WHO DO CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS MENTION IN THEIR EMOTIONALLY-CHARGED MEMORIES? A STUDY ON THE ROLES OF URBAN AND RURAL SETTINGS, AND MATERNAL CHARACTERISTICS

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ABSTRACT

WHO DO CHILDREN AND ADOLESCENTS MENTION IN THEIR EMOTIONALLY-CHARGED MEMORIES? A STUDY ON THE ROLES OF URBAN AND RURAL SETTINGS, AND MATERNAL CHARACTERISTICS

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The current study focused on who children mentioned in their emotionally-charged memories and the length of those memories. This study examined the role of urban-rural areas and maternal demographic characteristics on these variables. This study, part of a TUBITAK project TAÇEP, included 1662 mother-child pairs. Mothers and children were asked to write one happy and one unhappy memory separately. The people mentioned in these memories were coded under three types: self-related, other-related, and we-related words. Furthermore, the length of memories was calculated. Then, the roles of age and gender on people mentioned in the memories and the length of those memories were examined. The number of people mentioned and the length of memories increased as age increased, then decreased with entering high school. On the other hand, it was found that girls talked about themselves and others more, used more we-related words, and told longer memories than boys. The role of urban-rural context, mother's employment status, and mother's education level was tested with Three-Way ANOVA, and it was found that the mother's education level had a significant role in the length of memories and people mentioned in these memories. In addition, children of educated and unemployed mothers living in rural areas referred to more people in their memories and wrote longer than children of uneducated and employed mothers

living in urban areas. Moreover, simple linear regression analyses revealed that maternal autobiographical memory characteristics significantly affected children's autobiographical memory characteristics. The findings were discussed in the light of the literature.

Keywords: emotionally-charged memories, autobiographical memory, maternal employment, maternal education, children

ÖZ

ÇOCUKLAR VE ERGENLER DUYGU YÜKLÜ ANILARINDA KİMLERDEN BAHSEDİYORLAR? KENTSEL VE KIRSAL ALANLARIN VE ANNE ÖZELLİKLERİNİN ROLÜ ÜZERİNE BİR ÇALIŞMA

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Bu çalışmada çocuk ve ergenlerin duygu yüklü otobiyografik anılarında kimlerden bahsettiklerine ve bu anıların uzunluklarına odaklanılmış ve kent-kır ile anne demografik özelliklerinin bu değişkenler üzerindeki rolü incelenmiştir. Bir TÜBİTAK projesinin parçası olarak gerçekleştirilen bu çalışmada, 1662 anne-çocuk çifti yer almıştır. Anne ve çocuklardan ayrı ayrı bir mutlu ve bir mutsuz anı yazmaları istenmiştir. Ardından elde edilen yazılı veriler anı olup olmamalarına göre kategorize edilmiş ve bu anılarda bahsedilen kişiler; kendilikle ile ilgili, diğerleri ile ilgili ve biz ile ilgili kelimeler olmak üzere 3 ayrı başlıkta kodlanmıştır. Ayrıca anı uzunlukları hesaplanmıştır. Ardından yaş ve cinsiyetin anılarda bahsedilen kişiler ve anıların uzunlukları üzerindeki rollerine bakılmıştır. Yaş arttıkça bahsedilen kişilerin ve anı uzunlukları arttığı ancak lise dönemi ile birlikte bu artışın yerini azalmaya bıraktığı görülmüştür. Diğer yandan, kız çocuklarının anlamlı bir şekilde oğlan çocuklarından daha fazla kendilerinden ve diğer insanlardan bahsettikleri, biz ile ilgili kelimeleri daha fazla kullandıkları ve daha uzun anılar anlattıkları bulgulanmıştır. Kent-kır bağlamının, anne çalışma durumu ve anne eğitim seviyesinin rolü Üç Yönlü ANOVA ile test edilmiş ve her iki anı türünde bahsedilen kişiler ve anı uzunluklarında anne eğitim seviyesinin önemli bir rolü olduğu görülmüştür. Ayrıca, etkileşimlere

bakıldığında kırda yaşayan eğitimli ve çalışmayan annelerin çocuklarının kentte yaşayan eğitimsiz ve çalışan annelere kıyasla anılarda daha fazla insanlara atıfta bulundukları ve daha uzun anılar yazdıkları bulgulanmıştır. Ek olarak, anne otobiyografik bellek karakteristiklerinin çocukların otobiyografik bellek karakteristikleri üzerinde önemli bir etkisi olduğu basit doğrusal regresyon analizleri ile bulgulanmıştır. Bulgular, literatür ışığında tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: duygu yüklü anılar, otobiyografik bellek, anne çalışma durumu, anne eğitimi, çocuklar

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

METU	Middle East Technical University
SES	Socioeconomic Status
TAÇEP	Türkiye Aile, Çocuk ve Ergen Projesi
TÜBİTAK	The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Türkiye
TÜİK	Turkish Statistical Institute

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Overview

Autobiographical memory refers to the recollection of specific personal events and experiences that are personally meaningful and integrated into a coherent personal story (Levine et al., 2002; Tulving, 2002). Autobiographical memory development begins with small talks about past experiences among parents and children (Reese, 2002) and continues throughout the lifespan (Fivush, 2011).

There are individual and societal differences in autobiographical memory development. For example, autobiographical memory development varies by age and gender. For instance, older children tend to recount their memories longer, more detailed, and more thematically coherent (Fivush, 2007, 2011), and girls tell more socially oriented memories (Fivush, 1991; Buckner & Fivush, 2000). Socioeconomic status, particularly maternal education and employment (Kalaycıoğlu et al., 2010), also influences children's development (Lareau, 2011), especially cognitive development. Mothers' education level predicts their children's cognitive skills (Küntay & Ahtam, 2004; Davis-Kean, 2005), and maternal employment positively impacts children's development (Evans & Kim, 2013). Therefore, it has been thought that the mother's education level and employment status might impact the development of the autobiographical memory system, although no studies specifically investigate this relationship.

On the other hand, autobiographical memory differs according to cultural contexts. In Western cultures, adults narrate their more specific memories longer and more detailed, while in Eastern cultures, adults focus more on their relationships in their

memories (Wang, 2001; Wang & Conway, 2004). In addition to cross-cultural differences, variations between urban and rural settings within a culture are also considered. People living in urban prioritize individuality, but those living in rural give more importance to relatedness (Sunar & Fişek, 2005; Aycicegi-Dinn & Caldwell-Harris, 2013), so urban and rural settings could differ in terms of autobiographical memory development; however, research on urban-rural differences in autobiographical memory is quite limited, representing a gap in the literature.

Although remembering is a universal cognitive ability, the memories and the content of these memories may differ depending on the individual and their cultural background. Considering these gaps in the literature, this study investigated the roles of urban-rural differences, maternal education, and maternal employment on the children's autobiographical memory characteristics. Additionally, autobiographical memory characteristics were examined depending on age and gender. It was also examined whether mothers' autobiographical memory characteristics predicted the children's autobiographical memory characteristics. Results indicated that although no difference was observed between urban and rural settings, maternal education level significantly affected the children's autobiographical memory development. In addition, maternal employment had no role in the children's memories. Therefore, in the Turkish representative sample, maternal employment may not be an indicator of high socioeconomic status. In addition, it was observed that children's autobiographical memory development differed depending on age and gender. Also, although memories were collected from mothers and children separately, similarities were detected between the memories of mothers and children. The following sections state detailed information regarding the literature review, design, and the current study's findings.

1.2. The development of autobiographical memory

It has been reported that fetuses can perceive external sounds while they are still in the womb, and after birth, they can distinguish these sounds they heard before birth (DeCasper & Spence, 1986). Based on this information, babies can remember the sounds they heard before birth, demonstrating their ability to recall. In a study by

Rovee-Collier and Hayne (2000), a specific mobile was shown to 3-month-old infants, who were encouraged to kick when they saw it. Then, when they showed the same mobile again after a certain period, it was observed that the babies kicked again. Although this situation is thought to occur due to classical conditioning and has been criticized, other studies have also found that babies' cognitive skills develop more with age, enabling them to retain longer. For instance, in a study by Bauer and colleagues (2000), 9-month-old babies were shown certain movements in a specific order. When the babies were expected to repeat these movements weeks later, it was observed that they imitated them. These two studies are critical because they show that simple events can be remembered in infancy, but it is important to notice that these memories are episodic memories, that is, memories that occur at a specific time and place (Tulving, 1985). It is not yet possible to talk about autobiographical memory development.

In the first years of babies' lives, their brain structures, namely their hippocampus, which is responsible for storing information and events, are not yet mature enough (Gilmore et al., 2018). Babies do not remember what they experienced in the first three years of their lives, when their speech abilities have not yet developed, in their adulthood. The inability to remember approximately the first three years of life is called infantile or childhood amnesia (Rubin, 2000). It is believed that childhood amnesia may have many causes, including neurological, cognitive, and linguistic (Nelson & Fivush, 2004). Alongside neurological and cognitive development, while the formation of the self occurs, it becomes easier to organize the events experienced in the brain. Thus, it becomes possible to remember experienced events, that is, memories (Howe & Courage, 1997). In addition, the hippocampus has not yet matured at this age, causing memories not to be recorded in the brain and, therefore, not to be recalled (Fivush et al., 1995; Hayne et al., 2015). Furthermore, babies' language development is not sufficient in the first years of their lives, which causes them to be unable to have memory conversations and, therefore, not to be able to remember the first years of their lives (Fivush & Hudson, 1990; Han et al., 1998). When children are just starting to talk, they start talking about past events with significant adults, especially mothers, who are generally the primary caregivers. When babies start making two-word sentences, that is, when they are 16-18 months old (Bloom, 1991), they also start talking about the past (Reese, 2002). However, these conversations are

not in-depth conversations, and the babies make small contributions to conversations about the past. Children between the ages of 3 and 5 start to talk more extensively about the past (Fivush, 2007). Studies with adults have found that memories recalled when asked about their first memories are approximately between the ages of 3 and 5 (Davis et al., 2008; Zaman & Fivush, 2011). Unsurprisingly, the period when children begin to contribute more to memory conversations coincides roughly with the period when they recall their earliest memories. After the age of 5, that is, with the end of the preschool period, children can narrate their own stories (Fivush, 2007, 2011). At the end of this period, children tell longer and more detailed memories, indicating that their autobiographical memory abilities are developing (Fivush, 2011).

With the development of the hippocampus and language skills, experienced events become remembered. After the first memories are remembered, many memories about life are also stored, contributing to the formation of the self. In short, although memory development begins in the womb (DeCasper & Spence, 1986), autobiographical memory development begins around the preschool age, alongside language acquisition (Reese, 2002; Fivush, 2007; Davis et al., 2008; Zaman & Fivush, 2011), and continues into adulthood. In other words, a positive correlation exists between children's aging and autobiographical memory development.

Differences in the content of memories begin to emerge from early ages, depending on age differences. For instance, in a study conducted with 40-month-old and 70-month-old children (Buckner & Fivush, 2000), 70-month-old children talked more about themselves and other people than 40-month-olds during conversations about the past with their parents. Even at a young age, the role of age in autobiographical memory is evident. In a study conducted with preschool-aged children (Han et al., 1998), 4 to 6-year-old children were asked to share their memories, and 6-year-olds provided longer narratives about their past experiences, reflecting that as children grow older, the length of their memories increases. On the other hand, from early childhood to young adulthood, there is a noticeable increase in the elaboration of episodic memories (Billingsley et al., 2002). A study conducted with children aged 7-13 (Piolino et al., 2007) found that episodic memory development increased with age, and it was noticed that older children recount more detailed memories.

With the onset of adolescence, cognitive development, identity development, and autobiographical memory development accelerate. Adolescence is characterized by the emergence of autonomy, separation from the family, and accelerated individuation (Freud, 1958; Blos, 1979; Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986). For healthy development, adolescents must separate from the family and become individualized (Kroger, 1998). On the other hand, many studies underline that it is essential for adolescents to establish close ties with their families for their mental health and well-being (Chou, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Chirkov et al., 2003). In other words, the formation of self and individuation in adolescence is most beneficial when emotional connections with others are also maintained (Bartle & Anderson, 1991). Adolescence is a period in which individuality is at the forefront, but connections with other people must also be maintained.

During this complex period, the contents of memories also change. As Kagitcibasi (2005) emphasizes, the content of autobiographical memories should evolve during adolescence, incorporating both individual and relational themes. This means that autobiographical narratives should reflect both personal experiences and references to other people as identity development accelerates during adolescence and the relational circle expands.

In summary, while children are growing up, their cognitive skills are evolving; thus, autobiographical memory development accelerates. Alongside cognitive skill differences, several additional factors also influence autobiographical memory development. Gender, cultural context, socioeconomic status of families, and mothers' autobiographical memory features can affect the children's development of autobiographical memory. These factors affecting autobiographical memory development are explained in detail in the following sections.

1.3. Mother-child memory conversations

The nuclear family significantly contributes to the child's autobiographical memory development. Studies emphasize that both mothers and fathers contribute to their children's social, cognitive, and narrative identity development; however, mothers,

who are generally primary caregivers, have a more significant impact on the development of their children (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991; Zaman & Fivush, 2011). The child's autobiographical memory development is affected by memory conversations between the mother and the child, and the contents of these memory conversations cause different results in autobiographical memory development (Buckner & Fivush, 2000; Fivush, 2011).

The literature on mother-child memory conversations shows two types of mothers: high elaborative mothers and low elaborative mothers. High elaborative mothers frequently engage in memory conversations with their children, talk about past experiences in long and detailed ways, provide space for their children to contribute to the conversations, and ask questions to obtain child-centered memory conversations. Thus, high elaborative mothers play a supportive role in helping their children gain autonomy in conversations about past experiences. On the other hand, low elaborative mothers talk less about the past with their children, provide very few details during those conversations, and usually ask questions that require specific answers (Reese et al., 1993; Reese & Fivush, 1993; Leichtman et al., 2000; Wang & Leichtman, 2000; Wang, 2001; Fivush, 2007). Compared to high elaborate mothers, low elaborative mothers center their children less in their memory conversations. The direct impact of mother-child memory conversations on children's autobiographical memory development has been investigated, and research has found that children of high elaborative mothers retain memories for a longer time. Additionally, children learn how to represent and narrate their past from their mothers during those conversations (Reese et al., 1993; Leichtman et al., 2000).

In addition to the short-term effects of memory conversations, its long-term effects have also been a matter of curiosity. A longitudinal study investigated the difference between the beginning and the end of the preschool period by examining mother-child memory conversations at two different times. Children of high elaborative mothers provided more details while conversations with their mothers at the end of the preschool period. Moreover, children were asked to narrate their memories to an interviewer at the end of the preschool, and it was reported that children of high elaborative mothers narrated more detailed and coherent stories (Reese, 2002; Fivush

et al., 2006). Two meta-analysis studies (McCabe & Peterson, 1991; Waters et al., 2019) also found that children of high elaborative mothers exhibited high elaborative characteristics; on the other hand, children of low elaborative mothers exhibited low elaborative characteristics and remembered less about the past (Van Bergen et al., 2020). Additionally, a study conducted with preschool children found that mothers' high elaboration predicted the children's high elaboration during both memory conversations with their mother and recounting with an interviewer (Alkis et al., 2024). In summary, mother-child memory conversations may have an impact on autobiographical memory narration in adulthood (Hudson, 1990; Fivush, 1991; Fivush, 2007). Studies have concluded that mothers' elaborativeness during memory conversations predicts autobiographical memory abilities in childhood and adolescence (Reese et al., 1993; Reese, 2002).

Parents, especially mothers, also teach their children what to give importance in life through memory conversations, underlining what is essential in past events. For example, parents were asked to share a memory with their children, and mothers narrated more socially oriented stories than fathers. By mentioning social and relational themes in their memories, mothers indicate to their children that these themes are important. In addition, mothers' emphasis on social and relational themes in their memories predicts the content of their children's memories (Fiese & Skillman, 2000). In a retrospective study, adults who narrated long and detailed memories, mentioned relational topics, and included both themselves and others in their memories reported that their parents, especially their mothers, were high elaborative during memory conversations in childhood (Sahin & Mebert, 2013). Many studies have concluded a positive correlation between the topics mothers emphasize during memory conversations and what children talk about in their memories (Sahin-Acar et al., 2017).

From the time children start making two-word sentences, they start talking to their parents, especially their mothers, about their past experiences (Reese, 2002). The influence of these conversations on the development of autobiographical memory in children is well-documented, with much research emphasizing the role of mother-child memory conversations. However, there is a notable scarcity of research that

specifically examines the similarities and differences between mothers' and their children's individual memories when assessed separately.

On the other hand, studies have found that mother-child memory conversations differ depending on the gender of the children (Fivush, 1991; Buckner & Fivush, 2000). The following section describes gender differences in autobiographical memory development and the factors that cause these differences.

1.4. Gender differences

In many societies, the norm is that women are the primary caregivers for children, so mothers have to raise children. On the other hand, men are expected to provide financial support. For this reason, girls are raised from early ages, consciously or unconsciously, with the expectation that they will become mothers. This phenomenon can even be observed in parent-child memory conversations (Buckner & Fivush, 2000). Parents talked about more socially connected topics with daughters during memory conversations (Fivush, 1991; Buckner & Fivush, 2000); on the other hand, they tend to focus on success and individual development with their sons (Buckner & Fivush, 2000).

The same study (Buckner & Fivush, 2000) found that parents referred more to their daughters during memory conversations. In light of this finding, parents emphasize their daughters' identities more during these conversations. Moreover, mothers used the word “we” more frequently during memory conversations with their daughters to highlight the group identity. Children's contributions during memory conversations were also examined (Buckner & Fivush, 2000), and it was found that girls mentioned both themselves and others more frequently than boys. Just as mothers mentioned "we" more in mother-daughter conversations, girls also referred to the group more frequently during their conversations with both parents; that is, they use the word "we" more compared to boys. Those findings concluded that parents’ memory conversations differ based on the gender of the children, and children also exhibit gender differences during these conversations. Supporting these results, numerous studies have shown that parents recount richer and more detailed memories, use more words, and refer to

other people more frequently when talking to their daughters compared to their sons (Reese & Fivush, 1993; Fiese & Skillman, 2000). As emphasized, parents' memory conversations with their children predicts children's autobiographical memory abilities in adulthood (Reese et al., 1993; Reese, 2002). Consequently, girls focus more on socially connected themes in their autobiographical memories, while boys prefer more individualistic themes. Additionally, girls mention other people more frequently in their memories, whereas boys mention others less. A study conducted with preschool children in Korea, China, and America (Han et al., 1998) supports these findings. Gender differences were observed only among American children, with American girls recounting longer memories than American boys. Moreover, in the same study, boys talked more about themselves, while girls talked more about others. The gender differences observed in the memories of American children have been attributed to American mothers producing richer and more detailed content in their memory conversations with their daughters compared to their sons (Reese et al., 1996; Haden et al., 1997) and providing more explanations during these conversations (Wang, 2001).

Gender differences have also been observed in pre-adolescent studies. In a study with 8-year-old children (Buckner & Fivush, 1998), girls mentioned others more frequently in their memories compared to boys. Although gender differences begin to appear at the beginning of the preschool period (Buckner & Fivush, 2000), these gender differences become more pronounced towards the end of the preschool period (Buckner & Fivush, 1998) and persist into adulthood (Davis, 1999; Bauer et al., 2003). In adulthood, women recount longer and more detailed memories, focus on relationally oriented topics (Davis, 1999; Bauer et al., 2003), and provide more detailed interpersonal memories, while men tend to talk about personal events (Davis, 1999). Furthermore, women engage in more memory conversations compared to men (Webster, 1995), remember emotionally charged memories more easily (Davis, 1999), and mention other people more frequently in their narratives (Cross & Madson, 1997). The tendency to reminisce more among women is suggested to be driven by a desire to enhance intimacy (Webster, 1995). While men’s memories are reported to focus on achievement-oriented content (Thorne, 1995), women tend to talk about other people

and their relationships (Cross & Madson, 1997). Conversely, men focus on themselves and recount individualistic memories (Thorne, 1995).

In summary, although some studies do not find gender differences in autobiographical memory (Bloise & Johnson, 2007; Buckner & Fivush, 2000), the majority of the literature emphasizes that child gender has been found to affect the content of mother-child memory conversations and, thus, the child's autobiographical memory development. The content of memory conversations differs depending on the gender of children, and on a large scale, gender differences can be seen in autobiographical memory. As the nuclear family has a role in autobiographical memory development, cultural context also has a role. Depending on the cultural context, the content of memory conversations changes, and thus, the development of children's autobiographical memory is affected (Mullen & Yi, 1995; Wang, 2001; Wang & Fivush, 2005). The role of culture in autobiographical memory is discussed in the following section.

1.5. Cultural differences

The culture in which one lives draws the boundaries of adulthood and emphasizes "normalcy," acting by these boundaries. In order to meet the desired adulthood criteria, it becomes necessary to raise babies and children accordingly (Fivush, 2011). If the culture underscores the importance of family bonds for an adult, then children are raised with an emphasis on the significance of family from early ages. Conversely, if the culture prioritizes career success for an adult, then children are raised with a focus on achievement. In short, babies and children are raised in a manner deemed "normal" by cultural standards. Autobiographical memory, which is influenced by numerous factors, is also affected by culture. If the culture values interdependency, relational themes are likely to appear in a person's memories, and others are more likely to be mentioned. Conversely, if the culture values independence, it is possible that individualistic themes might be seen in a person's memories, and the individuals might talk more about themselves in their memories. This section examined the differences between Eastern and Western cultures within the framework of the autobiographical memory development literature. In addition, the possibility of differences between

urban and rural areas within the same culture has been examined within the autobiographical memory literature framework.

1.5.1. East and West differences

As a result of the influence of culture on the self, an individual's coding, storage, and retrieval of autobiographical information are shaped; consequently, the accessibility, style, and content of information in memory are affected (Wang, 2006a). Many Western countries place a high value on autonomy and individuality. This emphasis shapes individuals' cognitive development within these societies, resulting in individuals thinking more individually (Nelson, 2003). On the other hand, many Eastern cultures emphasize relatedness and group solidarity, and individuals are raised with an emphasis on the importance of relationships with others (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Wagar & Cohen, 2003). Therefore, traces of the culture in which a person lives are evident in the person's self and, consequently, in their autobiographical memory.

Cultural comparisons are a fascinating subject and hold a significant place in autobiographical memory literature. In Western culture, mothers are more elaborative and focus more on the child during memory conversations with their children. On the other hand, in Eastern culture, mothers are less detailed, adopt a didactic attitude, and evaluate their children's experiences from a moral perspective during those conversations (Mullen & Yi, 1995; Wang, 2001; Wang & Fivush, 2005). For instance, a study comparing Korean and Canadian mothers' conversations with their children found that Korean mothers led the conversation; in contrast, Canadian mothers played a supportive role, encouraging their children to participate in conversation (Choi, 1992). Another study examining emotionally-charged memory conversations of American and Chinese mother-child dyads reported that American mothers talked to their children more autonomously; on the other hand, Chinese mothers adopted a more didactic approach (Wang, 2001). In another study which was examining Euro-American and Asian mother-child conversations, Euro-American mothers were child-centered, high elaborative, and allowed the child to participate in the conversation. Asian mothers, on the other hand, were more mother-centered, emphasizing the

importance of other people and drawing attention to social norms in these conversations (Wang & Fivush, 2005; Wang, 2006b).

While culture, which affects the content of the memory conversations of mother-child dyads, also can affect the development of children's autobiographical memory. For instance, 3-year-old Chinese children mention others more frequently than their American peers (Wang, 2001). In another study conducted with American, Chinese, and Korean children aged 4-6, American and Chinese children told longer stories than Korean children (Han et al., 1998). Cultural differences are not only evident in young children but also in young adults. In a study conducted with Euro-American and Taiwanese university students, participants were asked to recall their earliest memories, and Euro-American students mentioned themselves more often in their memories compared to Taiwanese students, who mentioned others more frequently. Additionally, participants were asked to recall their earliest memories involving their mothers and families. The pattern remained the same interestingly: Euro-American students focused more on themselves, while Taiwanese students focused more on others (Wang, 2006b). Euro-American participants talk longer, more detailed, and more specific memories, mentioning themselves more, whereas East Asian participants focus more on their relationships and told semantic memories (Wang, 2001; Wang & Conway, 2004).

In cultures that value individuality, such as America, memory contents are found to be more individualistic, with a greater focus on the self. On the other hand, in cultures that value relationships and bonds, such as China, memory contents revolve around social interactions and mention significant others more frequently (Wang, 2001; Wang & Conway, 2004). As a result, cultural differences affect autobiographical memory.

It is not possible to define Türkiye strictly as an Eastern or Western country. Türkiye has a mixed structure, displaying both individualistic and collectivistic characteristics (Göregenli, 1997). Similarly, Israel is also a country with a mixed structure (Sagy et al., 2001). In a study conducted with Israeli and Euro-American university students, Israel followed a similar pattern to Eastern countries in terms of autobiographical memory characteristics (Gur-Yaish & Wang, 2006). Israeli university students

mentioned social events more frequently and wrote shorter memories compared to Euro-American students.

While the role of cultural differences on autobiographical memory has been reported, urban-rural differences in the same culture may also affect autobiographical memory, which is explained in detail in the following section.

1.5.2. Urban and rural differences

Just as there are cross-cultural differences in autobiographical memory, it is also possible to see differences between urban and rural areas within the same culture. However, autobiographical memory studies are generally conducted with urban participants (Han et al., 1998; Wang, 2001), resulting in a gap in the literature concerning rural areas due to the difficulty in reaching these populations.

Relationality is more valued in rural areas, while individuality is more important in urban areas. Dragonas (1983; cited in Triandis et al., 1990) compared big cities, small towns, and rural towns and found that individualistic characteristics decreased from big cities to rural towns. A study conducted in Kenya reported that tribal communities show more collectivistic features than the capital city (Ma & Schoeneman, 1997). In a study conducted in Türkiye, more collectivistic characteristics were more prevalent in rural compared to urban areas (Aycicegi-Dinn & Caldwell-Harris, 2013). The findings indicated more emphasis on connectedness and interdependence in rural areas, while in urban areas, individual goals and achievement are more valued (Sunar & Fişek, 2005).

The number of studies comparing urban and rural areas in the context of autobiographical memory is quite limited. In a study investigating the earliest memories of Chinese adults, the difference between urban and rural was examined, and it was found that adults living in urban areas recalled their earliest memories from earlier ages (Wang et al., 1998). Results supporting these findings were obtained in a study conducted on a Turkish sample (Göz et al., 2017). Children aged 10-13 were asked to write their earliest memories, and children living in rural areas recounted

memories from a later period in their lives. The same study found that children living in rural areas mentioned other people more frequently in their earliest memories. In another study with a Turkish sample, two cities were selected, and mother-child reminiscing was compared in these cities. It was observed that mothers in cities with more traditional characteristics were less elaborative during these memory conversations (Sahin-Acar & Leichtman, 2015). These two studies suggested that in culturally traditional regions in Türkiye, mothers are less elaborative during memory conversations, and consequently, children's earliest memories date back to later periods.

Although urban-rural differences have not been examined frequently in the autobiographical memory literature, a few studies have found differences between urban and rural areas. For instance, people living in rural areas are more traditional (Aycicegi-Dinn & Caldwell-Harris, 2013), mothers are low elaborative during reminiscing with their children (Sahin-Acar & Leichtman, 2015), and people living there recall their first memories later in life (Wang et al., 1998; Göz et al., 2017). As a result, it is expected that differences might be seen in autobiographical memories in the context of urban and rural areas, but it is also obvious that there is a gap in the literature.

In addition to cultural differences, socioeconomic differences may also affect the child's development. The following section discusses the roles of the mother's level of education and employment status, which are indicators of the mother's socioeconomic status, on the child's development.

1.6. Mothers' socioeconomic characteristics: Education and employment

Socioeconomic status (SES) is a concept that refers to individuals' economic, social, and occupational positions within society and consists of components such as education level and income level (Kalaycıoğlu et al., 2010; Diemer & Li, 2011). It is well-known that these components play a significant role in children's development (Hoff, 2003; Lareau, 2011). Parents with high SES can provide their children with more cognitive and emotional stimuli and offer opportunities for self-expression.

Consequently, children's cognitive and emotional development is positively affected (Lareau, 2011). Although mothers with high SES teach their children more words and complex language structures, children's language and cognitive development increase in light of this supportive environment (Hoff, 2003). Additionally, highly educated parents have more knowledge about child development, communicate more effectively with their children, and support their children with high levels of cognitive stimulation (Davis-Kean, 2005). They also offer explanations that support children's cognitive, social, and language development (Kagitcibasi, 1989). For instance, a study conducted in Türkiye reported that highly educated mothers preferred more advanced verbal communication skills when talking to their children compared to less educated mothers (Küntay & Ahtam, 2004). In short, as the mothers' level of education increases, the opportunities offered to the children increase, and, as a result, the children's development, especially their cognitive development, is positively affected. Conversely, parents with low SES are often unable to provide sufficient resources and support to their children, which negatively impacts children's cognitive development. Moreover, low-income families face more stress, which negatively affects children's development (Evans & Kim, 2013). In light of the literature, it can be said that compared to high SES parents, low SES parents are less able to support their children's development. Low SES parents, specifically mothers, have difficulty taking on a supportive role in their children's development, especially their cognitive development, as the mothers have to cope with many stress factors in daily life, especially financial stress.

SES may impact autobiographical memory development; however, many studies in the autobiographical memory literature have been conducted with middle SES participants and highly educated Western mothers (Fivush, 2011). Since the proportion of working mothers is significantly higher in Western countries compared to Eastern countries (Han et al., 1998), there is more emphasis on working mothers in the autobiographical memory literature. For example, a study by Wang (2001) involved 47 mothers, all of whom had at least a college degree.

Studies involving mothers with lower educational levels or who are not employed are quite scarce in the autobiographical memory literature. Additionally, no known studies

compare mothers' educational level or employment status in the context of autobiographical memory. Therefore, in order to fill this gap in the autobiographical memory literature, studies investigating the roles of the mothers' education level and employment status on the children's memory development are needed.

Many factors affecting children's autobiographical memory development have been mentioned so far. The roles of the children's age and gender, the type of residence, and the mothers' education level and employment status, which are indicators of SES, on autobiographical memory development have been underlined. In the last section, emotionally-charged memories are mentioned, and the differences between positive and negative memories are discussed within the framework of the literature.

1.7. Emotionally-charged memories

Emotionally-charged memories are those that are emotionally intense and are typically more vividly remembered, detailed, and easily retained after a long period (Levine & Pizarro, 2004; Brewin, 2007). Early mother-child memory conversations influence the content of emotionally-charged memories.

When talking about positive memories, mothers tend to ask more closed-ended questions, focusing on what happened during the event, whereas when talking about negative memories, mothers ask more open-ended questions and elaborate on the event more (Fivush, 2007). In other words, a more in-depth conversation takes place when mothers talk about negative experiences with their children. Furthermore, it can be inferred that mothers aim to create a shared history and maintain emotional bonds while talking about positive memories. On the other hand, when talking about negative memories, mothers tend to take on a teaching role and try to teach their children how to handle these negative situations. For instance, when mothers talk about their experiences of going to the park with their children as a happy moment, they ask their children more superficial questions about this experience. However, if there was an incident in the park where the child cried, mothers discuss this issue in more detail during their memory conversations and teach their children a lesson through this conversation.

Due to these differences in mother-child emotionally-charged memory conversations, the content of positive and negative memories is anticipated to differ in later life (Fivush, 2007). For instance, in a study conducted with adults, they were asked to describe one positive and one negative memory, and it was found that in positive memories, they described more achievement-oriented memories and talked more about themselves. On the other hand, they narrated their negative memories with more relational themes and talked more about other people. (Pillemer et al., 2007). In light of this information, mother-child conversations about positive and negative experiences might also be reflected in positive and negative memory expressions in adulthood. Therefore, children were expected to talk about their negative memories with more words than positive memories. Also, they would talk about other people more in their negative memories and themselves in their positive memories in light of the literature. However, in this study, no direct comparison was made to see the differences between positive and negative memories. Instead that, this information was provided to inform of possible differences that may be encountered in positive and negative memories. This study focused on who children talked about in emotionally-charged memories and examined the roles of culture and socioeconomic status, as well as gender and age-related changes. The study's hypotheses are given in the following section.

1.8. The current study

The first aim of the current study is to examine the gender differences in the people children mentioned in their emotionally-charged memories and the length of these memories in light of the autobiographical memory literature. It is hypothesized that girls are expected to narrate longer memories and mention other people more frequently. On the other hand, it is hypothesized that boys are expected to narrate more about themselves in their emotionally-charged memories. The usage of the word "we" is also thought to vary by gender.

The second aim of this research is to investigate the parallelism between the development of autobiographical memory and children's ages in order to support findings in the literature. As age increases, it is expected that the lengths of the

memories also increase, and children narrate more about themselves and others in their memories. The usage of the word "we" is also expected to vary by age.

This research aims to examine the roles of urban-rural differences, maternal education level, and maternal employment status on children's autobiographical memory development. It is hypothesized that urban-rural differences, a topic with limited research in the literature, may influence the autobiographical memory development of children. It is hypothesized that children living in urban areas are raised with more individualistic approaches and, therefore, are expected to talk more about themselves in their memories. Conversely, children living in rural areas are known to be raised with more collectivistic approaches and emphasizing relationships; thus, children in rural areas are expected to talk more about other people in their memories. Additionally, children living in urban areas are expected to narrate longer memories. The usage of the word "we" is also thought to differ between urban and rural settings.

It is known that as maternal education levels increase, mothers play a more supportive role in their children's cognitive development. However, to the best of our knowledge, the role of maternal education level on children's autobiographical memory development has not been researched. Therefore, this study examines the roles of maternal education level on the people children mentioned and the lengths of children's emotionally-charged memories. Children of highly educated mothers are expected to write longer memories and mention themselves and other people more frequently, and the usage of the word "we" might also show differences.

Maternal employment status is considered an indicator of high socioeconomic status, and similar to highly educated mothers, maternal employment is thought to have a positive effect on children's development. As is known in the autobiographical memory literature, no study has investigated the role of maternal employment status. To fill this gap in the literature, this study examines the roles of maternal employment status on the people children mentioned and the lengths of children's emotionally-charged memories. Children of working mothers are expected to write longer memories and mention themselves and other people more frequently in their memories, and the usage of the word "we" will show differences.

Exploratorily, this research also examines whether the characteristics of mothers' memories predict the characteristics of their children's memories. It is expected that children of mothers who write longer memories might also write longer memories, children of mothers who talk more about themselves in their memories might also talk more about themselves, and mothers' mentions of other people more in their memories might predict the amount of mention of other people in their children's memories. Additionally, it is thought that mothers' usage of the word "we" might influence the use of the word "we" in their children's memories.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1. Participants

This study is part of a TÜBİTAK 1003 project titled "The Effects of Parenting Attitudes and Parent-Child Interaction on Child and Adolescent Developmental Outcomes" (Project code: 118K033). The aim of this project was to investigate the effects of parenting attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors on children's and adolescents' development in a Turkish representative sample. A longitudinal study was conducted, and in Time 1, data was collected from 186 schools in 61 cities between January 2022 and June 2022. This thesis study was conducted with data collected in Time 2, which was collected between March 2023 and June 2023.

In Time 1, children ranging from the 1st to 11th grades and their mothers were reached, and data were collected from 5988 mothers and 6211 children. Before Time 2 data collection, a massive earthquake deeply affected 11 provinces. Twenty-four schools participating in the project in eight provinces (Adana, Diyarbakır, Elazığ, Gaziantep, Hatay, Kahramanmaraş, Malatya, and Şanlıurfa) affected by the earthquake, and mothers and children from these schools were excluded from the project in Time 2. In addition, in Time 2, some mothers and children did not want to participate. Thereby, in Time 2, 55 cities were visited, and 3955 mothers and 4315 children were reached from 648 different schools.

Since autobiographical memories were collected in narrative format and quantifying the qualitative characteristics should take enormous effort and time, it was decided to use a subsample representing the big data (see details in the Procedure part). Therefore, 40% of Time 1 data were randomly selected, and a subsample was created.

This subsample consists of 2052 pairs of mothers and children. Since the scales used in this study were given to children from the 4th grade, there are 1672 pairs of mothers (M_{age} = 39.97, *SD* = 5.61, 38 of the age information is missing) and children (M_{age} = 13.63, *SD* = 2.54, ranged between 9 and 19 years old). 53.6% of the children were female (N_{female} = 897, N_{male} = 775). Detailed information about the grades of children and levels of schools in terms of gender can be seen in Table 1 and Table 2, respectively.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of Children and Adolescents in terms of Grade Level

Variable	Grade									
Gender	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	Total
Female	85	95	107	104	121	86	103	105	91	897
Male	101	94	91	103	75	77	85	77	72	775
Total	186	189	198	207	196	163	188	182	163	1672

Table 2

Demographic Characteristics of Children and Adolescents in terms of School-Level

Variable	School-Level			
Gender	Primary School	Secondary School	High School	Total
Female	85	427	385	897
Male	101	363	311	775
Total	186	790	696	1672

Of the 1672 mothers, according to the education levels of mothers, 37 mothers were illiterate and filled out the questionnaires through the help of researchers (2,2%). Forty mothers were literate but had no formal education (2,4%), 431 had a primary school degree (25,8%), 283 had elementary school degree (16,9%), 502 had high school degree (30%), and 350 had a college degree (20,9%), 27 had a postgraduate degree (1,6%). Information on the education level of two mothers is missing. Regarding the working status of mothers, the majority of mothers are homemakers (*N* = 1094, 65,4%), while the rest of them are employed (*N* = 578, 34,6%). Thirty and a half

percent of them live in rural parts of Türkiye, and 69,5% live in urban. Detailed information is presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Education Levels of Mothers in terms of Settlement-Type

Variable	Settlement-Type		
Education Level	Urban	Rural	**Total**
Illiterate	7	30	37
Literate but No Formal Education	15	25	40
Primary School Degree	258	173	431
Elementary School Degree	184	99	283
High School Degree	382	120	502
College Degree	290	60	350
Postgraduate Degree	26	1	27
Total	1162	508	1670

2.2. Measures

2.2.1. *Demographic information form*

Since this study was part of a very comprehensive project, detailed demographic information forms were given to mothers and their children separately; however, for the current study, the information about the age of mothers and children, gender of children, and mothers' working status and education levels were used. Additionally, children were asked about their grade levels.

2.2.2. *Emotionally-charged memories questionnaire*

Emotionally-Charged Memories Questionnaire was given to both mothers and their children. The questionnaire includes open-ended questions about two emotionally-charged autobiographical memories: positive and negative memories. Participants were instructed to recall and describe in detail one happy and one unhappy memory from their life, in a random order, as follows: "Now, we want you to think about your life so far. Try to remember a memory you had in the past that made you

happy/unhappy. Please write this happy/unhappy memory in the box below in as much detail and clarity as possible.".

Moreover, they were asked to specify their ages when they remembered the event. On a scale of 1-7, follow-up questions were asked, such as how clear the memory was, how easy it was to describe it in words, and whether it was emotionally positive or negative. On a scale of 1-7, participants were also asked how important memories were to them and how often they shared their daily experiences with their mothers in their childhood. However, these follow-up questions were not used in the current study.

2.2.3. *Categorization of memories*

Emotionally-Charged Memories Questionnaire is an open-ended scale; hence, categorizing memory data was necessary before coding them. For this reason, memory data were categorized between 0 and 3 by three different researchers who were all graduate students. The total number of memory data collected in Time 1 and Time 2 is 52,528. Twelve and a half percent of these data (which is 6,566 data) were categorized simultaneously and unanimously by the researchers. Subsequently, the remaining memory data was divided into thirds and separately categorized by the researchers. The following categorizations were applied: A "0=No memory" value was assigned for entries that were not filled out, left blank, or stated, "I have no memories."; episodic memories that occurred at a specific time and place were given the value of "1=Episodic memory"; data that did not contain explicit statements but referred to specific events, such as "becoming a mother" or "death of father," were also included in this category; semantic memories that were repetitive and not unique occurrences were given the value of "2=Semantic memory"; data that did not contain memory, such as "I really like my teacher." or "I would be very happy if I got a new phone." were given a value of "3=Invalid".

2.2.4. *Coding schemes*

Coding schemes were used to measure the autobiographical memories' self-, other-, and we- orientations. The total number of words was evaluated as volume, and the self-, other-, and we-related words were checked.

2.2.4.1. Memory volume

In order to calculate the total number of words used in the memories, it was necessary first to ensure that the memories follow Turkish grammar rules. Therefore, episodic memories were conformed to Turkish grammar rules by the author of the current study twice. Emojis that did not have a word value were deleted from the memories. Afterward, the total number of words, which is memory volume, was calculated using the Microsoft Office Excel program.

2.2.4.2. Self-related words

Self-related words were calculated to determine the extent to which individuals mentioned themselves in the memories. Words such as "I, my, me, mine, myself" were coded as self-related words in memories written in the English language by Wang (2001). However, since Turkish is an agglutinative language, it becomes necessary to calculate suffixes in addition to the self-related words. That is, self-related words (*ben, beni, bana, bende, benden, benim, benimki, bence, kendim*) and suffixes (*-m*) were examined. However, if a self-related word and a suffix refer to a word simultaneously (e.g., *benim annem*), only the suffix was counted, and thus the inflation of self-related words was prevented.

The authors of the current study coded all data and one master degree student also coded 20% of the data. Also, the second coder checked the all-coded data to obtain more reliable data. Disagreements were resolved by discussion among the coders. The inter-rater reliability ranged from .997 to 1.000 (Pearson's *r*) for both mothers' and children's positive and negative memories, which was consistent with previous literature reliability ranges (e.g., Sahin-Acar et al., 2017; Sahin & Mebert, 2013).

2.2.4.3. Other-related words

Other-related words were calculated to determine the extent to which individuals mentioned others in their memories. Words such as "he, she, they, his, her, them" and all private human names were coded as other-related in memories written in the

English language by Wang (2001). However, since Turkish is an agglutinative language, it becomes necessary to calculate suffixes in addition to other-related words. That is, other-related words (o, onu, ona, onda, ondan, onlar, onları, onlara, onlarda, onlardan) and suffixes were examined. However, if an other-related word and a suffix refer to a word simultaneously (e.g., onun çantası), only the suffix was counted, thus, inflation of other-related words was prevented. In addition, animals that were attributed importance (such as their cat or dog) were considered others, and words related to them were calculated as other-related words.

The authors of the current study coded all data and one master degree student also coded 20% of the data. Also, the second coder checked the all-coded data to obtain more reliable data. Disagreements were resolved by discussion among the coders. The inter-rater reliability ranged from .987 to .998 (Pearson's *r*) for four different memories, which was consistent with previous literature reliability ranges (e.g., Sahin-Acar et al., 2017; Sahin & Mebert, 2013).

2.2.4.4. We-related words

We-related words were calculated to determine the extent to which an individual mentioned a group that also included themselves in the memories. Words such as "we, our, us, ours, ourselves" were coded as we-related by Sahin & Mebert (2013). However, since Turkish is an agglutinative language, it becomes necessary to calculate suffixes in addition to we-related words. We-related words (biz, bize, bizi, bizde, bizden, bizce) and suffixes were examined. However, if a we-related word and a suffix refer to a word simultaneously (e.g., *bizim evimiz*), only the suffix was counted, and thus, the inflation of we-related words was prevented.

The authors of the current study coded all data and one master degree student also coded 20% of the data. Also, the second coder checked the all-coded data to obtain more reliable data. Disagreements were resolved by discussion among the coders. The inter-rater reliability ranged from .906 to 1.000 (Pearson's *r*) for the four memories of participants, which was consistent with previous literature reliability ranges (e.g., Sahin & Mebert, 2013).

2.2.5. Urban-rural areas

This study examined children's autobiographical memory characteristics in urban and rural areas, so creating urban and rural variables was necessary. In the light of the official data provided by the Turkish Statistical Institute, field reports of researchers working in the field, distances of schools to the city center, and occupations of families were taken into consideration, and urban and rural variables were created.

2.3. Procedure

This study was carried out as part of the project titled "The Effects of Parenting Attitudes and Parent-Child Interaction on Child and Adolescent Developmental Outcomes," which was funded by The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Türkiye (TÜBİTAK). Ethical approval was taken from the Middle East Technical University Human Subjects Ethics Committee (see Appendix A), and official approval was obtained from the Ministry of National Education in Türkiye. Schools were randomly selected by the Turkish Statistical Institute (Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu; TÜİK) to have a nationally representative sample of Türkiye for Time 1.

The data was collected with a large group of graduate researchers and undergraduate trainees. Before collecting data, each researcher and trainee received training for the data collection process and were informed about potential issues they might encounter. After the training, the research team introduced the study by calling school principals and contacting teachers to reach 10 children from each grade level in the selected schools. A form introducing the study and consent forms were delivered to the parents through the teachers. Parents who were approved to participate in the study were contacted, and verbal consent was obtained. Subsequently, questionnaires were sent to mothers. After mothers completed them, the researchers visited the cities where the schools were located and collected data from children via tablets. All the children and their mothers were given small presents to thank them for participating.

Mothers contacted in Time 1 were re-contacted in Time 2, and their consent for continued participation in the project was obtained, following the same procedure

applied by the researchers in Time 2. Unlike Time 1, students who graduated from primary school and transferred to secondary school or who graduated from secondary school and transferred to high school were also contacted with their new schools' teachers. In addition, for students who changed schools before graduating within the last year, the schools were contacted. The schools of students who changed schools were visited most of the time, but in some cases, these schools could not be visited due to transportation difficulties or time constraints. In these cases, if the child's grade level was 5th or above, the link to the surveys was sent to these children via e-mail or WhatsApp.

After the data collection process, the research team began the data review process. The mothers' and her children's data were matched in this process. After the matching, mother-child pairs were selected randomly, including 4 children from each school grade, to create a subsample. Thus, the goal of reaching a representative sample of Türkiye targeted in Time 2 was preserved. After the subsample was created, the memory data were arranged for categorization of memories, the number of total word calculations, and then self-, other-, and we-related words began to be encoded.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

The current study aimed to examine the possible roles of mothers' education level and employment status and residency on the autobiographical memory characteristics of children. In addition, it investigated whether children's gender and age affect their memories regarding autonomy and relatedness. Additionally, it examined whether mothers' autobiographical memory characteristics predict children's autobiographical memory characteristics.

The analyses of the current study were conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics version 28, and the results were presented in seven sections. First, data screening was completed. Then, descriptive statistics for mothers and children were provided. Third, the intercorrelations among the variables of the current study were displayed. Then, in the fourth and fifth sections, two analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to examine the roles of age and gender on the children's autobiographical memory characteristics. Then, the sixth section reported the main analyses, which included two ANOVAs to examine the roles of mothers' working status, educational level, and residency on self-related words, other-related words, we-related words, and total words in the children's emotionally-charged memories. In the last section, regression analyses were conducted to investigate the roles of mothers' autobiographical memory characteristics on children's autobiographical memory characteristics.

3.1. Data screening

Before hypothesis testing, the dataset was cleaned and checked. Initially, 2nd and 3rd graders were excluded from the dataset because they were not administered the questionnaires. Subsequently, data screening for missing values, univariate and

multivariate outliers, singularity, and assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity was examined for study variables by following the recommendations of Tabachnick and Fidell (2018).

There were only two missing values of mothers' educational level, so these cases were excluded. In order to identify univariate outliers of continuous variables, raw scores of total number of words, self-related words, other-related words, and we-related words in positive and negative memories of mothers and children were transformed into z-scores. Following Tabachnick and Fidell's (2018) guidelines, numerous extreme z-scores exceeded the cut-off point of ±3.29. In order to be sure, frequencies of continuous variables were checked, and only one case of children was deleted because it was an extreme case compared to other cases. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2018), if univariate outliers reflect the characteristics of the target population, they should be kept in the analyses so univariate outliers in the data are not excluded in order not to obtain correct simple errors. The Turkish Statistical Institute formed the sample to best represent the Turkish population; thus, these outliers were most likely from the targeted population. As the current study aimed to measure individual differences within a representative Turkish sample, univariate outliers were retained except for one case. Additionally, dichotomous variables were checked to identify univariate outliers, as Tabachnick and Fidell (2018) suggested, but there were no univariate outliers. Multivariate outliers were also assessed through Mahalanobis Distance. No multivariate outliers were detected in the current study with $p < .001$.

Normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity assumptions were examined by the Shapiro-Wilk test, skewness and kurtosis values, histograms, normal Q-Q plots, and box plots. According to the Shapiro-Wilk test results, the scores of all criterion variables (total words, self-related words, other-related words, and we-related words of children in positive and negative memories) were not normally distributed ($p < .001$). In the examination of skewness and kurtosis values, it was assessed whether these values were within one standard deviation below or above the mean, as per the instructions of Doane and Seward (2011). The results indicated that the values of all criterion variables were skewed and kurtotic outside the acceptable range. Additionally, visual assessments using histograms, normal Q-Q plots, and box plots

supported the non-normality of the data, so the current study did not meet normality and linearity assumptions. Moreover, these assumptions are expected to be violated in high-sample studies since normality tests are sensitive to sample size. The literature stated that violating these assumptions is not a problem if the sample size is enough and the study has good power (Hayes, 2018). In the current study, the sample size could be the reason for violating the normality assumption. However, the power of the study was high enough, so the parametric tests were still conducted. However, the Games-Howell post hoc test was used to increase the reliability of the results (Field, 2009). Correlations between predictor variables were checked for multicollinearity and singularity assumption. Tolerance Value, Variance Inflation Factor (VIF), condition index, and correlation matrix were all within the accepted range, meaning there is no risk of multicollinearity and singularity, according to Hair et al. (1998).

After excluding 3 cases, the study included 1669 pairs of mothers and children. However, not all participants completed the emotionally-charged memories questionnaires. Additionally, some participants filled out the questionnaire but did not provide an episodic memory, so the degrees of freedom varied slightly across analyses. The frequency of the episodic memories of mothers' and children's positive and negative memories can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4

Categorization of Memories

Memory Types	Episodic	Semantic	Invalid	No memory
Mother				
Positive Memories	1288	136	135	110
Negative Memories	1307	97	91	174
Child				
Positive Memories	1278	166	80	145
Negative Memories	1358	79	46	186

3.2. Descriptive statistics of study variables

After data screening was completed, the education level of mothers was divided into two groups: secondary school and below, and high school and above. Also, data from

Time 1 and Time 2 were compared for mothers' employment status, and it was decided to create a new variable to represent the mothers' employment status well. This variable indicated the employment status of mothers employed at least once during either Time 1 or Time 2. Subsequently, descriptive statistics were examined for the current study. The descriptive characteristics of the total of 3338 participants (1669 children and 1669 mothers) were presented in Table 5 and Table 6. The means, standard deviations, minimum-maximum score ranges, and sample size information for the continuous variables were provided in Table 5, whereas the frequencies and percentages for the categorical variables can be seen in Table 6.

Table 5

Means, Standard Deviations, Minimum-Maximum Scores, and Sample Size Information of Continuous Variables

Variables	N	*M*	*SD*	Minimum- Maximum
Mother Variables				
Positive Memory				
Total Words	1288	18.32	21.94	1-211
Self-Related Words	1288	3.98	3.94	0-40
Other-Related Words	1288	2.43	3.22	0-39
We-Related Words	1288	0.63	1.95	0-33
Negative Memory				
Total Words	1307	22.97	30.84	1-455
Self-Related Words	1307	4.47	5.61	0-76
Other-Related Words	1307	3.19	4.95	0-80
We-Related Words	1307	0.62	1.60	0-16
Children Variables				
Positive Memory				
Total Words	1278	18.80	19.73	0-193
Self-Related Words	1278	3.61	3.52	0-28
Other-Related Words	1278	2.16	2.93	0-36
We-Related Words	1278	1.13	2.21	0-24
Negative Memory				
Total Words	1359	21.51	25.60	1-243
Self-Related Words	1359	4.44	4.98	0-47
Other-Related Words	1359	3.14	4.58	0-39
We-Related Words	1359	0.63	1.41	0-18

Table 6

Frequencies and Percentiles of Categorical Variables

Variables	Frequencies	Percentiles
Settlement-Type		
Rural	508	30.4
Urban	1161	69.6
Gender		
Girl	895	53.6
Boy	774	46.4
Grade Level		
4	186	11.1
5	188	11.3
6	198	11.9
7	206	12.3
8	196	11.7
9	163	9.8
10	187	11.2
11	182	10.9
12	163	9.8
Education Level of Mothers		
Secondary School and Below	791	47.4
High School and Above	878	52.6
Working Status of Mothers		
Working	577	34.6
Non-working	1092	65.4

3.3. Correlation analyses

3.3.1. Correlation analyses between predictor variables and criterion variables

Pearson's bivariate correlation analyses were carried out to investigate the relationship between predictor variables (residential status, mother's educational level and working status, children's grade level and gender) and criterion variables (children's emotionally-charged memories characteristics: the number of total words, self-related words, other-related words, and we-related words) as can be seen in Table 7.

The results of the bivariate correlations indicated significant relationships among several variables. There was a significant relationship between maternal education level and residential status ($r = .23$, $p < .001$). Furthermore, maternal employment was

positively correlated with residential status (r = .08, p < .001) and maternal education level (r = .27, p < .001). Child grade was also correlated negatively with maternal education level (r = -.06, p < .05). Child gender was also correlated with maternal education level (r = .07, p < .001), maternal employment (r = .05, p < .05), and child grade (r = -.06, p < .05).

There was a positive correlation between child total words in positive memory and maternal education level (r = .09, p < .001), while it was negatively correlated with child gender (r = -.08, p < .001). Child self-related words in positive memory was positively correlated with child total words in positive memory (r = .78, p < .001); in contrast, it was negatively correlated with child gender (r = -.08, p < .001). While child other-related words in positive memory was positively correlated with maternal education level (r = .08, p < .001), child total words in positive memory (r = .78, p < .001), and child self-related words in positive memory (r = .69, p < .001), it was negatively correlated with child grade (r = -.11, p < .001), and child gender (r = -.12, p < .001). Similarly, child we-related words in positive memory was positively correlated with maternal education level (r = .07, p < .05), child total words in positive memory (r = .61, p < .001), child self-related words in positive memory (r = .21, p < .001), and child other-related words in positive memory (r = .47, p < .001); in contrast, it was negatively correlated with child grade (r = -.07, p < .05), and child gender (r = -.12, p < .001).

Child total words in negative memory was positively correlated with maternal education level (r = .08, p < .001), child total words in positive memory (r = .52, p < .001), child self-related words in positive memory (r = .45, p < .001), child other-related words in positive memory (r = .36, p < .001), and child we-related words in positive memory (r = .28, p < .001). In contrast, it was negatively correlated with child gender (r = -.11, p < .001). Child self-related words was positively correlated with maternal education level (r = .07, p < .05), child total words in positive memory (r = .46, p < .001), child self-related words in positive memory (r = .41, p < .001), child other-related words in positive memory (r = .31, p < .001), child we-related words in positive memory (r = .26, p < .001), and child total words in negative memory (r = .90, p < .001), while it was negatively correlated with child gender (r = -.12, p < .001).

Child other-related words in negative memory was positively correlated with child total words in positive memory ($r = .42$, $p < .001$), child self-related words in positive memory ($r = .36$, $p < .001$), child other-related words in positive memory ($r = .33$, $p < .001$), child we-related words in positive memory ($r = .28$, $p < .001$), child total words in negative memory ($r = .84$, $p < .001$), and child self-related words in negative memory ($r = .75$, $p < .001$), whereas it was negatively correlated with child gender ($r = -.17$, $p < .001$). Child we-related words in negative memory was positively correlated with child total words in positive memory ($r = .27$, $p < .001$), child self-related words in positive memory ($r = .28$, $p < .001$), child other-related words in positive memory ($r = .24$, $p < .001$), child we-related words in positive memory ($r = .14$, $p < .001$), child total words in negative memory ($r = .56$, $p < .001$), child self-related words in negative memory ($r = .36$, $p < .001$), and child other-related words ($r = .47$, $p < .001$), whereas it was negatively correlated with child grade ($r = -.06$, $p < .05$) and child gender ($r = -.09$, $p < .001$).

3.3.2. Correlation analyses between mothers' and children's autobiographical memory characteristics

In addition, bivariate correlation analyses were carried out to investigate the relationship between mothers' characteristics of autobiographical memories and children's characteristics of autobiographical memories, which can be seen in Table 8.

Results of the bivariate correlations displayed that mother self-related words in positive memory was positively correlated with mother total words in positive memory ($r = .82$, $p < .001$). Also, mother other-related words in positive memory was positively correlated with mother total words in positive memory ($r = .82$, $p < .001$) and mother self-related words in positive memory ($r = .64$, $p < .001$). Mother we-related words in positive memory was positively correlated with mother total words in positive memory ($r = .51$, $p < .001$), mother self-related words in positive memory ($r = .16$, $p < .001$), and mother other-related words in positive memory ($r = .45$, $p < .001$).

Mother total words in negative memory was positively correlated with mother total words in positive memory ($r = .58$, $p < .001$), mother self-related words in positive

Table 7

Bivariate Correlations Between Study Variables

	Variable Names	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1	Settlement-Type	1												
2	Maternal Education Level	.23**	1											
3	Maternal Employment	.08**	.27**	1										
4	Grade	.04	-.06*	.04	1									
5	Gender	.04	.07**	.05*	-.06*	1								
6	Total Words in PM	-.00	.09**	.03	-.04	-.08**	1							
7	Self-Related Words in PM	-.02	.05	.01	-.05	-.08**	.78**	1						
8	Other-Related Words in PM	-.01	.08**	-.00	-.11**	-.12**	.78**	.69**	1					
9	We-Related Words in PM	-.00	.07*	.04	-.07*	-.12**	.61**	.21**	.47**	1				
10	Total Words in NM	.03	.08**	.01	.02	-.11**	.52**	.45**	.36**	.28**	1			
11	Self-Related Words in NM	.03	.07*	-.00	.02	-.12**	.46**	.41**	.31**	.26**	.90**	1		
12	Other-Related Words in NM	.03	.04	-.00	-.02	-.17**	.42**	.36**	.33**	.28**	.84**	.75**	1	
13	We-Related Words in NM	-.03	.03	-.01	-.06*	-.09**	.27**	.28**	.24**	.14**	.56**	.36**	.47**	1

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

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

Grade, gender, and autobiographical memory characteristics variables were variables of children.

PM = Positive Memory; NM = Negative Memory.

memory ($r = .53$, $p < .001$), mother other-related words in positive memory ($r = .41$, $p < .001$), and mother we-related words in positive memory ($r = .23$, $p < .001$). Mother self-related words in negative memory was positively correlated with mother total words in positive memory ($r = .50$, $p < .001$), mother self-related words in positive memory ($r = .48$, $p < .001$), mother other-related words in positive memory ($r = .35$, $p < .001$), mother we-related words in positive memory ($r = .17$, $p < .001$), and mother total words in negative memory ($r = .89$, $p < .001$). Mother other-related words in negative memory was positively correlated with mother total words in positive memory ($r = .47$, $p < .001$), mother self-related words in positive memory ($r = .41$, $p < .001$), mother other-related words in positive memory ($r = .36$, $p < .001$), mother we-related words in positive memory ($r = .21$, $p < .001$), mother total words in negative memory ($r = .88$, $p < .001$), and mother self-related words in negative memory ($r = .79$, $p < .001$). Mother we-related words in negative memory was positively correlated with mother total words in positive memory ($r = .25$, $p < .001$), mother self-related words in positive memory ($r = .21$, $p < .001$), mother other-related words in positive memory ($r = .19$, $p < .001$), mother we-related words in positive memory ($r = .15$, $p < .001$), mother total words in negative memory ($r = .52$, $p < .001$), mother self-related words in negative memory ($r = .28$, $p < .001$), and mother other-related words in negative memory ($r = .43$, $p < .001$).

Child total words in positive memory was positively correlated with mother total words in positive memory ($r = .10$, $p < .001$), mother self-related words in positive memory ($r = .09$, $p < .001$), mother other-related words in positive memory ($r = .11$, $p < .001$), mother total words in negative memory ($r = .08$, $p < .05$), and mother self-related words in negative memory ($r = .08$, $p < .05$). Child self-related words in positive memory was positively correlated with mother self-related words in positive memory ($r = .08$, $p < .05$), mother other-related words in positive memory ($r = .07$, $p < .05$), and child total words in positive memory ($r = .78$, $p < .001$). Child other-related words in positive memory was positively correlated with mother total words in positive memory ($r = .06$, $p < .05$), mother self-related words in positive memory ($r = .07$, $p < .05$), mother other-related words in positive memory ($r = .09$, $p < .001$), mother self-related words in negative memory ($r = .07$, $p < .05$), mother other-related words in negative memory ($r = .06$, $p < .05$), child total words in positive memory ($r = .78$, $p <$

.001), and child self-related words in positive memory ($r = .69$, $p < .001$). Child we-related words in positive memory was positively correlated with mother total words in positive memory ($r = .07$, $p < .05$), mother we-related words in positive memory ($r = .08$, $p < .05$), mother total words in negative memory ($r = .09$, $p < .001$), mother self-related words in negative memory ($r = .08$, $p < .001$), child total words in positive memory ($r = .61$, $p < .001$), child self-related words in positive memory ($r = .21$, $p < .001$), and child other-related words in positive memory ($r = .47$, $p < .001$).

Child total words in negative memory was positively correlated with mother total words in positive memory ($r = .14$, $p < .001$), mother self-related words in positive memory ($r = .12$, $p < .001$), mother other-related words in positive memory ($r = .11$, $p < .001$), mother total words in negative memory ($r = .20$, $p < .001$), mother self-related words in negative memory ($r = .17$, $p < .001$), mother other-related words in negative memory ($r = .15$, $p < .001$), mother we-related words in negative memory ($r = .12$, $p < .001$), child total words in positive memory ($r = .52$, $p < .001$), child self-related words in positive memory ($r = .45$, $p < .001$), child other-related words in positive memory ($r = .36$, $p < .001$), and child we-related words in positive memory ($r = .28$, $p < .001$). Child self-related words in negative memory was positively correlated with mother total words in positive memory ($r = .15$, $p < .001$), mother self-related words in positive memory ($r = .12$, $p < .001$), mother other-related words in positive memory ($r = .12$, $p < .001$), mother we-related words in positive memory ($r = .06$, $p < .05$), mother total words in negative memory ($r = .19$, $p < .001$), mother self-related words in negative memory ($r = .17$, $p < .001$), mother other-related words in negative memory ($r = .15$, $p < .001$), mother we-related words in negative memory ($r = .13$, $p < .001$), child total words in positive memory ($r = .46$, $p < .001$), child self-related words in positive memory ($r = .41$, $p < .001$), child other-related words in positive memory ($r = .31$, $p < .001$), child we-related words in positive memory ($r = .26$, $p < .001$), and child self-related words in negative memory ($r = .90$, $p < .001$). Child other-related words in negative memory was positively correlated with mother total words in positive memory ($r = .10$, $p < .001$), mother self-related words in positive memory ($r = .08$, $p < .001$), mother other-related words in positive memory ($r = .08$, $p < .05$), mother total words in negative memory ($r = .12$, $p < .001$), mother self-related words in negative memory ($r = .11$, $p < .001$), mother other-related words in negative memory

(r = .10, p < .001), mother we-related words in negative memory (r = .06, p < .05), child total words in positive memory (r = .42, p < .001), child self-related words in positive memory (r = .36, p < .001), child other-related words in positive memory (r = .33, p < .001), child we-related words in positive memory (r = .28, p < .001), child self-related words in negative memory (r = .84, p < .001), and child other-related words in negative memory (r = .75, p < .001). Child we-related words in negative memory was positively correlated with mother total words in negative memory (r = .10, p < .001), mother self-related words in negative memory (r = .09, p < .001), mother other-related words in negative memory (r = .07, p < .05), mother we-related words in negative memory (r = .07, p < .05), child total words in positive memory (r = .27, p < .05), child self-related words in positive memory (r = .28, p < .001), child other-related words in positive memory (r = .24, p < .001), child we-related words in positive memory (r = .14, p < .001), child total words in negative memory (r = .56, p < .001), child self-related words in negative memory (r = .36, p < .001), and child other-related words in negative memory (r = .47, p < .001).

3.4. One-way ANOVA for age differences in the characteristics of autobiographical memory

One of the hypotheses of this study was to see significant changes in children's autobiographical memory characteristics as age increases. Since the age range of the children was between 9 and 19 and they were not distributed homogeneously, it was decided to compare them according to their grade levels. In order to examine these changes, a one-way between-subjects ANOVA was conducted. The results showed that there were statistically significant differences between grade levels and total words in positive memory, $F(8, 1269) = 2.03$, p < .05, other-related words in positive memory, $F(8, 1269) = 2.81$, p < .05, we-related words in positive memory, $F(8, 1269) = 2.15$, p < .05, total words in negative memory, $F(8, 1350) = 1.96$, p < .05, and we-related words in negative memory, $F(8, 1350) = 3.32$, p < .001. Detailed information was given in Table 9.

According to the Games-Howell post hoc test results, other-related words in positive memory of 6th grade children were significantly higher than 9th, 11th, and 12th grade

Table 8

Bivariate Correlations Between Mothers' and Children's Memory Characteristics

	Variable Names	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Mother Total Words in PM	1								
2	Mother Self-Related Words in PM	.82**	1							
3	Mother Other-Related Words in PM	.82**	.64**	1						
4	Mother We-Related Words in PM	.51**	.16**	.45**	1					
5	Mother Total Words in NM	.58**	.53**	.41**	.23**	1				
6	Mother Self-Related Words in NM	.50**	.48**	.35**	.17**	.89**	1			
7	Mother Other-Related Words in NM	.47**	.41**	.36**	.21**	.88**	.79**	1		
8	Mother We-Related Words in NM	.25**	.21**	.19**	.15**	.52**	.28**	.43**	1	
9	Child Total Words in PM	.10**	.09**	.11**	.02	.08*	.08*	.06	.03	1
10	Child Self-Related Words in PM	.06	.08*	.07*	-.03	.03	.04	.03	.01	.78**
11	Child Other-Related Words in PM	.06*	.07*	.09**	-.01	.06	.07*	.06*	.03	.78**
12	Child We-Related Words in PM	.07*	.04	.05	.08*	.09**	.08**	.06	.06	.61**
13	Child Total Words in NM	.14**	.12**	.11**	.04	.20**	.17**	.15**	.12**	.52**
14	Child Self-Related Words in NM	.15**	.12**	.12**	.06*	.19**	.17**	.15**	.13**	.46**
15	Child Other-Related Words in NM	.10**	.08**	.08*	.04	.12**	.11**	.10**	.06*	.42**
16	Child We-Related Words in NM	.04	.04	.02	-.00	.10**	.09**	.07*	.07*	.27**

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

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

PM = Positive Memory; NM = Negative Memory

Table 8 (continued)

Bivariate Correlations Between Mothers' and Children's Memory Characteristics

	Variable Names	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
10	Child Self-Related Words in PM	1						
11	Child Other-Related Words in PM	.69**	1					
12	Child We-Related Words in PM	.21**	.47**	1				
13	Child Total Words in NM	.45**	.36**	.28**	1			
14	Child Self-Related Words in NM	.41**	.31**	.26**	.90**	1		
15	Child Other-Related Words in NM	.36**	.33**	.28**	.84**	.75**	1	
16	Child We-Related Words in NM	.28**	.24**	.14**	.56**	.36**	.47**	1

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

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

PM = Positive Memory; NM = Negative Memory.

Table 9

Means and Standard Deviations of Children's Autobiographical Memory Characteristics Based on Grade Level

	Positive Memory											
	Total Words			Self-Related Words			Other-Related Words			We-Related Words		
Variable	N	*M*	*SD*	N	*M*	*SD*	N	*M*	*SD*	N	*M*	*SD*
Grade Level												
4	153	16.64	17.74	153	3.31	3.69	153	2.35	3.97	153	1.11	2.15
5	154	20.27	19.61	154	4.18	3.71	154	2.49	2.85	154	1.31	2.41
6	163	21.89	21.55	163	4.06	3.95	163	2.80	3.58	163	1.58	2.79
7	169	19.78	18.92	169	3.85	3.48	169	2.22	2.49	169	1.12	2.02
8	149	21.46	26.15	149	3.66	3.67	149	2.24	2.74	149	1.34	2.60
9	119	15.53	14.53	119	3.15	3.15	119	1.63	2.16	119	.66	1.28
10	135	16.09	16.10	135	2.99	3.02	135	1.99	2.99	135	.94	1.90
11	128	18.04	21.22	128	3.47	3.48	128	1.66	2.18	128	.91	2.27
12	108	17.75	16.92	108	3.56	3.00	108	1.63	2.30	108	.97	1.71

Table 9 (continued)

Means and Standard Deviations of Children's Autobiographical Memory Characteristics Based on Grade Level

	Negative Memory											
	Total Words			Self-Related Words			Other-Related Words			We-Related Words		
Variable	N	*M*	*SD*	N	*M*	*SD*	N	*M*	*SD*	N	*M*	*SD*
Grade Level												
4	162	16.55	18.48	162	3.83	4.68	162	2.76	4.38	162	.52	1.09
5	160	20.31	20.06	160	4.57	4.40	160	3.11	4.44	160	.58	1.13
6	174	23.62	26.39	174	4.49	4.56	174	3.90	5.74	174	.94	2.06
7	173	26.19	31.95	173	4.84	5.99	173	3.33	4.32	173	.91	1.71
8	152	23.35	27.92	152	4.66	5.18	152	3.28	4.67	152	.68	1.61
9	124	19.66	21.42	124	4.09	4.51	124	2.85	3.68	124	.63	1.24
10	151	19.81	24.17	151	4.27	4.70	151	2.84	4.30	151	.46	1.22
11	137	21.15	26.37	137	4.45	5.13	137	2.85	3.95	137	.34	.78
12	126	22.13	29.46	126	4.66	5.51	126	3.17	5.18	126	.48	1.02

children. Also, we-related words in positive memory of 6th grade children were significantly higher than 9th grade children, whereas total words in negative memory of 7th grade were significantly higher than 4th grade and we-related words in negative memory of 6th and 7th grade children were significantly higher than 11th grade children (see Figure 1, Figure 2, Figure 3, Figure 4, and Figure 5).

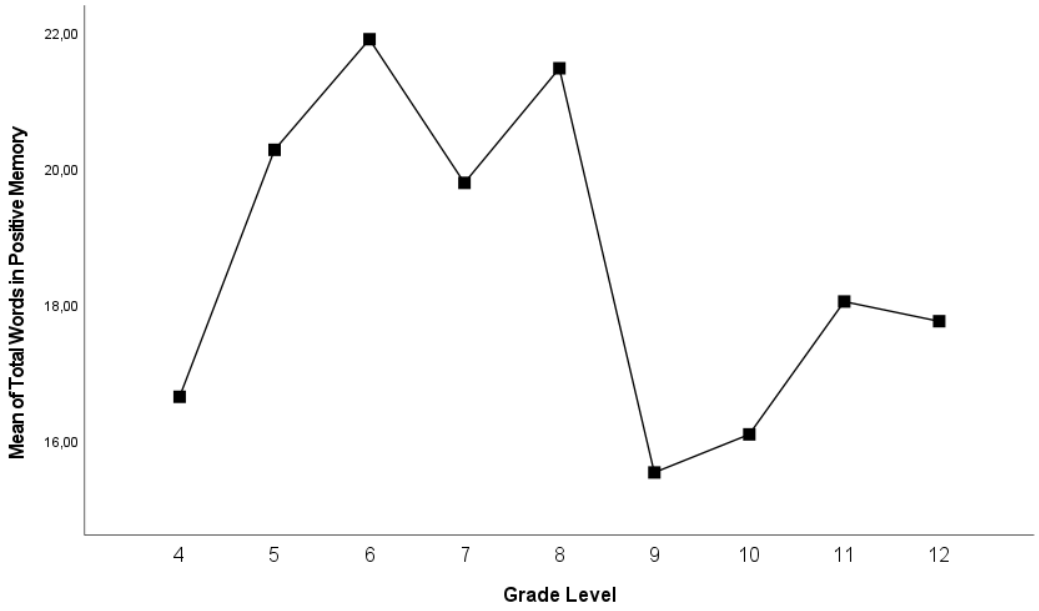


Figure 1

Line Graph of Mean of Total Words in Positive Memory Based on Grade Level

Contrary to what was stated in the hypotheses, no significant differences were observed in the children's self-related words in positive and negative memories and other-related words in negative memories. On the other hand, in opposition to the hypotheses, it was found that the peak point of all variables was in secondary school instead of high school.

3.5. One-way ANOVA for gender differences in the characteristics of autobiographical memory

One of the hypotheses of this study was to see significant changes in children's autobiographical memory characteristics based on gender. In order to examine these changes, a one-way between-subjects ANOVA was conducted. The results showed

that there were statistically significant differences between gender and total words, $F(1, 1276) = 7.93$, $p < .05$, self-related words, $F(1, 1276) = 8.45$, $p < .05$, other-related words, $F(1, 1276) = 17.84$, $p < .001$, we-related words, $F(1, 1276) = 17.60$, $p < .001$, in positive memory. On the other hand, there were statistically significant results between gender and total words, $F(1, 1357) = 16.31$, $p < .001$, self-related words, $F(1, 1357) = 20.50$, $p < .001$, other-related words, $F(1, 1357) = 39.43$, $p < .001$, and we-related words, $F(1, 1357) = 11.52$, $p < .001$, in negative memory. Detailed information was given in Table 10, Figure 6, and Figure 7.

As literature suggested and hypothesized in the current study, girls' total number of words, self-related words, and other-related words in both types of memories were higher than boys. Additionally, we-related words of girls in both memories were higher than boys.

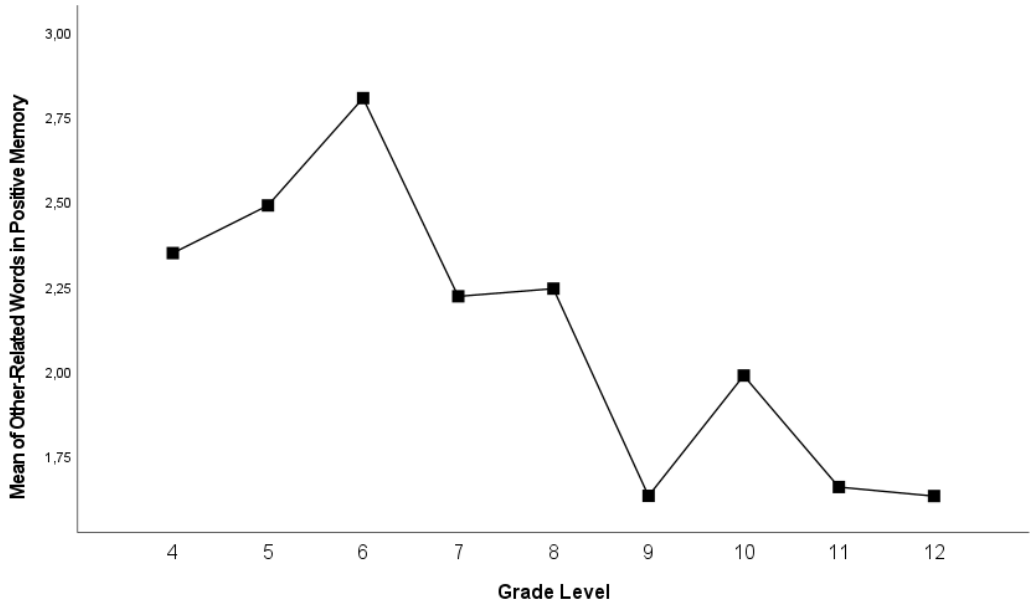


Figure 2

Line Graph of Mean of Other-Related Words in Positive Memory Based on Grade Level

3.6. Main analyses

Two sets of Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) were conducted for positive and negative memories to test the hypotheses of the current study. First of all, a 2 x 2 x 2 Factorial

ANOVA was conducted for positive memories' characteristics of children. Then, a 2 x 2 x 2 Factorial ANOVA was conducted for negative memories' characteristics of children.

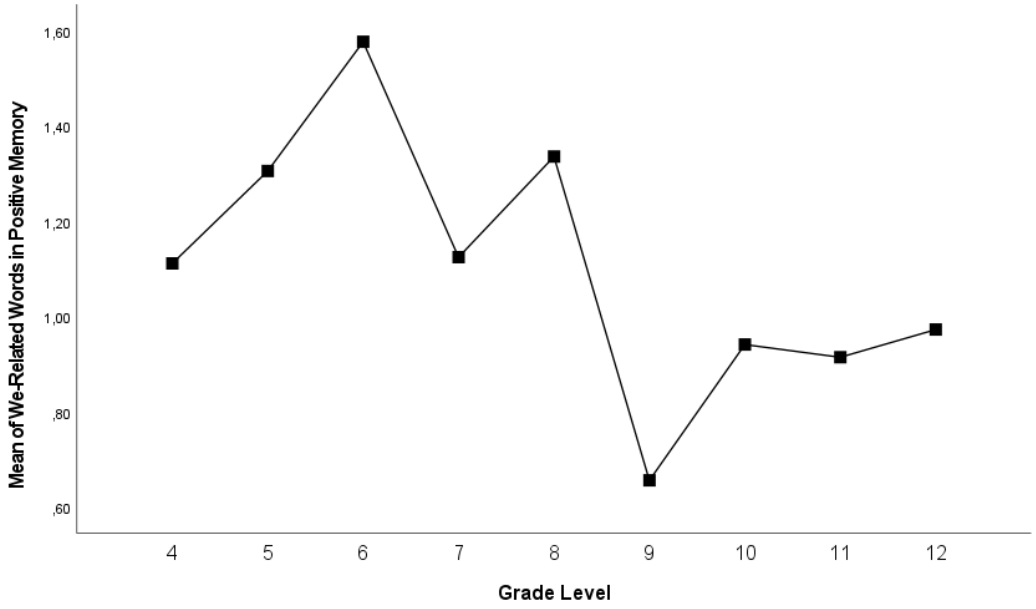


Figure 3

Line Graph of Mean of We-Related Words in Positive Memory Based on Grade Level

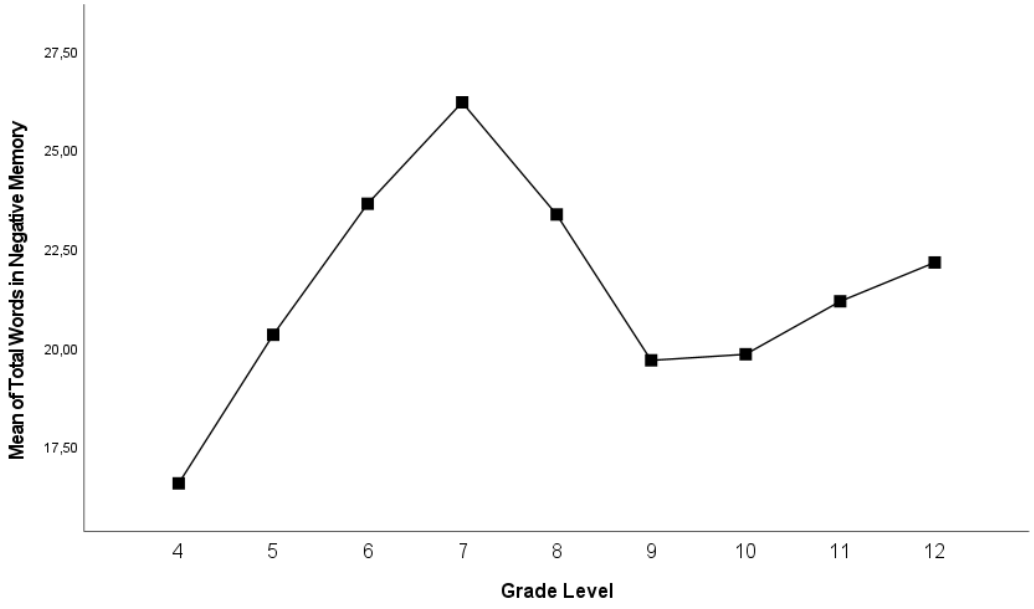


Figure 4

Line Graph of Mean of Total Words in Negative Memory Based on Grade Level

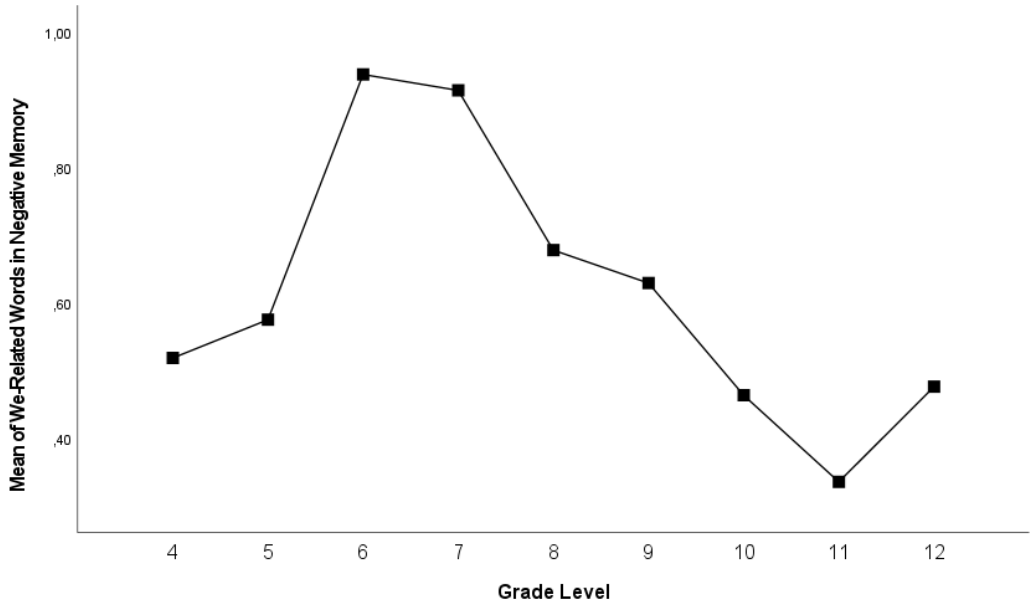


Figure 5

Line Graph of Mean of We-Related Words in Negative Memory Based on Grade Level

Table 10

Means and Standard Deviations of Children's Autobiographical Memory Characteristics Based on Gender

Variable	Gender	N	*M*	*SD*
Positive Memory				
Total Words	Girl	680	20.25	19.24
	Boy	598	17.14	20.16
Self-Related Words	Girl	680	3.88	3.63
	Boy	598	3.31	3.37
Other-Related Words	Girl	680	2.48	3.21
	Boy	598	1.79	2.53
We-Related Words	Girl	680	1.37	2.40
	Boy	598	.85	1.94
Negative Memory				
Total Words	Girl	757	24.00	28.88
	Boy	602	18.39	20.35
Self-Related Words	Girl	757	4.98	5.63
	Boy	602	3.75	3.92
Other-Related Words	Girl	757	3.83	5.23
	Boy	602	2.28	3.42
We-Related Words	Girl	757	.74	1.62
	Boy	602	.48	1.07

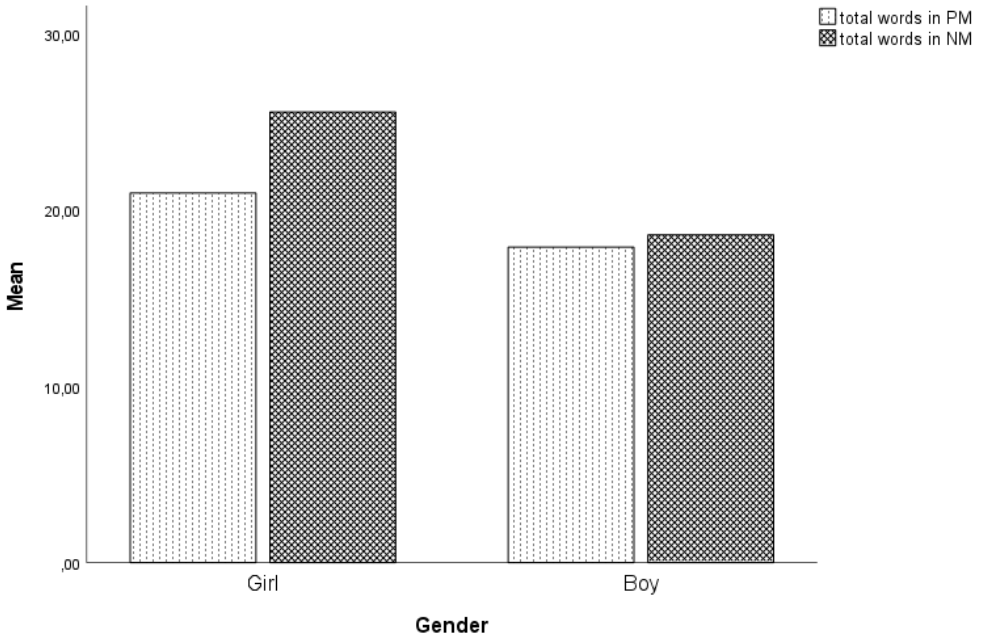


Figure 6

Means of Total Words in Autobiographical Memories of Children Based on Gender

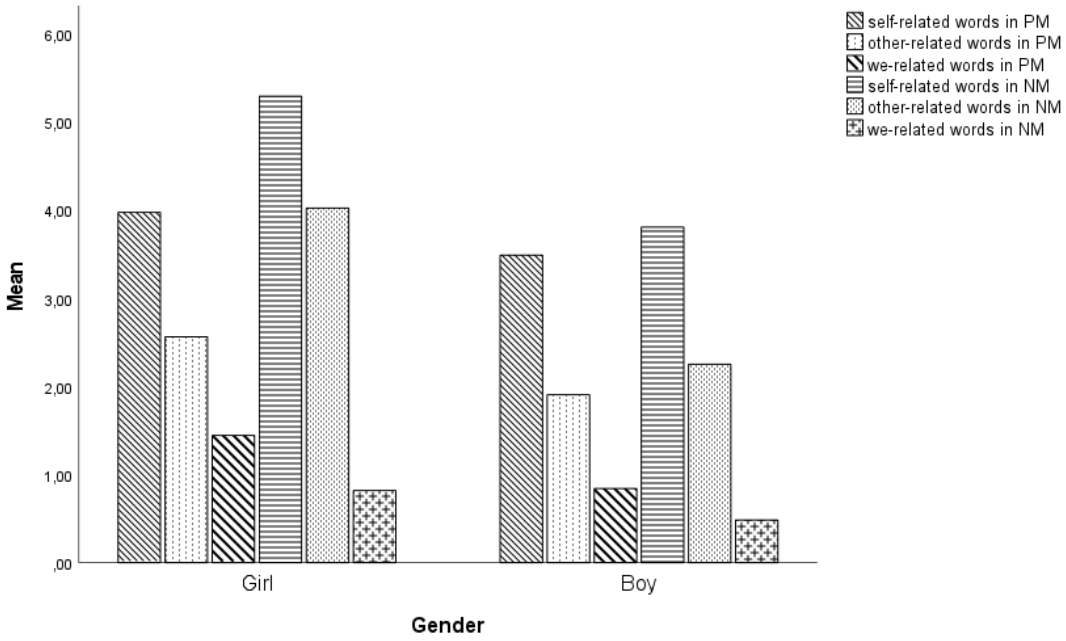


Figure 7

Means of Autobiographical Memory Characteristics of Children Based on Gender

3.6.1. Positive memories

In order to understand the roles of the predictor variables on the criterion variables, 2 (residential status: urban vs. rural) x 2 (educational level of mothers: secondary school and below the secondary school vs. high school and above the high school) x 2 (working status of mothers: working vs non-working) Factorial ANOVA was conducted for positive memory. The results were presented in Table 11.

The results showed that the main effect of residency was not significant for total words ($F(1, 1270) = 1.08$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.001$), self-related words ($F(1, 1270) = 1.87$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.001$), other-related words ($F(1, 1270) = 1.34$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.001$), and we-related words ($F(1, 1270) = 0.06$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$) in positive memory. Contrary to expectations, more words in positive memory were used in rural areas ($M = 18.88$, $SD = 19.80$) compared to urban areas ($M = 18.76$, $SD = 19.71$); however, there was no statistically significant result. Also, contrary to expectations, it was found that more self-related words in positive memory were used in rural ($M = 3.70$, $SD = 3.71$) compared to urban ($M = 3.57$, $SD = 3.44$), but no statistically significant result was obtained. Also, more other-related words were used in rural ($M = 2.21$, $SD = 2.76$) than urban ($M = 2.13$, $SD = 3.01$) in positive memory, but it was also not statistically significant. Finally, it was concluded that we-related words were used nearly the same in rural ($M = 1.13$, $SD = 2.24$) and urban ($M = 1.13$, $SD = 2.21$) in positive memory.

On the other hand, the main effect of maternal education level was significant for all criterion variables: There were statistically significant results between maternal education level and total words ($F(1, 1270) = 12.38$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2p = 0.010$), self-related words ($F(1, 1270) = 5.45$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.004$), other-related words ($F(1, 1270) = 6.16$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.005$), and we-related words ($F(1, 1270) = 5.16$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.004$) in positive memory. As expected, statistically significant results were obtained according to the mother's education level. Consistent with the hypotheses, as the mother's education level increased, there were increases in total number of words, self-related words, and other-related words. More total words were used in children's positive memories of highly educated mothers ($M = 20.47$, $SD = 21.98$) compared to less educated mothers ($M = 16.83$, $SD = 16.50$). More self-related words were used in

children's positive memories of highly educated mothers (M = 3.78, SD = 3.67) compared to less educated mothers (M = 3.41, SD = 3.32). More other-related words were used in children's positive memories of highly educated mothers (M = 2.37, SD = 3.36) compared to less educated mothers (M = 1.91, SD = 2.31). Additionally, parallel to other characteristics, more we-related words were used in children's positive memories of highly educated mothers (M = 1.27, SD = 2.53) compared to less educated mothers (M = .96, SD = 1.76).

The results showed that the main effect of maternal employment was not significant for total words ($F(1, 1270) = 0.05$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$), self-related words ($F(1, 1270) = 0.85$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.001$), other-related words ($F(1, 1270) = 1.03$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.001$), and we-related words ($F(1, 1270) = 0.05$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$) in positive memory. As hypothesized, more words were used in children's positive memories of working mothers (M = 19.68, SD = 21.32) compared to non-working mothers (M = 18.32, SD = 18.82); however, there was no statistically significant result. As expected, it was found that more self-related words in positive memory were used in children's positive memories of working mothers (M = 3.65, SD = 3.84) compared to non-working mothers (M = 3.59, SD = 3.33), but no statistically significant result was obtained. Also, other-related words in positive memories were nearly the same for non-working mothers (M = 2.16, SD = 2.93) and working mothers (M = 2.15, SD = 2.95). Finally, it was concluded that more we-related words were used in children's positive memories of working mothers (M = 1.24, SD = 2.42) compared to non-working mothers (M = 1.07, SD = 2.09); however, there was no statistically significant result.

The interaction of residency and maternal education was not statistically significant for total words ($F(1, 1270) = 0.75$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.001$), self-related words ($F(1, 1270) = 0.34$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$), other-related words ($F(1, 1270) = 0.01$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$), and we-related words ($F(1, 1270) = 1.56$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.001$) in positive memory. Also, the interaction of residency and maternal employment was not statistically significant for total words ($F(1, 1270) = 0.07$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$), self-related words ($F(1, 1270) = 0.18$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$), other-related words ($F(1, 1270) = 0.12$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$), and we-related words ($F(1, 1270) = 3.19$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.003$) in positive memory. Additionally, the interaction of maternal education level

and employment was not statistically significant for total words ($F(1, 1270) = 0.54$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$), self-related words ($F(1, 1270) = 0.01$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$), other-related words ($F(1, 1270) = 1.10$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.001$), and we-related words ($F(1, 1270) = 0.64$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.001$) in positive memory. Finally, the interaction of residency, maternal education, and maternal employment was not statistically significant for total words ($F(1, 1270) = 0.48$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$), self-related words ($F(1, 1270) = 3.14$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.002$), other-related words ($F(1, 1270) = 0.68$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.001$), and we-related words ($F(1, 1270) = 0.46$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$) in positive memory. Descriptive statistics for the interaction were presented in Table 12.

3.6.2. Negative memories

In order to understand the roles of the predictor variables on the criterion variables, 2 (residential status: urban vs. rural) x 2 (educational level of mothers: secondary school and below the secondary school vs. high school and above the high school) x 2 (working status of mothers: working vs non-working) Factorial ANOVA was conducted for negative memory. The results were presented in Table 13.

The results showed that the main effect of residency was not significant for total words ($F(1, 1351) = 0.20$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$), self-related words ($F(1, 1351) = 0.12$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$), other-related words ($F(1, 1351) = 0.00$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$), and we-related words ($F(1, 1351) = 3.17$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.002$) in negative memory. As hypothesized, more words in negative memory were used in urban areas ($M = 21.94$, $SD = 25.51$) compared to rural areas ($M = 20.55$, $SD = 25.81$); however, there was no statistically significant result.

As expected, it was found that more self-related words in negative memory were used in urban ($M = 4.52$ $SD = 5.01$) compared to rural ($M = 4.25$, $SD = 4.93$), but no statistically significant result was obtained. Also, more other-related words were used in urban ($M = 3.22$, $SD = 4.63$) than rural ($M = 2.96$, $SD = 4.46$) in negative memory, as hypothesized, but it was also not statistically significant. Finally, contrary to other characteristics, it was concluded that more we-related words were used in rural ($M = .69$, $SD = 1.67$) than urban ($M = .60$, $SD = 1.28$) in negative memory.

Table 11

ANOVA Results for the Interaction between Residency, Maternal Education, and Maternal Employment on Children's Autobiographical Memory Characteristics in Positive Memory

	Total Words				Self-Related Words			
Predictor	SS	MS	*F*(1, 1270)	η^2	SS	MS	*F*(1, 1270)	η^2
Residency	417.02	417.02	1.08	.001	23.03	23.03	1.87	.001
Education	4789.65	4789.65	12.38**	.010	67.36	67.36	5.45*	.004
Employment	20.17	20.17	0.05	.000	10.43	10.43	0.85	.001
Residency x Education	288.08	288.08	0.75	.001	4.21	4.21	0.34	.000
Residency x Employment	25.27	25.27	0.07	.000	2.23	2.23	0.18	.000
Education x Employment	207.37	207.37	0.54	.000	.12	.12	0.01	.000
Residency x Education x Employment	187.26	187.26	0.48	.000	38.82	38.82	3.14	.002
Residuals	491208.12	386.78			15684.61	12.35		

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

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

Table 11 (continued)

ANOVA Results for the Interaction between Residency, Maternal Education, and Maternal Employment on Children's Autobiographical Memory Characteristics in Positive Memory

	Other-Related Words				We-Related Words			
Predictor	SS	MS	*F*(1. 1270)	η^2	SS	MS	*F*(1. 1270)	η^2
Residency	11.46	11.46	1.34	.001	.29	.29	0.06	.000
Education	52.80	52.80	6.16*	.005	25.22	25.22	5.16*	.004
Employment	8.79	8.79	1.03	.001	.23	.23	0.05	.000
Residency x Education	.08	.08	0.01	.000	7.62	7.62	1.56	.001
Residency x Employment	1.03	1.03	0.12	.000	15.57	15.57	3.19	.003
Education x Employment	9.40	9.40	1.10	.001	3.15	3.15	0.64	.001
Residency x Education x Employment	5.80	5.80	0.68	.001	2.24	2.24	0.46	.000
Residuals	10889.72	8.58			6204.96	4.89		

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

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

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics for the Interaction between Residency, Maternal Education, and Maternal Employment on Children's Autobiographical Memory Characteristics in Positive Memory

Predictors			Total-Words			Self-Related Words			Other-Related Words			We-Related Words		
Residency	Maternal Education	Maternal Employment	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N
Rural	Secondary and below	Non-working	16.92	18.21	195	3.38	3.45	195	1.99	2.44	195	.95	1.89	195
		Working	16.21	16.27	53	3.51	4.01	53	2.09	2.78	53	.87	1.56	53
	High school and above	Non-working	22.90	21.86	79	4.56	3.91	79	2.86	3.16	79	1.72	3.359	79
		Working	22.28	23.64	60	3.77	3.89	60	2.20	3.06	60	1.18	1.85	60
Urban	Secondary and below	Non-working	17.29	15.92	268	3.52	3.27	268	1.88	2.19	268	.93	1.60	268
		Working	15.36	13.97	72	2.99	2.56	72	1.69	1.96	72	1.19	2.15	72
	High school and above	Non-working	18.98	20.59	290	3.54	3.11	290	2.36	3.64	290	1.11	2.16	290
		Working	20.98	23.10	261	3.83	4.09	261	2.27	3.17	261	1.33	2.74	261

On the other hand, the main effect of maternal education level was significant for all criterion variables: There were statistically significant results between maternal education level and total words ($F(1, 1351) = 11.29$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2p = 0.08$), self-related words ($F(1, 1351) = 9.10$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.007$), other-related words ($F(1, 1351) = 5.14$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.004$), and we-related words ($F(1, 1351) = 6.38$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.005$) in negative memory. As expected, statistically significant results were obtained according to the mother's education level. Consistent with the hypotheses, as the mother's education level increased, there were increases in total number of words, self-related words, and other-related words. More total words were used in children's negative memories of highly educated mothers ($M = 23.38$, $SD = 26.43$) compared to less educated mothers ($M = 19.42$, $SD = 24.89$). More self-related words were used in children's negative memories of highly educated mothers ($M = 4.76$, $SD = 4.93$) compared to less educated mothers ($M = 4.07$, $SD = 5.02$). More other-related words were used in children's negative memories of highly educated mothers ($M = 3.32$, $SD = 4.75$) compared to less educated mothers ($M = 2.93$, $SD = 4.38$). Additionally, more we-related words were used in children's negative memories of highly educated mothers ($M = .67$, $SD = 1.48$) compared to less educated mothers ($M = .59$, $SD = 1.32$).

The results showed that the main effect of maternal employment was not significant for total words ($F(1, 1351) = 1.07$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.001$), self-related words ($F(1, 1351) = 2.85$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.002$), other-related words ($F(1, 1352) = 1.85$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.001$), and we-related words ($F(1, 1351) = 0.45$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$) in negative memory. As hypothesized, more words were used in children's negative memories of working mothers ($M = 21.98$, $SD = 25.56$) compared to non-working mothers ($M = 21.26$, $SD = 25.63$); however, there was no statistically significant result.

Also, it was found that self-related words were used in children's negative memories were the same for non-working mothers ($M = 4.44$, $SD = 5.04$) and working mothers ($M = 4.43$, $SD = 4.88$). Also, more other-related words were used in children's negative memories of non-working mothers ($M = 3.15$, $SD = 4.77$) compared to working mothers ($M = 3.12$, $SD = 4.20$), but it was also not statistically significant. Finally, it was concluded that more we-related words were used in children's negative memories

of non-working mothers (M = .64, SD = 1.50) compared to working mothers (M = .60, SD = 1.23).

The interaction of residency and maternal education was not statistically significant for total words ($F(1, 1351) = 1.53$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.001$), self-related words ($F(1, 1351) = 0.30$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$), and other-related words ($F(1, 1351) = 1.48$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.001$); however the interaction of them was statistically significant for we-related words ($F(1, 1351) = 14.88$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2p = 0.011$) in negative memory (see Figure 8).

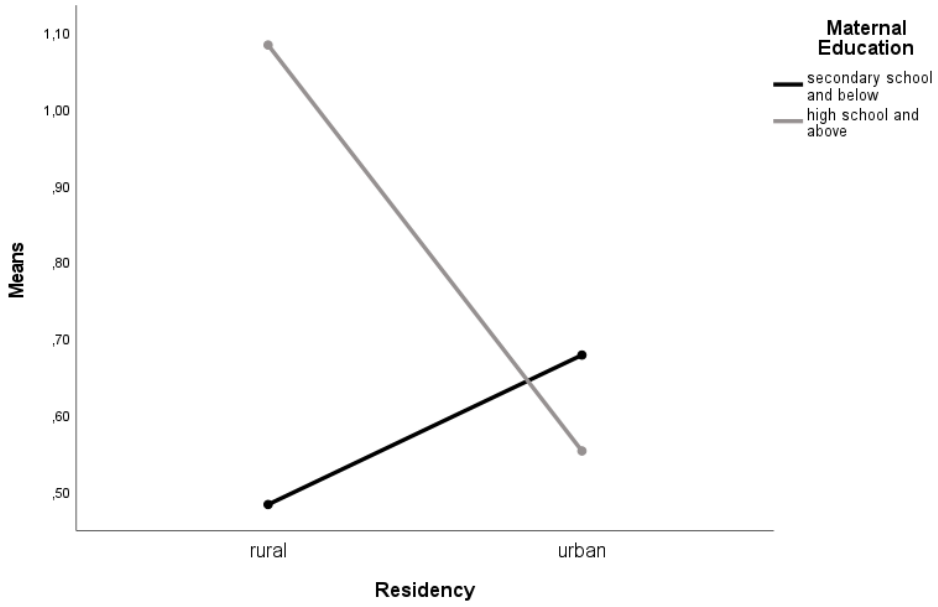


Figure 8

Line Graph of the Interaction of Residency and Maternal Education Based on We-Related Words in Negative Memory

Also, the interaction of residency and maternal employment was not statistically significant for total words ($F(1, 1351) = 0.06$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$), self-related words ($F(1, 1351) = 0.17$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$), other-related words ($F(1, 1351) = 0.23$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$), and we-related words ($F(1, 1351) = 0.12$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$) in negative memory. Additionally, the interaction of maternal education level and employment was not statistically significant for total words ($F(1, 1351) = 0.13$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$), self-related words ($F(1, 1351) = 0.20$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$), other-related words ($F(1, 1351) = 0.09$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$), and we-related words ($F(1, 1351) = 1.09$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.001$) in negative memory.

Finally, the interaction of residency, maternal education, and maternal employment was statistically significant for total words ($F(1, 1351) = 4.54$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.003$), self-related words ($F(1, 1351) = 6.61$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.005$), and other-related words ($F(1, 1351) = 4.29$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.003$) (see Figure 9, Figure 10, and Figure 11); however, the interaction of them was not statistically significant for we-related words ($F(1, 1351) = 0.12$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2p = 0.000$) in negative memory. Descriptive statistics for the interaction were presented in Table 14. Those results were discussed in Chapter 4.

3.7. Regression analyses

Simple linear regression analyses were conducted to investigate whether mothers' autobiographical memory characteristics significantly predict children's autobiographical memory characteristics.

Simple linear regression for total words in positive memory revealed that total words in positive memory of mother explained approximately 1% of the variance, adjusted $R^2 = .009$, ($F(1, 1018) = 9.85$, $p < .05$. Mothers' total words in positive memory significantly predicted children's total words in positive memory, $\beta = .10$, $t = 3.14$, $p < .05$ (see Table 15).

Simple linear regression for self-related words in positive memory revealed that self-related words in positive memory of mother explained approximately 1% of the variance, adjusted $R^2 = .005$, ($F(1, 1018) = 6.13$, $p < .05$. Mothers' self-related words in positive memory significantly predicted children's self-related words in positive memory, $\beta = .08$, $t = 2.48$, $p < .05$ (see Table 16).

Simple linear regression for other-related words in positive memory revealed that other-related words in positive memory of mother explained approximately 1% of the variance, adjusted $R^2 = .007$, ($F(1, 1018) = 7.69$, $p < .05$. Mothers' other-related words in positive memory significantly predicted children's other-related words in positive memory, $\beta = .09$, $t = 2.77$, $p < .05$ (see Table 17).

Simple linear regression for we-related words in positive memory revealed that we-related words in positive memory of mother explained approximately 1% of the variance, adjusted R^2 = .005, (F(1, 1018) = 5.81, p < .05. Mothers' we-related words in positive memory significantly predicted children's we-related words in positive memory, β = .08, t = 2.41, p < .05 (see Table 18).

Simple linear regression for total words in negative memory revealed that total words in negative memory of mother explained approximately 4% of the variance, adjusted R^2 = .037, (F(1, 1084) = 43.16, p < .001. Mothers' total words in negative memory significantly predicted children's total words in negative memory, β = .20, t = 6.57, p < .001 (see Table 19).

Simple linear regression for self-related words in negative memory revealed that self-related words in negative memory of mother explained approximately 3% of the variance, adjusted R^2 = .028, (F(1, 1084) = 31.81, p < .001. Mothers' self-related words in negative memory significantly predicted children's self-related words in negative memory, β = .17, t = 5.64, p < .001 (see Table 20).

Simple linear regression for other-related words in negative memory revealed that other-related words in negative memory of mother explained approximately 1% of the variance, adjusted R^2 = .009, (F(1, 1084) = 11.17, p < .001. Mothers' other-related words in negative memory significantly predicted children's other-related words in negative memory, β = .10, t = 3.34, p < .001 (see Table 21).

Simple linear regression for we-related words in negative memory revealed that we-related words in negative memory of mother explained 0.4% of the variance, adjusted R^2 = .004, (F(1, 1084) = 5.71, p < .05. Mothers' we-related words in negative memory significantly predicted children's we-related words in negative memory, β = .07, t = 2.39, p < .05 (see Table 22).

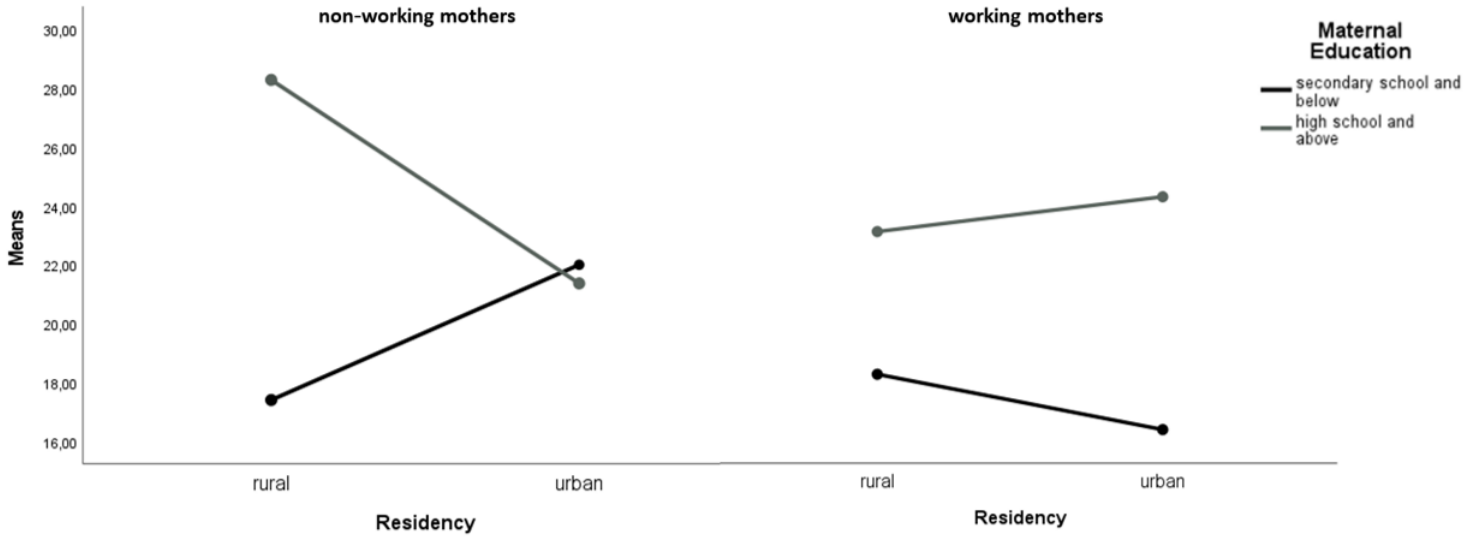


Figure 9

Line Graph of the Interaction of Residency, Maternal Education, and Maternal Employment Based on Total Words in Negative Memory

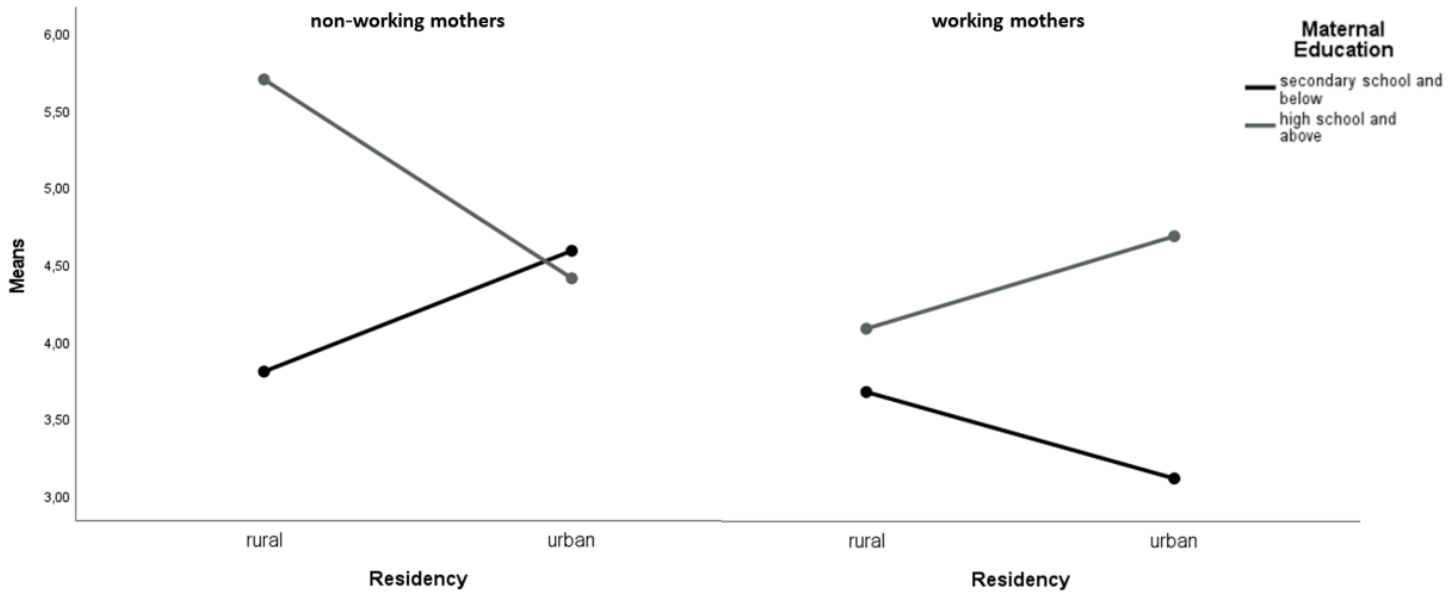


Figure 10

Line Graph of the Interaction of Residency, Maternal Education, and Maternal Employment Based on Self-Related Words in Negative Memory

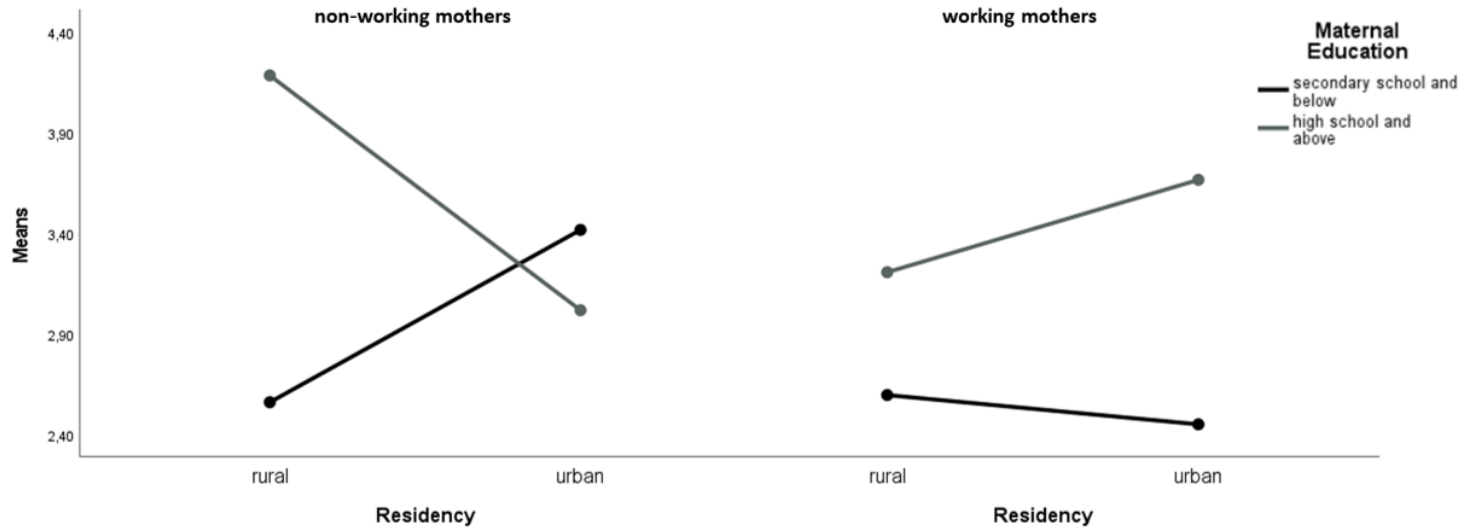


Figure 11

Line Graph of the Interaction of Residency, Maternal Education, and Maternal Employment Based on Other-Related Words in Negative Memory

Table 13

ANOVA Results for the Interaction between Residency, Maternal Education, and Maternal Employment on Children's Autobiographical Memory Characteristics in Negative Memory

	Total Words				Self-Related Words			
Predictor	SS	MS	$F(1, 1351)$	η^2	SS	MS	$F(1, 1351)$	η^2
Residency	126.36	126.36	0.20	.000	2.90	2.90	0.12	.000
Education	7331.21	7331.21	11.29**	.008	224.00	224.00	9.10*	.007
Employment	697.61	697.61	1.07	.001	70.16	70.16	2.85	.002
Residency x Education	994.99	994.99	1.53	.001	7.34	7.34	0.30	.000
Residency x Employment	36.68	36.68	0.06	.000	4.17	4.17	0.17	.000
Education x Employment	84.74	84.74	0.13	.000	4.86	4.86	0.20	.000
Residency x Education x Employment	2950.04	2950.04	4.54*	.003	162.86	162.86	6.61*	.005
Residuals	877641.56	649.62			33267.93	24.63		

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

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

Table 13 (continued)

ANOVA Results for the Interaction between Residency, Maternal Education, and Maternal Employment on Children's Autobiographical Memory Characteristics in Negative Memory

	Other-Related Words				We-Related Words			
Predictor	SS	MS	$F(1, 1351)$	η^2	SS	MS	$F(1, 1351)$	η^2
Residency	.02	.02	0.00	.000	6.23	6.23	3.17	.002
Education	107.48	107.48	5.14*	.004	12.53	12.53	6.38*	.005
Employment	38.55	38.55	1.85	.001	.88	.88	0.45	.000
Residency x Education	31.00	31.00	1.48	.001	29.23	29.23	14.88**	.011
Residency x Employment	4.71	4.71	0.23	.000	.23	.23	0.12	.000
Education x Employment	1.80	1.80	0.09	.000	2.15	2.15	1.09	.001
Residency x Education x Employment	89.58	89.58	4.29*	.003	.23	.23	0.12	.000
Residuals	28228.24	20.89			2653.68	1.96		

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

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

Table 14

Descriptive Statistics for the Interaction between Residency, Maternal Education, and Maternal Employment on Children's Autobiographical Memory Characteristics in Negative Memory

Predictors			Total Words			Self-Related Words			Other-Related Words			We-Related Words		
Residency	Maternal Education	Maternal Employment	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N	M	SD	N
Rural	Secondary and below	Non-working	17.39	22.95	211	3.80	5.04	211	2.57	3.58	211	.47	1.13	211
		Working	18.24	20.26	58	3.81	3.76	58	2.55	3.64	58	.50	1.00	58
	High school and above	Non-working	28.28	34.09	82	5.70	5.87	82	4.18	6.69	82	1.20	2.63	82
		Working	23.08	25.19	66	4.29	3.80	66	3.08	4.06	66	.97	1.91	66
Urban	Secondary and below	Non-working	21.99	26.99	291	4.59	5.44	291	3.42	5.17	291	.66	1.54	291
		Working	16.37	20.93	82	3.16	4.01	82	2.43	3.47	82	.70	1.15	82
	High school and above	Non-working	21.36	22.93	303	4.41	4.30	303	3.02	4.43	303	.60	1.21	303
		Working	24.26	27.66	266	4.99	5.47	266	3.47	4.52	266	.50	1.06	266

Table 15

Regression Analysis Summary for Total Words in Positive Memory

Variable	B	95% CI	Beta (β)	t	*p*
(Constant)	17.21	[15.66, 18.75]		21.83	< .001
Total Words of Mothers in PM	0.09	[0.03, 0.14]	0.10	3.14	.002

Note: R^2 adjusted = 0.01, PM = Positive Memory, CI = Confidence interval for B.

Table 16

Regression Analysis Summary for Self-Related Words in Positive Memory

Variable	B	95% CI	Beta (β)	t	*p*
(Constant)	3.38	[3.07, 3.69]		21.57	< .001
Self-Related Words of Mothers in PM	0.07	[0.01, 0.13]	0.08	2.48	.013

Note: R^2 adjusted = 0.01, PM = Positive Memory, CI = Confidence interval for B.

Table 17

Regression Analysis Summary for Other-Related Words in Positive Memory

Variable	B	95% CI	Beta (β)	t	*p*
(Constant)	1.99	[1.77, 2.20]		17.94	< .001
Other-Related Words of Mothers in PM	0.08	[0.02, 0.13]	0.09	2.77	.006

Note: R^2 adjusted = 0.01, PM = Positive Memory, CI = Confidence interval for B.

Table 18

Regression Analysis Summary for We-Related Words in Positive Memory

Variable	B	95% CI	Beta (β)	t	*p*
(Constant)	1.06	[0.92, 1.20]		14.69	< .001
We-Related Words of Mothers in PM	0.10	[0.02, 0.18]	0.08	2.41	.016

Note: R^2 adjusted = 0.01, PM = Positive Memory, CI = Confidence interval for B.

Table 19

Regression Analysis Summary for Total Words in Negative Memory

Variable	B	95% CI	Beta (β)	t	*p*
(Constant)	18.50	[16.57, 20.44]		18.76	< .001
Total Words of Mothers in NM	0.16	[0.11, 0.21]	0.20	6.57	< .001

Note: R^2 adjusted = 0.04, NM = Negative Memory, CI = Confidence interval for B.

Table 20

Regression Analysis Summary for Self-Related Words in Negative Memory

Variable	B	95% CI	Beta (β)	t	*p*
(Constant)	3.86	[3.49, 4.24]		20.24	< .001
Self-Related Words of Mothers in NM	0.15	[0.10, 0.20]	0.17	5.64	< .001

Note: R^2 adjusted = 0.03, NM = Negative Memory, CI = Confidence interval for B.

Table 21

Regression Analysis Summary for Other-Related Words in Negative Memory

Variable	B	95% CI	Beta (β)	t	*p*
(Constant)	3.00	[2.66, 3.34]		17.43	< .001
Other-Related Words of Mothers in NM	0.10	[0.04, 0.15]	0.10	3.34	< .001

Note: R^2 adjusted = 0.01, NM = Negative Memory, CI = Confidence interval for B.

Table 22

Regression Analysis Summary for We-Related Words in Negative Memory

Variable	B	95% CI	Beta (β)	t	*p*
(Constant)	0.62	[0.52, 0.71]		12.85	< .001
We-Related Words of Mothers in NM	0.07	[0.01, 0.12]	0.07	2.39	.017

Note: R^2 adjusted = 0.00, NM = Negative Memory, CI = Confidence interval for B.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The aim of the current study was to investigate the impact of mothers' employment and educational status, as well as the cultural contexts they live in, on children's autobiographical memory development within a representative sample of Türkiye. Additionally, the study explored whether mothers' autobiographical memory characteristics impact their children's autobiographical memory development. In addition, the study examined the roles of children's age and gender on their autobiographical memory development. For this reason, emotionally-charged memories were collected from children and their mothers within a representative sample of Türkiye, and analyses were conducted. In this section, the findings were discussed within the literature framework, and the study's contributions to the literature were highlighted. Subsequently, the study's limitations and suggestions for future studies were given, and finally, the study was summarized.

First, it was hypothesized that children's emotionally-charged memories would differ based on gender. The literature indicates that in early mother-child memory conversations, mothers talk about more socially oriented memories with their daughters and more achievement-related topics with sons (Fivush, 1991; Buckner & Fivush, 2000). Furthermore, mothers talk about past experiences with their daughters longer and make more references to others in these conversations (Reese & Fivush, 1993; Fiese & Skillman, 2000). Daughters also engage in longer conversations with their parents during memory talks compared to sons (Haden et al., 1997). Early mother-child memory conversations affect children's autobiographical memory development, and these gender differences persist into adulthood (Webster, 1995; Davis, 1999; Bauer et al., 2003). Based on the literature, it was hypothesized that boys in the Turkish sample would use more self-related words, while girls would use more

other-related words and tell longer memories. The use of we-related words was also examined for exploratory reasons.

The findings of this study partially supported the literature. It was observed that the total number of words, self-related words, other-related words, and we-related words used by girls in both types of memories were higher than those used by boys. As hypothesized, girls shared longer memories and mentioned others more frequently in their emotionally-charged memories. Contrary to the literature, girls in this study mentioned themselves more frequently compared to boys. Additionally, girls used more we-related words than boys. These findings suggest that in the Turkish representative sample, girls are encouraged to value both themselves and other people, especially relationships. Moreover, as found in Buckner and Fivush's study (2000), mothers use the word "we" more frequently during memory conversations with their daughters, highlighting the importance of group identity in memory conversations, which might have influenced the use of we-related words in emotionally-charged memories of girls.

Secondly, it was expected that as children age, their autobiographical memory would also develop alongside their physical and cognitive growth. Memory conversations, which begin in the preschool period, gain momentum with the start of school, and children's memories become important in writing as they learn to read and write in elementary school. In this study, data were not collected from 1st and 2nd grade students in Time 1 because children at these ages needed better expression skills and would have difficulty collecting written data. Data were collected from 4th grade students and beyond in Time 2, with the expectation that autobiographical memory would develop from elementary school through high school. Especially during high school, with the onset of adolescence, self-development becomes essential, affecting the content of memories. As emphasized by Kagitcibasi (2005), with the development of self, memories are expected to be richer and longer and include more references to both themselves and others. For this reason, it was expected that with increasing age, children would write longer memories and mention more about themselves and others. Additionally, it was hypothesized that we-related words would differ when age increased.

Contrary to expectations, the results indicated that while the number of words in both memories increased from elementary to secondary school, there was a dramatic decrease in high school. Multiple reasons were considered for this trend. Notably, there was an increase in the transition from elementary to secondary school, especially to 6th grade students. A slight decrease was observed in the 7th and 8th grades; however, a dramatic decline was observed upon entering high school. This trend was considered meaningful within the context of the Turkish sample. A high school entrance exam is held for the transition from secondary school to high school, and over the past decade, secondary school children have been subjected to significant pressure from their families and teachers due to this exam. One potential reason for this dramatic decline could be exposure to long-term pressure. Additionally, since children are constantly exam-oriented, the survey might have been perceived as another exam, resulting in insufficient data collection from high school children. Furthermore, despite emphasizing confidentiality during data collection, high school students might be hesitant to share their personal memories with their teachers or families compared to secondary school students. Data from children were collected in the school environment, and the researchers' communication with teachers and parents might have contributed to this distrust. This could explain why high school students used fewer words in their memories compared to secondary school students. Moreover, as Habermas and Paha (2001) emphasized, adolescents begin to narrate more thematically coherent memories with accelerated cognitive development upon entering high school. Thus, they might have conveyed more with fewer words. In other words, adolescents might have provided more in-depth content with shorter memories. Future studies could consider not only the total number of words used in autobiographical memories but also the coherence of these memories.

No statistically significant results were obtained for self-related words in both memory types. There was no significant change in self-related words as age increased, contrary to expectations. As emphasized by Kagitcibasi (2005), the sense of self is expected to be formed during adolescence, so as age increases, the newly formed self would affect autobiographical memory development. However, this result was not observed in this study, suggesting that adolescents in the representative Turkish sample might suppress their self-expression.

On the other hand, other-related words were meaningful only in positive memories, while no significant results were obtained in negative memories. The results showed that high school students used fewer other-related words in positive memories compared to middle school students but as many other-related words in negative memories as middle school students. Literature suggests that negative memories have evolutionary importance. Positive memories are often recounted to strengthen family bonds, while negative memories are recounted to give lessons (Bluck, 2003). Therefore, regardless of age, negative memories might contain more references to others, leading to more frequent use of other-related words in negative memories compared to positive ones. In positive memories, successes are generally recounted, whereas in negative memories, family conflicts and relationships with friends are highlighted (Pillemer et al., 2007), which might explain the usage of other-related words across all ages in negative memories.

We-related words are a relatively under-studied topic in autobiographical memory literature. However, a few studies have evaluated we-related words as a combination of self-related and other-related words (Sahin & Mebert, 2013). In current study, it was observed in both memories that the usage of we-related words, like self-related and other-related words, increased from elementary to secondary school but experienced a dramatic decrease in high school. This might be due to identity development, whereas as children age, they transition from a collective "we" to a more individualistic "I and others" perspective.

Many studies have demonstrated that cultural context has an impact on autobiographical memory development (Choi, 1992; Wang, 2001; Wang, 2006a). Comparisons between Western and Eastern cultures have shown that individuals in more individualistic Western societies tend to provide more detailed narratives and focus more on themselves in their memories. On the other hand, in Eastern countries with a more collectivist culture, memories often include more references to others, especially family bonds (Mullen & Yi, 1995; Wang, 2001; Wang & Fivush, 2005). The observed differences between Eastern and Western cultures suggest that there might also be differences between urban and rural areas. It is known that more importance is given to interdependence in rural areas, but more value is given to

individual goals and achievement in urban areas (Sunar & Fişek, 2005). In light of the literature, it was hypothesized that memories would differ between urban and rural areas within the Turkish representative sample.

The findings indicated no significant differences between urban and rural areas. This surprising result could have multiple explanations. First, residing in urban or rural areas does not necessarily imply displaying independent or interdependent characteristics. The importance of self-construal has been understood once again. Future studies should consider self-construal when examining urban-rural differences. Additionally, a study conducted by Kagitcibasi and Ataca (2005) compared middle-SES and low-SES mothers living in urban areas in terms of the values they gave to their children, and it was found that middle-SES mothers attributed less economic and utilitarian values to their children. It is known that as economic and utilitarian value increases, the importance of relationships between individuals also increases (Kagitcibasi, 1982; Kagitcibasi, 2005). Therefore, it was concluded that SES differences could impact autobiographical memory development. Rather than focusing on urban-rural differences, it was suggested that the SES of mothers living in urban and rural areas is important for autobiographical memory development. Future studies should consider classifying mothers based on their urban-rural residence and SES.

Mothers play a significant role in the development of their children's autobiographical memory, as supported and emphasized by numerous studies (Reese et al., 1993; Reese & Fivush, 1993; Leichtman et al., 2000; Wang & Leichtman, 2000; Wang, 2001; Fivush, 2007). It is also well-documented that mothers' SES also impacts children's development (Hoff, 2003; Lareau, 2011), particularly in terms of cognitive development (Küntay & Ahtam, 2004). In light of the literature, mothers' socioeconomic status indicators might have a role in children's autobiographical memory development. It is posited that educated and employed mothers positively influence the family's structure (Kalaycıoğlu et al., 2010), which may, in turn, affect children's development, especially their autobiographical memory. For that reason, it was hypothesized that children of highly educated mothers would write longer autobiographical memories and include more references to themselves and others compared to children of less educated mothers. There was also expected to be a

difference in the number of we-related words. The findings in the current study support the hypotheses. It has been observed that as the education level of the mothers increased, the children wrote longer memories and mentioned themselves and others more frequently, regardless of the type of memories. In addition, children of educated mothers used more we-related words. These findings led to the conclusion that mothers' high education level positively affects children's autobiographical memory development. While previous research has established that mothers' education level predicts the cognitive development of their children (Kagitcibasi, 1989), this study uniquely demonstrates that mothers' education level impacts children's emotionally-charged memories.

On the other hand, the study found that mothers' employment status did not significantly and directly impact any characteristics of children's memories. In other words, the employment of mothers did not affect whom children mentioned in their autobiographical memories or the length of these memories. In light of these findings, it might be concluded that in the Turkish sample, maternal employment should not be considered an indicator of well-being. Many participating mothers in the current study were seasonal workers, daily laborers, or employed in jobs without a fixed income, while many university-educated mothers were not working. While most of the mothers participating in the study have to work due to economic concerns, some mothers are highly educated but do not prefer to work. For this reason, no effect of mothers' working status on children's autobiographical memories was observed. In SES studies, the role of maternal education on the child's development is generally investigated because employment status may vary over time (Brooks-Gun & Duncan, 1997; Bornstein et al., 2003). Even within a short one-year period, the employment status of mothers in this study changed. Future research should, therefore, carefully consider maternal employment status as an SES indicator.

When examining the interactions of culture, maternal education, and employment status, no significant interactions were found in positive memories. However, in negative memories, the interaction between residential setting and maternal education influenced the use of we-related words. Children of educated mothers living in rural areas used more we-related words in their memories. Within the scope of this result,

educated mothers living in rural areas might be emphasizing “being us” and use “we” word more frequently when talking about their negative memories with their children. It might be suggested to investigate the role of a mother’s education level on mother-child memory conversations in rural and urban settings.

While the interaction between maternal employment and settlement type was not significant, maternal employment and maternal education were also not significant in negative memories. However, the interaction of settlement type, maternal education, and maternal employment significantly predicted the total number of words, self-related words, and other-related words in negative memories. It was found that children of less educated and employed mothers living in urban areas used fewer words, self-related words, and other-related words in negative memories compared to children of educated and non-working mothers in rural areas. As emphasized before, in the Turkish sample, less educated mothers worked in urban areas due to economic concerns; on the other hand, educated mothers living in rural areas did not work. This suggests that, contrary to expectations, maternal employment in the representative sample of Türkiye might not signify higher SES and might negatively impact children's memory development due to economic pressures.

Previous studies have highlighted the need to investigate differences in memory development between urban and rural settings (Wang, 2001). In this study, the difference between urban and rural areas was examined; however, there was no difference between urban and rural areas, while the mother's education and employment status, which are considered SES indicators, and the urban-rural interaction gave significant results. This highlights the presence of both low and high SES families in urban and rural areas. Future studies should investigate the role of SES on autobiographical memory development in urban and rural settings.

Finally, it was hypothesized that mothers' autobiographical memory characteristics would predict those of their children. Literature supports a positive correlation between mothers' and children's autobiographical memory characteristics (Van Bergen et al., 2020; Alkis et al., 2024). The results of this study support this, finding that the total number of words, self-related words, other-related words, and we-related words in

mothers' positive memories positively predicted these characteristics in their children's memories. Similar results were found in negative memories. Regardless of the type of memory, both maternal education and maternal memory characteristics significantly impacted children's autobiographical memory characteristics. As seen in the reminiscing literature, it has been proven again that mothers directly affect children's memory development.

This study contributes significantly to the literature. It is the first known study in the field of autobiographical memory development with a representative sample from Türkiye. The large sample size enhances the generalizability of the findings. In addition, the study reinforces the role of mothers in their children's memory development, showing that children of educated mothers exhibit better memory development. Thus, the importance of girls' education was emphasized once again. Additionally, the study challenges the notion that maternal employment necessarily indicates higher SES and that unemployment of mothers has negative effects on children's development. The study also uniquely investigates we-related words, a relatively unexplored area. Additionally, it has been underlined that mothers' autobiographical memory levels affect those of their children.

This study also has several limitations. The involvement of a large research team, despite training to ensure consistency, is a limitation. In addition, collecting data in the school environment, while advantageous in some respects, might have impacted the depth and length of the written memories. During data collection, many students in the classroom filled out the scales on tablets simultaneously. The fact that the children were in the same classroom at the same time during data collection might have caused the content of the memories to be not detailed and caused concern about whether anyone would see their memories. In addition, the researchers' communication with the children's mothers and teachers might have raised concerns that the memories could be learned by their mothers and teachers; however, because of ethical reasons, data were not shared with anyone other than the researchers.

In addition, while children's data were collected in schools, mothers' data were collected remotely via internet-enabled devices, leading to potential inconsistencies in

the data collection process; therefore, the contents of memories might have been affected. Future studies should ensure data is collected in a consistent and secure environment for all participants.

Although only the emotionally-charged autobiographical memory questionnaire was used in the current study, the project included several other scales that could have primed children to recall emotional memories involving family and friends. This might have influenced the types of memories reported by the children.

In summary, this study provides specific contributions to autobiographical memory research. It examined the influence of settlement type, maternal education, and maternal employment on children's autobiographical memory characteristics, which are the total number of words in children's memories, how much they talked about themselves and others, and how much they used the word "we". The findings support the literature and offer unique insights. This is the first time that such a large study has been conducted in the field of autobiographical memory, and there is no other study similar to this study in the world. The fact that such a large study was conducted with a representative sample of Türkiye has enabled the mapping of the autobiographical memory development of children living in Türkiye. In the literature, data is usually collected from urban areas, but in this study, data was collected from both urban and rural areas, and the results of this study could be used as a basis. In addition, it is important that children from 4^{th} to 12^{th} grades were included in the study and that autobiographical memory development was observed on such a large developmental scale. It is also valuable to be able to look at the roles of several demographic information on autobiographical memory development at the same time. As previously emphasized, there is no known study investigating the roles of maternal education and maternal employment status on the child's autobiographical memory development. The importance of maternal education is emphasized, and the need for educating girls is re-emphasized. In addition, although data were collected separately from mothers and children, a very significant similarity was obtained between the memories of mothers and children and an important contribution was made to the literature.

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APPENDICES

A. APPROVAL OF THE METU HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER

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09 ARALIK 2021

Konu : Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi : İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Prof.Dr. Sibel KAZAK BERUMENT ve Dr.Öğr.Üyesi Başak Şahin ACAR

"Ebeveynlik Tutumlarının ve Ebeveyn-Çocuk İletişim Özelliklerinin Çocuk ve Ergen Gelişimine Etkisi" başlıklı araştırmanız İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülmüş ve **498-ODTU-2021** protokol numarası ile onaylanmıştır.

Saygılarımızla bilgilerinize sunarız.

Prof.Dr. Mine MİSİRLISOY
İAEK Başkan

B. TURKISH SUMMARY / TÜRKÇE ÖZET

Otobiyografik bellek; kişi için önem arz eden geçmişe ait olay ve deneyimlerin, tutarlı bir hikâye çerçevesinde değerlendirilmesi anlamına gelmektedir (Levine vd., 2002; Tulving, 2002). Otobiyografik bellek gelişimi, ebeveyn-çocuk arasındaki geçmiş yaşantılara dair küçük sohbetlerle başlamakta (Reese, 2002) ve yaşam boyu devam etmektedir (Fivush, 2011).

Otobiyografik bellek gelişimi üzerinde rol oynayan bireysel ve toplumsal faktörler söz konusudur. Otobiyografik bellek, kişinin yaşına ve cinsiyetine göre fark gösterebilmekte; diğer yandan ailesel faktörlerin, özellikle anne ile ilgili demografik özelliklerin ve kültürün de rolü aşikardır. Bu çalışmada Türkiye örnekleminde 4-12. sınıflar arasında eğitim gören çocuk ve ergenlerin otobiyografik bellek gelişimleri üzerinde rolü olabileceği düşünülen yaş, cinsiyet, annenin eğitim ve çalışma durumları ile kent-kır bağlamları incelenmiştir. Çocukların kişisel anılarında kimlerden bahsettikleri merak edilmiş ve bu çalışma kapsamında bu konu üzerinde durulmuştur.

Otobiyografik bellek alanyazında görülmektedir ki bebekler henüz birkaç kelime konuşurlarken dahi ebeveynleri, özellikle de anneleri ile geçmiş yaşantılar hakkında konuşmaktadırlar (Reese, 2002). Ancak belirtmekte fayda var: Bu konuşmalar derinliği olan konuşmalar değil, bebeklerin küçük katkılarda bulundukları konuşmalardır. 3 ila 5 yaş arasında, yani okul öncesi dönemde çocuklar daha derinlikli anı konuşmalarının bir parçası haline gelmektedirler (Fivush, 2007). 5 yaşın bitmesi ile de birlikte çocukların kendi anılarını daha uzun ve detaylı olarak anlatabildikleri bulgulanmıştır (Fivush, 2011).

Anılarda kimlerden bahsedildiği birçok çalışmanın konusu olmuştur. Örneğin, 40 ve 70 aylık çocuklar ve ebeveynlerinin anı konuşmaları incelenmiş ve büyük çocukların bu konuşmalar sırasında kendilerinden ve diğer insanlardan daha fazla bahsettikleri bulgulanmıştır (Buckner & Fivush, 2000). Okul öncesi dönem çocuklarla yapılan çalışmalarda da benzer sonuçlar elde edilmiştir: Büyük çocuklar daha uzun anılar

anlatmaktadırlar (Han vd., 1998). Okul dönemindeki 7-13 yaş çocuklarla yapılan başka bir çalışmada da (Piolino vd., 2007) büyük çocukların anılarını daha detaylı anlattıkları görülmüştür. Ergenlik dönemine gelindiğinde ise kimlik krizi baş göstermekte ve bilişsel gelişim ile kimlik gelişiminin anılarda bahsedilen kişileri etkilemesi öngörülmektedir. Öyle ki ergenlerin hem ailelerinden ayrışmaları hem de halihazırda var olan bu ilişkileri sürdürmeleri ve yeni ilişkiler kurmaları beklenmektedir (Kroger, 1998). Kağıtçıbaşı'nın (2005) da vurguladığı üzere ergenlerin kişisel ve ilişkisel temaları anılarında vurgulamaları beklenmektedir. Yani, anılarında hem kendilerinden hem de diğer insanlardan bahsetmeleri beklenmektedir. Ayrıca alanyazınla da tutarlı bir şekilde ergenlerin daha uzun ve daha detaylı anılar yazmaları öngörülmektedir.

Yaşa bağlı olarak bilişsel gelişimin hız kazanması ve bu gelişimin izlerinin otobiyografik bellekte de görülmesi olasıdır. Öte yandan, cinsiyete bağlı olarak da otobiyografik bellek gelişimi farklılaşabilmektedir. Birçok toplumda kız çocukları bir gün anne olacakları ve çocukları yetiştirecekleri düşünülerek büyütülmektedirler. Bu durum anı konuşmalarında da karşımıza çıkmaktadır (Buckner & Fivush, 2000). Yapılan pek çok çalışmada ebeveynlerin kız çocukları ile anılar hakkında konuşurken daha fazla ilişki temalarına yer verdikleri, daha zengin ve detaylı anılar anlattıkları (Fivush, 1991; Reese & Fivush, 1993; Buckner & Fivush, 2000; Fiese & Skillman, 2000) ancak oğlan çocukları ile konuşurken başarı ve kişisel gelişimi vurguladıkları bulgulanmıştır (Buckner & Fivush, 2000). Anılarda bahsedilen kişilerin de keza ebeveyn-çocuk anı konuşmalarında cinsiyete bağlı olarak farklılaştığı bulgulanmıştır. Örneğin, ebeveyn-kız çocuğu anı konuşmalarında ebeveynlerin daha fazla diğer insanlardan bahsettikleri raporlanırken (Reese & Fivush, 1993; Fiese & Skillman, 2000) kız çocuklarının bu anı konuşmalarında kendilerinden ve diğer insanlardan oğlan çocuklarına göre daha fazla bahsettikleri bulgulanmıştır (Buckner & Fivush, 2000). Ayrıca, çocukların kişisel anıları incelendiğinde de benzer bir trend görülmüştür: Kız çocukları kişisel anılarında daha fazla diğer insanlardan bahsederken oğlan çocukları daha fazla kendilerinden bahsetmektedir (Buckner & Fivush, 1998; Han et al., 1998). Çocukların yaşları ve cinsiyetlerine ek olarak kültürel bağlamın da otobiyografik bellek gelişimi üzerinde etkiye sahip olduğu pek çok çalışmada raporlanmıştır. Kültürel bağlam çalışmalarına bakıldığında büyük çoğunluk Batı

kültürleri ile Doğu kültürlerinin kıyaslandığı görülmektedir. Bireysel gelişime büyük önem veren Batı kültürlerinde çocukların kişisel anılarında kendilerinden daha fazla bahsettikleri (Wang, 2001) ancak ilişkilere daha fazla önem veren Doğu kültürlerinde kişisel anılarında diğer insanlardan daha fazla bahsedildiği bulgulanmıştır (Wang, 2006b). Kent ve kır bağlamında da farklılık görülebileceği düşünülmüştür. Yaşam koşulları sebebiyle kırda daha fazla ilişkilere önem verilirken kentte bireysellik daha fazla ön plandadır (Sunar & Fişek, 2005; Aycicegi-Dinn & Caldwell-Harris, 2013). Dolayısıyla otobiyografik bellek gelişiminin etkilenebileceği düşünülmüştür ancak bu bağlamda yapılan çalışmalar oldukça azdır (Wang vd., 1998; Gur-Yaish & Wang, 2006; Göz vd., 2017) ve araştırılmaya ihtiyaç vardır.

Annelerin birçok gelişim basamağında rol oynadığı aşikardır (Hoff, 2003; Lareau, 2011). Otobiyografik bellek gelişimi de annelerin sosyoekonomik karakteristiklerinin etkisi altında olabilir sonucuna ulaşılmaktadır. Ancak alanyazında birçok çalışma sosyoekonomik statüsü yüksek anneler ile gerçekleştirilmekte ve statü farklılıklarının otobiyografik bellek gelişimine olan etkisi üzerinde durulmamaktadır. Annelerin yüksek eğitimi ve çalışma durumları yüksek sosyoekonomik statünün göstergesi olarak kabul edilmekte olup eğitimli ve çalışan annelerin çocuklarının bilişsel gelişimlerini pozitif yönde etkiledikleri bulgular arasındadır (Kagitcibasi, 1989; Hoff, 2003; Davis-Kean, 2005; Lareau, 2011). Alanyazındaki bu bulgulardan yola çıkarak anne eğitim seviyesinin ve çalışma durumunun otobiyografik bellek gelişimini etkileyebileceği düşünülmüştür.

Bu çalışmada çocukların anılarında kimlerden bahsettikleri ve bu anıların uzunlukları üzerinde rolü olabilecek etmenler araştırılmıştır. Cinsiyetin bahsedilen kişiler üzerinde rolü olabileceği düşünülmüş ve kız çocuklarının anılarında daha fazla diğer insanlardan bahsedecekleri, oğlan çocuklarının ise daha fazla kendilerinden bahsedecekleri hipotezlenmiştir. Öte yandan, kız çocuklarının daha uzun anılar anlatacakları düşünülmüştür. Ayrıca, yaş arttıkça çocuklarının anılarının uzayacağı, kendilerinden ve diğer insanlardan daha fazla bahsedecekleri hipotezlenmiştir. Kültürel bağlama göre de farklılık görülebileceği düşünülmüş ve kentteki çocukların daha uzun anılar aktaracakları ve bu anılarda kendilerinden daha fazla bahsedecekleri, diğer yandan kırdaki çocukların diğer insanlardan daha fazla bahsedecekleri

beklenmiştir. Anne eğitim seviyesi ve çalışma durumunun da etkili olabileceği ön görülmüş: Annenin eğitim seviyesi arttıkça çocukların anılarında daha fazla kendilerinden ve diğer insanlardan bahsedecekleri ve daha uzun anılar anlatacakları hipotezlenmiştir. Ayrıca, çalışan annelerin çocuklarının da kendilerinden ve diğer insanlardan daha fazla bahsettikleri uzun anılar yazacakları beklenmiştir.

Bu çalışmada "biz" kelimesinin bahsedilme sıklığı da merak konusu olmuş ve araştırılmıştır. Ayrıca, annelerin kendi anılarında bahsettikleri kişilerin ve anı uzunluklarının çocukların anılarında bahsettikleri kişileri ve anı uzunluklarını yordayıp yordamadığı da incelenmiştir.

Bu çalışma, bir TÜBİTAK 1003 çalışması olan Türkiye Aile, Çocuk ve Ergen Projesinin (TAÇEP) bir parçası olarak gerçekleştirilmiş olup iki zamanlı toplanan verilerden sadece iki zamanda toplanan veriler kullanılarak gerçekleştirilmiştir. İkinci zamanda toplam 3955 anne ve 4315 çocuğa ulaşılmıştır. Ancak bu denli büyük bir veri setinde nitel veri çalışmak ciddi bir zaman ve efor istediğinden bir alt örneklem oluşturulmuştur. Projenin hedeflerinden birisi temsili bir Türkiye örneklemine ulaşmak olduğundan bu çaba bu çalışmada da hedeflenmiştir. Dolayısıyla ilk zaman verisinde her okuldan her sınıf seviyesinden 4 kişi seçilerek alt örneklem oluşturulmuştur. Alt örneklem 2052 anne-çocuk çiftinden oluşmakta idi ancak bu çalışmada kullanılan ölçek 4. sınıf ve üzeri çocuklara verildiğinden dolayı bu çalışmada 1672 anne-çocuk çiftinden alınan veriler kullanılmıştır. Çocukların cinsiyet dağılımı neredeyse eşit olup büyük bir bölümü kentte yaşamaktaydı. Annelerin büyük bir kısmı lise mezunu iken çoğunluk çalışmamaktaydı.

Bu çalışmada demografik bilgi formu ve duygu yüklü anılar ölçeği kullanılmış olup annelere ve çocuklara ayrı ayrı bu ölçekler verilmiştir. Demografik bilgi formunda birçok bilgi bulunmakla birlikte bu çalışmada anne ve çocuk yaşı, çocuğun cinsiyeti, annenin çalışma durumu ve eğitim seviyesi ve çocukların sınıf düzeyleri bilgileri kullanılmıştır. Duygu yüklü anılar ölçeğinde ise anneler ve çocuklardan bir mutlu bir mutsuz anılarını olabildiğince detaylı bir şekilde yazmaları istenmiştir. Bu ölçek anılarla ilgili farklı sorulara yer verse de bu çalışmada bu sorular kullanılmamıştır. Anne ve çocuklardan bir mutlu bir mutsuz anılarını yazmaları istenmiş ancak veriler

incelendiğinde her cevabın anı değeri taşımadığı fark edilmiştir. Bu sebeple 3 lisansüstü araştırmacısı bu verileri 0 ile 3 arasında kategorize etmiştir. İki zamanda toplamda 52.528 anı verisine ulaşılmış olup bu verilerin 6.566'sı 3 araştırmacı ile aynı anda aynı zaman diliminde ve anonim olarak kategorize edilmiştir. Ardından kalan veriler üç eşit parçaya ayrılmış ve kategorize işlemleri ayrı ayrı gerçekleştirilmiştir. Hiç anı verisi vermeyen ya da "Anım yok." yazılan verilere 0 değeri verilmiş ve "Anı yok" olarak kategorize edilmiştir. Belli bir zaman ve mekânda geçen anlatıları ise 1 değeri verilmiş ve "Episodik anı" olarak kategorize edilmiştir. Tekrarlanan durumlardan bahsedilen verilere ise "Semantik anı" denilmiş ve 2 değeri verilmiştir. Son olarak ise anı değeri taşımayan ancak açıklama yapılmış olan verilere ise 3 değeri verilmiş ve "Geçersiz" olarak kategorize edilmiştir. Bu çalışmada episodik anılar kullanılmıştır.

Episodik anıların uzunlukları ve bu anılarda bahsedilen kişiler hesaplanmıştır. İlk olarak tüm anılar Türkçe dil bilgisi kurallarına uygun olarak düzenlenmiş ve ardından bu anılarda kullanılan toplam kelime sayısı Microsoft Office Excel aracılığı ile hesaplanmıştır. Bu anılarda bahsedilen kişiler "ben ile ilgili kelimeler", "diğerleri ile ilgili kelimeler" ve "biz ile ilgili kelimeler" olmak üzere 3 başlıkta kodlanmıştır. "ben, beni, bana, bende, benden, benim, benimki, bence, kendim" gibi kelimeler "ben ile ilgili kelimeler" başlığında kodlanmış olup "o, onu, ona, onda, ondan, onlar, onları, onlara, onlarda, onlardan" gibi kelimeler "diğerleri ile ilgili kelimeler" başlığı altında kodlanmıştır. Ayrıca, özel insan isimleri ve hayvanlar da bu kategori altında kodlanmıştır. "Biz, bize, bizi, bizde, bizden, bizce" gibi kelimeler ise "biz ile ilgili kelimeler" başlığı altında kodlanmıştır. Bu çalışmanın yazarı tüm verileri kodlamış olup ikinci bir kodlamacı ise bu verilerin %20'sini kodlamıştır. Kodlamacılar arası güvenilirlik oldukça yüksek çıkmıştır.

Bu çalışma daha önce de bahsedildiği üzere TÜBİTAK 1003 projesi olan TAÇEP bünyesinde gerçekleştirilmiştir. Etik onay, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından verilmiş olup resmi onay Millî Eğitim Bakanlığından alınmıştır. Türkiye temsili örnekleme ulaşabilmek amacıyla okullar Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu tarafından belirlenmiştir. Bu projede oldukça geniş lisansüstü araştırmacıları ve lisans öğrencileri görev almıştır. İlk olarak araştırmacılar

ve lisans öğrencileri veri toplamadan önce yoğun bir eğitim almışlardır. Ardından Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu tarafından belirlenen okulların müdürleri ile araştırmacılar telefon görüşmeleri gerçekleştirmiştir. Görüşmeler ardından her sınıf düzeyinden 10 çocuğa ulaşmak hedeflenerek sınıf öğretmenleri aracılığı ile ebeveynlere ulaşılmıştır. Çalışmaya katılmayı kabul eden annelere anket çevrimiçi olarak gönderilmiştir. Ardından anketleri dolduran annelerin çocuklarının okullarına giderek çocuklardan tablet aracılığı ile veriler toplanmıştır. Birinci zamanda veri toplanan aileler ile ikinci zamanda tekrar iletişim kurulmuş ve aynı prosedür uygulanmıştır.

Veri toplama sürece tamamlandıktan sonra araştırma grubu ile verilerin temizliği gerçekleştirilmiştir. Ardından nitel veriler için alt örneklem oluşturulmuş ve anı verilerinin kategorizasyonuna geçilmiştir. Kategorize edilen anıların uzunlukları hesaplanmış ve son olarak anılarda bahsedilen kişiler kodlanmıştır.

IBM SPSS versiyon 28 kullanılarak gerekli analizler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Yaş arttıkça anı uzunluğunun ve anılarda bahsedilen kişilerin artış göstermesi hipotezlenmişti. Yaş değişkeni normal dağılım göstermediği için bu analiz için sınıf düzeyi değişkeni kullanılmıştır. Tek yönlü varyans analizi ile yaş artışının, yani sınıf düzeyi değişiminin çocukların kişisel anılarının uzunluğu ve bu anılarda bahsettikleri kişiler üzerindeki rolü incelenmiştir. Sonuçlara göre çocukların mutlu anılarında kullandıkları kelime sayıları, mutlu anılarında bahsettikleri diğer insanların miktarı ve “biz ile ilgili kelime” miktarı sınıf düzeyine göre farklılaşmakta. Diğer yandan, mutsuz anılarında kullandıkları kelime sayıları ve “biz ile ilgili kelime” miktarları da anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaşmaktadır. Games-Howell post hoc testi sonuçlarına göre, 6. sınıftaki çocukların mutlu anılarında bahsettikleri diğer kişilerin sayısı 9., 11. ve 12. sınıftaki çocukların mutlu anılarında bahsettikleri diğer kişilerin sayısından anlamlı bir şekilde daha fazladır. Diğer yandan, 6. sınıftaki çocukların mutlu anılarında kullandıkları “biz ile ilgili kelime” miktarı 9. sınıftaki çocukların mutlu anılarında kullandıkları “biz ile ilgili kelime” miktarından anlamlı bir şekilde daha fazladır. Mutsuz anılara bakıldığında ise, 7. sınıftaki çocukların anı uzunlukları 4. sınıf çocuklarının anı uzunluğundan anlamlı olarak daha fazladır. Ayrıca, 6. ve 7. sınıftaki çocukların mutsuz anılarında kullandıkları “biz ile ilgili” kelime miktarı 11. sınıftaki çocukların kullandıkları kelime miktarından anlamlı bir şekilde daha fazladır. Bulgular

alanyazında bahsedilen ve bu çalışmanın hipotezlerinin aksi yönündedir. Bu bulgular, daha sonraki bölümlerde tartışılacaktır.

Cinsiyete göre anı uzunluğunun değişmesi ve anılarda bahsedilen kişilerin farklılaşması beklenmekte idi. Bu sebeple tek yönlü varyans analizi ile cinsiyete bağlı değişim incelenmiştir. Sonuçlara göre, kız çocukları oğlan çocuklarına kıyasla her iki anı türünde de daha uzun anılar anlatmakta, daha fazla kendilerinden ve diğer insanlardan bahsetmekte ve "biz ile ilgili kelimeleri" daha fazla kullanmaktadırlar. Alanyazını destekler bulgular elde edilmiş olup kız çocuklarının anılarında kendilerinden daha fazla bahsetmeleri alanyazına farklı bir perspektiften katkıda bulunmuştur.

Anne eğitim ve anne çalışma durumu ile kültürel bağlamın çocukların anılarının uzunluğu ve anılarında bahsettikleri kişiler üzerindeki rolü merak edilmiş olup her iki anı türü için de iki ayrı üç yönlü varyans analizi gerçekleştirilmiştir. Kültürel bağlam kent ve kır olarak ikiye ayrılmış, anne eğitim düzeyi yüksek ve alçak diye ikiye ayrılmış ve son olarak çalışma durumu çalışıyor ve çalışmıyor olarak ikiye ayrılmıştır. Sonuçlara göre, mutlu anılarda bahsedilen kişiler ve anıların uzunluğu üzerinde kültürel bağlamın rolü bulunamamıştır. Ancak anne eğitim durumunun anılarda bahsedilen kişiler ve anıların uzunluğu üzerinde rolü olduğu bulgulanmıştır. Eğitimli annelerin çocuklarının mutlu anılarının daha uzun olduğu ve bu anılarda hem kendilerinden hem de diğer insanlardan daha fazla bahsettikleri görülmüştür. Ayrıca, "biz ile ilgili kelime" sayısının da eğitimli annelerin çocuklarında daha yüksek olduğu bulgulanmıştır. Anne çalışma durumunun ise çocukların mutlu anılarının uzunluğu ve bu anılarda bahsedilen kişiler üzerinde bir rolü olmadığı görülmüştür. Etkileşimlere bakıldığında ise hiçbir etkileşimin anlamlı sonuç vermediği raporlanmıştır.

Aynı analizler mutsuz anılar için de gerçekleştirilmiş olup tıpkı mutlu anılarda olduğu gibi kültürel bağlamın çocukların mutsuz anılarının uzunluğunda ve bu anılarda bahsedilen kişiler üzerinde anlamlı bir rolü olmadığı bulgulanmıştır. Anne eğitim seviyesinin ise çocukların mutsuz anılarının uzunluğunda ve bu anılarda bahsedilen kişiler üzerinde anlamlı bir rolü olduğu bulgulanmıştır. Mutlu anılarda da görüldüğü gibi eğitimli annelerin çocuklarının mutsuz anılarını daha uzun anlattıkları, bu anılarda

daha fazla kendilerinden ve diğer insanlardan bahsettikleri ve "biz ile ilgili kelimeleri" daha fazla kullandıkları bulgulanmıştır. Anne çalışma durumunun ise çocukların mutsuz anılarının uzunluğu ve anılarında bahsettikleri kişiler üzerinde rolü olmadığı görülmüştür. Etkileşimlere bakıldığında ise kültürel bağlam ve anne eğitim seviyesinin etkileşiminin "biz ile ilgili kelimeler" üzerinde rolü olduğu bulunmuş; kırda yaşayan eğitimli annelerin çocuklarının kentte yaşayan eğitimsiz annelerin çocuklarına kıyasla daha fazla "biz ile ilgili kelime" kullandıkları raporlanmıştır. Ayrıca, kültürel bağlam, anne eğitim ve anne çalışma durumu etkileşiminin de çocukların mutsuz anıları üzerinde rolü olduğu bulunmuştur. Kırda yaşayan eğitimli ancak çalışmayan annelerin çocuklarının kentte yaşayan eğitimsiz ve çalışan annelerin çocuklarına göre daha uzun mutsuz anılar anlattıkları ve bu anılarında kendilerinden ve diğerlerinden daha fazla bahsettikleri bulgulanmıştır. Tüm bu bulgular alanyazın özelinde ilerleyen bölümlerde tartışılmıştır.

Annelerin kendi kişisel anılarının uzunlukları ve anılarında bahsettikleri kişilerin çocukların kişisel anılarının uzunluklarını ve bu anılarda bahsettikleri kişileri yordayıp yordamadıkları merak edilmiş ve basit doğrusal regresyon analizleri ile incelenmiştir. Sonuçlara göre, annelerin kendi mutlu anılarının uzunluğu çocukların mutlu anılarının uzunluğunu yordadığı bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, annelerin kendi mutlu anılarında kendilerinden bahsetmelerinin çocukların mutlu anılarında kendilerinden bahsetmelerini yordadığı görülmüştür. Ek olarak, annelerin mutlu anılarında diğer insanlardan bahsetmelerinin de çocukların mutlu anılarında diğer insanlardan bahsetmelerini yordadığı bulgulanmıştır. Son olarak ise, annelerin kendi mutlu anılarında kullandıkları "biz ile ilgili kelimelerin" çocukların mutlu anılarında kullandıkları "biz ile ilgili kelimeleri" yordadığı görülmüştür. Benzer sonuçlar mutsuz anılar için de bulunmuştur. Annelerin mutsuz anılarının uzunluğunun çocukların mutsuz anılarının uzunluğunu, annelerin mutsuz anılarında kendilerinden bahsetmelerinin çocukların mutsuz anılarında kendilerinden bahsetmelerini, annelerin mutsuz anılarında diğer insanlardan bahsetmelerinin çocukların mutsuz anılarında diğer insanlardan bahsetmelerini ve annelerin mutsuz anılarında kullandıkları "biz ile ilgili kelimelerin" çocukların mutsuz anılarında kullandıkları "biz ile ilgili kelimeleri" yordadığı görülmüştür. Bu çalışma ile Türkiye temsili bir örneklemde çocukların anı uzunluklarının ve anılarında bahsettikleri kişilerin üzerinde rolü olan etmenler

incelenmiştir. Bulgular ile cinsiyete göre anı uzunluklarının ve anılarda bahsedilen kişilerin farklılaştığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Kız çocuklarının daha uzun anılar anlattıkları ve anılarında diğer insanlardan bahsettikleri alanyazında daha önce bulgulanmıştı (Reese & Fivush, 1993; Haden et al., 1997; Fiese & Skillman, 2000). Benzer sonuçların bu çalışma ile elde edilmiş olması alanyazını destekler niteliktedir. Ancak oğlan çocuklarının anılarında kendilerinden daha fazla bahsetmeleri beklenirken kız çocuklarının anılarında kendilerinden daha fazla bahsettikleri bulgulanmıştır. Bu bulgu Türkiye bağlamında değerlendirildiğinde ebeveynlerin, özellikle de annelerin kız çocuklarının benlik gelişimlerini daha fazla vurgulamaya meyilli olabilecekleri sonucuna ulaşılabilir. Ancak bu yorumu yapabilmek için bu konuda çalışmaların yapılmasına ihtiyaç vardır. Öte yandan, kız çocuklarının "biz" ile ilgili kelimeleri daha fazla kullandıkları Türkiye örnekleminde ilk kez bulgulanmıştır.

Bir diğer hipotez ise yaş arttıkça çocukların anılarının uzunluğunun artması ve anılarda bahsedilen kişi sayılarında da artış görülmesi idi. Beklenilenin aksine lise dönemindeki çocukların, yani ergenlerin anılarında daha az kelime kullandıkları ve daha az kendilerinden ve diğer insanlardan bahsettikleri bulgulanmıştır. Bu bulgu Türkiye bağlamında önem kazanmaktadır çünkü sonuçlara bakıldığında en büyük kırılmanın 8. sınıftan 9. sınıfa geçişte yaşandığı görülmektedir. Liseye geçiş sınavı çocukların otobiyografik bellek gelişimi bulgularını etkilemiş olabilir. Liseliler anketi yeni bir sınav olarak değerlendirmiş ve düşük performans göstermiş olabilirler. Ayrıca, uzun süreli baskıya maruz kalmak da bu sonuçların elde edilmesinde rol oynamış olabilir. Tüm bunların yanı sıra liselilerin bilişsel gelişim göstermeleri ile daha az kelime kullanarak daha çok şey anlattıkları sonucuna da ulaşılabilir. Gelecek çalışmaların liselilerin anılarını detay ve tematik tutarlılık çerçevesinde de incelemesi iyi olacaktır.

Beklenmedik bir şekilde kültürel bağlam özelinde anlamlı bir sonuç elde edilmemiştir. Bu bulgular kent ve kır bağlamında çocukların otobiyografik bellek gelişimlerinde farklılaşma olmadığını göstermektedir. Benlik-kurgusunun bu noktada önem kazandığı söylenebilir. Türkiye özelinde kentte yaşayan herkes bireyselliğe önem vermezsek kırda yaşayan herkes de ilişkilerin önemini vurgulamamaktadır. Dolayısıyla kültürel bağlamın rolünü inceleyen gelecek çalışmaların benlik-kurgusuna önem vermesi iyi olabilir.

Anne eğitim seviyesinin ve çalışma durumunun etkisi incelendiğinde ise anne eğitim seviyesinin önemli rol oynadığı ancak çalışma durumunun anlamlı bir rolü olmadığı bulgulanmıştır. Bu bulgular bir kez daha kız çocuğu eğitiminin öneminin altını çizmiş ve anne eğitiminin önemi vurgulanmıştır. Anne çalışma durumunun otobiyografik bellek gelişimi üzerinde bir rolü görülmemektedir çünkü ilk olarak çalışma durumu değişkenlik gösterebilen bir durumdur. Anneler çalışmaya katıldıkları dönemde çalışmıyor olabilirler ancak bu durum çalışmadıkları ya da çalışmayacakları anlamına gelmez. Türkiye örnekleminde konuşacak olur isek annelerin büyük çoğunluğunun ekonomik kaygılar sebebiyle çalıştıkları açıktır. Eğitimli annelerin büyük bir kısmı çalışmazken mavi yakalı ve ücretsiz işçi annelerin olduğu görülmektedir. Dolayısıyla bu çalışma ile anne çalışma durumunun bir sosyoekonomik statü göstergesi olarak değerlendirilmemesi gerektiği fark edilmiştir.

Etkileşim sonuçları incelendiğinde ise kültürel bağlam, anne çalışma durumu ve anne eğitim durumunun bir bütün olarak anlamlı bir rol oynadıkları görülmüştür. Kırda yaşayan eğitimli ancak çalışmayan annelerin çocuklarının otobiyografik bellek gelişimlerinin kentte yaşayan eğitimsiz ve çalışan annelerin çocuklarına kıyasla daha iyi olduğu bulgulanmıştır. Ekonomik kaygısı olmayan eğitimli annelerin, özellikle de kırda vakitlerini çocuklarının gelişimlerine daha çok ayırabildikleri sonucuna ulaşılabilmektedir.

Son olarak ise, annenin kendi otobiyografik bellek özelliklerinin çocuğun otobiyografik bellek özelliklerini yordadığı görülmüştür. Annelerin çocukların gelişimleri üzerinde rollerinin olduğu bilinmekte idi ancak bu sonuçlar ayrı ayrı doldurulan ölçeklerde dahi kendini göstermekte olup alanyazın için önem arz etmektedir.

Bu çalışma alanyazına önemli katkılarda bulunmuştur. Bu çalışma, otobiyografik bellek alanyazında ulaşılan en yüksek katılımcılı çalışma olduğu bilinmekte olup Türkiye temsili örneklem ile yapılmış ilk çalışmadır. Dolayısıyla bulguların genellenebilirliği oldukça yüksektir. Annenin çocuğun gelişimindeki önemini ve kız çocuklarının eğitim almasının önemini vurgulaması açısından da oldukça kıymetli bir çalışmadır. Anne çalışma durumunun değişim gösterebilen bir etmen olduğunu ve

sosyoekonomik statü göstergesi olamayabileceğini göstermiş olması da önemlidir. Ayrıca, oldukça az çalışılan bir kodlama şeması olan "biz ile ilgili kelimeler"in bu çalışmada incelenmiş olması da alanyazına katkıda bulunmuştur.

Bu çalışmanın katkıları olduğu kadarıyla sınırlılıkları da mevcuttur. Büyük bir araştırma ekibiyle çalışılmış olması hem dezavantaj hem avantaj sağlamakta olup verilerin okul ortamında toplanmış olması çocukların anı içeriklerini etkilemiş, detaylı, derinlikli ve uzun anılar yazılmasını engellemiş olabilir. Ayrıca, projede birçok farklı ölçek de olduğundan dolayı anı içerikleri etkilenmiş olabilir.

Özetlenecek olursa, bu çalışma otobiyografik bellek alanyazınına önemli katkılarda bulunmuştur. Kültürel bağlam, anne eğitim seviyesi ve anne çalışma durumunun aynı çalışmada incelenebilmesi önemli sonuçların elde edilmesine olanak sağlamıştır. Ayrıca, bu denli katılımcı sayısına ulaşılmış olması Türkiye'deki otobiyografik bellek haritalandırmasına olanak sağlamıştır. Alanyazında genelde kentte yaşayan eğitimli annelerin çocukları ile çalışmalara rastlanırken bu çalışmada kırdaki ve eğitim seviyesi düşük annelerin çocuklarına da ulaşılmıştır. Dokuz ayrı sınıf düzeyinden verilerin toplanmış olması da gelişim basamaklarını inceleyebilmek için önem arz etmekte ve bu bulgular gelecek çalışmalara ışık tutmaktadır.

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