An Examination of Adolescents’ Well-Being and Parents’ Psychological Control According to the Some Demographic Variables

Ergenlerin Öznel İyi Oluşları ve Anne-Baba Psikolojik Kontrolünün Bazı Demografik Değişkenlere Göre İncelenmesi

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ABSTRACT: In this study, the relationship between the psychological control perceived by the adolescents from their parents and their subjective well-being was investigated. The study group consisted of 565 adolescents in the 10-14 age group attending secondary school. “Adolescent Subjective Well-Being Scale” and “Psychological Control Scale” were used for data collection. It was investigated the normality of data, and non-parametric tests were applied in data analysis. As a result of the study, it was determined that the adolescents’ subjective well-being did not change by gender and that the boys’ perceived psychological controls from their father were higher than girls. It was determined that adolescents 14 years older have lower positive feelings than have 10-11 years old and have a higher perception of parental psychological control from their mothers than have 11 years old. It has been remarked that adolescents with notable academic success have higher subjective well-being while adolescents with average academic performance have higher perceptions of parental psychological control. A meaningful negative relationship was detected between parental psychological control scores and adolescent well-being scores; meaning that higher parental psychological control causes lower adolescent subjective well-being.

Keywords: Adolescence, psychological control, subjective well-being.

ÖZ: Bu çalışmada, ergenlerin anne-babalarından algıladıkları psikolojik kontrol ile öznel iyi oluşları arasındaki ilişki incelenmiştir. Çalışma grubunu ortaokula devam eden 10-14 yaş grubunda 565 ergen oluşturmuştur. Verilerin normallik dağılımı ve buna göre veri analizinde parametrik olmayan testler uygulanmıştır. Araştırma sonucunda ergenlerin özgünlük iyi oluşlarının cinsiyetle de değişmediği, erkek ergenlerde babadan alılan psikolojik kontrolün kişilere göre daha yüksek olduğu belirlenmiştir. Çalışmadan 14 yaş daha büyük yaşta ergenlerin olumlu duygular içerisinde olmasıın 10 ve 11 yaşlardaki ergenlerde daha düşük olduğu, annelerinden algılandıkları psikolojik kontrolün ise 11 yaşındaki ergenlerde daha yüksek olduğu belirlenmiştir. Okul başarısı çok iyi olan ergenlerin özgünlük iyi oluşlarının, okul başarısı orta olanların ebeveyn psikolojik kontrol alıklarının yüksek olduğu belirlenmiştir. Anne-baba psikolojik kontrol puanları ile ergenlerin özgünlük iyi oluş puanları arasında negatif yönlü anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu; anne ve baba psikolojik kontrolü artıkça ergenlerin özgünlük iyi oluşlarının azaldığı belirlenmiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Ergenlik dönemi, psikolojik kontrol, özgünlük iyi oluş.

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An individual goes through several growing periods that contain lots of physiological and psychological changes, starting from birth. Adolescence is the period of growth that starts from the end of childhood and lasts until the person reaches an adult’s physiological features. The age range of adolescence differs depending on cultural or historical conditions one lives in, and today it starts around ages 10-13 and ends at the end of teen ages in many countries (Santrock, 2014).

Physical growth is the most apparent change in adolescence. When talking about adolescents’ physical growth, muscular and skeletal growth due to the increase of height and weight, growth occurring in various organs of the body, and changes in endocrine glands come to mind first (Yavuzer, 1994). Also, cognitive skills and mental functions significantly change during this period. Thus, adolescence is not limited to emotional and social aspects that occur physiologically (Piaget, 1972). Individuals (adolescents) strive to cope with many pressures during adolescence, when an individual’s responsibility and freedom both increase. In this period, how they cope with the problems they encounter is significantly related to the social environment they live in. Living in an environment that does not support their cognitive and spiritual development or that is oppressive may facilitate adolescent’s orientation to risky behavior (Kara, Hatun, Aydoğan, Babaoğlu, & Gökalp, 2003). The most obvious of all the emotional situations in adolescence is adolescent’s emotional intensity and mood swings (Koç, 2004). The rapid and sudden physical changes that are observed in adolescence may create anxiety and surprise in adolescents, thus causing mixed emotions. Trouble of adaptation to these changes that occur affect adolescents’ attitudes and behavior towards the people around them (Büyükgebiz, 2009). As with every individual, the adolescent’s first environment is the family.

The family maintains its impacts on the individual, starting from the prenatal period and lasting until death. It is an institution that warns the adolescent about how and where to react. It shapes adolescents’ behavior and spiritual, emotional, economical, social, cultural, and physical development. Since early childhood, parents’ attitudes and behaviors towards the child maintain their impact on the child’s future life. Furthermore, the awareness that they are a member of the family being ingrained in their mind is an important base that helps them adapt to social norms (Erbil, Divan, & Önder, 2006). Control has an active role in parents’ attitudes and behaviors in the family. First descriptions made about parental control have defined control not only as violence but also as enforcing the individual and restricting their behavior; it was defined as an authoritarian and requiring-force kind of attitude. Psychological control refers to control practices that include the child’s emotional and psychological orientation, such as the child’s self-expression and thinking processes (Barber, 1996).

Psychological control is often the characteristic of parents who are not responsive to their children. This characteristic is defined as the parental approach style of parents who are ignorant to their children’s needs, who interfere with and restrict the children’s freedom and are oppressive, who impose their feelings and thoughts on the child rather than letting the child’s feelings and thoughts shape freely (Soenens & Vansteenkiste, 2010). Parents keep the children’s actions under control by ignoring their need for love and making them feel guilty (Pulat, 2011). Accordingly, it can be said that parents who adopt particularly negative attitudes have higher psychological control.
Parental practices are often studied in two ways: support and control. Parental supportive attitude towards their children causes positive results. Adolescents’ cognitive development, academic success, moral development, self-respect, adaptation to adulthood, and various more conditions are all related to parental supportive attitude. The definition of parental controlling behavior may change depending on the form of control. While strict control such as intimidation and physical punishment has developmentally negative results, authoritarian control based on logic and explanation can yield positive results (Durak-Batgün & Say, 2015). For adolescents who perceive extreme psychological control from their parents and who must internalize their parents’ thoughts, it would be too difficult to find their true and authentic selves. Perception of parental psychological control can cause negativities in the parent-adolescent relationship (Barber, 1996; Barber & Harmon, 2002); it may significantly affect the adolescent’s well-being. Parents who use psychological control exhibit negative behaviors such as depriving their children of love, making them feel guilty, and causing them to be ashamed (Korkın, 2019).

Subjective well-being is the individually subjective form of satisfaction that consists of emotional and cognitive components and positivity of the individual’s mental health. Subjective well-being includes subjectively evaluating one’s life in terms of cognitive and emotional aspects (Eryılmaz, 2009). One’s subjective well-being reaching high levels is a desired situation. A rise in the subjective well-being level depends on pleasant reactions to situations outweighing unpleasant reactions, and also one’s cognitive inference about the quality of their life being positive (Derin, 2013). The criteria of expressing the nirvana of human life and the perfection of life are happiness. Happiness is an answer to problems and a solution that people find (Fromm, 1995). Well-being is psychologically defined as happiness, and one’s well-being level can be evaluated by the individual himself and a health professional, a researcher, their spouse, or a teacher. The individual evaluating himself is called “subjective well-being” (Ormel, Lindenberg, Steverink, & Verbrugge, 1999). Even though several variables affect subjective well-being, the quality of family relationships during adolescence is a variable that needs to be regarded as a priority.

Adolescents get sad if they feel like they are not loved by those they want to be loved by in the family. This feeling may cause a sorrow that will last long or will never end in the adolescent. If every member of the family can express their emotions easily, noticing the adolescent’s sorrow is an advantage for both the adolescent and their family (Orvin, 1995). Life satisfaction is considered the cognitive component of subjective well-being. Beyond being the evaluation of the emotions one’s feeling, life satisfaction has the role of complementing cognitive judgments and emotional components. The scope of life satisfaction of subjective well-being expresses one’s satisfaction in different areas of their life. Satisfaction areas of one’s life can be formed by their family, school, job, health, circle of friends, money, the role they undertake, and the close circle they are in (Cenkseven & Akbaş, 2007; Dost, 2007). Life satisfaction and subjective well-being are related to positive moods.

Positive feelings mean desire, dynamism, spiritual well-being, and stability concepts coming together. On the other hand, negative feelings comprise unwanted feelings such as worry, rage, fear, hate, sorrow, and guilt (Cenkseven & Akbaş, 2007). An individual who has experienced the moment of happiness often is satisfied with his
life, consequently lives in a high leveled well-being (Dost, 2007). Social relationships are essential factors that affect subjective well-being. That being said, individuals establishing a secure bond in their relationships with the environment and adapt to the group or society they belong to will increase their level of well-being (Baş, 2019). Based on all of this information, it can be said that changes that occur during adolescence due to the nature of the period will affect parental psychological control, and psychological control will affect the adolescent’s well-being. There are studies in the literature that investigation relationships with parental psychological control and depression, anxiety, anger (Barber, 1996; Costa, Cuzzocrea, Gagliandolo, & Larcian, 2016; Nanda, Kotchick, & Grover, 2012; Pulat, 2011; Tian, 2019) and aggression (Murray, Dwyer, Rubin, Knighton-Wisor, & Booth-LaForce, 2014). In this study, the answer to the question “Is there a relationship between the perception of parental psychological control of individuals in adolescence, and their well-being?” has been sought. Questions of the study are given below:

1. Does the psychological control perceived by adolescents from their parents change according to gender, age, and perception of academic success?
2. Does the subjective well-being of adolescents change according to gender, age, and perception of academic success?
3. Is there a significant relationship between psychological control perceived by adolescents from their parents and their subjective well-being?

**Method**

**Study Group**

The study group of the research consisted of 565 adolescents aged 10-14, attending public or private secondary school in the center and districts of Karabük Province in the 2019-2020 academic year. Three schools out of five private schools in the city center approved the study’s conduction and five public schools from the countryside were randomly selected. One class from each of 5th, 6th, 7th and 8th grades in schools was selected: 310 adolescents from private secondary schools, 255 adolescents from public secondary schools; 293 girls and 272 boys in total. %9.7 of the study group is 10 years old, %22.5 is 11 years old, %26.4 is 12 years old, %23.2 is 13 years old, %18.2 is 14 years old or older; according to their self-assessment %39.3 of them have remarkable school success, %60.7 have an average level.

**Data Collection Tools**

Personal Information Form, Psychological Control Scale and Adolescent Subjective Well-Being Scale has been used in this research.

*Personal Information Form* developed by the researcher, gender, age, and perception of the study group’s school success are included.

*Psychological Control Scale* was formed by Barber (1996) to get information about both paternal and maternal psychological control perceived by adolescents. The scale was later improved by Sayıl and Kındap (2010) by adding intercultural articles, was adapted to Turkish culture, and its psychometric properties were checked. The scale consists of 16 articles, and they are used on a four-degree scale: “1-is unlike my mother’s/father’s features” and “4-is very similar to my mother’s/my father’s features”.
For much broader applicability of the Psychological Control Scale, it was applied for both parents to 885 adolescents aged 11-18. When factor analysis of the study was made, it showed that the scale’s factor structure has two dimensions for both parents, just like the original study: Psychological Control (PC) and Parental Abandonment (PA). Internal consistency coefficients of the scale have been found as .77 and .79 for mother and father in the Psychological Control dimension, and .85 and .89 in PA dimension.

*Adolescent Subjective Well-Being Scale* was developed by Eryılmaz (2009), and it has 15 articles and 4 sub-dimensions. The scale aims to measure adolescents’ subjective well-being, and consists of Satisfaction in Family Relationships, Satisfaction in Relationships with Important Others, Life Satisfaction, Positive Feelings sub-dimensions. Evaluation can be done by sub-dimensions or by the total score, and the higher the score is, the higher adolescent’s subjective well-being is. The study of validity and reliability of the scale was made with 250 adolescents aged 14-18. The internal consistency coefficient of the scale was found as .86, and the reliability value based on the test-retest method was .83 (Eryılmaz, 2009). In this study, Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient for the total scale was found as .84, and it has been concluded that the scale could be reliably used to determine the subjective well-being of adolescents aged 10-14.

**Data Collection and Analysis**

Karabuk University Social and Humanities Sciences Researches Ethics Committee (27/02/2019, decision numbered 2019/04(16) and official permissions from Karabuk Governorship were obtained before the study. Data collection tools were applied in the cooperation of school counselors (in a period that will not disrupt the adolescent’s classes) and in the classroom environment. The aim of the study was explained, and participation was provided voluntarily. All of the scales were applied in 30 minutes in a single session. Data of the adolescents who fully completed all of the scales have been taken into consideration.

The normality distribution of data has been examined and accordingly, it was observed that non-parametric analyzes were suitable. Based on this, Mann Whitney U (MWU) and Kruskal Wallis H (KWH) tests and Spearman-Brown Correlation coefficient was used. Significance value has been taken as .05, and Post hoc Scheffe Test has been used when determining the source of the difference.
Results

In this section, findings on the questions of the study are included. In Table 1, the analysis results of adolescents’ Subjective Well-Being Scale and Psychological Control Scale scores by gender are given.

Table 1

| Adolescent Subjective Well-Being Scale | Gender | N    | \(\bar{X}\) | S   | Z    | p    |
|----------------------------------------|--------|------|-----------|-----|------|------|
| Satisfaction in Family Relationships   | Girl   | 293  | 14.33     | 2.52| -.263| .793 |
|                                        | Boy    | 272  | 14.21     | 2.90|       |      |
| Positive Emotions                      | Girl   | 293  | 12.72     | 2.70| -.494| .621 |
|                                        | Boy    | 272  | 12.60     | 2.78|       |      |
| Satisfaction in Life                   | Girl   | 293  | 9.01      | 2.58| -1.866| .062 |
|                                        | Boy    | 272  | 9.43      | 2.40|       |      |
| Satisfaction in Relationships with Important Others | Girl | 293  | 13.51     | 3.09| -.321| .749 |
|                                        | Boy    | 272  | 13.77     | 3.73|       |      |
| Psychological Control Scale            | Mother Psychological Control | Girl | 291  | 24.38 | 7.37 | -1.620 | .105 |
|                                        | Boy    | 268  | 25.58     | 8.39|       |      |
|                                        | Father Psychological Control | Girl | 282  | 22.32 | 6.21 | -2.311 | .021* |
|                                        | Boy    | 263  | 23.84     | 7.83|       |      |

\*p<.05

According to Table 1, there is no significant difference between adolescent gender and Adolescent Subjective Well-being Scale and Mother-Psychological Control Scale mean scores \((p>.05)\). The difference between the gender of the adolescents and the Father-Psychological Control Scale mean scores is significant \((p<.05)\). Father-Psychological Control mean scores of boys \((\bar{X}=23.84)\) were higher than girls \((\bar{X}=22.32)\).

Table 2 shows the results of adolescents’ Subjective Well-Being Scale and Psychological Control Scale scores by age. Table 2 shows a significant difference between adolescents’ age and the Subjective Dimensions of Adolescent Subjective Well-being Scale Positive Emotions \((p<.05)\). According to the results of the Scheffe Test, the Positive Emotions subscale mean scores \((\bar{X}=11.72)\) of adolescents aged 14 and older are significantly lower than the scores of adolescents aged 10 \((\bar{X}=13.40)\) and 11 \((\bar{X}=13.18)\).
Table 2
*KWH Test Results of Adolescent Subjective Well-Being Scale and Psychological Control Scale Scores by Age*

| Age               | N   | $\bar{X}$ | S   | H      | $p$  |
|-------------------|-----|-----------|-----|--------|------|
| **Satisfaction in Family Relationships** |     |           |     |        |      |
| 10 age            | 55  | 14.58     | 2.49| 8.869  | .064 |
| 11 age            | 127 | 14.51     | 2.50|        |      |
| 12 age            | 149 | 14.19     | 2.73|        |      |
| 13 age            | 131 | 14.51     | 2.39|        |      |
| 14 age and older  | 103 | 3.63      | 3.30|        |      |
| **Positive Emotions** |     |           |     |        |      |
| 10 age            | 55  | 13.40     | 2.62| 20.057 | .000*|
| 11 age            | 127 | 13.18     | 2.60|        |      |
| 12 age            | 149 | 12.58     | 2.73|        |      |
| 13 age            | 131 | 12.67     | 2.38|        |      |
| 14 age and older  | 103 | 11.72     | 3.14|        |      |
| **Satisfaction in Life** |     |           |     |        |      |
| 10 age            | 55  | 9.29      | 2.42| 9.008  | .061 |
| 11 age            | 127 | 9.70      | 2.35|        |      |
| 12 age            | 149 | 9.26      | 2.30|        |      |
| 13 age            | 131 | 8.97      | 2.75|        |      |
| 14 age and older  | 103 | 8.77      | 2.62|        |      |
| **Satisfaction in Relationships with Important Others** |     |           |     |        |      |
| 10 age            | 55  | 13.89     | 3.11| 6.331  | .176 |
| 11 age            | 127 | 14.23     | 4.37|        |      |
| 12 age            | 149 | 13.37     | 2.97|        |      |
| 13 age            | 131 | 13.63     | 2.79|        |      |
| 14 age and older  | 103 | 13.15     | 3.48|        |      |
| **Mother Psychological Control** |     |           |     |        |      |
| 10 age            | 54  | 23.70     | 7.44| 22.141 | .000*|
| 11 age            | 126 | 23.37     | 7.56|        |      |
| 12 age            | 149 | 25.08     | 7.57|        |      |
| 13 age            | 129 | 25.27     | 7.92|        |      |
| 14 age and older  | 101 | 27.27     | 8.50|        |      |
| **Father Psychological Control** |     |           |     |        |      |
| 10 age            | 55  | 22.67     | 7.09| 9.241  | .055 |
| 11 age            | 122 | 23.01     | 8.21|        |      |
| 12 age            | 145 | 22.80     | 6.78|        |      |
| 13 age            | 124 | 22.67     | 6.27|        |      |
| 14 age and older  | 99  | 24.18     | 6.93|        |      |

*$p$ < .05
The difference between the adolescents’ age and the Mother-Psychological Control Scale mean scores is significant \((p<.05)\). According to the results of the Scheffe Test, the mean scores of the adolescents aged 14 and older are significantly higher than the scores of the adolescents aged 11 \((\bar{X}=23.37)\).

In Table 3, the results of the analysis of the adolescents’ Subjective Well-Being Scale and Psychological Control Scale scores according to school success perception are given.

Table 3

*MWU Test Results of Adolescent Subjective Well-Being Scale and Psychological Control Scale Scores According to Adolescents’ Perception of School Success*

| Variable                                    | Category    | N  | \(\bar{X}\) | S   | Z    | \(p\)  |
|---------------------------------------------|-------------|----|-------------|-----|------|--------|
| Adolescent Subjective Well-Being Scale      | Satisfaction in Family Relationships | Very Good | 222  | 14.84 | 2.30  | -5.189 | .000*  |
|                                             |             | Medium  | 343  | 13.90 | 2.89  |         |        |
|                                             | Positive Emotions | Very Good | 222  | 13.37 | 2.54  | -5.497 | .000*  |
|                                             |             | Medium  | 343  | 12.20 | 2.76  |         |        |
|                                             | Satisfaction in Life | Very Good | 222  | 9.81  | 2.29  | -4.768 | .000*  |
|                                             |             | Medium  | 343  | 8.82  | 2.56  |         |        |
|                                             | Satisfaction in Relationships with Important Others | Very Good | 222  | 14.19 | 2.77  | -4.728 | .000*  |
|                                             |             | Medium  | 343  | 13.27 | 3.73  |         |        |
| Psychological Control Scale                 | Mother Psychological Control | Very Good | 222  | 23.55 | 6.80  | -3.505 | .000*  |
|                                             |             | Medium  | 337  | 25.89 | 8.42  |         |        |
|                                             | Father Psychological Control | Very Good | 212  | 22.11 | 6.30  | -2.575 | .010*  |
|                                             |             | Medium  | 333  | 23.66 | 7.47  |         |        |

\(^*p<.05\)

According to Table 3, the difference between adolescents’ school success perceptions with their Subjective Well-Being Scale’s sub-scales mean scores (Satisfaction in Family Relationships, Positive Emotions, Satisfaction in Life, Satisfaction in Relationships with Important Others) \((p<.05)\). Satisfaction in Family Relationships \((\bar{X}=14.84)\), Positive Emotions \((\bar{X}=13.37)\), Satisfaction in Life \((\bar{X}=9.81)\), Satisfaction in Relationships with Important Others \((\bar{X}=14.19)\) scores of adolescents who have good school success higher on a meaningful level than the adolescents who have school success as a medium.

The difference between adolescents’ school achievement perception and the Mother and Father Psychological Control Scale mean scores is significant \((p<.05)\). The mean scores of adolescents who stated their school success as medium Mother-Psychological Control \((\bar{X}=25.89)\) and Father-Psychological Control \((\bar{X}=23.66)\) were among the mean scores of the adolescents who stated school success as very good (Mother-Psychological Control \(\bar{X}=23.55\), Father-Psychological Control \(\bar{X}=22.11\)) is significantly higher.
Correlation analysis results of adolescents’ Subjective Well-being Scale and Psychological Control Scale scores are given in Table 4.

Table 4
Correlation Analysis Results of Adolescent’ Adolescent Subjective Well-being Scale and Psychological Control Scale Scores

| Psychological Control Scale       | Mother | Father |
|-----------------------------------|--------|--------|
| Adolescent Subjective Well-Being Scale |        |        |
| Satisfaction in Family Relationships | 
  \( r \) | -0.212 | -0.127 |
  \( p \) | 0.000* | 0.003* |
| Positive Emotions                 |        |        |
  \( r \) | -0.212 | -0.131 |
  \( p \) | 0.000* | 0.002* |
| Satisfaction in Life              |        |        |
  \( r \) | -0.232 | -0.138 |
  \( p \) | 0.000* | 0.001* |
| Satisfaction in Relationships with Important Others |        |        |
  \( r \) | -0.175 | -0.098 |
  \( p \) | 0.000* | 0.022* |
| Total                             |        |        |
  \( r \) | -0.249 | -0.148 |
  \( p \) | 0.000* | 0.001* |

According to Table 4, adolescents’ Subjective Well-Being Scale and all its sub-dimensions and the mother and father Psychological Control Scale scores had a negative and low-level significant relationship \((p<.05)\). As the mother and father Psychological Control Scale score increases, adolescents’ Subjective Well-Being Scale of Satisfaction in Family Relationships, Positive Emotions, Satisfaction in Life, Satisfaction in Relationships with Important Others, and total scores decrease. In other words, as the psychological control of adolescents increases, subjective well-being levels decrease, or as the psychological control of parents decreases, subjective well-being levels of adolescents increase.

Discussion and Conclusion

In the study, it was determined that the subjective well-being of adolescents did not differ significantly according to the gender variable. Eryılmaz and Aypay (2011), Bayram (2018), Şahin (2011), Akgündüz and Bardakoğlu (2012), Keng and Hooi (1995) subjective well-being of teenagers; Dost (2010), Bozkurt and Sönmez (2016), Saraç, İpek, and Çavuş (2018) determined that the current, desired and general meaning of life levels did not show any significant differentiation of existing on gender. It can be said that these studies are similar to the study findings. Tiliouine, Cummins, and Davern (2006) found that women are considerably more satisfied with their own lives than men. Gündoğdu and Yavuzer (2012) expressed that girls have more subjective well-being than boys. It can be said that the studies conducted have different results, and no findings have been found in the literature indicating that gender and subjective well-being are related.
In the study, it was determined that the psychological control that boys perceived from their fathers was greater than that of girls. In the study that Kındap-Tepe and Sayılı (2012) compared parental control and adolescent adjustment variables according to adolescent gender, they found that teenage boys had higher psychological control over their fathers than girls. In Türk’s (2019) study, it was perceived that the psychological control perceived from the father was significantly higher for boys. In the study of Kındap-Tepe and Sayılı (2012) carried out the effectualness and reliability of the psychological control scale, it was observed that boys perceived psychological control higher from parents than girls. Pulat (2011), in his study conducting with teenagers aged 15-17, found that the level perceived by boy teenagers in psychological control from their parents is higher than that of girls. When the findings of the study conducted by Kurt, Sayılı, and Kındap-Tepe (2013) it was seen that boys perceive more psychological control from their parents than girls. These studies support the findings of the research. Fathers may have a more controlled attitude toward boys due to gender-specific differences in adolescent characteristics. On the other hand, depending on the characteristics of the period, teenage boys may perceive their parents as overly controlled, who restrict their desire to exhibit more free behavior. In addition, the father is a role model for the boys. The father’s attitude towards his child has a particular effect on the child’s personality development. The father’s activeness in the family has positively effects on the cognitive skills and basic skills of boys (Telli & Özkan, 2016; Tezel-Şahin, 2007). Fathers are also a significant figure for girls in the family.

Apart from the conclusions of this study, there are researches revealing that psychological control does not change depending on the gender (Kindap-Tepe, Deliser, Kuzan, & İslamoğlu, 2018; Shek, 2007). Büyükşahin (2009) determined that the perception of paternal psychological control is higher in girls than boys in his study, which is also apart from the findings of this study. Based on the findings of these studies, it could be said that gender has a relative effect on psychological control, in which gender predicts psychological control in some situations and does not in some, and it is not effective in every situation.

When examined by age, adolescents that are 14 years old and older being in positive emotions are significantly lower than 10- and 11-years old adolescents. This may be due to the age of 10-11 years in the pre-adolescence period. As age increases, adolescents’ view of the situation changes. In their studies, Şahin (2011) and Özen (2005) stated that there is not a significant difference between subjective well-being scores based on the age of the participants. As Ural et al. (2015) determined in their study, in mother-child relationships situations of warmth and love, aggression and grudge, apathy and neglect, and unparsed rejection differentiate depending on the child’s age, and the mother gives more warmth and love as the child’s age gets lower. Even though there are not many pieces of research that support or contradict these results, based on the research results, it could be said that changes seen in adolescence cause different outcomes in adolescents as the age increases. Physically observed changes may cause negative thoughts in the adolescent. Also, when the fact that adolescents aged 14 are seniors in secondary school is taken into consideration, subjective well-being may have been affected depending on the stress of transition to the next level of education and family or school pressure.
In the study, it was determined that adolescents aged 14 and older perceive significantly higher maternal psychological control than 11 years old adolescents. Tığrak (2017) found that adolescents perceive more maternal psychological control as their age increases. Based on the results of these researches and the study’s findings, it could be said that adolescents’ age and level of psychological control perception are directly related. Additionally, 14-year-old adolescents preparing for exams of transition to the next level of education might have increased their mothers’ control over them and caused adolescents to perceive high-levels of mothers’ psychological control.

It was identified that adolescents who reported their school success as remarkable have higher levelled subjective well-being than those who reported their school success as average. In the study findings of Telef and Ergün (2013), it was stated that high school students who felt academically competent were happier. In his study, Özen (2005) determined that adolescents who reported their school success as remarkable have higher subjective well-being than adolescents who reported their school success as low. Karakoç, Bingöl, and Karaca (2013) determined in their study that the better the success level is, the better adolescent’s positive future expectations and adolescent life satisfaction, adolescent’s positive emotions, adolescent’s satisfaction in relationships with important others and family is. In Çakır’s (2015) study results, it was determined that students who stated they perceive their school success as high have higher subjective well-being than those who stated they perceive their school success as low. In Yarar’s (2019) study it was observed that, as school success perceived increases, student subjective well-being increases as well. The result of this study is similar to the results in the literature. As school success is formed with the effects of various positive variables, it can be said that successful students feeling happy and pleased by their situations is an expected result.

In the study, it was determined that adolescents who stated their school success is average perceive higher parental psychological control than adolescents who stated their school success is remarkably high. In the study aimed to investigate the effect of family attitudes on school success of hyperactive kids aged 7-12, Öztürk (2008) identified that psychological autonomy degrees parents present to their children contribute to the school success of students from both genders. Arcan (2006) identified that psychological autonomy degrees parents present to their children contribute to the school success of girl and boy students. This situation brings to mind that psychological control will harm school success.

It was identified that there is a negative low-leveled significant difference between adolescent’s parental psychological control scores and adolescent’s subjective well-being scores. It was detected that as parental psychological control increases, adolescent’s subjective well-being decreases, or as parental psychological control decreases adolescent’s subjective well-being increases. In Çelik’s (2015) study, it was observed that as adolescent’s psychological control perception from mother and father increases, adolescent’s emotional autonomy level decreases, and adolescent’s well-being is negatively affected by this. In Smetana and Daddis’s (2002) study, they pointed out that as the level of perceived psychological control increases, the adolescent’s thoughts about life get negative, and subjective well-being level decreases. Cui, Morris, Criss, Houlberg, and Silk (2014) stated that parental psychological control is related to aggressive behavior and negatively affects adolescent’s compatibility. When looked at
Bostan and Duru’s (2018) study findings about the relationship between psychological abuse and subjective well-being, it was seen that there is a negatively significant relationship between these two variables, and as psychological abuse level increases, subjective well-being level decreases. Kins, Beyers, Soenens, and Vansteenkiste (2009) detected that as parental psychological control increases, the individual’s well-being decreases. Conger, Conger, and Scaramelle (1997) detected in their study in which they aimed to examine psychological control of parents and siblings, and adolescent adaptation, that psychological control from both parents and siblings cause adolescent’s adaptation problems to increase and their self-confidence to decrease. The studies also show that parental psychological control can cause negative effects on adolescents’ well-being.

It is seen that the studies in the literature revealed that negative emotions increase in children as perceived psychological control from parents increases. For example, Pulat (2011) expressed in his study that as psychological control perceived from parents increase, depression, chronic anxiety, and anger formation increase. In the study, Shek (2007) made longitudinally on the perception of parental psychological control and psychological well-being on Chinese adolescents in Hong Kong, he detected that adolescents with low psychological well-being perceive high-leveled psychological control from both parents. Costa et al. (2016) detected that parental psychological control has a positive relationship with the adolescent’s disappointment and feelings of depression. Nanda et al. (2012) detected in their study in which they studied with kids aged 8-11, there is a significant relationship between parental psychological control and children’s anxiety symptoms. In their study which they made daily evaluations for five days based on 2 kids from 154 families, Kaap-Deeder, Vansteenkiste, Soenens, and Mabbe (2017) detected that autonomy support perception and each one of the psychological control sources have a relationship with changes in daily well-being and sickness. In his study, Barber (1996) detected that psychological control perceived by adolescents rapidly foresee adolescent’s internalized problems (depression) and, in some situations, externalized problems (guilt). In the study Tian and his colleagues (2019) made, they detected a significant and positive relationship between parental psychological control and aggressive behavior. Murray et al. (2014) detected, in their study in which they studied with 8th and 9th graders, that when a parent applies psychological control, the adolescents’ low-quality relationship with the other-gender parent increases the risk of adolescent aggression. This means that if the adolescent perceives maternal psychological control and their relationship with their father is low-quality, or if adolescent perceives paternal psychological control and their relationship with their mother is low-quality; this situation increases the risk of adolescent aggression. It is seen that the studies in the literature and summarized above support the study findings.

As a result of interpretation of the obtained data, it was considered that gender, age, and perception of school success variables most of the time are not affective alone on adolescent subjective well-being and psychological control perceived from parents, and different variables can be an effect, too. Even if it is low, it can be said that adolescent subjective well-being is associated with parents’ psychological control situation. High psychological control can sometimes directly or indirectly reduce the level of adolescent subjective well-being.
Implications

Following suggestions were developed in line with the findings obtained in the study and the information in the literature:

- Considering that the study data are subjects that take into account the family-child relationship, the children and their families; Family education seminars and training to activate positive and supportive parenting behaviors can be organized. Family support programs are vital in terms of guiding the family in child development, determining the needs of families and ensuring that the family fulfills its function fully, ensuring that children are in complete well-being in every development area. Parents may need a guide to help their children and to find educational behavior during this process. In this regard, child development specialists, guidance counselors in schools, and psychological counselors can work together.

- It can be suggested that teachers, school administrators and families cooperate in order to increase the positive feelings of students in schools and provide opportunities that can satisfy their psychological needs.

- Experimental studies can be conducted to monitor the effects of family training and projects carried out on parents’ psychological control and on the subjective well-being of the adolescent over time. Adolescents’ well-being can be investigated regarding the different variables. Effects of parental psychological control can be examined.

Statement of Responsibility

Ayşenur Aydin; methodology, resources, data collection, validation, analysis, writing-original draft, writing-review & editing, and visualization. Arzu Özyürek; methodology, resources, validation, analysis, writing-original draft, writing-review & editing, visualization, supervision.
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