternal rearing behaviors" to indicate these three dimensions.

1.4.3.1. Overprotection (Control)

Overprotection is regarded as a specific and distinct dimension of control (Pereira, Barros, & Beato, 2013). Parental overprotection (POP) is described for "the parent who is highly supervising, has difficulties with separation from the child, discourages independent behaviour, and is highly controlling" (Thomasgard & Metz, 1996, p. 304). Both indulgent and controlling parental behaviours have been regarded as overprotective (Thomasgard & Metz, 1993). However, Parker has described overprotective behaviours as being more restrictive and controlling, and distinguished overprotection from an indulgent style of parent-child interaction (Parker, 1981; Parker & Lipscombe, 1981). In parenting bonding instrument developed by Parker, two scales called 'care' and 'overprotection' or 'control', measure fundamental parental styles as perceived by the child (Parker, Tupling, & Brown, 1979).

 In the research literature, there are many studies revealing parental overprotection's negative effects on child or adolescent. For instance, overprotection is significantly correlated with some mental disorders such as parental psychological symptoms of phobic anxiety, psychoticism, and paranoid ideation (Thomasgard, 1998) as well as dysthymia, anxiety disorders, and difficulties with close interpersonal relationships (Parker, 1983; Parker & Lipscombe, 1981). A study revealed that parental overprotection positively correlated with poor psychosocial functioning in children with cystic fibrosis (Cappelli, McGrath, MacDonald, Katsanis, & Lascelles, 1989). Another study demonstrated that considering parental control and parental rejection, the former was strongly correlated with child anxiety (McLeod, Wood, & Weisz, 2007).

1.4.3.2. Emotional Warmth (Support)

 Parental responsiveness, also defined as parental warmth or supportiveness refers to "the extent to which parents intentionally foster individuality, self-regulation, and self-assertion by being attuned, supportive, and acquiescent to children's special needs and demands" (Baumrind, 1991, p. 62). According to Carlo et al. (2011, p. 116), emotional or

parental warmth might be interpreted as "the presence of positive affect, responsiveness, and support in parent–child relationships".

Gottman, Katz, and Hooven et al.(1996) suggested that responsive and warm parents show particular types of parenting styles and have certain beliefs linked with emotion that affect children's emotional regulation. A study found that parental warmth, sympathy, and prosocial moral reasoning predict prosocial behaviours (Carlo et al., 2011). Another study indicated that maternal warmth significantly predicts the emotional adjustment, whereas paternal warmth significantly predicts later social and school achievement. (Chen et al., 2000). In line with these findings. it demonstrated that that children who were high on the support dimension showed positive and close relationship with their family members, received practical help from their parents, and felt good about their families (Amato, 1990).

1.4.3.3. Rejection

Undifferentiated rejection refers to "individuals' belief that their parents do (or did) not really love, want, appreciate, or care about them, without necessarily experiencing any clear behavioral indicators that the parents are (or were) neglecting, unaffectionate, or aggressive toward them" (Khaleque & Rohner, 2002, pp. 57-58).

Rohner (2004) suggests that parents rebuff their children by treating in all four aspects, namely warmth-affection, hostility-aggression, indifference-neglect, and undifferentiated rejection.

Several researchers indicated that parental acceptance-rejection influences somatic and psychological health status of child (Khaleque & Rohner, 2002; Rohner, Rohner, & Roll, 1980; Witmer et al., 1938).

To sum up, emotional warmth can be regarded as with acceptance, affection, and responsiveness towards the child; rejection can be regarded as parental criticism, hostility, indifference, and negativity, and lastly, control can be regarded as the parents' invasive regulation of children's emotions and behaviours (McLeod et al., 2007).

1.4.4. Association Between Parenting Style and Cultural Values

Culture can be defined as "the set of distinctive patterns of beliefs and behaviours that are shared by a group of people and that serve to regulate their daily living" (Bornstein, 2012, p. 212).

Parents' values, belief system, and socialization goals are impacted by cultural context (Tamminen, 2006). Within a cultural context, specific contents and socialization goals might differently define parenting styles and practices. Therefore, understanding the cultural context can help to anticipate differences in parenting styles. One account claims that cultural influence on socialization goals and values depends on the concepts of individualism and collectivism (Hofstede, 1980a; Kagitcibasi, 1996; Kim, Triandis, Kâğitçibaşi, Choi, & Yoon, 1994).

In the research literature, there are several researches on collectivism and individualism although there is no clear consensus what individualism and collectivism are. Hofstede (1980b) regarded individualism and collectivism as a term to explain possible forms of the relationship between individuals and the groups. Triandis (2001) showed that individualist cultures differ from collectivist ones with regard to specific attitudes and values. For instance, regarding self, it claimed that people in individualist cultures have personal self, whereas people from collectivist cultures have collective self (Triandis, 1989). To clarify, people living in collectivist cultures are more apt to describe themselves as aspects of groups and to give presence to in-group goals (Triandis, 2001). Like many Asian cultures, attending to others, fitting in, and harmonious interdependence with them are emphasized in collectivist cultures (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). On the other hand, people in individualist culture are independent, self-contained and have autonomy. Furthermore, the emphasis is on seeking to preserve their independence from others by valuating to the self and by focusing on their unique inner attributes, feelings and motives (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Based on this conceptual distinction, individualist cultures can be described in the context of higher assertiveness, self-reliance, self-esteem, autonomy, self-interest, independence, and the development of talents, whereas collectivist cultures can be described in the context of higher interdependence, obedience, and strong family ties (Tamis-LeMonda et al., 2008; Triandis, 1990).

The contents of parenting beliefs and practices vary widely across individualist and collectivist cultures although transmission of beliefs and practices from parents to children is universal (Harwood, Schoelmerich, Ventura-Cook, Schulze, & Wilson, 1996; Jambunathan &

Counselman, 2002; Kağıtçıbaşı, 1998, 2012; Keller, 2003; Tamis-LeMonda et al., 2008). In terms of parenting styles, parents in predominantly collectivist countries that stress interdependence such as Turkey, China, and Singapore are more liable to exhibit authoritarian parenting style with high levels of demandingness and restrictiveness, use higher levels of control over children, and underline conformity goals such as obedience or respect (Chao, 1994; Dornbusch et al., 1987; Kagitcibasi, 1970; Park et al., 2010)

However, the meaning of parenting style might be culturally specific and cultural concepts of parenting style can be different (Huang & Gove, 2015). In this context, some concepts may have very different implications as considered in light of the culture, and may not be as useful for understanding different parenting styles (Bornstein et al., 1992; Chao, 1994; McBride-Chang & Chang, 1998). Chao (1994) proposed that Baumrind's parenting styles might not be culturally appropriate in Asian and Asian American families since Baumrind's conceptualizations are particular only to European-American culture, or European American individual. That is, higher levels of parental authoritarianism might not essentially be associated with more negative ways of thinking and feeling about children or by overall lower levels of warmth. Specifically, meaning of authoritarianism may differ between people from individualist and collectivist cultures (Rohner & Pettengill, 1985; Rudy & Grusec, 2001; Rudy & Grusec, 2006). For instance, parental strictness may be seen as parental concern, caring, and involvement in Asian countries, whereas it can be seen as authoritarian control with hostility and aggression in Europe or America (Chao, 1994; Kim & Choi, 1994). These findings support the idea that socialization, which is affected by parenting style, can only be evaluated in the context of effective cultural conditions, according to the prevalent cultural values (Trommsdorff, 1985).

1.4.5. Association Between Parenting Style and Family Achievement Values

Values are commonly regarded as one of the main components of culture. Schwartz`s theory related to the individual level values has categorized ten basic, motivationally distinct values that people in almost all cultures implicitly recognize. One of these basic values, namely, achievement values stresses demonstrating competence in terms of prevailing social and cultural standards (Schwartz, 2012). According to Schwartz, achievement values are different from McClelland's (1961) achievement motivation, which is regarding of meeting internal standards of excellence and, which is expressed in self-direction values (McClelland (1961) as cited in Schwartz, 2012). To clarify, in these self-direction values, individual

23

success and self-actualization are emphasized. Conversely, Verkuyten et al. (2001) stated that for group-oriented or collectivist cultures as Turkey, it is essential to meet group loyalty and family expectation in which achievement and success are given a family-related meaning. In the present article, by saying "perceived achievement values", it is meant that "perceived maternal academic achievement" in which mother-related meaning is given to child`s self-achievement. Nevertheless, high individualist achievement motivation and family achievement motivation, which is called as *"collectivist achievement orientation"* can cooccur (Phalet & Claeys, 1993; Verkuyten et al., 2001). Combination of these two values can play an important role in acculturation process by shaping parents` styles, parents` values and beliefs. Besides, for successful socialization, value transmission from parents to children is usually perceived as necessary (Grusec, 1997).

1.5. Turkish Parenting and Its Effects in Socio-Cultural Context

1.5.1. Turkish parenting style in Turkey

Several value surveys revealed that Turkish society is collectivist in nature (Hofstede, 1980a; Hofstede, 1991; Schwartz, 1992). Respect for authority and for elders, especially towards their fathers, patriotism, close interpersonal and lasting family relationships, loyalty to parents instead of being independence, benevolence, tradition-religiosity, obedient, self-reliance, and kinship are some of the components of socialization processes in traditional Turkish culture, particularly in rural and low-SES (socio-economic status) settings. The individual has a network of close ties like the nuclear family, relatives, and close neighbours, which can be seen as a function of support when needed (Aygün & Imamoĝlu, 2002; Hofstede, 1980a, 1980b; Imamoğlu, 1987; Imamoglu, Küller, Imamoglu, & Küller, 1993; Kagitcibasi, 1970, 1982, 1973; Kagitçibasi & Sunar, 1992).

In her *"Family Change Model",* Kagitcibasi (2007) claimed that individualism and collectivism are multidimensional that can coexist in all cultures. On the basis of this claim, Kagitcibasi offered three distinct family interaction patterns: First one is 'traditional-with intergenerational interdependence'; second one is 'individual-generational independence'; and third one is 'dialectical synthesis of first one and second one emphasizing both material independence and emotional interdependence between generations'. Her model does not offer a hierarchy-oriented parenting style. Instead, it claims that both autonomy and relatedness in child rearing are expected to coexist (Kağitçibaşi, 1998, 2007, 2012).

From Kagitcioglu`s conceptualizations, Turkish culture seems as an interdependence-oriented culture (Hofstede, 2003; Kağıtçıbaşi, 1998, 2007, 2012). That is, Turkey has high level of conservatism and hierarch, oppositely, low level of low on autonomy and egalitarianism (Schwartz, 1999). However, depending on living in rural or urban areas and low or high SES settings, there would be some variations. For instance, as Imamoglu states (1987, p. 143) "the most desirable characteristic in a middle or lower SES child was found to be obedience and loyalty to parent; while in the upper SES, there was a tendency to favour being independent and self-reliant". Nevertheless, as we mentioned earlier, the importance of material independence and emotional interdependence is still worth across all socio-economic strata (SES) (Imamoğlu, 1987). That is, emotional closeness and expressing warmth toward children is still a prominent aspect of the Turkish family (Kagitcibasi, 1970, 1998, 2012; Kagitçibasi & Sunar, 1992).

From Baumrind`s parenting conceptualization, Turkish parents show authoritarian parenting style with high levels of power-assertive discipline techniques, and punishment-oriented control. Still, the Turkish family culture also puts great emphasis on emotional closeness and expressing warmth towards children (Fisek and Sunar (2005) as cited in Kagitcibasi, 1970; Daglar et al., 2011; Taylor & Oskay, 1995). However, as mentioned above, Turkish parenting styles especially in urban areas has been moving towards more Western values, and valuing individualism. That is, in Turkish culture, there is a trend of change towards individual autonomy, self-respect, and independence for adults and for children (Kagitcibasi, 1996; Imamoğlu, 1987). In terms of parenting styles, authoritarian control have been replacing by reasoning and more supporting of positive emotional expression (Sunar, 2002). In line with these findings, Kagitcibasi suggested that there has been a move from the model of total interdependence to the model of psychological interdependence over a period of three decades. Although the importance of the family over the individual is still stresses by all generations, newer generations have been moving towards more authoritative parenting which could be related to educational level or socioeconomic status increase (Kagitcibasi & Ataca, 2005). Confirming this claim, a study highlighted that increased educational level leads to authoritative parenting style in Turkey (Çelen & Kuşdil, 2009).

1.5.2. Turkish parenting style in Norway and Europe

Norway is one of the high ranked individualistic countries with independence, assertiveness, self-expression and individual achievement values (Hofstede, 1980a).

In Norway, several research has been conducted among Turkish immigrants and other immigrants with regards to mental health, the role of gender, self-report, life stress, social support, acculturation, psychiatric problems, emotional problems, psychosocial adaptation, internalizing problems, ethnic minority status, and home- and school-related hassles (Alves et al., 2014; Alves, Roysamb, Oppedal, & Zachrisson, 2011; Dalhaug, Oppedal, & Røysamb, 2011; Oppedal, 2008; Oppedal & Røysamb, 2004, 2007; Oppedal, Røysamb, & Heyerdahl, 2005; Oppedal, Røysamb, & Sam, 2004; Richter, Sagatun, Heyerdahl, Oppedal, & Røysamb, 2011; Sam, 2000; Sam, Vedder, Liebkind, Neto, & Virta, 2008; Virta et al., 2004). For instance, a study including Turkish immigrant students revealed that domain-specific social support and self-esteem are acculturation's indirect effects on adolescent`s mental health change (Oppedal et al., 2004).

However, to our knowledge, there is not enough study regarding Turkish immigrants` parenting style and Turkish immigrants` children school commitment. Nevertheless, we assumed that Turkish immigrant families in other countries, especially in Europe might to some extent have similar experiences as Turkish immigrant parents in Norway.

In the research literature, there are several researches mainly conducted in German, in the Netherlands and Belgium in which Turkish immigrants and native people or other immigrant groups were compared in terms of academic ability, ethnicity, socialization goals, multiculturalism, acculturation process, and parenting (Arends-Tóth & Van de Vijver, 2003; Citlak et al., 2008; Durgel & van de Vijver, 2015; Durgel et al., 2009; Fleischmann, Deboosere, Neels, & Phalet, 2013; Güngör & Bornstein, 2009; Nijsten, 2006; Phalet, 1996; Phalet & Schönpflug, 2001b; Rudmin & Ahmadzadeh, 2001; van der Veen & Meijnen, 2002). With regard to the acculturation processes, the socialization goals, and behaviours of Turkish immigrants in Europe, collectivism is also predominant among the immigrants' parents and their children (Phalet & Schönpflug, 2001b; Verkuyten, Hagendoorn, & Masson, 1996; Verkuyten et al., 2001). Verkuyten et al. (2001) revealed that Turkish immigrant children have stronger family-oriented achievement motivation, which is positively related to task-goal orientation. Besides, the larger part of immigrants feel close to the Turkish culture and sustain close ties with Turkey (Kaya & Kentel, 2005). That is, Turkish immigrants sustain strong links to Turkish culture, abide by the norms and values of their own ethnic

community such as religion and marriage, maintain high level of loyalty to, and have limited contact with the receiving community (Crul & Doomernik, 2003; Daugstad, 2009). For instance, Turks in Germany are more communitarian, religious and conservative and seem to be less in favour of integration (Kaya & Kentel, 2005). Fulfilling family obligations sustains an essential cultural value across generations among Turkish immigrants as well as intergenerational transmission of collectivistic values such as relatedness. These collectivistic values can be regarded as the adaptive value of immigrants for social survival and academic aspiration (Phalet & Schönpflug, 2001b). For instance, it revealed that Turkish immigrant children with a collectivistic value have fewer adjustment problems in Belgium (Phalet & Hagendoorn, 1996). A study conducted in Germany revealed that Turkish immigrant mothers are more likely to expect their children to have close relations with the family and to be well-mannered than are the mainstream European mothers (Durgel et al., 2009). The earlier studies conducted with Turkish immigrants mainly showed that Turkish immigrants are more likely to have authoritarian parenting patterns such as authoritarian control and protectiveness (Daglar et al., 2011; Nauck, 1989; van der Veen & Meijnen, 2002). For instance, Yaman et al. (2010) indicated that Turkish immigrant mothers are less supportive, give less clear instructions and feedback to their children, are more lack of respect of the child's autonomy and are less authoritative in their control strategies as compared to native Dutch mothers.

Aims and Research Questions

The first aim of the present research is to get knowledge about the association between maternal rearing behaviors and school commitment of immigrant and native Turkish children. Taking into account Bronfenbrenner`s ecological developmental model, the next aim is to get knowledge about the role of cultural related variables such as family collectivist values and perceived achievement values in the variation of school commitment between immigrant and native Turkish children. Therefore, we will address the following questions:

Question 1: Is there variation in the level of school commitment between immigrant and native Turkish children?

Question 2: Are there differences between Turkish immigrant and native mothers and children in maternal rearing behaviours in terms of control (overprotection), emotional warmth (support) and rejection, family collectivist values, and perceived achievement values?

Question 3: To what extent does the children's perceptions of their mothers' rearing behaviour and values correspond with the mothers' self-reports?

Question 4: Is there variation between children's and their mothers' reports in the correlation between school commitment on the one hand and values and maternal rearing behaviours on the other?

Question 5: Do family collectivist values, perceived achievement values, and maternal rearing behaviours predict children's school commitment among Turkish- immigrant and native children?

2. Method

This study involved one sample of Turkish immigrant mother-child dyads living in Norway ("immigrant") and one sample of Turkish mother-child dyads living in Turkey ("native"). The data from Norway were obtained from the "SIMCUR Project" conducted by Norwegian Institute of Public Health (NIPH) in Norway. The data from Turkey were collected by the researcher in a private secondary school called "*Özel Bornova Okyanus Koleji*". In total, the current study included 208 secondary school children in the 5th, 6th and 7th grades in Turkey and Norway.

Norway

In Norway, data was provided by "The youth, Culture and Competence (Ungkul) programme" at the Norwegian Institute of Public Health: Social Integration of Migrant Children: Uncovering Family and School Factors Promoting Resilience (SIMCUR) project, which is funded by the NORFACE research programme (New Opportunities for Research Funding Cooperation in Europe) (NIPH, 2010).

The National Population Registry provided contact information for children born in 1998/1999, with parents born in either Turkey or Norway, but with all four grandparents born in Turkey. However, all children identified by the Norwegian registry had both parents born in Turkey. Information brochure in Turkish and Norwegian were sent to possible participants, with subsequent phone calls and door-to-door visits. Data was collected in 2010 and 2011. The Regional Committee for Medical and Health Ethics approved the project.

Two trained research assistants visited the families in their homes; one research assistant conducted the interview, test, and questionnaire data from the child, while the other interviewed the mother in her preferred language - Turkish or Norwegian. The mothers provided information about the family and child. The families received a small toy/game for the participating child, and cakes and/or tea for the household as a token of appreciation for their participation.

Data relevant to the research questions were used in the present study.

Turkey

Some private schools` names and contact numbers were reached via internet in Izmir, which is Turkey's third largest city. Three private schools were contacted to get permission to collect data from their students via telephone conversation, but only one school ('*Özel Bornova Okyanus Koleji'*), which gives an education generally to students who have middle to upper economic level, accepted to participate in the research. The researcher went to Izmir to obtain school consent, obtain ethical consent and collect the data. We chose private colleges in Turkey as the socioeconomic status of families in these schools is more similar to Norwegians, and the quality of the education is also more similar to Norwegian standards, as education in Turkish public schools is often of poorer quality (Dag, 2015; Sulku & Abdioglu, 2015).

Following the permissions from the school (Appendix 1), the questionnaires were administered in the spring semester in 2016-2017 by the researcher. The data was collected through the collaboration with school manager, counseling and guidance services, and class teachers.

Firstly, the researcher presented the general aim of the study through in-class presentation. After the instructions, enclosed envelopes containing invitation letter with a consent form were sent home with the children in order to obtain their mothers' permission to participate. Also, the envelope included a questionnaire that the mothers who accepted participation were asked to fill in (Appendix 2).

They were assured that the information they provided would only be used for academic and research purposes. The mothers were asked not to disclose or discuss their responses with their children if they participated in the research. They could withdraw at any point without any repercussions. Within five days, the new enclosed envelopes filled in by the mothers were delivered to the researcher, class teachers, and guidance and counselling teachers via their children.

Children`s data, whose parents signed the informed consent form and filled in the questionnaires, were collected by the researcher during school hours. At the beginning of questionnaire administration, all children were re-informed about the focus of the study. All children were informed about the confidentiality, and anonymity of the study. They were free to withdraw anytime if they wanted to. While the children were filling in the questionnaires, the researcher supported to children by explaining questions. The duration of survey for the children lasted between 30 - 40 minutes.

2.1. Sample

2.1.1. Norwegian Sample

The Norwegian part of the SIMCUR study design aimed to recruit a convenience sample of 120 children in 7th grade (on average 12 years) about to transition from elementary (7th grade) to secondary school.

One hundred and five families participated in the SIMCUR project at the Norwegian site. Demographic information will be presented in the result part.

2.1.2. Turkish Sample

To include 12-years' old children who for various reasons had a late school start or repeated a class level, all three classes from sixth grades and three classes out of five from fifth grades were selected by convenience sampling based on sample's convenience and availability. By convenience sampling, data collection was facilitated in short of time (Creswell, 2013)

One hundred and three families participated in the research in Turkey. Demographic information will be presented in the result part.

2.2. Measures

Translations

In the SIMCUR project, the mothers' questionnaires were offered in both Turkish and Norwegian, whereas the Turkish immigrant children responded to questionnaires in Norwegian. Consequently, for the purpose of the Turkish part of the study, the children's questionnaires were translated into Turkish by the following procedures:

In the first step, three people who are fluent in Norwegian and Turkish languages first translated the children's questionnaires into Turkish (Two of them are Norwegian-Turkish people who were born in Norway. Third one is Norwegian-Turkish book translator). The researcher then discussed these translations with them to get across conceptual and linguistic

equivalence. In the second step, another Norwegian-Turkish person who is also bilingually fluent retranslated the questionnaires from Turkish into Norwegian. As the last step, retranslated measures were compared with the original version of the questionnaires (Norwegian) to reach agreement on the final version.

Internal consistency of psychological constructs

As typical psychological research, the majority of the measures represented theoretical constructs, such as rearing behaviours, perceived achievement values, family collectivist values etc., involving a variety of items. The internal consistency reliability coefficients (Cronbach`s Alpha-α) was examined for each construct, as an indicator of the reliability, or internal consistency between the items. Although the minimum sample size and number of items for the sample coefficient alpha has been frequently debated, a study suggests that if a scale has more than 14 items, then it should have $\alpha \geq .70$ or better (Cortina, 1993). In general, $\alpha > .70$ is considered acceptable, but higher values are preferred. Nevertheless, some scholars have argued that $\alpha \geq .60 < .70$ may be adequate (Aron & Aron, 2003). Actually, in short scales consisting of fewer than ten items, lower Cronbach values (e.g., .50) is usually found (Pallant, 2016). Even more, it has claimed that relatively low (e.g., .50) levels of reliability do not severely weaken validity coefficients, which demonstrates the overall strength of the test-criterion relationship for the group being studied, and may still be quite useful (Schmitt, 1996). As two of the scales and subscales used in this study have fewer than ten items, we included measures with $\alpha > .55$ as cut-off criteria.

Regarding sample size, a minimum of 400 subjects is recommended for precise estimates of reliability, generalizability, and validity coefficients (Charter, 1999). However, we were able to manage to collect total 208 families.

Questionnaires

"Demographic information": The mothers informed about their marital status, educational and income levels, in addition to their own and their children's age. *Their age* was computed by subtracting date of birth from the date of data collection. Mothers rated their *marital status* according to three categories: (1) single (divorced, widowed), (2) married, living with partner, (3) other (including separated, but not divorced). M*aternal level of education was registered in terms of highest level of schooling.* This information was converted employing the International Standard Classification of Education-ISCED-97 (UNESCO, 2012) with the following categories: (0) no education, (1) primary school, (2) lower secondary, (3) upper secondary, (4) tertiary less than four years, (5) tertiary more than

four years, (6) PhD. *Income level:* household's total gross (Norway) / net (Turkey) income per year was rated according to national scale.

"Total School Commitment" was assessed by 15 items including one subscales of perceives school competence and school motivation (Dotterer & Lowe, 2011; NICHD, 2010). This scale was developed by 'The NICHD Study of Early Child Care and Youth Development (What I think about school)' and used at SIMCUR Project. The values that were rated by the children on a 4-point Likert scale, from (1) not at all true to (4) very true (Appendix 3). *'Total School Commitment'* score was computed as the mean of all items and proportional weighting with higher scores indicating more positive feelings about school imputed the score. The reliability of the total scale Cronbach's alpha was .89 for both children. The scale has two dimensions:

'*School Perceived Competence'*: Example of items representing this subscale were: *(i) Other students think I am a good student (ii) I am able to do a good job of organizing and planning my schoolwork.* The reliability of the school perceived competence Cronbach's alpha was .88 for the immigrant children and .84 for the native children.

'*School Motivation'*: Example of items representing this scale were: *(i) In general, I like school a lot. (ii) Grades are very important to me.* The reliability of the school motivation Cronbach's alpha .75 for the immigrant children and .77 for the native children.

To measure maternal rearing behaviours, the short version of *"Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran"*, called *S-EMBU* was used. The original EMBU scale (Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran [My Memories of Upbringing]) is a measurement for perceived parental rearing behaviour which was developed by Perris et al. (1980). The mother rated her own maternal rearing behaviours ("maternal") and the child rated perceived maternal rearing behaviours ("perceived maternal"). Child and mother forms included the same statements with different wording which will be explained later.

The factorial and/or construct validity and reliability of this S-EMBU-C (children) were analysed among four different countries' students and the short version S -EMBU-C scale was suggested as a reliable functional equivalent to the 81-item early EMBU (Arrindell et al., 1999). It also exhibited similar reliability and validity in different cultures and "the EMBU-C can be considered as a suitable instrument for children between 7-13 years" (Markus et al., 2003; Muris et al., 2004; Brown and Whiteside, 2008 as cited in Mofrad,

Abdullah, & Samah, 2010, p. 3). In Turkey, it revealed that in terms of reliability and validity, EMBU-C is an appropriate scale to measure children and adolescents' perceived parental behaviours (Cüre & Danışman, 2015). Besides, a study conducted among 271 adults in Turkey showed that Turkish version of the S-EMBU-C is a reliable and valid tool to evaluate perceived parental attitudes (Dirik et al., 2015) (Appendix 4).

On the other side, S-EMBU-P (Parent), which shows a reliable construct validity and factorial structure, illustrated that the ratings of parents about their "own" rearing behaviour are similar to the ratings of their children about perceived rearing behaviours (Aluja, Barrio, & GarciA, 2006; Castro, De Pablo, Gómez, Arrindell, & Toro, 1997). Like S-EMBU-C, this version consists of 24 items related to emotional warmth, control, and rejection (Appendix 4).

'Emotional Warmth (Support)' subscale consisted of eight items that were rated on a 4-point Likert scale, from never (1) to most of the time (4). Example of items representing the emotional warmth scale were: *(i) "You have wanted to be together with your child" versus "Mother wants to be together with you." (ii) "You have respected your child's opinions" versus "Mother respects my opinions."*

For the immigrant and native mothers, Cronbach's alpha was .71. For the immigrant children, Cronbach's alpha was .84, while for the native children Cronbach's alpha was .67.

'Control (Overprotection)' subscale consisted of seven items that were rated on a 4-point Likert scale, from never (1) to most of the time (4). Example of items representing the control scale were: *(i) "You think that your child has wished you would worry less about what he/she was doing" versus "You wish your mother would worry less about what you are doing. (ii) "You have forbidden your child to do things that other children were allowed to do" versus "Mother forbids you to do things that other children are allowed to do."*

For the immigrant mothers**,** the Cronbach's alpha was .67, whereas for the native mothers, Cronbach's alpha was .56. The item-total statistics indicated that the alpha level would increase if one item was removed, yet this item was included while computing mean scores. Since, it was above the cut-off criteria, and this scale has been using internationally. For the immigrant children, Cronbach's alpha was .37. The item-total statistics indicated that the alpha level would increase if four of items were removed. It was run a new analysis omitting these items that in turn was resulted in a new Cronbach's alpha .58. For the native children**,** initially, Cronbach's alpha was .64. After being omitted these four items, the Cronbach's alpha increased to .68.

'Rejection' subscale consisted of nine items that were rated on a 4-point Likert scale, from never (1) to most of the time (4). Example of items representing the rejection scale

were: *(i) "You have criticized your child and told him/her how lazy and useless he/she was in front of others" versus "Mother has criticized you and told you how lazy and useless you are in front of others." (ii) "You have given your child more (corporal) punishment than he/she deserved" versus "Mother punishes you more than you deserve."*

For both the immigrant and native mothers, Cronbach's alpha was .72. For both the immigrant and native children, Cronbach's alpha was .83.

"Perceived Achievement Values" were assessed by five items for the mothers and four items for the children (Kim & Park, 2006). Participants checked how much they agreed to each statement on a 5-point Likert scale, from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree). Example of item was: *(i) "I often ask my children about their school work "versus "My mother often asks me about my school work"* (Appendix 5).

For the immigrant mothers, Cronbach's alpha was .72, whereas for the native mothers, Cronbach's alpha was .73. For the immigrant children, Cronbach's alpha was .65, whereas for the native children, Cronbach's alpha was .68.

"Family Collectivist Values" were assessed by seven items for the mothers and six items for the children (J. Phinney & Madden, 1997; J. S. Phinney, Ong, & Madden, 2000). Participants checked how much important to each statement on a 4-point Likert scale from (1) not important at all to (4) very important. Examples of item representing this scale were: *(i) to satisfy my family's needs even when my own needs are different (ii) to avoid arguing with other family members* (Appendix 6).

For the immigrant mothers, Cronbach's alpha was .81, whereas for the native mothers, Cronbach's alpha was .71. For the immigrant children, initially, Cronbach's alpha was .83, whereas for the native children, Cronbach's alpha was .53. The item-total statistics indicated that the alpha level would increase if two items were removed. By this, the Cronbach's alpha decreased to .80 for immigrant children, while it was increased to .60 for native children.

2.3. Analyses

In the research study, the analyses were examined through SPSS program, version 24 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, IBM Inc.).

Firstly, descriptive statistics were calculated to give a general information on study variables. Then, independent samples t-tests analyses were conducted in order to examine if school commitment's means scores differed between the immigrant and native children (Question 1). We also employed independent samples t-tests, to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the means of family collectivist values, perceived achievement values, and subscales of S-EMBU between immigrant and native mothers and between immigrant and native children (Question 2).

Pearson correlation coefficient analyses were conducted in order to examine the relation among subscales of S-EMBU, family collectivist values, perceived achievement values, on the one hand and school commitment on the other (Question 3). Besides, Pearson correlation coefficient analyses were conducted to see whether there was some correspondence between the children`s perceptions and mothers` self-reports regarding maternal rearing behaviours, perceived achievement values, and family collectivist values (Question 4).

Lastly, stepwise multiple regression analyses were performed to pick out which study variables made a useful contribution to the overall school commitment prediction (Question 5).

3. Results

3.1. Data Cleaning Analyses

In the first step, categorical and continuous variables were checked for errors by frequency analysis to detect missing values and outliers. They were found and corrected. Besides, normality was assessed and outliners were checked. For correlation analyses, scatterplots were generated. For stepwise multiple regression analyses, sample size, multicollinearity and singularity, outliners, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals analyses conducted. Mean sum scores involving children with missing values on 50 % and more of the questions of each included scale were excluded from analyses. As a result of data cleaning analyses, 9 cases were excluded from the analyses because of the uncompleted instruments.

3.2. Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables

Norway

In the current study, there were 105 mother-child dyads. Table 2 includes means and SD for all variables. The immigrant children's age (at day of testing) ranged from 12.08 to 13.50 ($M = 12.70$, $SD = 0.37$). Regarding gender, there were 44 male and 44 female students. The immigrant mothers' age (at day of testing) ranged from 29.24 to 52.53   ($M = 38.96$, $SD = 5.03$).

With regard to marital status, 10.7 % of the immigrant mothers were single (divorced, widowed) and 89.3 % of the immigrant mothers were married or living with partner.

With regard to the educational level, *"primary education"* was the highest percentage among the immigrant mothers, with 43.7 %.

With respect to income level, 24.8 % of the mothers rated that their annual household gross income was 300.000-400.000 NOK, while 22.9 % of them rated that their annual household gross income was 400.000-500.000. According to Norwegian Statistics report in 2011, -data collection was conducted in 2010 and 2011-, the median household equivalent

37

income after tax was 312.000 NOK. Based on this, nearly 27.6 % of the sample`s income was under the median income (Statistics Norway, 2013).

Turkey

There were 103 mother-child dyads. Table 2 includes means and SD for all variables. The native children's age (at day of testing) ranged from 10 to 12.50 ($M = 11.32$, $SD = 0.60$). Regarding gender, there were 61 male and 59 female students. The mothers' age (at day of testing) ranged from 29 to 55 years ($M = 40.09$, $SD = 4.51$).

With regard to marital status, 7.8 % of the mothers were single (divorced, widowed) and 92.2 % of the mothers were married or living with partner.

With regard to the educational level, *"post-secondary (not tertiary)"* was the highest percentage among Turkish mothers (68.9 %).

With respect to income level, 31.6 % of the mothers rated that their annual household net income was between 24.001 and 48.000 Turkish Lira (TL), while 27,4 % of them rated that their annual household net income was 24.000 TL and/or under 24 thousand TL. According to Turkish Statistics website, the mean annual equalized household disposable was 16.515 TL (net) (Turkish Statistical Institute, 2016). Therefore, based on this, nearly 29.5 % of the sample was under the mean which was nearly same as compared to those of Turkish immigrant's income level.

Table 2

Background Characteristics of Participants

Variable	*n*	*Mean*	*SD*	Minimum	Maximum
Child's age in months					
Norway	105	12.70	0.37	12.08	13.50
Turkey	98	10.77	2.52	10.00	12.50
Mother's age in months					
Norway	104	38.96	5.03	29.24	52.53
Turkey	99	29.00	4.51	29.00	55
Gender of child				*%*	
Norway	105				
Female	44			41.9	
Male	61			58.1	
Turkey	103				
Female	44			42.7	
Male	59			57.3	
Highest level of education reached by mother					
Norway	105				
No degree	1			1.0	
Primary degree	45			43.7	
Lower secondary degree	24			23.3	
Upper Secondary degree	24			23.2	
Post-Secondary degree	-			-	
Tertiary	8			7.8	
Phd	1			1.0	
Turkey	103				
No degree	-			-	
Primary degree	5			4.9	
Lower secondary degree	-			-	
Upper Secondary degree	23			22.3	
Post-Secondary degree	71			68.9	
Tertiary	4			3.9	
Phd	-			-	
Mother's Marital Status					
Norway	103				
Single	11			10.7	
Married	92			89.3	
Turkey	103				
Single	8			7.8	
Married	95			92.2	

With regard to child age, gender, and mother`s education level comparison in Norway and Turkey,

For *child age*, there was *a significant difference* in scores for the immigrant children (*M* = 12.70, *SD* = 0.37) and the native children (*M* = 11.32, *SD* = 0.60; *t*(158.82) = 19.42, *p* < .001). That is, the Turkish immigrant children were significantly older than the native children (Table 3).

For *child gender* dimension, there was no significant difference in scores for the immigrant children (*M* = 1.42, *SD*= 0.50) and the native children (*M* = 1.43, *SD* = 0.50; *t*(206) = 0.00, *p* =.91) (Table 3).

For *mother's education level (ISCED)* dimension, there was *a significant difference* in scores for the immigrant mothers (*M* =2.05 *SD* 1.26) and the native mothers (*M* =3.72, *SD* = 0.62; *t*(148.56) = -12.115, *p* < .001). That is, Turkish native mothers were significantly higher educated than the immigrant mothers (Table 3).

Table 3

T-Test Results of Child Age, Gender and Mother`s Education Level

	n	*M*	*SD*	Std.error mean	Levenes' test for equality of variances	t-test for equality of means		
					F	*t*	*df*	*p*
Child Age								
Norway	105	12.70	0.37	0.43	25.94	19.42	158.82	0.000
Turkey	98	11.32	0.60	0.43				
Child Gender								
Norway	105	1.42	0.50	0.05				
Turkey	103	1.43	0.50	0.05				
Mother`s Education level								
Norway	103	2.05	1.26	0.12	33.12	-12.12	148.56	0.000
Turkey	103	3.72	0.62	0.06				

3.3. Research Questions Analyses

For research questions one and two, group statistics and T-tests results between country and research questions' variables were summarized in Table 4.

Table 4

Group Statistics and T-Test Results among School Commitment, Rearing Behaviours, Perceived Achievement Values, and Family Collectivist Values

	n	M	SD	Std.error mean	Levenes' test for equality of variances F	t-test for equality of means t	df	p
Total School Commitment								
Norway	99	3.28	0.47	0.05	0.28	-1.81	200	0.072
Turkey	103	3.40	0.49	0.05				
Perceived Maternal Rearing Behaviors								
Emotional Warmth								
Norway	101	3.57	0.46	0.05	2.38	-0.64	202	0.520
Turkey	103	3.61	0.38	0.04				
Control								
Norway	101	2.27	0.65	0.06	6.84	-0.98	195.10	0.331
Turkey	103	2.37	0.80	0.08				
Rejection								
Norway	101	1.40	0.43	0.04	0.12	0.52	202	0.607
Turkey	103	1.37	0.43	0.04				
Child's Perceived Achievement Values								
Norway	101	4.25	0.58	0.06	6.08	3.85	184.22	0.000
Turkey	103	3.87	0.82	0.08				
Child's Family Collectivist Values								
Norway	102	3.10	0.66	0.07	6.44	-3.67	184.20	0.000
Turkey	103	3.39	0.48	0.05				
Maternal Rearing Behaviors								
Emotional Warmth	90	3.50	0.34	0.04	0.21	-0.08	191	0.938
Norway	103	3.50	0.32	0.03				
Turkey								
Control	90	2.41	0.47	0.05	5.72	1.35	174.37	0.178
Norway	103	2.33	0.39	0.04				
Turkey								
Rejection	90	1.25	0.28	0.03	0.48	0.31	191	0.760
Norway	103	1.24	0.24	0.02				
Turkey								
Mother's Perceived Achievement Values								
Norway	98	4.63	0.41	0.04	11.52	6.78	179.94	0.000
Turkey	103	4.14	0.61	0.06				
Mother's Family Collectivist Values								
Norway	96	3.42	0.49	0.05	6.99	0.41	175.26	0.683
Turkey	103	3.39	0.37	0.04				

3.3.1. Question 1

"Is there variation in the level of school commitment between immigrant and native Turkish children?"

Independent samples t-test showed that there was no significant difference in scores on school commitment between the immigrant children ($M = 3.28$, $SD = 0.47$) and the native children ($M = 3.40$, $SD = 0.49$; $t(200) = -1.81$, $p = .072$) (Table 4).

3.3.2. Question 2

"Are there differences between Turkish immigrant and native mothers and children in maternal rearing behaviours in terms of control (overprotection), emotional warmth (support) and rejection, family collectivist values, and perceived achievement values?"

Here, mother's maternal rearing behaviours and child`s perceived maternal rearing behaviours, mother's and child's perceived achievement values and their family collectivist values were investigated separately.

3.3.2.1. Results of Maternal Rearing Behaviours

In terms of *"Child's S-EMBU (Child's perceived maternal rearing behaviours)"* and *"Mother's S- EMBU (Mother's maternal rearing behaviours)"*, an independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores for the immigrant families and the native families` scores (Table 4).

For *emotional warmth* dimension, there was no significant difference in scores for the immigrant children ($M = 3.57$, $SD = 0.46$) and the native children ($M = 3.61$, $SD = 0.38$; $t(202) = -0.64$, $p = .520$). Likewise, there was no significant difference in scores for the immigrant mothers ($M = 3.50$, $SD = 0.34$) and the native mothers ($M = 3.50$, $SD = 0.32$; $t(191) = -0.08$, $p = .938$).

For *control* dimension, there was no significant difference in scores for the immigrant children ($M = 2.27$, $SD = 0.65$) and the native children ($M = 2.37$, $SD = 0.80$; $t(195.10) = -0.98$, $p = .331$). Likewise, there was no significant difference in scores for the immigrant

mothers (M = 2.41, SD = 0.47) and the native mothers (M = 2.33, SD = 0.39; $t(174.37)$ = 1.35 , p = .178).

For *rejection* dimension, there was no significant difference in scores for the immigrant children (M =1.40, SD = 0.43) and the native children (M =1.37, SD = 0.43; $t(202)$= 0.52, p = .607). Likewise, there was no significant difference in scores for the immigrant mothers (M = 1.25, SD = 0.28) and the native mothers (M = 1.24, SD = 0.24; $t(191)$ = 0.31, p = .760).

3.3.2.2. Result of Perceived Achievement Values

In terms of *"Perceived Achievement Values"* for mother and child, an independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores for the immigrant and the native families' scores (Table 4).

For *child's perceived achievement values*, there was *a significant difference* in scores for the immigrant children (M = 4.25, SD = 0.58) and the native children (M = 3.87, SD = 0.82; $t(184.22)$ = 3.85, $p < .001$). That is, *the immigrant children have higher perceived achievement values as compared to native children* .

For *mother's perceived achievement values*, there was also *a significant difference* in scores for the immigrant mothers (M = 4.63, SD = 0.41) and the native mothers (M = 4.14, SD = 0.61; $t(179.94)$ = 6.78, $p < .001$). That is, the *immigrant mothers have higher achievement values as compared to native mothers*.

3.3.2.3. Result of Family Collectivist Values

In terms of "*Family Collectivist Values",* an independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores for the immigrant families and the native families` scores (Table 4).

There was *a significant difference* in scores for the immigrant children (M = 3.10, SD = 0.66) and the native children (M =3.39, SD = 0.48; $t(184.20)$ = -3.67, $p < .001$). That is, *the native children have higher perceived collectivist values as compared to immigrant children*

There was no significant difference in scores for the immigrant mothers (M = 3.42, SD = 0.49) and the native mothers (M = 3.39, SD = 0.37; $t(175.26)$ = 0.41, p = .683)

3.3.3. Question 3

"To what extent does the children's perceptions of their mothers' rearing behaviour and values correspond with the mothers' self-reports?"

According to Chon (1988) r= .10 to .29 is small while r= .30 to .49 is medium, and r=.50 to 1.0 is large value regardless of its direction (as cited in Pallant, 2016).

In Norway, mother's variables that correlated with child's s report were *"maternal emotional warmth and maternal control"*. More specifically, mother's rating of maternal emotional warmth was significantly positively correlated with perceived maternal emotional warmth, $r(87) = .339$, $p = .001$; significantly negatively correlated with perceived maternal rejection $r(87) = - .291$, $p = .006$, and significantly positively correlated with child`s perceived achievement values $r(87) = .216$, $p = .044$. Interestingly, maternal control was significantly positively correlated with child`s perceived achievement values, $r(87) = .229$, $p = .033$ (Table 5).

In Turkey, mother`s rating of maternal emotional was significantly negatively correlated with perceived maternal control $r(103) = - .319$, $p = .001$, and perceived maternal rejection $r(103) = -.282$, $p = .004$. With regarded to mother`s rating of maternal rejection, it was significantly positively correlated with perceived maternal control, $r(103) = .285$, $p = .003$, and perceived maternal rejection, $r(103) = .243$, $p = .013$. Furthermore, maternal reject was significantly negatively correlated with child`s family collectivist values, $r(103) = - .199$, $p = .044$ (Table 6).

3.3.4. Question 4

"Is there variation between children's and their mothers' reports in the correlation between school commitment on the one hand and values and maternal rearing behaviours on the other?"

Norway

In terms of *school commitment and maternal rearing behaviours*, there was a medium, positive correlation between perceived maternal emotional warmth and school commitment, $r(98) = .333$, $p = .001$, whereas there was a small, positive correlation between maternal emotional warmth and child`s school commitment, $r(86) = .250$, $p = .020$. Regarding maternal control, there was a medium, negative correlation between perceived maternal control and school commitment, $r(98) = -.308$, $p = .002$, whereas there was no significant correlation between maternal control and child`s school commitment, $r(86) = .048$, $p = .662$. Regarding maternal rejection, there was a small, negative correlation between perceived maternal rejection and school commitment, $r(98) = -.278$, $p = .006$, whereas there was no significant correlation between maternal control and child`s school commitment, $r(86) = -.192$, $p = .077$ (Table 5).

In terms of perceived achievement value, there was a medium, positive correlation between child's perceived achievement values and school commitment, $r(98) = .369$, $p < .001$, whereas there was no significant correlation between mother`s perceived achievement values and child`s school commitment, $r(86) = .141$, $p = .173$ (Table 5).

In terms of family collectivist values, there was a small, but significant, positive correlation between child's family collectivist values and school commitment, $r(99) = .260$, $p = .009$, whereas there was no significant correlation between mother`s family collectivist values and child`s school commitment (Table 5).

We can say that except mother`s rating of maternal emotional warmth, the correlation between school commitment with their reported values were statistically non-significant (Table 5).

Table 5

Correlations between All Study Variables and School Commitment in Turkish Immigrant Sample

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Norway											
1.School Commitment	1										
2. Perceived Maternal Emotional Warmth	.333**	1									
3. Perceived Maternal Control	-.308**	-.141	1								
4. Perceived Maternal Rejection	-.278**	-.463**	.464**	1							
5. Child's Perceived Achievement Values	.369**	.314**	-.041	-.040	1						
6. Child's Family Collectivist Values	.260**	.190	-.084	-.105	.331**	1					
7. Maternal Emotional Warmth	.250*	.339**	-.193	-.291**	.216*	.018	1				
8. Maternal Control	.048	.011	.009	-.002	.229*	-.069	.143	1			
9. Maternal Rejection	-.192	-.075	.030	.059	.008	-.024	-.030	.356**	1		
10. Mother's Perceived Achievement Values	.141	-.024	.020	.064	.107	.031	.300**	.002	-.130	1	
11. Mother's Family Collectivist Values	.053	-.052	.066	.177	.082	.112	.079	-.040	-.161	.402**	1

** $p < 0.01$.

* $p < 0.05$.

Turkey

In terms of *school commitment and maternal rearing behaviours*, there was a medium, positive correlation between perceived maternal emotional warmth and school commitment, $r(103) = .338$, $p < .001$, whereas there was a small, positive correlation between maternal emotional warmth and child's school commitment, $r(103) = .225$, $p = .023$. Regarding maternal control, there was a small, negative correlation between perceived maternal control and school commitment, $r(103) = -.273$, $p = .005$ whereas there was no significant correlation between maternal control and child`s school commitment, $r(103) = -.059$, $p = .559$. Regarding maternal rejection, there was a medium, negative correlation between perceived maternal rejection and school commitment, $r(103) = -.365$, $p < .001$, and there was a small, negative correlation between maternal rejection and child's school commitment, $r(103) = -.253$, $p = .010$ (Table 6).

In terms of perceived achievement values, the correlations of school commitment with the children's and mothers' reported values were not found statistically significant (Table 6).

In terms of family collectivist values, there was a medium, positive correlation between child's family collectivist values and school commitment, $r(103) = .332$, $p = .001$, whereas there was no significant correlation between mother`s family collectivist values and child`s school commitment (Table 6).

Table 6

Correlations between All Study Variables and School Commitment in Turkish Native Sample

	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*	*11*
Turkey											
1.School Commitment	1										
2. Perceived Maternal Emotional Warmth	.338**	1									
3. Perceived Maternal Control	-.273**	.187	1								
4. Perceived Maternal Rejection	-.365**	-.429**	.530**	1							
5. Child's Perceived Achievement Values	.164	.019	.171	.024	1						
6. Child's Family Collectivist Values	.332**	.303**	-.345**	-.375**	-.067	1					
7. Maternal Emotional Warmth	.225*	.166	-.319**	-.282**	.073	.113	1				
8. Maternal Control	-.059	-.156	.048	.113	.100	-.104	-.095	1			
9. Maternal Rejection	-.253**	-.171	.285**	.243*	-.044	-.199**	-.384**	.278**	1		
10. Mother's Perceived Achievement Values	.042	-.010	-.139	-.159	-.031	.029	.319**	.174	-.042	1	
11. Mother's Family Collectivist Values	-.026	-.014	-.084	-.119	.013	.020	.324**	.123	-.199*	.482**	1

** $p < 0.01$.

* $p < 0.05$.

3.3.5. Question 5

"Do family collectivist values, perceived achievement values, and maternal rearing behaviours predict children's school commitment among Turkish immigrant and native children?"

In research study, we measured many variables that were possible predictors of the school commitment. In order to examine the last research question and want to elect which study variables made a useful contribution to the school commitment, stepwise regression analyses were conducted separately for the children' and mothers' scores through six models.

Turkish Immigrant Children

Child age, child gender and mother`s education level, which were control variables, were entered at Step 1. It was indicated that the model was not significant ($\Delta F(3,91) = 0.75$, $p = .528$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$). That is, child gender, child age and mother's educational level did not predict scores on school commitment.

After age, gender and mother`s education level were controlled in the first step, perceived emotional warmth was entered at Step 2. It was indicated that there was a significant change in R^2, and the model was significant ($\Delta F(1,90) = 8.96$, $p = .004$, $\Delta R^2 = .09$). In model 2, *"perceived maternal emotional warmth"* made a unique significant contribution to school commitment ($\beta = .30$, $t(90) = 2.99$, $p = .004$).

Perceived maternal control was entered at Step 3. It was indicated that the model was significant ($\Delta F(1,89) = 7.44$, $p = .008$, $\Delta R^2 = .07$). In model 3, *"perceived maternal control"* ($\beta = -.27$, $t(89) = -2.73$, $p = .008$) and *"perceived maternal emotional warmth"* ($\beta = .26$, $t(89) = 2.68$, $p = .009$) respectively made negative and positive contribution to school commitment.

Perceived maternal rejection was entered at Step 4. It was indicated that perceived maternal rejection did not add significant variance to school commitment. That is, the model was not significant ($\Delta F(1,88) = 0.03$, $p = .873$, $\Delta R^2 = .00$). However, it was found that *"perceived maternal emotional warmth"* ($\beta = .26$, $t(88) = 2.32$, $p = .023$) and *"perceived maternal control"* ($\beta = -.26$, $t(88) = -2.32$, $p = .023$) were significantly predictors of school commitment.

Child`s perceived achievement values were entered at Step 5. It was indicated that there was a significant change in R^2, thus the model was significant ($\Delta F(1,87) = 8.03$, $p =$

.006, $\Delta R^2 = .07$). In model 5, *"perceived achievement values"* ($\beta = .28$, $t(87) = 2.83$, $p = .006$) and *"perceived maternal control"* ($\beta = -.25$, $t(87) = -2.25$, $p = .027$) made positive and negative contribution to school commitment, respectively.

Child`s family collectivist values were entered at Step 6. For model 6, it was indicated that the model was not significant ($\Delta F(1,86) = 1.88$, $p = .174$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$). However, it was found that *"perceived achievement values"* ($\beta = .24$, $t(88) = 2.29$, $p = .024$), and *"perceived maternal control"* ($\beta = -.24$, $t(88) = -2.19$, $p = .031$) were predictors of school commitment (Table 7).

Table 7

Summary of Stepwise Multiple Regression for Variables of School Commitment among Turkish Immigrant Children

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4			Model 5			Model 6		
Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β
Age	0.00	0.01	.00	0.00	0.01	.00	0.00	0.01	-.04	0.00	0.01	-.04	0.00	0.01	-.03	0.00	0.01	-.04
Gender	0.14	0.09	.16	0.10	0.09	.11	0.10	0.09	.11	0.10	0.09	.11	0.11	0.09	.12	0.11	0.09	.12
Education	-0.01	0.04	-.03	-0.01	0.04	-.03	-0.03	0.04	-.08	-0.03	0.04	-.08	-0.03	0.03	-.09	-0.02	0.04	-.06
Emotional Warmth				0.30	0.10	.30**	0.26	0.10	.26**	0.25	0.11	.26*	0.15	0.11	.15	0.14	0.11	.14
Control							-0.19	0.07	-.27**	-0.19	0.08	-.26*	-0.18	0.08	-.25*	-0.17	0.08	-.24*
Rejection										-0.02	0.13	-.02	-0.07	0.12	-.07	-0.06	0.12	-.06
Achievement Values													0.22	0.08	.28**	0.19	0.08	.24*
Family Collectivist Values																0.10	0.07	.14
R^2 change		.02			.09			.07			.00			.07			.02	
F for change in R^2		0.75			8.96**			7.44**			0.03			8.03**			1.88	

*p < .05. **p < .01.

B=unstandardized beta

SE B= standard error for the unstandardized beta

β=Beta

Turkish Native Children

Child age, child gender and mother education level, which were control variables, were entered at Step 1. It was indicated that the model was significant ($\Delta F(3,94) = 4.56$, $p = .005$, $\Delta R^2 = .13$). In model 1, *"child gender"* made a unique significant contribution to school commitment ($\beta = .31$, $t(94) = 3.23$, $p = .002$).

After age, gender and mother`s education were controlled in the first step, child`s perceived maternal emotional warmth was entered at Step 2. It was indicated that there was a significant change in R^2, and the model was significant ($\Delta F(1,93) = 9.02$, $p = .003$, $\Delta R^2 = .08$). In model 2, *"perceived maternal emotional warmth"* ($\beta = .30$, $t(93) = 3.00$, $p = .003$) and *"child gender"* ($\beta = .21$, $t(93) = 2.14$, $p = .035$) significantly predicted to school commitment.

Perceived maternal control was entered at Step 3. It was indicated that the model was significant ($\Delta F(1,92) = 6.40$, $p = .013$, $\Delta R^2 = .05$). In model 3, **"perceived maternal control"** ($\beta = - .23$, $t(92) = -2.53$, $p = .013$), *"perceived maternal emotional warmth"* ($\beta = .25$, $t(92) = 2.56$, $p = .012$), and *"child gender"* ($\beta = .22$, $t(92) = 2.34$, $p = .021$) significantly predicted to school commitment.

Perceived achievement values were entered at Step 4. It was indicated that perceived achievement did not add significant variance to school commitment, and the model was not significant ($\Delta F(1,91) = 2.36$, $p = .128$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$). However, it was found that *"child gender"* significantly predicted to school commitment ($\beta = .24$, $t(91) = 2.52$, $p = .013$).

Child`s perceived achievement values were entered at Step 5. It was indicated that the model was not significant ($\Delta F(1,90) = 3.02$, $p = .085$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$). However, it was found that *"child gender"* significantly predicted to school commitment ($\beta = .22$, $t(90) = 2.27$, $p = .026$).

Child`s family collectivist values were entered at Step 6. It was indicated that the model was not significant ($\Delta F(1,89) = 2.66$, $p = .107$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.02$). However, it was found that *"child gender"* significantly predicted to school commitment ($\beta = .21$, $t(89) = 2.15$, $p = .034$) (Table 8).

Table 8

Summary of Stepwise Multiple Regression for Variables of School Commitment among Turkish Native Turkish Children

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4			Model 5			Model 6		
	B	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β
Age	0.00	0.01	-.05	-0.01	0.01	-0.10	-0.01	0.01	-.08	0.00	0.01	-.04	-.08	0.01	-.05	0.00	0.01	-.03
Gender	0.31	0.10	.31**	0.21	0.10	.21*	0.23	0.10	.22*	0.24	0.10	.24*	0.22	0.10	.22*	0.21	0.10	.21*
Education	-0.11	0.08	-.14	-0.11	0.07	-.13	-0.11	0.07	-.13	-0.10	0.07	-.13	-0.10	0.07	-.13	-0.09	0.07	-.11
Emotional Warmth				0.41	0.14	.30**	0.35	0.14	.25*	0.25	0.15	.18	0.25	0.15	.18	0.21	0.15	.15
Control							-0.14	0.06	-.23*	-0.09	0.07	-.15	-0.12	0.07	-.18	-0.10	0.07	-.15
Rejection										-0.21	0.14	-.18	-0.19	0.14	-.16	-0.16	0.14	-.14
Achievement Values													0.10	0.05	.16	0.10	0.05	.16
Family Collectivist Values																0.17	0.10	.16
R^2 change		.13			.08			.05			.02			.02			.02	
F for change in R^2		4.56**			9.02**			6.40*			2.36			3.02			2.66	

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

B=unstandardized beta

SE B= standard error for the unstandardized beta

β=Beta

Child age, child gender and mother`s education level, which were control variables, were entered at Step 1. It was indicated that the model was not significant ($\Delta F(3,79) = 0.98$, $p = .408$, $\Delta R^2 = .04$). That is, child gender, child age and mother's educational level did not predict scores on school commitment.

After age, gender and mother`s education level were controlled in the first step, mother`s rating of emotional warmth was entered at Step 2. It was indicated that the model was significant ($\Delta F(1,78) = 5.38$, $p = .023$, $\Delta R^2 = .06$). In model 2, *"maternal emotional warmth"* made a unique significant contribution to school commitment ($\beta = .25$ $t(78) = 2.32$, $p = .023$).

Mother`s rating of maternal control was entered at Step 3. It was indicated that the model was not significant ($\Delta F(1,77) = 0.03$, $p = .859$, $\Delta R^2 = .00$). In model 3, *"maternal emotional warmth"* ($\beta = .25$, $t(77) = 2.3$, $p = .024$) made positive contribution to school commitment.

Mother`s rating of maternal rejection was entered at Step 4. It was table indicated that the model was not significant ($\Delta F(1,76) = 3.76$, $p = .056$, $\Delta R^2 = .04$). However, it was found that *"maternal emotional warmth"* was significantly contributed to commitment ($\beta = .25$, $t(76) = 2.34$, $p = .022$).

Mother`s perceived achievement values were entered at Step 5. It was indicated that there was no significant change in R^2 and the model was not significant ($\Delta F(1,75) = 0.00$, $p = .974$, $\Delta R^2 = .00$). However, it was found that **"maternal emotional warmth"** was significantly contributed to commitment ($\beta = .25$, $t(75) = 2.18$, $p = .033$).

Mother`s family collectivist values were entered at Step 6. For model 6, it was indicated that the model was not significant ($\Delta F(1,74) = 0.04$, $p = .847$, $\Delta R^2 = .00$). However, it was found that **"maternal emotional warmth"** was significantly contributed to commitment ($\beta = .25$, $t(74) = 2.16$, $p = .034$) (Table 9).

Table 9

Summary of Stepwise Multiple Regression for Variables of School Commitment among Turkish Immigrant Mothers

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4			Model 5			Model 6		
	B	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β
Age	0.00	0.01	-.04	0.00	0.01	-.04	0.00	0.01	-.04	0.00	0.01	-.02	0.00	0.01	-.02	0.00	0.01	-.02
Gender	0.17	0.10	.19	0.14	0.10	.16	0.15	0.10	.16	0.13	0.10	.14	0.13	0.10	.14	0.13	0.10	.14
Education	-0.02	0.04	-.05	-0.03	0.04	-.07	-0.03	0.04	-.07	-0.02	0.04	-.06	-0.02	0.04	-.06	-0.02	0.04	-.06
Emotional Warmth				0.34	0.15	.25*	0.35	0.15	.25*	0.35	0.15	.25*	0.34	0.16	.25*	0.34	0.16	.25*
Control							-0.02	0.11	-.02	0.06	0.11	.07	0.06	0.11	.07	0.07	0.12	.07
Rejection										-0.38	0.20	-.22	-0.38	0.20	-.22	-0.38	0.20	-.23
Achievement Values													0.00	0.13	.00	0.02	0.14	.02
Family Collectivist Values																-0.02	0.12	-.02
R^2 change		.04			.06			.00			.04			.00			.00	
F for change in R^2		0.98			5.38*			0.03			3.76			0.00			0.04	

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

B=unstandardized beta

SE B= standard error for the unstandardized beta

β=Beta

Turkish Native Mothers

Child age, child gender and mother education level, which control variables for the regression analysis, were entered at Step 1. It was indicated that the model was significant ($\Delta F(3,94) = 4.56$, $p = .005$, $\Delta R^2 = .13$). In model 1, *"child gender"* made a unique significant contribution to school commitment ($\beta = .31$, $t(94) = 3.23$, $p = .002$).

After age, gender and mother`s education were controlled in the first step, mother`s rating of emotional warmth was entered at Step 2. It was indicated that the model was not significant ($\Delta F(1,93) = 3.34$, $p = .071$, $\Delta R^2 = .03$). However, *"child gender"* significantly predicted to school commitment ($\beta = .28$, $t(93) = 2.84$, $p = .005$).

Mother`s rating of maternal control was entered at Step 3. It was indicated that the model was not significant ($\Delta F(1,92) = 0.18$, $p = .668$, $\Delta R^2 = .00$). In model 3, *"child gender"* significantly predicted to school commitment ($\beta = .28$, $t(2) = 2.82$, $p = .006$).

Mother`s rating of maternal rejection was entered at Step 4. It was indicated that there was a significant change in R^2, and the model was significant ($\Delta F(1,91) = 4.34$, $p = .040$ $\Delta R^2 = .04$). In model 4, *"child gender"* ($\beta = .28$, $t(91) = 2.94$, $p = .004$) and *"maternal rejection"* ($\beta = -.22$, $t(91) = -2.08$, $p = .040$) significantly predicted to school commitment, positively and negatively, respectively.

Mother`s perceived achievement values was entered at Step 5. It was indicated that the model was not significant ($\Delta F(1,90) = 0.17$, $p = .684$, $\Delta R^2 = .00$). However, *"child gender"* ($\beta = .28$, $t(90) = 2.93$, $p = .004$) and *"maternal rejection"* ($\beta = -.22$, $t(90) = -2.07$, $p = .041$) significantly predicted to school commitment, positively and negatively, respectively.

Mother`s family collectivist values were entered at Step 6. It was indicated that the model was not significant ($\Delta F(1,89) = 1.42$, $p = .236$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.01$). However, *"child gender"* ($\beta = .27$, $t(89) = 2.80$, $p = .006$) and *"maternal rejection"* ($\beta = -.24$, $t(89) = -2.24$, $p = .027$) significantly predicted to school commitment, positively and negatively, respectively (Table 10)

Table 10

Summary of Stepwise Multiple Regression for Variables of School Commitment among Turkish Native Mothers

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4			Model 5			Model 6		
	B	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β	*B*	*SE B*	β
Age	0.00	0.01	-.05	0.00	0.01	-.04	0.00	0.01	-.05	0.00	0.01	-.04	0.00	0.01	-.04	0.00	0.01	-.06
Gender	0.31	0.10	.31**	0.28	0.10	.28**	0.28	0.10	.28**	0.28	0.10	.28**	0.28	0.10	.28**	0.27	0.10	.27**
Education	-0.11	0.08	-.14	-0.12	0.08	-.15	-0.12	0.08	-.15	-0.13	0.08	-.16	-0.13	0.08	-.17	-0.13	0.08	-.17
Emotional Warmth				0.28	0.15	.18	0.27	0.16	.17	0.15	0.16	.09	0.17	0.17	.11	0.20	0.17	.13
Control							-0.05	0.12	-.04	0.02	0.13	.01	0.03	0.13	.02	0.05	0.13	.04
Rejection										-0.45	0.22	-.22*	-0.45	0.22	-.22*	-0.49	0.22	-.24*
Achievement Values													-0.03	0.09	-.04	0.01	0.09	.01
Family Collectivist Values																-0.18	0.15	-0.13
R^2 change		.13			.03			.00			.04			.00			.01	
F for change in R^2		4.56**			3.34			0.18			4.34*			0.17			1.42	

*p < .05. **p < .01.

B=unstandardized beta

SE B= standard error for the unstandardized beta

β=Beta

4. Discussion

The goal of the present study was to explore and compare the association of family collectivist values, perceived achievement values and maternal rearing behaviours with school commitment among immigrant and native Turkish preadolescent children in Norway and Turkey respectively.

Research questions revealed that 1) In terms of school commitment, there is no significant difference between two groups; 2) Turkish native children have more family collectivist values than Turkish immigrant children; 3) Turkish immigrant mothers and their children have more achievement values than Turkish native families; 4) Considering both Turkish immigrant and native's scores, perceived maternal emotional warmth, perceived maternal control, perceived maternal rejection, child's collectivistic family values, and maternal emotional warmth are significantly correlated to children's school commitment; 5) For the Turkish immigrant children perceived maternal emotional warmth, perceived maternal control, and perceived achievement values predict school commitment, whereas for the Turkish native children, the predictors of school commitment are gender, perceived maternal emotional warmth, and perceived maternal control. For the Turkish immigrant mothers, maternal emotional warmth is predictor of their children's school commitment while for Turkish immigrants' mothers, gender and maternal rejection are predictors of school commitment.

All the main findings will be discussed below.

4.1. Findings Related to School Commitment

With regard to the school commitment, the findings yielded that there is no variation in school commitment scores between the Turkish immigrant and native children as our study sample (Table 4).

Considering the result, for the Turkish immigrant children, it is reasonable to believe that same level of school commitment might be due to cultural integration. That is, immigrant children -especially being second generation in Norway-, who have been exposed to the Norwegian language and culture from birth or immigrated before school age, would not have

been faced with language barrier or culture-related issues in school environment (Fekjær & Birkelund, 2007). In line with our assumption, a study conducted in the United States with immigrants indicated that poor English language skills in the family environment can negatively affect immigrant children's school preschool attendance, and result of dropping out of high school (Bleakley & Chin, 2008). Moreover, in the macro level, Norway, where *"Education for all is a basic precept of Norwegian educational policy"*, children and young people have the same right to education regardless of their social and cultural background (UDIR, 2007). In exo-level, the school, which offers a local sociocultural context for immigrant children, can facilitate immigrant children`s social integration into the majority of the society (Oppedal, 2006). Therefore, we assume that Norwegian educational system might be specifically relevant for the relative advantage of immigrant students. For instance, a study demonstrated that it could be advantageous for immigrant children to involve earlier in the educational system, as in countries with high preschool attendance rates like Norway (Borgna & Contini, 2014).

When we compared the variation between the children's and their mothers' reports in the correlation between school commitment and rearing behaviours in the Turkish immigrant families, we found that just *"maternal emotional warmth"* was correlated to school commitment in both immigrant mothers and children's scores (Table 5). More clearly, both perceived and mother`s rating of maternal emotional warmth were significantly and positively correlated with school commitment. It is interesting that while perceived maternal control and rejection were negatively and significantly correlated with school commitment, the mothers' ratings of maternal control or rejection did not correlate with their children's school commitment. The same outcomes were founded for the values. That is, while the children's perceived achievement values and family collectivist values were positively and significantly correlated with school commitment, their mothers' reports on perceived achievement values and family collectivist values were not statistically correlated with school commitment. To sum up, regarding our analyses, we can claim that the immigrant children's reports on study variables showed more significant association to school commitment.

When we compared the variation between the children's and their mothers' reports in the correlation between school commitment and rearing behaviours in Turkish native families, we found that both *"maternal emotional warmth"* and *"maternal rejection"* were correlated to school commitment in both native mothers and children's scores (Table 6). More clearly, perceived and mother`s rating of maternal emotional warmth were significantly and positively correlated with school commitment, while perceived and mother`s rating of

rejection were significantly and negatively correlated with school commitment. It is interesting that while perceived maternal control was negatively and significantly correlated with school commitment, the mothers' ratings of maternal control did not correlate with their children's school commitment. With regard to values, whereas child`s family collectivist values were significantly and positively correlated with school commitment, their mothers' reports on these values did not significantly correlate with school commitment. Furthermore, the children's perceived achievement values and their mothers' perceived achievement values did not significantly correlate with school commitment. Again, it can be claimed that native children's reports on study variables showed more significant association to school commitment. Further research is needed to be conducted for examination of this claim.

Based on these results, we can claim that the children's perceived and mothers' rating of "*maternal emotional warmth*" was positively and significantly correlated to school commitment in both immigrant and native groups. Broadly speaking, the more emotional warmth the children perceive from their mothers, or the more emotional warmth their mothers show towards their children, the more school commitment children have.

Since the correlation analyses implied strong correlations between family collectivist and achievement values, and between emotional warmth, controlling and rejecting parenting, initially we used the hierarchical regression analyses. However, it indicated that there might be some mediational mechanisms at stake (i.e. For Turkish immigrant children, emotional warmth seemed to be mediated by achievement values; for Turkish native children, emotional warmth appeared to be mediated by collectivist family values, while rejection appeared to be mediated by both family values and supportive parenting). Therefore, we used the stepwise regression analyses. Bu using this procedure, we avoided to the issue of common variance due to correlation between variables and picked the variables that have the strongest predictive effects, and the result showed us only the variables that were significantly contributing to the school commitment. In this way, we could describe which variables ended up significantly contributing to school commitment in the two samples of children.

Considering children's stepwise regression analysis (Table 7), the results yielded that for Turkish immigrant children, "*perceived maternal emotional warmth*" and "*perceived achievement values*" predicted their school commitment positively, whereas "*perceived maternal control*" predicted their school commitment negatively. On the other hand, for the native children, predictors of the school commitment were "*child gender*", "*perceived maternal emotional warmth*", and "*perceived maternal control*". That is, "*perceived*

achievement values" are unique for immigrant children, whereas *"child gender"* is unique for native children while predicting school commitment.

Considering the mothers' stepwise regression analysis, results yielded that for Turkish immigrant mothers, just *"maternal emotional warmth"* predicted their children`s school commitment positively (Table 9). However, for native mothers, predictors of school commitment were *"child gender",* and *"maternal rejection"*(Table 10).

Based on these results, regarding rearing behaviours, we can argue for maternal emotional warmth is positively associated with and predicts school commitment; whereas maternal control and rejection is negatively associated with and predicts school commitment negatively. Although there is lack of studies examining relation of parenting and school commitment across divergent cultural contexts, there are many studies investigated school-related outcomes and parenting style in regard to Baumrind and Maccoby&Martin`s conceptualization, namely *parental demandingness* and *parental responsiveness* (Akin, 2006; Erginbay, 2014; Gonzalez, Holbein, & Quilter, 2002; Yilmazer, 2007). Following these findings, a study demonstrated that parenting style of mother predicts child`s academic achievement, and it was hypothesized that authoritative parenting is associated with higher grades (Güroglu, 2002). Adolescents who perceive their parents as warm, firm and democratic are more likely to develop positive attitudes about their achievement which in turn, results in doing better in school (Steinberg, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989) An another study illustrated that higher perceived parental rejection leaded to diminished in school performance (Putnick et al., 2015) In line with these findings, it revealed that the child and adolescent outcome behaviours are negatively affected by authoritarian, over controlling, restrictive, and punitive parenting styles, whereas these behaviours are positively affected by democratic, accepting, and emotionally warm parenting style (Sümer, Gündoğdu Aktürk, & Helvacı, 2010).

We found that there was a negative association between maternal control and school commitment and control negatively predicted school commitment. However, it is important to bear in mind that depending on cultural context, control could have a variety of meanings such as from parental hostility to warmth. It could be perceived differently relying on the prevalent social norms and practices (Trommsdorff, 1985). For instance, there are a positive relations between Korean youths' perceptions of parental control and perceived parental warmth and low neglect, which is perceived as a form of rejection (Rohner & Pettengill, 1985).

In Turkey, parental control is not perceived as parental rejection and instead, it is perceived as parental acceptance (Kagitcibasi et al., 2010). In accordance with these findings, a

study conducted in Turkey by Sümer and Kagitcibasi (2010) revealed that while evaluating impact of parenting behaviours on attachment security, cultural relevance of these behaviours should be considered. Specifically, while the effect of parenting behaviours on attachment are evaluated on the basis of lower, middle, or higher order categories of parenting dimensions, there could be some variation. In terms of emotional warmth and rejection, there are no major cultural differences. On the other hand, control dimension varies based on the normative and adaptive nature of the specific behaviours. To sum up, in cross-cultural context, parental control and parenting behaviours may have different meanings for children relying on their normative level, their context, and children's perceptions (Chao, 2001; Ispa et al., 2004; Kagitcibasi, 2012; Rohner & Pettengill, 1985).

Other than maternal emotional warmth and control, immigrant child`s perceived achievement values also predicted school commitment positively among immigrant children (Table 7). We found that Turkish immigrant mothers and children had more perceived achievement values than Turkish native mothers and children. These findings are lined with a study conducted in Norway with students from Turkey and Sri Lanka. This study claimed that immigrants are related to higher levels of parental achievement values, and higher levels of comparison (Alves et al., 2014).

It is not surprising to find that both immigrant mother-child dyads have higher perceived achievement values as compared to native mother-child dyads, since most immigrant parents are strongly committed to transmit their family values and their academic aspiration to their children (Phalet & Schönpflug, 2001a). Schönpflug (2001) claimed that both parenting styles and parental socialization goals contribute to this transmission process.

The reason for intergeneration transmission could be related to upward mobility. Specifically, the successful adjustment to acculturation depends on the combination of individualism or collectivism with achievement values, and upward mobility is promoted by adherence to achievement values (Phalet, 1996; Phalet & Claeys, 1993). Therefore, immigrant parents regard achievement values as an educational and a socioeconomic modernization tool in which their children can socialize (Delgado-Gaitan, 1992; LeVine, Miller, & West, 1988), and mobilize. For instance, for Turkish immigrants, achievement seems to be connected to collectivist values learned through early socialization (Verkuyten et al., 2001).

Unexpectedly, our study showed that child`s gender predicts school commitment among native children and mothers (Table 8 and Table 10). Although gender was not one of our study variables, when we conducted between group analysis, we found that native girls

have higher school commitment than immigrant girls. When we further conducted within group analysis, we found that native girls have higher school commitment than native boys in Turkey. What was found is consistent with research literature (Carranza et al., 2009; Plunkett & Bámaca-Gómez, 2003; Tella, 2007). For instance, in Turkey, a study revealed that girls' school attachment level is higher than boys (Bellici, 2015). With regard to gender role on other educational outcomes, it suggested that girls are more motivated and higher achievers than boys (Hotulainen & Schofield, 2003). In another study it has been also demonstrated that achievement motivation and self-concept are significantly related to academic achievement and girls have better academic achievement than boys (Awan, Ghazala Noureen, & Anjum Naz, 2011). Girls` academic performance can be influenced by cultural factors, availability of mentors, sexuality and family background (Kimondo, 2013), as well as psychological needs for accomplishment (Çelikkaleli, Gökçakan, & Çapri, 2005). More research should be conducted that examines separate models for girls and boys.

4.2. Findings Related to Maternal Rearing Behaviours

No matter child`s or mother`s own ratings, the current results yielded that there was no significant difference in maternal rearing behaviours (emotional warmth, control, and rejection) between mother-child dyads in both country (Table 4).

When we concentrate on Baumrind`s conceptualization, there could be two possible explanations for this finding. One explanation is that while native Turkish parents has been moving from authoritarian towards more authoritative parenting style as Kagitcibasi and Sunar claims, the immigrant Turkish parents characterized by authoritarian would have been exposed to acculturation with integration attitudes. That in turn would have led to more authoritative parenting styles among Turkish immigrants, since the associations of authoritarian parenting with child outcomes are weaker in countries with a higher individualism score like Norway (Pinquart & Kauser, 2017). To clarify, immigrant`s mother child rearing practices have been influenced by Norwegian culture in macro level when they have been integrated to Norwegian society. In conjunction with our assumption, a study conducted in Norway revealed that Romanian immigrant mothers who adopted an integration and/or assimilationist strategy showed a tendency to share values and meanings with the Norwegian socializing agents (Herrero, 2016). A study conducted in Australia pointed out that Turkish immigrant parents more often adopted the receiving country`s child rearing

attitudes and behaviours when they canalized to integrate to receiving country`s culture (Yagmurlu & Sanson, 2009). Corresponding to these findings, another study conducted in Germany revealed that second-generation Turkish mothers displayed changes in their socialization goals in the direction of the receiving society (Citlak et al., 2008).

An alternative explanation is that immigrant Turkish parents have been maintaining their heritage parenting pattern by feeling close to the Turkish culture and maintaining close ties with Turkey (Kaya & Kentel, 2005). No matter their heritage parenting has been characterized as authoritarian or authoritative, both immigrant and native groups hold same belief and values that are consistent with each other.

When we look at to what extend the children's perceptions of their mothers' rearing behaviour correspond with the mothers' self-reports, we found that for immigrant families, in *"maternal emotional warmth"* dimension, children's and mothers' reports significantly and positively corresponded to each other (Table 5). The more the mothers show emotional warmth, the more the children perceive it positively. On the other hand, the immigrant mother's rating of maternal emotional warmth significantly and negatively correlated with perceived maternal rejection (Table 5). That is, the less the mothers show emotional warmth, the more the children feel rejection. For the native families, mother`s rating of maternal emotional warmth was significantly negatively correlated with perceived maternal control and perceived maternal rejection (Table 6). That is, if the Turkish mother show less maternal emotional warmth toward their children, it would be perceived as more control and more rejection by their children. Besides, mother`s rating of maternal rejection was positively correlated with perceived maternal control and perceived maternal rejection (Table 6). That is, the more mothers show rejection, the more control and rejection their children feel. Actually, what we found corresponds to Carlo et al.'s findings (1997). They revealed that while emotional warmth and rejection correlate negatively with each other, control and rejection correlate positively each other.

The association between parenting style and school commitment was explained above.

4.3. Findings Related to Perceived Achievement Values

We revealed that there is a medium, positive correlation between child's perceived achievement values and school commitment among immigrant children. Nevertheless, we did

not find significant correlation between child's perceived achievement values and school commitment among native children. Again, no significant correlation was found between school commitment and mother`s self-rating of perceived achievement values in both groups (Table 5 and Table 6).

When we look at perceived achievement values correlation with other study variables, we found that for immigrant children, it was positively correlated with perceived maternal warmth, their family collectivist values, maternal emotional warmth, and maternal control (Table 5). The positive association between child' perceived achievement values and maternal control could be explained relying on what Kagitcibasi claimed. That is, parental control could be perceived positively as we mentioned earlier. However, for native children, perceived achievement values were not significantly correlated with other variables (Table 6).

Above, we mentioned that immigrant mothers and children have more perceived achievement values than native mothers and children. Besides, we explained that child's perceived achievement values are one of the predictors for school commitment among immigrant children.

As compared to native mother-child dyads, significantly higher scores of perceived achievement values in both immigrant mother-child dyads can be interpreted as mothers` achievement values have been transmitted to their children. In line with our interpretation, academic achievement found a more family-related meaning for Turkish student in the Netherlands (Verkuyten et al., 2001). Besides, agreement between youth values and their perceptions of their parents` values is likely to improve youth`s well-being (Higgins, 1987).

4.4. Findings Related to Family Collectivist Values

The research result revealed that the native children have higher perceived collectivist values as compared to immigrant children (Table 4). This could be related to immigrant children have been exposed Norwegian values longer.

In the migration context, collectivistic values are transmitted since presumably, they serve group maintenance (Schönpflug, 2001). More specifically, the successful transmission of collectivism and achievement values to the next generation is substantial to endorse coordinated family adaptation (Phalet & Schönpflug, 2001a; Schönpflug, 2001) Besides, collectivism contributes positively to the acculturative adjustment of Turkish youth   (Phalet & Hagendoorn, 1996). Although collectivism seems an important characteristic of Turkish culture (Kabasakal, & Bodur, 2001), the earlier research findings are mixed.

Some findings claimed that collectivist values are high in Turkish immigrants (Phalet & Schönpflug, 2001a, 2001b). For instance, it demonstrated that Turkish immigrant youth in Belgium was more collectivistic than Turkish youth in Istanbul (Phalet, 1996). In line with this, it revealed that collectivism and aspirations were directly transmitted from Turkish parents to their children in Germany (Phalet & Schönpflug, 2001). In another study, collectivist group loyalty and group-oriented achievement motive were found among Turkish youths in Belgium (Phalet & Claeys, 1993).

Nevertheless, Phalet and Haker (2004) investigated acculturative change of Turk immigrant families in the Netherlands. They found that there is a tendency to abandon conservatism from older to younger generations, which might be related to increased educational status of immigrant parents or acculturation attitudes. For example, when educational status of parent increases, immigrants` conformity goals tend to decrease, and their independence-oriented goals increase. Specifically, they are more oriented toward achievement goals and have less collectivistic children (Citlak, Yagmurlu, & Leyendecker, 2006; Pels, Nijsten, Oosterwegel, & Vollebergh, 2006; Phalet & Schönpflug, 2001b). Citlak et al. (2008) proposed that Turkish mothers raised in Germany and had a higher level of education were more likely to value self-confidence, psychological independence, and respectfulness in the direction of the receiving culture. Integration strategy to the receiving country can also play a role for moving away from conservatism. For example, Turkish mothers are oriented to value individualistic goals such as self-control when they are integrated into German culture more than Turkish mothers who are more separated from the German culture (Durgel et al., 2009). In line with this finding, Turkish immigrant mothers in Australia exhibit higher levels of self-direction goals and inductive reasoning and lower levels of compliance goals and obedience-demanding behaviour when they have a tendency to integrate to the receiving country`s culture (Yagmurlu & Sanson, 2009).

With regard to our result, we can assume that the lower levels of family collectivist values found in immigrant children could be related to the relation between collectivist and achievement values. Phalet and Schönpflug (2001b) indicated that less commitment to collectivist values strengthens the parental aspiration level and achievement goals for the children, which in turn more aspiring parents have less collectivistic children. As we mentioned earlier, we found that perceived achievement values are also higher in immigrant mother-child dyads, which supports Phalet and Schönflug`s finding that immigrant children have lower collectivistic values (as we found) while they have higher achievement values (as we found). However, more research is needed to discover this association.

Taking into account correlation, for immigrant children, we found that there is a small, positive correlation between child's family collectivist values and school commitment for immigrant children. Besides, there is a positive, medium correlation between child's family collectivist values and child's perceived achievement values. With regard to mother`s scores, it was found that mother's collectivist values and mother's perceived achievement is largely correlated (Table 5). For native children, child's family collectivist values are significantly correlated with perceived maternal emotional warmth, whereas it is negatively correlated with perceived maternal control, perceived maternal rejection, and maternal rejection. For native mothers, family collectivist values are positively correlated with maternal emotional warmth and maternal perceived achievement values. However, it is negatively correlated with maternal rejection (Table 6).

4.5. Limitations of the Study

There are a number of limitations in the current study to take into consideration when interpreting the results. First limitation is the lack of representative samples. For immigrant, research participants were recruited for subsequent phone calls and door-to-door visits. For native, research participants were attending a private school where they lacked heterogeneity itself. All three classes from sixth grades and three classes out of five from fifth grades were selected by convenience sampling based on sample's convenience and availability (Creswell, 2014). The total sample size was relatively small which may be responsible for failure to produce significance findings. Other challenge is related to sample matching. In the development of the research plan, we knew that it would be impossible to find samples matched across the appropriate factors in Norway and Turkey. For instance, grade levels were different in the two cultures. In Norway, the children were 7th grade whereas in Turkey, the children were 5th and 6th grades.

Second limitation is related to some challenges encountered during a cross-cultural research study. One of these challenges is translation of the questionnaires which needs to ensure the identification of cultural variance adequately. When child Norwegian survey questionnaires were translated into Turkish, there might have been cultural differences in understanding the concepts (i.e. opposite directions of some items). These differences could have influenced the meaning of the questionnaires for the participants which resulted in some reduced alpha level.

Third limitation is related to social desirability (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960). The mothers and children responded to the survey questionnaire as self-report responses. They may have responded with answers they desired to look good or correct, and not the answers that accurately reflected their behaviours and/or perceptions. These social desirability responses would have altered the results of this study which, in turn, might have affected the predictive power of some independent variables on the dependent variables.

Finally, we did not compute inter-correlations between variables and mediation effects were not studied. However, it should be included in designs of future studies. Additionally, other than parenting style, there could be some determinants on school commitment that the current study was not consider. It is worth mentioning that other than study variables, there could be some factors influencing school commitment, such as parents educational or income level, their employment status, acculturation effects (i.e. perceived discrimination,), educational system, ethnic environment, child characteristic (level of self-efficacy or self-concept), peer, teacher, school, and network effects etc (Awan et al., 2011; Bygren & Szulkin, 2010; Carranza et al., 2009; Dronkers, Van der Velden, & Dunne, 2012; Fekjær & Birkelund, 2007; Kao & Tienda, 1998; Kristen & Granato, 2007). Future research should pay attention to these variables` effects on school commitment to develop effective strategies for improving children`s school commitment.

4.6. General Discussion and Practical Implication

The current research was designed to shed light on the question of whether the effect maternal rearing behaviours affect the level of school commitment in two diverse cultures (individualism versus collectivism). While analysing the predictors of school commitment, it was obvious from all the regression analyses that the model with the children's variables explained more of the variance in school commitment than mothers' self-reports did.

We found that perceived maternal emotional warmth and perceived maternal control predict school commitment in both children groups. The result supports the view that authoritative parenting style, which includes support and warmth, has positive significant correlation with academic achievement, motivation and higher academic performance in school (Cheung & McBride-Chang, 2008; Gadeyne et al., 2004; Plunkett & Bámaca-Gómez, 2003).

While other study variables in our models are not the primary concern of this research, it is worth mentioning that we investigated the family collectivist values and achievement values with regard to school commitment in order to better understand immigrant-child dyads` acculturation attitudes towards Norwegian culture. As mentioned earlier, in Schwartz's (1992) international study on value dimensions, Turkey found to be one of the collectivistic, whereas Norway is regarded as one of the individualistic country. What we found can make new contribution to research literature and new researches can be conducted for better understanding of whether Turkish immigrant make a transition from their collectivistic values to individualistic ones.

Additionally, investigating these variables from native Turkish perspective has brought us new insights and knowledge. Although our sample groups did not include ethnic Norwegians, we found that native children in Turkey have higher family collectivist values as compared to immigrant children. The finding might be an indicator of the fact that while native children strongly endorse Turkish collectivist beliefs and values, immigrant children endorse beliefs and values that are consistent with Norwegian culture, which can be regard as integration from acculturation perspective. Besides, in line with the earlier research literature, we found that immigrant mother-child dyads reported higher levels of perceived achievement values as compared to native mother-child dyads, which can be regarded as their desire for economic, educational, and social advancement.

The present study has significance in this regard, since it is one of the very few studies examining Turkish mother-child dyads in Norway and Turkey. Up to now empirical school research in Norway has not examined what might further enhance the school commitment of Turkish immigrant children. When we combine our findings with Bronfenbrenner`s ecological model of human development, our research can contribute some findings to existing research area. In the macro level, knowing how immigrant groups change and adapt to new socio-cultural contexts and being aware of the importance of cultural values for achievement motivation and educational outcomes (Verkuyten et al., 2001) can help politicians to make more effective integrational and educational policies in order to enhance social mobility and social equality in the population.

In exo system, which includes ethnic density and social network, Turkish organizations in Norway can play a significant role between schools and parents by taking a more active part in strengthening parental supportive rearing behaviours when needed, supporting the educational integration of Turkish immigrant children (i.e. homework aid). In micro system which consists of parents or school, Turkish immigrant mothers should be offered more information about the factors like effects of maternal rearing behaviours or perceived achievement values. Besides, teachers or other members of micro level can be trained to make them capable of understanding different perspectives or cultural backgrounds. For instance, teachers who are trained in and have insights into acculturation and intercultural relations could promote home – school partnership and thereby bridge between parent and children in adequate and effective ways.

Moreover, the findings of the current study may provide valued information to school counsellors, parents, teachers, and policy makers in Turkey with regard to the effects of maternal rearing behaviours, gender effect, achievement values, and collectivistic values on school commitment. Besides, it helps them to gain further insight into planning appropriate strategies for increasing school commitment. For instance, based on the findings of this study, we can claim that the relationship of the caregivers with children is very important in terms of school commitment. School counsellors can give seminars to parents to promote their rearing behaviours. Moreover, the finding would be very helpful to further develop prevention and intervention studies focusing on gender effect on school commitment.

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Appendix 1

School Contest

ÖZEL İZMİR BORNOVA OKYANUS KOLEJİ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜ

Okulumuz 6A-6B-6C -5B ve 5E sınıflarında, Özge Özdemir Köz'ün **"Aile Yetiştirme Tarzının 10–12 yaş grubundaki çocukların başarma motivasyonu ilişkisinin Norveç ve Türk öğrencilerinde araştırılması"** konulu tez çalışması anketleri velilerden alınan izin ile araştırmaya katılmaya gönüllü annelerde ve izin verilen çocuklarında uygulanmıştır.

Letters, Consent forms and Debriefing Letters

Çocuk ID:

Aile Yetiştirme Tarzı ve Çocukların Akademik Motivasyonu Arasındaki İlişkinin Araştırılması

10-12 YAŞ GRUBU TÜRKİYE-NORVEÇ ÖRNEKLEM ÇALIŞMASI

Özge Özdemir Köz

Çocuk ve Ergen Psikologu

Ege Üniversitesi Çocuk ve Ergen Ruh Sağlığı ve Hastalıkları Anabilim Dalı/İzmir

Dr. Psk. Brit Oppedal

Norveç Halk Sağlığı Enstitüsü Çocuk Gelişimi Bölümü

ARAŞTIRMAYA GÖNÜLLÜ KATILIM FORMU

Merhabalar,

Ben Özge Özdemir Köz. Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi (ODTÜ), **'Psikoloji'** bölümü mezunu olup (2006), **'Çocuk ve Ergen Psikoloğu'** olarak Ege Üniversitesi Tıp Fakültesi Çocuk ve Ergen Ruh Sağlığı ve Hastalıkları Anabilimi dalında 2012 yılından beri görev yapmaktayım.

Şu anda, Oslo ve Akershus Üniversitesi'nde (Norveç) , **'Uluslararası Sosyal Politikalar ve Sağlık'** alanında yüksek lisans yapmakta olup, tez aşamasında bulunmaktayım.

Tez konum, **'Aile Yetiştirme Tarzının 10-12 yaş grubundaki çocukların akademik motivasyonuna olan ilişkinin, Norveç'teki ve Türkiye'deki öğrencilerde araştırılması'** olup, bu bağlamda, Türkiye'de yaşayan Türk ve Norveç'e göç etmiş birinci ve ikinci kuşak Türk öğrenci-anne örneklemlerine ihtiyaç duymaktayım. Tez danışmanım Norveç Halk Sağlığı Enstitüsü Çocuk Gelişimi Bölümünden Dr. Brit Oppedal olup, tez konum literatüre uluslararası alanda, sizlerin değerli katılımıyla önemli katkılar sağlayacaktır.

Bu çalışma, Oslo ve Akershus Üniversitesi etik kurulu tarafından değerlendirilmiş ve çalışmanın yapılmasına onay verilmiştir. Anket hakkında sorularınız varsa ve/veya daha fazla bilgi edinmek isterseniz, Norveç Halk Sağlığı Enstitüsü Çocuk Gelişimi bölümünden kıdemli psikolog Brit Oppedal (brit.oppedal@fhi.no) veya bana (ozgeozdemir1983@gmail.com) mail atabilirsiniz.

Saygılarımla,

Özge Özdemir Köz

AILE YETİŞTIRME TARZI VE ÇOCUKLARIN AKADEMIK MOTIVASYONU ARASINDAKI ILIŞKININ ARAŞTIRILMASI

ÇALIŞMANIN ÖZETİ

Mutlu, sağlıklı ve başarılı bireyler yetiştirmede öncelikle anne babanın, ardından diğer yetişkinler ve öğretmenlerin önemli bir yere sahip olduğu tartışılmaz bir gerçektir. Çocuk dünyaya ilk geldiği andan itibaren aile, ilk etkileşim içinde bulunulan yer olmasından dolayı çocuğun yaşam süreci üzerinde oldukça etkilidir. Zihinsel, bedensel, duygusal, sosyal ve temel becerilerin kazanıldığı kurum olan ilköğretim basamağında çocuk, belli bir yaşam tarzını da beraberinde getirmektedir. Anne babanın çocuğa karşı nasıl tavır takındıkları ve tutumları bu yaşam tarzını doğrudan şekillendirmektedir.

Ergenlik öncesi 10-12 yaş dönemi, çocuklarımızın hayatında önemli bir döneme denk gelmektedir. Çocukların bu dönemde ailelerinden nasıl destek alacakları, okul başarısını ve sosyal uyumunu büyük ölçüde etkilemektedir.

Yapılan araştırmalar, anne-babanın olumlu davranışları ile çocuğun başarı motivasyonu/beklentisi arasında **pozitif** bir ilişki olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Bu nedenle, bilinçli veya bilinçsiz bir şekilde çocuğunun başarısını etkileyen anne babanın, tutumları üzerinde farkındalık kazanması gerekmektedir. Bununla beraber, çocukların okul başarısı için, öğrencilere kendilerini ifade edebilecekleri ve yeteneklerini sergileyebilecekleri ortamlar sağlanmalıdır.

Öğrencinin başarı motivasyonunun, okul, aile ve çevre etkileşimi sonucu olduğu unutulmamalı; okul ve aile işbirliği içinde olmalıdır.

Yapacağımız bu araştırma ile aile değerlerinin ve yetiştirme tarzının öğrencilerin başarı motivasyonuna yansıyıp yansımadığına bakılacak; yansıma var ise, bu yansımanın kültürler arası platformda farklılık taşıyıp taşımadığı bireysel ve toplumsal alanda tartışılacaktır.

Aynı zamanda bu çalışma, siz değerli anne-babalara çocuk yetiştirme hususunda farkındalık kazandıracak; araştırma sonucu sizlerle paylaşılacak ve istenildiği takdirde sizlere '*çocuk yetiştirme ve ergenlik*' konularında eğitim verilecektir.

BİZE NASIL YARDIMCI OLMANIZI İSTEYECEĞİZ?

<u>Katılmayı kabul ederseniz, lütfen aşağıdaki sizin ve çocuğunuz adına olan katılım onay kısmını doldurun.</u> Size zarfta gönderilecek olan <u>anketlerle</u> birlikte <u>katılım onay formunu</u>, bir hafta içerisinde, kapalı zarf içinde (diğer zarf ile) çocuğunuza teslim ediniz. Çocuğunuz zarfı, bana veya okulun belirlediği ilgili kişiye teslim edecektir.

AILE YETİŞTIRME TARZI VE ÇOCUKLARIN AKADEMIK MOTIVASYONU ARASINDAKI ILIŞKININ ARAŞTIRILMASI - [DATE]　　　2

Letters, Consent forms and Debriefing Letters (Continued)

ARAŞTIRMA NASIL YAPILACAK?

Bu araştırma 10-12 yaş grubu çocukları ve anneleri kapsayan uluslararası bir çalışmadır. Bu çalışmada,

- **10-12 yaş grubu Türkiye'de yaşayan Türk öğrencisi ve anneleri (60 tane anne-çocuk),**
- 10-12 yaş grubu Türkiye'den Norveç'e göç emiş olan **120 tane Türk öğrencisi ve anneleri** yer alacaktır.

Araştırmada, toplamda 180 öğrenci-anne örneklemi hedeflenmektedir.

Anketlerde öğrencilerin ve annelerin <u>isim bilgileri istenmemektedir. Sadece araştırmaya katılım onay formunda, imza atılacağı için isim bilgileri istenecektir.</u>

Araştırmamız bütünüyle **anket** yöntemine dayanmaktadır. Ekte görebileceğiniz gibi, anne ve çocuk için iki ayrı anket formumuz bulunmaktadır. Bu anketlerde, sizin çocuklarınızı yetiştirme tarzı ve çocuklarınızın bu tarzı nasıl algıladığı ile ilgili soruların yanı sıra, sizin ve çocuğunuzun başarı istekliliği algılarına yönelik sorular yer almaktadır.

Çalışma yapılacak okul aracılığıyla, öğrenci ve velilerden araştırmaya gönüllü katılma izni alındıktan sonra, okul idaresinin uygun göreceği bir zaman aralığında, öğrencilere araştırmanın amacı, araştırmacı tarafından kısaca anlatılacak ve öğrencilere anket dağıtacaktır. Öğrenciler, kendi anketlerini **15-20 dakikalık** bir zaman diliminde dolduracaktır. Sizin ise, size gönderilen anketleri **1 haftalık sürede** doldurulup kapalı zarfta çocuğunuza vermeniz, çocuğunuzun ise bu kapalı zarfları, okul idaresinin uygun gördüğü yetkiliye veya bana (sınıf öğretmeni, rehber öğretmen vb.) teslim edilmesi gerekmektedir. Sizler için de tahmin edilen anket doldurma süresi **20-25 dakika** civarıdır.

SONUÇLARI NASIL DEĞERLENDİRECEĞİZ?

Araştırmacı olarak bizler çocuk yetiştirme tarzı ve çocukların akademik motivasyonu hakkında kültürler arası bir ortamda çalışma yapmak istemekteyiz. Araştırma sonuçları, çocuklarımızın başarı motivasyonuna nasıl daha fazla katkı sağlayabilir ve siz değerli ailelere hangi noktalarda yardımcı olabiliriz konulu toplantı ile sizlere sunulacaktır.

AILE YETİŞTİRME TARZI VE ÇOCUKLARIN AKADEMIK MOTIVASYONU ARASINDAKI İLİŞKININ ARAŞTIRILMASI

GÖNÜLLÜLÜK ve GİZLİLİK

Bu proje Oslo ve Akershus Üniversitesi etik kurulundan gerekli onayları almıştır. Çalışmada, **kimlik belirleyici hiçbir bilgi istenmemekte,** tamamen gizlilik kurallarına bağlı kalmıştır. Kimlik bilgileri yerine, size ve çocuğunuza aynı numara verilecektir. (Aynı çocuğun aynı ebeveyne sahip olduğunu göstermek için)

Çalışma genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek bir etkileşim içermemektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında herhangi bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz çalışmayı istediğiniz zaman bırakmakta serbestsiniz.

Sizin ve çocuğunuzun vereceği cevapları kimse göremeyecek, bilgiler sadece araştırmacı tarafından değerlendirilecektir. Elde edilen bilgiler sadece bilimsel yayımlarda kullanılacaktır.

Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden çok teşekkür ederiz.

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve çocuğumum da katılmasına izin veriyorum. Ben ve çocuğum, bu çalışmayı istediğim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğimiz bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum. (Formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra uygulayıcıya geri veriniz).

Ad Soyad   Tarih   İmza

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Çocuğumun Adı Soyadı

Letters, Consent forms and Debriefing Letters (Continued)

GÖNÜLLÜLÜK ve GİZLİLİK

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Ad Soyad   Tarih   İmza

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Çocuğumun Adı Soyadı

School Commitment Scale

		Not at all true	Not very true	Sort of true	Very true
1.	In general, I like school a lot.	1	2	3	4
2.	School bores me.	1	2	3	4
3.	I don't do well at school.	1	2	3	4
4.	Homework is a waste of time.	1	2	3	4
5.	I try hard at school	1	2	3	4
6.	I usually finish my homework. 1	1	2	3	4
7.	Grades are very important to me.	1	2	3	4
8.	Other students think I am a good student.	1	2	3	4
9.	I do most of my school work without help from others.	1	2	3	4
10.	I do well in school, even in hard subjects.	1	2	3	4
11.	My teachers think I am a good student.	1	2	3	4
12.	Even when there are other interesting things to do, I keep up with my schoolwork.	1	2	3	4
13.	I am able to do a good job of organizing and planning my schoolwork.	1	2	3	4
14.	Learning school subjects is easy for me.	1	2	3	4
15.	I know how to study and how to pay attention in class so that I do well in school.	1	2	3	4

not at all true to (4) very true

My Memories of Upbringing (EMBU)

EMBU for Mothers

EMBU1. You have interfered in everything your child did.

EMBU2. You have shown with words and gestures that you liked your child.

EMBU3. You have forbidden your child to do things that other children were allowed to do

EMBU4. You have (beaten or) scolded your child in front of others.

EMBU5. You have given your child more (corporal) punishment than he/she deserved.

EMBU6. You have looked sad or in some other way shown that your child had behaved badly so that he/she has got real feelings of guilt.

EMBU7. You have respected your child's opinions.

EMBU8. You have wanted to be together with your child.

EMBU9. When your child has come back home, he/she always has to account for what he/she had been doing.

EMBU10. You have praised your child.

EMBU11. If your child has been sad, he/she has been able to seek comfort from you.

EMBU12. You have punished your child even when he/she had not done anything wrong.

EMBU13. You have criticized your child and told him/her how lazy and useless he/she was in front of others.

EMBU14. This child has been the one whom you have blamed if anything happened.

EMBU15. You have been abrupt to your child.

EMBU16. You have punished your child harshly even for trifles.

EMBU17. You think that your child has wished you would worry less about what he/she was doing.

EMBU18. Your child has been allowed to go where he/she liked without you caring too much.

EMBU19. You have put decisive limits for what your child was and was not allowed to do, to which you then have adhered rigorously.

EMBU20. You have treated your child in such a way that he/she has felt ashamed.

EMBU21. You have had an exaggerated anxiety that something might happen to your child.

EMBU22. You think that warmth and tenderness have existed between you and your child.

EMBU23. You have been proud when your child has succeeded in something that he/she has undertaken.

EMBU24. You have shown that you were happy with your child.

(Continued)

EMBU for Children

EMBU1. Mother interferes in everything you do.

EMBU2. Mother shows with words and gestures that she likes you.

EMBU3. Mother forbids you to do things that other children are allowed to do

EMBU4. Mother scolds you in front of others.

EMBU5. Mother punishes you more than you deserve.

EMBU6. Mother looks sad or in some other way shows that you have behaved badly so that you got real feelings of guilt.

EMBU7. Mother respects your opinions.

EMBU8. Mother wants to be together with you.

EMBU9. Mother asks you to account for what you have been doing.

EMBU10. Mother praises you.

EMBU11. When sad, you have been able to seek comfort from mother.

EMBU12. Mother has punished you even when you had not done anything wrong.

EMBU13. Mother has criticized you and told you how lazy and useless you are in front of others.

EMBU14. Mother blames you if anything happens.

EMBU15. Mother has been abrupt with you. .

EMBU16. Mother has punished you harshly even for trifles.

EMBU17. You wish your mother would worry less about what you are doing.

EMBU18. Mother allows you to go where you like without caring too much.

EMBU19. Mother puts decisive limits for what you are and are not allowed to do.

EMBU20. Mother has treated you in such a way that you have felt ashamed.

EMBU21. Mother has an exaggerated anxiety that something might happen to you.

EMBU22. You think that warmth and tenderness have existed between you and your mother.

EMBU23. Mother has been proud when you succeeded in something that you have undertaken.

EMBU24. Mother has shown that she is happy with you.

Perceived Achievement Values

Perceived parental academic achievement (child-rating)

1. My mother is very much interested in my school grade.

2. My mother feels that doing well in school is the most important thing.

3. My mother wants me to work hard in everything that I do.

4. My mother often asks me about my school work.

Perceived parental academic achievement (mother-rating)

1. I am very much interested in my children's school grade.

2. I feel strongly that doing well in school is the most important thing for my children.

3. I tell my children work to hard in everything that they do.

4. I want my children to be a successful person in society.

5. I often ask my children about their school work.

Appendix 6

Family Collectivist Values

How important is it for you…

		1 Not at all important	2 Somewhat important	3 Quite important	4 Very important
1.	To satisfy my family's needs even when my own needs are different				
2.	To avoid arguing with other family members				
3.	To put my family's needs before my own				
4.	To maintain harmony among members of your family				
5.	To meet the expectations of my family				
6.	That children and adolescents do what their parents tell them to, even if they disagree				
7.	Share your money with other family members (just asked to mother)				