Name: description

<Files\\Achterberg & Meulen (2019)> - § 12 references coded [2,33% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,19% Coverage

In the current study we therefore provide an overview of MRI
scan quantity and quality in a large developmental twin sample (N=512, 256 twin pairs, aged 7–9), and investigated the genetic and environmental influences on MRI data quantity and quality.

Reference 2 - 0,12% Coverage

By using multi-informant estimations of emotional state, we directly tested the relation between scanner related distress and scan quantity and scan quality.

Reference 3 - 0,12% Coverage

We first examined how scanner related distress changed over time at three moments: before the MRI simulation, before the MRI scan, and after the MRI scan.

Reference 4 - 0,08% Coverage

We hypothesized that the emotional state would become more positive over time (Durston et al., 2009).

Reference 5 - 0,12% Coverage

Next, we evaluated MRI scan quantity by investigating how scan quantity was related to emotional state, and to what extend scan quantity was influenced by genetics.

Reference 6 - 0,12% Coverage

Similar to scan quantity, we investigated whether scan quality was
related to emotional state, and to what extend scan quality was influenced by genetics.

Reference 7 - 0,61% Coverage

As an additional factor of interest, we examined scan quality across the duration of the MR session, as children tend to lose focus faster than adults, which may result in increased motion over time (Fassbender et al., 2017; Van Horn and Pelphrey, 2015). Scan quality was examined in two ways: 1) the percentage of included MRI runs within the session (defined as the number of scans with sufficient quality relative to the number of runs completed), and 2) the amount of absolute and framewise head displacement in mm in fMRI runs. The first estimate of scan quality provides an overall, relatively simple measure of quality over the whole MRI session. The second measure provides a more sophisticated, quantitative measure of scan quality, but could only be calculated for functional MRI runs (Power, 2017).

Reference 8 - 0,22% Coverage

Overall, scan quantity was high and 88% of the children completed all runs. We report a drop in the number of runs completed after approximately 45 min of scan time, which is comparable with prior findings in this age range (Engelhardt et al., 2017). Scan quality decreased with increasing scan time,

Reference 9 - 0,08% Coverage

Head motion over fMRI runs was stable (α=.77–84) and within-twin correlations were higher in MZ than DZ twins.

Reference 10 - 0,05% Coverage

moderate to strong relation with shared environmental influences.

Reference 11 - 0,32% Coverage

Multi-informant estimates of children's emotional state towards the MRI scan were significantly associated with MRI quantity, as we found that children with higher estimated excitement and lower estimated tension completed more runs during the MRI scan. However, the association between children's emotional state towards the MRI scan and scan quality was less clear, as the correlations did not survive Bonferroni correction.

Reference 12 - 0,31% Coverage

We report that participants' scanner related distress was associated
to scan quantity, but not to scan quality. Overall, scan quantity was high, as 88% of the children that started the protocol also completed it. The percentage of sufficient scans was considerably higher (49%) in the first 30 min of the protocol than in the full 60-minute protocol (20%), indicating that shorter scan protocols have less attrition.

<Files\\Achterberg et al. (2017)> - § 5 references coded [0,87% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,16% Coverage

The current study examined the neural correlates of social evaluation in middle childhood, prior to adolescence, because the first long-lasting friendships gradually emerge around this time (Berndt, 2004).

Reference 2 - 0,12% Coverage

Thus, our aim was to investigate 7–10-year-old children's
responses to social evaluation in terms of neural activity and reactive behavioral aggression.

Reference 3 - 0,22% Coverage

Based on studies in adults, the predictions were that negative social feedback would be associated with increased activity in the amygdala (Masten et al., 2009), bilateral insula, and mPFC/Anterior Cingulate Cortex' gyrus ACCg (Somerville et al., 2006; Achterberg et al., 2016).

Reference 4 - 0,26% Coverage

While prior studies tested only adults and adolescents, this study tested for the first time if the same regions are engaged in children, including not only positive and negative social feedback but also a neutral social feedback baseline (see Achterberg et al., 2016), and examined the relations with subsequent aggression.

Reference 5 - 0,11% Coverage

In the larger combined sample (including twin siblings, N = 55)
rejection feedback was associated with increased activity in mPFC.

<Files\\Achterberg et al. (2018)> - § 11 references coded [2,31% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,09% Coverage

In this study, we therefore investigated the robustness of findings regarding limbic/subcortical-PFC functional brain connectivity in childhood,

Reference 2 - 0,06% Coverage

The current paper is the first to investigate childhood RS connectivity in two independent samples

Reference 3 - 0,12% Coverage

Taken together, the aims of the current study were to investigate (1)
the robustness of limbic/subcortical-cortical and limbic/subcorticalsubcortical brain connectivity in childhood,

Reference 4 - 0,13% Coverage

The study pursued two goals: 1) to investigate subcortical-cortical and subcortical-subcortical brain connectivity in childhood using two key limbic structures: the ventral striatum and the amygdala,

Reference 5 - 0,59% Coverage

The first question, regarding replicability of childhood RS connec-
tivity, was addressed in two independent samples in order to examine connectivity patterns without genetic components. This allowed us to test for replication, thereby contributing to the debate about reproducibility of neuroscientific patterns (Open Science, 2015). Next, we specifically focused on RS-fMRI connectivity from the ventral striatum and amygdala to the six PFC regions and two additional subcortical regions (thalamus and hippocampus); since prior studies have shown that these regions show important developmental effects (Fareri et al., 2015; Gabard-Durnam et al., 2014). Based on prior studies, we expect to find replicable and robust resting state connectivity in childhood (Misic and Sporns, 2016), with distinctive patterns for ventral striatum and amygdala (Choi et al., 2012; Porter et al., 2015; Roy et al., 2009)

Reference 6 - 0,34% Coverage

Reassuringly, and consistent with adult research (Misic and Sporns, 2016; Power et al., 2010; Thomason et al., 2011), we observed strongly replicable brain connectivity patterns over two samples of 7- to-9-year-old children, both in the whole brain seed based analyses and in the post-hoc ROI analyses. The general patterns showed positive connectivity between amygdala and ventral

striatum and orbitofrontal cortex; and negative connectivity between these limbic/subcortical regions and dorsal medial and lateral regions.

Reference 7 - 0,27% Coverage

In line with adult striatal-cortico connectivity patterns we found
positive connectivity between the ventral striatum and vACC, vmPFC, and OFC (Di Martino et al., 2008), suggesting that these connections are already in place during middle childhood. The post-hoc ROI analyses indicated negative connectivity between the VS and the dACC, dlPFC and dmPFC, but these were less pronounced in the whole brain analyses.

Reference 8 - 0,12% Coverage

That is, we found positive connectivity with the OFC, the insula and the IFG, and negative connectivity with the dlPFC, dACC, dmPFC and parietal cortex (Roy et al., 2009; Stein et al., 2007).

Reference 9 - 0,09% Coverage

Our whole brain analyses revealed a band of positive connectivity from the amygdala through the brainstem to the dorsal cerebellum,

Reference 10 - 0,18% Coverage

However, we did not find strong amygdala-vmPFC connectivity in neither of the samples. This could be due to differences in age ranges, differences in the amygdala and vmPFC sub regions that were examined,
146
as well as methodological differences in RS-fMRI analyses.

Reference 11 - 0,31% Coverage

In sum, our results showed robust and replicable whole brain con-
nectivity in children, for the amygdala as well as the ventral striatum. In addition to previous studies that have shown that limbic/subcorticalcortical connectivity increases during adolescence (Fair et al., 2009; Gabard-Durnam et al., 2014; Menon, 2013; Rubia, 2013; Vogel et al., 2010); the findings from this study show that the vast architecture of this connectivity is already present before adolescence.

<Files\\Achterberg, Duijvenvoorde, Bakermans-Kranenburg, & Crone (2016)> - § 8 references coded [2,14% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,52% Coverage

In the current study we
investigated the relation between receiving negative social feedback and subsequent aggression using neuroimaging, which allowed us to (i) examine the neural correlates of negative social feedback relative to neutral or positive feedback, (ii) examine aggressive responses toward the person signaling negative social feedback, and (iii) examine the association between the neural correlates of negative social feedback and behavioral aggression.

Reference 2 - 0,16% Coverage

In contrast, we expected that
negative social feedback would be associated with increased activity in the dACC/dorsal mPFC (dmPFC) and the insula.

Reference 3 - 0,11% Coverage

and whether lateral PFC activity is related to aggression regulation following negative social feedback.

Reference 4 - 0,26% Coverage

In addition, we hypothesized that less aggression (i.e. more aggression regulation, shorter noise blasts) would be related to increased activation in lateral PFC (Casey, 2015; Riva et al., 2015) particularly during negative feedback.

Reference 5 - 0,18% Coverage

In line with prior behavioral studies, we found that negative social feedback was related to applying a longer noise blast toward the peer (Chester et al., 2014).

Reference 6 - 0,23% Coverage

Finally, we found that increased lateral PFC activity after negative social feedback was associated with relative shorter noise blast durations after negative feedback, indicative of more aggression regulation.

Reference 7 - 0,29% Coverage

but our findings show activation in the ventral mPFC and the striatum that is stronger

for positive feedback

Reference 8 - 0,38% Coverage

Additionally, the lateral PFC emerged as an important modulator for individual differences in aggression regulation. This may imply that individuals who show strong activation in the lateral PFC after negative social feedback may be better able to regulate behavioral impulses, and speculatively, impulsive responses in general (Casey et al., 2011).

<Files\\Achterberg, Duijvenvoorde, Meulen, Bakermans-Kranenburg, & Crone (2018)> - § 9 references coded [1,36% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,17% Coverage

On a neural level, we predicted to find a network of regions that process social feedback irrespective of valence, as prior research showed in adults (Achterberg et al., 2016), including the ACCg and the (anterior) insula.

Reference 2 - 0,10% Coverage

In addition, we will investigate possible brain–behavior relations between activation of these regions and the aggression measure.

Reference 3 - 0,13% Coverage

Based on prior studies (Achterberg et al., 2016; Riva et al., 2015), we predicted that the lateral prefrontal cortex would be most strongly correlated to aggression regulation.

Reference 4 - 0,15% Coverage

Our analyses of neural responses to negative, positive, and neutral
social feedback showed that brain activation in the ACCg and anterior insula was related to general valiance/social saliency.

Reference 5 - 0,06% Coverage

In the current study, medial PFC and IFG were activated during negative feedback

Reference 6 - 0,09% Coverage

Our results suggest that whereas the ACCg signals for social salient cues, the mPFC might signal for social threatening cues.

Reference 7 - 0,32% Coverage

Interestingly, SMA and DLPFC activity were also associated with
aggressive behavior on the task. SMA and DLPFC activations were related to aggression after negative (relative to neutral and/or positive) feedback. Post hoc visualization of PE values showed that children who were more aggressive after negative feedback showed relatively less activation of the DLPFC during negative feedback compared to positive social feedback.

Reference 8 - 0,22% Coverage

It should be noted, however, that we did not observe brain–behavior associations when we performed whole brain regression analyses, in contrast to earlier studies in adults (Achterberg et al., 2016). Moreover, our brain–behavior associations on ROIs did not survive Bonferroni correction.

Reference 9 - 0,11% Coverage

We did not find significant brain-behavior associations in other
ROIs (caudate, IFG, insula, mPFC, and ACCg) that responded to social peer feedback.

<Files\\Barzeva, Meeus, & Oldehinkel (2019)> - § 11 references coded [3,11% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,10% Coverage

literature by examining the developmental changes of social withdrawal while considering measurement issues pertinent to developmental research.

Reference 2 - 0,25% Coverage

Which withdrawal-related YSR and ASR items measure social withdrawal validly and reliably in our sample? (2) Is the structure ofsocial withdrawal invariant over time? (3) What is the stability and normative change (i.e., mean-level continuity) of social withdrawal during adolescence and early adulthood? (4) How many trajectories ofsocial withdrawal can be distinguished?

Reference 3 - 0,32% Coverage

We found evidence that the YSR and ASR can be used through adolescence and early adulthood to assess global behavioral aspects of social withdrawal, such as shyness, spending excessive time alone, and avoiding peer interaction. The five selected withdrawal-related items captured a single dimension ofsocial withdrawal and were partially measurement invariant over time. This indicates that the selected withdrawal items were interpreted in the same way between the ages of 16 and 25.

Reference 4 - 0,19% Coverage

We could not establish measurement invariance when including data from measurement waves prior to the age of16 years, indicating that the interpretations of
the withdrawal items were different in pre- and early adolescence compared to middle and late adolescence and young adulthood

Reference 5 - 0,24% Coverage

Results did not support our hypothesis that the mean-level change of social withdrawal follows a curvilinear, invertedU trajectory. On the contrary, we found a U-shaped curvilinear trajectory, in which social withdrawal decreased from 16 to 19 years (T3-T4), remained low and stable from 19 to 22 years (T4-T5), and increased again from 22 to 25 years (T5-T6).

Reference 6 - 0,12% Coverage

In sum, the U-shaped mean-level trajectory ofsocial with-
drawal during adolescence and early adulthood is probably related to the changes in the social network during these ages.

Reference 7 - 0,98% Coverage

We found three distinct withdrawal trajectory groups: a lowstable group (71.8%), a high-withdrawal group (12%), and a low-curvilinear group (16.2%). Most individuals had consistently low levels ofwithdrawal, which was expected considering that most community cohort studies report low levels of withdrawal or other problem behavior. Our post-hoc analyses indicated that this group was well adjusted, with high initial levels of social affiliation and low initial levels of shyness, antisocial behaviors, reduced social contact, and anxiety. Furthermore, we found that even in this majority low-stable group social withdrawal increased from 22 to 25 years, providing further support for a normative increase in withdrawal during early adulthood. The low-curvilinear group had higher withdrawal than the
low-stable group when they were aged 16 and 25 years, but was no different from the low-stable group from 19 to 22 years. Notably, the social withdrawal levels of the lowcurvilinear group deviated substantially enough from the low-stable group to distinguish these individuals as following a distinct trajectory. The higher withdrawal of the lowcurvilinear group at 16 years could be due to unsociable or avoidant tendencies ofthese adolescents.). At age 16, the lowcurvilinear group endorsed more

frequent participation in antisocial behaviors than the low-stable group, indicating higher externalizing behaviors which may have contributed to withdrawal via peer exclusion.

Reference 8 - 0,25% Coverage

The low-curvilinear group was also more withdrawn than the low-stable group at 25 years. This increase likely reflects the normative increase in withdrawal in early adulthood that was discussed previously, but the reason why the low-curvilinear group surpassed the withdrawal levels of the low-stable group after being at identical withdrawal levels for years is unknown.

Reference 9 - 0,17% Coverage

Our results point to the possibility that these individuals decrease in withdrawal during late adolescence and early adulthood, but further investigation to the reasons behind this decrease (e.g. greater sensitivity to social network changes) is warranted.

Reference 10 - 0,26% Coverage

The high-decreasing group reported the highest shyness, reduced social contact, and anxiety, and the lowest affiliation, at every time point, indicating that the high-decreasing group was the most maladjusted. Although this high-decreasing group had decreasing levels of withdrawal over time, they were considerably more withdrawn compared to those in the other two groups at every time point

Reference 11 - 0,24% Coverage

We found that the normative pattern ofsocial withdrawal during these ages follows a U-shaped curve, with the lowest levels during late adolescence, and that individuals follow three withdrawal trajectories. Although most maintained low levels of social withdrawal throughout adolescence and early adulthood, 12% of individuals were persistently withdrawn.

<Files\\Becht et al. (2016)> - § 24 references coded [7,38% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,13% Coverage

In the present study, we investigated heterogeneity in the development of certainty and uncertainty using an intensive longitudinal design, focusing on daily identity formation across adolescence.

Reference 2 - 0,15% Coverage

We will examine heterogeneity in how levels of, and fluctuations in commitment and reconsideration in daily identity formation jointly develop across adolescence as well as associations with concurrent psychosocial adjustment.

Reference 3 - 0,23% Coverage

In doing so, the current study is able to investigate whether there are subgroups of adolescents that differ in the amount and/or developmental change in certainty and uncertainty in daily identity formation across adolescence. By using daily reports, we are able to study identity formation as a process that operates on a daily basis (Kunnen et al., 2001).

Reference 4 - 0,18% Coverage

Hence, this study also aims to examine whether individual differences in daily identity formation processes across different identity domains (i.e., educational and interpersonal) are associated with the development of internalizing and externalizing behavior across adolescence.

Reference 5 - 0,22% Coverage

To explore this issue, the present study will investigate if individual differences in certainty-uncertainty dynamics of identity formation across the education and interpersonal domains are, potentially differentially, associated with the development of school adjustment and relationship quality with the best friend across adolescence

Reference 6 - 0,17% Coverage

The first aim of the current study was to investigate heterogeneity in developmental profiles of certainty and uncertainty in identity formation from early to late adolescence in the educational and interpersonal identity domains, using an intensive longitudinal

Reference 7 - 0,49% Coverage

Theoretically, we expected a substantial group of adolescents to experience identity uncertainty, as hypothesized to be part of adolescents' normative identity development (Erikson, 1968). These adolescents are expected to show decreasing strength in their commitments, increasing reconsideration and increasing identity fluctuations. In addition, based on previous research, we hypothesized to find a group of adolescents with a more certain and stable identity formation process (i.e., strong commitments, low reconsideration, and low identity fluctuations) across adolescence (e.g., Luyckx et al., 2008; Marcia, 1966; Meeus et al., 2012). Thus, we expected to find two developmental profiles in both the educational and interpersonal identity domains.

Reference 8 - 0,14% Coverage

Our second aim was to examine how individual differences in certainty-uncertainty dynamics were associated with the development of internalizing (i.e., global anxiety) and externalizing (i.e., aggression) problem behavior.

Reference 9 - 0,17% Coverage

Specifically, we expected to find that adolescents with developmental profiles characterized by high and stable uncertainty in identity formation would also show higher levels of internalizing and externalizing problem behavior over time (e.g., Meeus et al., 2012).

Reference 10 - 0,41% Coverage

Related to this issue, we examined potential differential associations between certaintyuncertainty developmental profiles in the educational and interpersonal identity domains and domain-specific aspects of psychosocial functioning, namely school adjustment and peer relationship quality. We hypothesized that more uncertain developmental profiles of educational identity would be specifically associated with concurrent levels of school anxiety, whereas more uncertain developmental profiles of interpersonal identity would be specifically associated with concurrent levels of best friend relationship quality (Klimstra et al., 2010a).

Reference 11 - 0,19% Coverage

Based on levels and developmental change of certainty and uncertainty in identity formation, we identified two distinct developmental profiles of identity formation in the educational domain and two distinct developmental profiles of identity formation in the interpersonal identity domain.

Reference 12 - 0,13% Coverage

Adolescents in these crisislike developmental trajectories in both the educational and interpersonal identity domains also showed relatively more general and domain specific psychosocial adjustment problems.

Reference 13 - 0,61% Coverage

Consistent with our expectations, we identified different sub-
groups of adolescents that followed distinct developmental profiles in certainty-uncertainty dynamics of daily identity formation processes. Supporting Erikson's (1968) notion that experiencing an identity crisis is common in adolescence, we were able to identify two subgroups of adolescents following a crisis-like pattern in their daily identity formation. These adolescents in the crisis-like educational identity class (51%) and the crisis-like interpersonal identity class (47%) displayed a clear certainty-uncertainty dynamic with a dip in the strength of their commitments in middle adolescence that was joined by relatively high reconsideration of alternative identity commitments. Adolescents following a crisis like pattern of identity formation showed identity distress across early to late adolescence with the strongest period of identity crisis between ages 15 to 17.

Reference 14 - 0,31% Coverage

Moreover, our finding that identity crisis peaks in mid-adolescence is in line with earlier work showing that a state of identity moratorium is most prevalent in early to mid-adolescence (Meeus et al., 2012). Furthermore, our findings suggest that many adolescents do not
appear to "grow out" of a pattern of identity uncertainty (Marcia, 1966), as demonstrated by continuing higher levels of uncertainty from early to late adolescence in the two crisis-like identity formation classes

Reference 15 - 0,12% Coverage

Similar to previous studies (Kroger et al., 2010) in our study, 32.8% of adolescents experienced relatively high identity uncertainty in both the educational and interpersonal identity domains.

Reference 16 - 1,15% Coverage

Our results also show that a large proportion of adolescents
already feel quite certain about their identity throughout adolescence. For instance, adolescents in the educational identity synthesis class (49%) showed relatively high levels of commitment throughout adolescence, decreasing commitment fluctuations, and stable low reconsideration. Similarly, adolescents in the interpersonal identity synthesis class (53%) showed a pattern of certainty in their identity formation with increasing commitments throughout adolescence, decreasing daily fluctuations in their commitments, and low reconsideration. These findings suggest that a substantial proportion of adolescents showed a pattern of identity maturation toward

developing less uncertainty and consolidating their commitments across adolescence. Consistent with our hypotheses, developmental profiles of cer-
tainty and uncertainty in identity formation differed between adolescents. However, we only found limited support for hypothesized differences in identity formation processes across the educational and interpersonal identity domains. That is, in both identity domains, adolescents in the crisis-like identity profiles showed similar decreasing strengths of their commitments and relatively high reconsideration of alternative commitments. However, adolescents in the crisis-like interpersonal identity class did not decrease in their identity fluctuations across adolescence. However, for educational identity adolescents in both the synthesis class and crisis-like class decreased in their fluctuations in identity commitments across adolescence. These findings suggest that some adolescents continue to have uncertainty about their interpersonal identity commitments as reflected in stable identity fluctuations.

Reference 17 - 0,44% Coverage

Overall, we found that a considerable proportion of adolescents
tend to show a pattern of identity uncertainty across adolescence (Erikson, 1968), evidenced by (temporary) decreasing strengths of their current identity commitments and continued consideration of identity alternatives across adolescence. These findings suggest that many adolescents are in a phase of identity experimentation in which their identity is not yet fixed and stable. However, we also identified a substantial number of adolescents that revealed a pattern of identity consolidation toward developing less uncertainty about their daily identity commitments across adolescence (Kroger et al., 2010; Meeus, 2011).

Reference 18 - 0,10% Coverage

As predicted, we found that individual differences in develop-
mental profiles of identity formation were related to adolescents' adjustment over time.

Reference 19 - 0,43% Coverage

with relatively high certainty and not so much doubt in their daily identity formation processes showed the most positive psychosocial adjustment across adolescence (Crocetti et al., 2008; Meeus et al., 1999, 2012; Schwartz et al., 2011). Contrary, adolescents following a crisis-like developmental profile of identity formation across adolescence displayed relatively higher initial levels as well as stronger increases in global anxiety and aggression. These findings also support the validity of the identified identity formation classes as adolescents in these classes did also experience somewhat higher psychosocial adjustment problems across adolescence.

Reference 20 - 0,95% Coverage

In addition to links between identity formation processes and associations with development in general psychosocial adjustment domains, like anxiety and aggression, we also found support for differential associations between identity formation processes in specific identity domains and domain-specific psychosocial adjustment. Specifically, in line with our hypothesis and previous research (Klimstra et al., 2010a), a crisis-like identity formation profile in the educational identity domain was related with higher initial levels of school anxiety. These results support earlier work that adolescents with a more uncertain and immature identity profile relates to lower adjustment (Meeus, 2011). Importantly, the crisis-like interpersonal identity formation profile was not associated with school anxiety. Moreover, in line with our domain-specific hypothesis, the crisis-like interpersonal identity formation profile was only related to psychosocial adjustment in the

interpersonal domain as reflected by a steep decrease in perceived support from their best friend from early to middle adolescence and a subsequent increase in perceived support near the end of adolescence. However, in contrast with our hypothesis, adolescents in the crisis-like educational identity class also reported less perceived support from their best friend, suggesting that feeling uncertain about your educational identity may partially generalize to other areas of psychosocial functioning.

Reference 21 - 0,26% Coverage

These results further support the importance of differentiating between different identity domains when studying identity formation and associated development of psychosocial adjustment, as both more general and more domain-specific associations appear to exist. Hence, the current study further supports the finding that identity may operate differently across different content domains (Goossens, 2001).

Reference 22 - 0,09% Coverage

Consistent with this notion, we found indeed that a substantial proportion of adolescents showed a pattern of identity uncertainty in adolescence.

Reference 23 - 0,06% Coverage

These findings confirm that identity formation can be a stressful task for many adolescents.

Reference 24 - 0,25% Coverage

Despite these limitations, this study contributed significantly to
our understanding of heterogeneity in daily identity formation across adolescence. Focusing on daily identity, our findings support Erikson's (1968) hypothesis that many adolescents experience an identity crisis during adolescence, which may have ramifications for their concurrent behavioral and emotional development.

<Files\\Becht et al. (2017)> - § 9 references coded [2,05% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,24% Coverage

To tap into these different processes of identity formation across a substantial amount of time, the current study investigated both reconsideration levels and commitment fluctuations as aspects of identity uncertainty in relation to commitment levels or identity certainty from early to late adolescence.

Reference 2 - 0,32% Coverage

Acknowledging that identity formation processes might differ across different identity domains (Goossens, 2001; Meeus et al., 1999), the current study extends previous research by testing the validity of the hypothesized developmental sequence in identity formation at the within-person level within the interpersonal and educational identity domains (Luyckx, Goossens, Soenens, & Beyers, 2006; Meeus, 2011).

Reference 3 - 0,30% Coverage

Based on identity theory (Erikson, 1968), we predicted that identity uncertainty (i.e., reconsideration of commitments and commitment fluctuations) precede increasing identity commitment levels across adolescence at the within-person level. We further investigated whether this hypothesized developmental sequence applied to both the interpersonal and educational identity domains.

Reference 4 - 0,12% Coverage

Specifically, higher reconsideration level of adolescents' interpersonal identity was negatively related to their commitment level within the same time-point.

Reference 5 - 0,10% Coverage

However, over time, increasing reconsideration level was followed by increasing commitment levels the next wave (Waterman, 1982)

Reference 6 - 0,51% Coverage

Indeed, our results confirm that at the between-person level reconsideration level and commitment level were negatively correlated (i.e., r ⫽⩾.32) in our sample, similar to previous between-person studies (r ⫽⩾.32; Crocetti et al., 2015). However, at the within-person level adolescents' increasing reconsideration was followed by increasing strengths in their commitments. In addition, our findings nicely converge with identity status research showing that adolescents are more likely to move from more uncertainty in identity profiles (e.g., moratorium) toward a more stable and certain identity (e.g., achievement; Kroger et al., 2010; Meeus et al., 2010).

Reference 7 - 0,16% Coverage

That is, consistent with our predictions, adolescents' uncertainty about their interpersonal identity commitments was strongest linked to commitment making regarding their interpersonal identity (Erikson, 1968).

Reference 8 - 0,10% Coverage

In contrast, we did not find that identity uncertainty predicted commitment making with regard to adolescents' educational identity

Reference 9 - 0,19% Coverage

Despite these limitations, the current study supported the view
that adolescents typically experience identity uncertainty and consider identity alternatives before they make strong commitments regarding their interpersonal identity (Erikson, 1968).

<Files\\Becht et al. (2018)> - § 21 references coded [4,29% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,14% Coverage

The aim of this multisample longitudinal study was to investigate how identity-relevant behaviors and their neurological substrates relate to subsequent identity in adolescence.

Reference 2 - 0,12% Coverage

The purpose of the present research was to
investigate self-reported and neural processes underlying adolescents' identity in two separate studies.

Reference 3 - 0,19% Coverage

In Study 1, we tested the hypothesis that adolescents with higher and increasing goal directedness would show a stronger later identity (indicated by relatively high commitments, high indepth exploration and low reconsideration).

Reference 4 - 0,18% Coverage

Second, we examined the general developmental trajectories of NAcc and PFC. On the basis of prior studies, we expected a decrease in PFC brain volume across adolescence (Mills, Goddings, et al., 2014; Raznahan et al., 2011).

Reference 5 - 0,23% Coverage

Findings of Study 1 supported the hypothesis
that adolescents who engage in goal-directed efforts (as assessed by BAS drive) were more likely to show stronger identity commitments, more in-depth exploration and less reconsideration of identity commitments at a later moment in time.

Reference 6 - 0,21% Coverage

First, Study 2 partially replicated findings from Study 1, using self-reports, by showing that adolescents' who engaged in goal directedness developed stronger identity commitments and explored these commitments more in depth in order to maintain their commitments.

Reference 7 - 0,23% Coverage

Our longitudinal self-report findings from Study
1 and Study 2 indicated that adolescents who showed higher initial levels of goal directedness reported relatively stronger identity commitments, explored these commitments more in-depth and were less uncertain about their commitments.

Reference 8 - 0,18% Coverage

Furthermore, adolescents with higher initial levels of right (but not left) PFC volume as well as less steeply decreasing right (but not left) PFC volume over time showed more in-depth exploration of their identity commitments.

Reference 9 - 0,12% Coverage

First, we found that NAcc (both left and right) gray matter volume remained stable across three waves, which partially replicates previous findings.

Reference 10 - 0,23% Coverage

In line with prior studies, we found a decrease in PFC gray matter volume across adolescence (e.g., Gogtay et al., 2004; Mills, Goddings, et al., 2014). Changes were highly comparable for left and right PFC volume over time (e.g., Mills, Lalonde, Clasen, Giedd, & Blakemore, 2014).

Reference 11 - 0,15% Coverage

Results showed that higher levels of left and right NAcc volume were associated with stronger identity commitments 6 months later. In addition, higher levels of left NAcc volume were

Reference 12 - 0,28% Coverage

related to less identity reconsideration 6 months later. These brain structure findings from Study 2 add to the self-reported findings from Study 1 and previous questionnaire studies, by showing that goal directedness and its presumed underlying neurological substrates are associated with adolescents' identity formation (e.g., Burrow & Hill, 2011).

Reference 13 - 0,23% Coverage

This finding was similar to our finding that left increase in NAcc was related to more in-depth exploration but not right NAcc. Correlations between left and right NAcc ranged between 0.26 and 0.41, which suggest that left and right NAcc are correlated but also differ substantially.

Reference 14 - 0,18% Coverage

Our results add to the growing brain-behavior literature by showing that neurobiological underpinnings of goal directedness (i.e., the NAcc) are positively related to adolescents' later commitment making and negatively related

Reference 15 - 0,03% Coverage

to reconsideration of identity commitments.

Reference 16 - 0,33% Coverage

Together, these findings suggest that different
brain regions are involved in different processes of identity formation as described by the identity process model (Crocetti et al., 2008). That is, especially individual differences in initial levels of the left and
right NAcc volume were most consistently involved in the process of identity formation, also referred to as the identity formation cycle.

Reference 17 - 0,11% Coverage

In contrast, individual differences in PFC volume
were related to processes involved in the maintenance cycle of identity formation.

Reference 18 - 0,33% Coverage

Specifically, we found that adolescents with greater right PFC volume at baseline were more involved in in-depth exploration of the commitments they already have by actively reflecting on their

identity choices, and searching for information about these commitments. Also, adolescents who showed a less steep decrease in their right PFC volume reported higher levels of exploring their commitments in-depth.

Reference 19 - 0,33% Coverage

Consistent with this role of the PFC, those adolescents with less steeply decreasing PFC volume, and thus relatively more volume across adolescence, were more actively thinking and gathering information about their identity commitments. Our findings that continued higher levels of gray matter volume were related to a stronger identity seem to support a popular neuroscience perspective on adolescent development.

Reference 20 - 0,21% Coverage

Interestingly, the results showed that develop-
mental changes in gray matter volume occur within relative stability. That is, when adolescents started with higher gray matter volume compared to their peers, most adolescents kept this position across adolescence.

Reference 21 - 0,26% Coverage

Adolescents with higher goal pursuit and higher NAcc volume reported stronger identity commitments and less uncertainty about these commitments. Moreover, adolescents with higher PFC volume and more protracted PFC volume development reported more reflection on their identity commitments in order to strengthen and maintain them

<Files\\Becht2015> - § 7 references coded [1,17% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,27% Coverage

The current study contributes to the literature on personality and externalizing behaviors by considering lower order personality facets and parenting variables in relation to developmental trajectories of externalizing behaviors. Thereby, this study has the potential to gain a more detailed perspective on how individual differences in personality at the facet level are related to the development of different trajectories and types of externalizing behavior.

Reference 2 - 0,21% Coverage

First, we examined the number and shape of the developmental trajectories of aggression and rule-breaking behavior that could be distinguished from age 9 to 15. We hypothesized that we would find three or four trajectories for both aggression and rule breaking, which may differ in both levels and direction of change over time (Jennings & Reingle, 2012).

Reference 3 - 0,21% Coverage

Although gender differences were not the major focus of
this study, we analyzed whether boys and girls showed differences in trajectory membership for trajectories of aggression and rule breaking. Based on previous research, we expected that more boys than girls would follow trajectories with higher levels of aggression and rule breaking (Bongers et al., 2004).

Reference 4 - 0,05% Coverage

We found three and two trajectories for aggression and rule breaking, respectively.

Reference 5 - 0,03% Coverage

Developmental trajectories ofaggression and rule breaking

Reference 6 - 0,29% Coverage

Second, consistent with our predictions, children in the high decreasing aggression class and children in the high rule-breaking class were more energetic at age 9. Although children in the high decreasing aggression class were acting out and showed difficulties in regulating their behavior in childhood, they may have learned to better regulate their own behaviors because of the normative increase in self-regulation skills that occurs in adolescence (King, Lengua, & Monahan, 2013).

Reference 7 - 0,11% Coverage

In line with our expectations and with previous research, boys were more likely to follow trajectories with higher levels of aggression than were girls (e.g., Bongers et al., 2004).

<Files\\Bos et al. (2017)> - § 4 references coded [0,54% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,11% Coverage

We predicted these behavioral findings would be associated with increased activity in arousal circuitry, including anterior insula.

Reference 2 - 0,19% Coverage

Lastly, we explored whether healthy adults with more ASD-like traits or greater impulsivity [e.g. Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD)-like traits] would demonstrate increased sensitivity to cues of their interest.

Reference 3 - 0,16% Coverage

In healthy adults, we observed a trend in higher hit rates between interests versus non-interests. Further, interest-specific stimuli were associated with greater activation of the anterior insula.

Reference 4 - 0,08% Coverage

Notably, faster responses to happy faces were associated with a higher level of ASD-like traits.

<Files\\Brouwer et al. (2015)> - § 7 references coded [1,09% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,14% Coverage

Here we investigate the associations of puberty-related hormones and brain structure in a longitudinal twin sample at ages 9 and 12 years.

Reference 2 - 0,14% Coverage

Here we explore the relationship between pubertal hormones and grey matter density in a genetically informative longitudinal design.

Reference 3 - 0,12% Coverage

We expect that higher hormone levels are associated with a more mature brain, i.e. lower cortical grey matter density.

Reference 4 - 0,24% Coverage

The main finding is that, in girls between the ages of 9 and 12, changes in FSH were associated with changes in areas covering the left hippocampus, left (pre)frontal areas, right cerebellum, and left anterior cingulate and precuneus.

Reference 5 - 0,15% Coverage

Moreover, in 12-year-old girls, higher estradiol levels were associated with lower grey matter density, mainly in frontal and parietal areas.

Reference 6 - 0,13% Coverage

Here, we found changes in FSH to be associated with changes in grey matter density, most interestingly in the left hippocampus.

Reference 7 - 0,18% Coverage

At age 12, we find that estradiol is negatively associated
with grey matter density in girls. The associations are most prominent in the frontal and parietal brain areas.

<Files\\Cao et al. (2018)> - § 10 references coded [1,82% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,15% Coverage

The present study aimed to address this gap in the literature by investigating the links between an important reward-related gene—the dopamine D2 receptor (DRD2)-, maternal parenting, and trajectories of depressive symptoms from early to mid-adolescence.

Reference 2 - 0,18% Coverage

Using data from the Longitudinal Study ofChinese Children and Adolescents (LSCCA), the present study examined the associations between the DRD2 gene, maternal positive parenting at ages 10 and 11 years, and trajectories of depressive symptoms from early to mid-adolescence (ages 11 to 16 years).

Reference 3 - 0,22% Coverage

Based on previous studies (Brendgen et al. 2005; Castelao and Kröner-Herwig 2013; Dekker et al. 2007; Sabiston et al. 2013), we expected that three trajectories with low, moderate and high levels

and at least an increasing trend in one of the trajectories would represent the heterogeneous development of depressive symptoms from early to mid-adolescence.

Reference 4 - 0,29% Coverage

Previous research showed that girls were more likely to display increasing trajectories ofdepressive symptoms, whereas boys were more likely to show decreasing trajectories during adolescence (Castelao and Kröner-Herwig 2013;Dekkeret al. 2007). Against this background, we also tested the extent to which the trajectories of depressive symptoms identified in the total sample fitted the two gender groups, although gender differences were not amajor focus of this study.

Reference 5 - 0,10% Coverage

In our sample of1090 Chinese adolescents, three trajectories were identified: (i) high-increasing (19.4%), (ii) moderate-increasing (44.5%), and (iii) low-stable (36.1%).

Reference 6 - 0,10% Coverage

A241GAA homozygotes and youth exposed to lower levels ofmaternal positive parenting were both at increased odds to follow the high-increasing vs. low-stable trajectory.

Reference 7 - 0,31% Coverage

Interestingly, we also found that the A241G polymorphism
and maternal positive parenting interacted to distinguish the moderate-increasing trajectory from the high-increasing and the low-stable trajectories, but the specific alleles involved in these two G × E interactions were different. More specifically, for G-allele carriers (but not for AA homozygotes), lower levels of maternal positive parenting was associated with the chance to be in the high-increasing trajectory vs. the moderate-increasing trajectory.

Reference 8 - 0,12% Coverage

In contrast, for AA homozygotes (but not for G-allele carriers), higher levels ofmaternal positive parenting significantly distinguished the lowstable trajectory from the moderate-increasing trajectory.

Reference 9 - 0,13% Coverage

The current study replicates findings ofprevious research using the Chinese CRPR, suggesting that maternal warmth and maternal harsh discipline are moderately correlated in adolescents (e.g., Xu et al. 2015).

Reference 10 - 0,21% Coverage

The metaanalytically derived A241G interactions observed for the positive and negative parenting dimensions were similar to those observed for the overall maternal positive parenting factor, suggesting that the findings reflect shared variance rather than variance due to solely warmth or (reversed) harsh discipline (see online Supplementary Materials).

<Files\\Collin, Kahn, De Reus, Cahn, & Van den Heuvel (2014)> - § 7 references coded [1,99% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,20% Coverage

Given the heritable nature of the illness, we hypothesized that connectivity disturbances, including abnormal rich club connectivity, may be related to familial vulnerability for schizophrenia.

Reference 2 - 0,27% Coverage

In this study, rich club connectivity is examined in schizophrenia patients, unaffected siblings of patients, and healthy controls, to determine whether brain network disturbances are related to familial, possibly reflecting genetic, vulnerability for the disorder.

Reference 3 - 0,18% Coverage

The findings of this study suggest that abnormal brain network organization, in particular impaired rich club connectivity, is related to familial predisposition for schizophrenia.

Reference 4 - 0,33% Coverage

In addition to reductions in rich club connectivity, our study shows differentially reduced levels of global clustering in schizophrenia patients and unaffected siblings. In patients, impaired rich club connectivity was associated with illness effects, in that lower rich club connectivity was associated with longer duration

Reference 5 - 0,19% Coverage

of illness and worse clinical functioning. In all, our findings suggest that rich club dysconnectivity may be a core aspect of schizophrenia, both prior to and after the onset of illness.

Reference 6 - 0,67% Coverage

Region-specific connectivity strength Si
, clustering Ci , and efficiency Ei of particularly frontal cortical regions
were also found to show differential reductions across subject groups, such that values were highest in controls, intermediate in siblings, and lowest in patients. While rich club members account for only ~12% of the nodes in the network, abnormalities in Si
and Ci appear to be over-
represented among members of the rich club. Similarly, the NBS-derived component of differentially reduced connections (ie, most pronounced reductions in patients, intermediate values in siblings) included an above chance proportion of the rich club.

Reference 7 - 0,14% Coverage

In conclusion, our findings suggest that connectome
abnormalities, including impaired rich club connectivity, are related to a familial,

<Files\\Collin, Scholtens, Kahn, HIllegers, & Heuvel (2017)> - § 9 references coded [1,61% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,09% Coverage

In this study, we examine connectome organization in

young offspring of SZ and BD patients.

Reference 2 - 0,26% Coverage

Investigating anatomical and functional brain network topology, we aim to determine whether disruptions in connectome organization are present in nonpsychotic young at-risk offspring and how putative deficits in connectome topology relate to early psychopathology.

Reference 3 - 0,33% Coverage

The main finding of this study is that the anatomical RC system connecting brain hubs is affected in nonpsychotic young offspring of SZ patients. This finding suggests that deficits in RC connectivity are present in children and adolescents with a genetic predisposition for SZ well before the age at which psychosis typically manifests.

Reference 4 - 0,14% Coverage

SZ offspring were found to show lower levels of anatomical
RC connectivity compared to both healthy controls and offspring of BD patients

Reference 5 - 0,07% Coverage

Our finding that young SZ offspring show anatomical connectome deficits

Reference 6 - 0,20% Coverage

Indeed, a post hoc analysis including only subjects under 12 years of age (Supplement) demonstrated a significant group effect of RC connectivity, indicating that deficits in the anatomical RC system

Reference 7 - 0,05% Coverage

in SZ offspring are already present by late childhood.

Reference 8 - 0,27% Coverage

Another finding of our study is that both SZ offspring and
BD offspring exhibit an increased level of SC–FC coupling of long-distance connectome edges, suggesting that this may be a shared disturbance in youth at risk for both affective and nonaffective psychotic illnesses.

Reference 9 - 0,20% Coverage

Our study shows that young offspring of SZ patients exhibit
deficits in anatomical connectivity of the brain's central RC system, which may represent a connectome signature of genetic risk for SZ.

<Files\\Cosijn, Benthem, Schee, & Spijkerman (2015)> - § 13 references coded [2,20% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,22% Coverage

Cognitive control appears to be compromised in a substantial part of adolescent cannabis users (Dougherty et al., 2013; Hanson et al., 2010, 2014; Harvey et al., 2007), however, the relationship between motivational processes and cognitive control in adolescents with a CUD remains unclear.

Reference 2 - 0,23% Coverage

To bridge this gap and to extend adult findings on the importance of these processes in the course of CUDs, we investigated the relationships between attentional bias, approach bias, craving, cognitive control, and cannabis use in adolescent patients in treatment for a primary or secondary CUD (n = 57).

Reference 3 - 0,24% Coverage

Based on previous findings on motivational processes in adult heavy cannabis users (Cousijn et al., 2011, 2013a; Field, 2005; Field et al., 2004), we expected attentional bias, approach bias and craving in response to cannabis-related stimuli to covary with amount of cannabis use and severity of cannabis-related problems.

Reference 4 - 0,29% Coverage

Adolescents with a CUD had an attentional but no approach bias towards cannabis. Only cannabis craving was consistently associated with current and future levels of cannabis use, contrasting adult findings on the role of attentional and approach bias in cannabis use (Cousijn et al., 2011, 2013a). Cannabis craving significantly correlated with cannabis use during the past two weeks

Reference 5 - 0,17% Coverage

Higher craving at the start of the test-session related to higher
cannabis use in the past two weeks prior to the test session. Cannabis use-related problems as measured with the CUDIT significantly decreased during treatment

Reference 6 - 0,22% Coverage

Higher baseline cannabis use-related problems were associ-
ated with a decreased likelihood of treatment progress at 6-month follow-up. A post hoc t-test indicated that those who made progress had lower problems at follow-up ($t30 = 2.28$, $p = 0.03$) than those who did not ($t30 = 2.28$, $p = 0.03$).

Reference 7 - 0,09% Coverage

Yet, about seven initially high scoring participants showed a strong decrease towards almost no use-related problem.

Reference 8 - 0,22% Coverage

In line with previous findings in adults (Asmaro et al., 2014;
Cousijn et al., 2013a; Field, 2005; Field et al., 2004, 2006), adolescents with a CUD displayed an attentional bias towards cannabis-related words but not towards alcohol-related words during the cannabis and alcohol Stroop.

Reference 9 - 0,09% Coverage

In the current study, the attentional bias was not significantly correlated with cannabis use, problems or craving.

Reference 10 - 0,07% Coverage

In sum, both adults and adolescents with a CUD appear to have an attentional bias towards cannabis.

Reference 11 - 0,08% Coverage

The current sample of adolescents in treatment for a CUD did not
display an approach bias towards cannabis.

Reference 12 - 0,08% Coverage

In the current study, cognitive control as measured with the Classical Stroop task was not associated with

Reference 13 - 0,20% Coverage

In conclusion, cannabis craving, but not attentional bias,
approach bias and cognitive control, significantly correlated with current cannabis use and predicted cannabis use-related problems and abstinence from cannabis 6 months later in adolescent patient with a CUD.

<Files\\Cousijn, Koolschijn, Zanolie, Kleibeuker, & Crone (2014)> - § 14 references coded [3,18% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,25% Coverage

The current study therefore investigated the relationship between gray matter morphology and divergent thinking in the verbal and visuo-spatial domain in adolescence and early adulthood, as this is a time period during which creative cognition is highly important for adapting to several environmental changes [5].

Reference 2 - 0,22% Coverage

The first goal of this study therefore was to elucidate the commonalities and differences in the relationship between gray matter volume, cortical thickness and different divergent thinking using tasks tapping into verbal (AUT) and visuospatial (CAT) divergent thinking across the brain.

Reference 3 - 0,33% Coverage

In addition to the whole brain analyses, given that the same participants performed a verbal divergent thinking task in the scanner (previously reported in [29]), we reasoned that the brain regions that were activated during verbal divergent thinking were important hypothesis-driven targets for examining the relation between gray matter morphology and both verbal and visuo-spatial divergent thinking task performance.

Reference 4 - 0,05% Coverage

Therefore, this dataset provided the unique opportunity

Reference 5 - 0,24% Coverage

to assess the associations between gray matter morphology and functional brain activity associated with verbal divergent thinking. The second goal therefore was to investigate if cortical thickness is associated with BOLD activity in the regions activated during performance of the AUT in the scanner.

Reference 6 - 0,41% Coverage

However, whole-brain analysis showed that CAT performance (i.e., originality and fluency) was positively associated with cortical thickness of left brain areas including the superior frontal gyrus and various occipital, parietal, and temporal areas. Moreover, ROI analysis indicated that higher CAT originality and fluency were related to larger cortical thickness of the right MTG. These results suggest a positive relationship between cortical thickness and divergent thinking in the visuo-spatial, but not the verbal domain.

Reference 7 - 0,19% Coverage

We showed that a visuo-spatial measure of divergent thinking was positively
related to cortical thickness of various brain areas. Cortical thickness of the left occipital cortex and right MTG were associated with both CAT fluency and originality.

Reference 8 - 0,15% Coverage

Cortical thickness of the left postcentral gyrus was specifically related to CAT fluency, whereas CAT originality was specifically associated with various left temporal, parietal, and frontal areas.

Reference 9 - 0,13% Coverage

The MTG, an important area underlying verbal divergent thinking [29, 54], showed a significant association with CAT originality and fluency in the ROI analysis.

Reference 10 - 0,22% Coverage

The observed relationship between gray matter morphology and visuo-spatial divergent thinking was independent of age, suggesting a general positive association between flexible visual processing of spatial relationships and cortical thickness and volume in a widespread brain network.

Reference 11 - 0,25% Coverage

Interestingly, our ROIs were based on a verbal divergent thinking paradigm, yet, we found an association between right MTG thickness and behavior on a visuo-spatial divergent thinking task. This suggests that the involvement of brain regions associated with the creative process is not limited to a specific domain.

Reference 12 - 0,37% Coverage

To date, five studies, including our own, have showed positive associations between various divergent thinking measures and gray matter structural brain indices [22–25], and one study showed a mixture of both positive and negative associations depending on the creativity index used [26]. These findings tend to converge into the notion that greater gray matter volume or cortical thickness is associated with better computational efficacy of specific brain regions [31].

Reference 13 - 0,17% Coverage

Here we showed that a visuo-spatial measure (but not a verbal measure) of divergent thinking (CAT) was positively related to cortical thickness in occipital, parietal, temporal and frontal areas, independently of age.

Reference 14 - 0,21% Coverage

The current study provides the first evidence for a relation between cortical thickness and visuo-spatial divergent thinking in adolescents and young adults, taking an important step in unraveling the relationship between creative cognition and brain morphology.

<Files\\Cousijn, Luijten, & Wiers (2014)> - § 6 references coded [1,41% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,12% Coverage

We hereby followed a method developed by Mitchell et al. (33), to assess emotional context effects in a different task (a Go/NoGo task)

Reference 2 - 0,57% Coverage

Across the appetitive, positive, and negative primed contexts, heavy drinkers were hypothesized to have a stronger alcoholapproach bias compared to occasional drinkers. Given the previously observed relationship between negative mood induction, coping motives, and activationofimplicit alcohol-approachmemory associations (20), coping drinking motives were expected to be related to an increased alcohol-approach bias after negative primes, compared with the other blocks. Enhancement drinking motives were expected to be related to an increased alcoholapproach bias in the positive compared to the appetitive context.

Reference 3 - 0,21% Coverage

Perhaps surprisingly, this change in alcohol-approach bias in the negative context was positively related to explicit enhancement drinking motives (but not coping motives) and negatively related to alcohol use-related problems.

Reference 4 - 0,15% Coverage

We observed that explicit enhancement drinking motives were
related to increased alcohol-approach bias in the negative context, not in the positive context.

Reference 5 - 0,28% Coverage

the current findings suggest that both occasional and heavy drinkers have a selective difficulty to avoid alcohol-related cues in a negative emotional context. This change in alcohol-approach bias was

positively related to explicit enhancement drinking motives and negatively related to alcohol-related problems.

Reference 6 - 0,08% Coverage

Negative reinforcement may therefore be involved in different types ofdrinking patterns.

<Files\\Cousijn, Zanolie, Munsters, Kleibeuker, & Crone (2014)> - § 11 references coded [1,83% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,07% Coverage

We therefore examined the relation between flexibility in thinking and functional connectivity at rest

Reference 2 - 0,11% Coverage

The goal of the current study was twofold: investigate (1) the cross-sectional relation between divergent thinking performance and RS connectivity,

Reference 3 - 0,08% Coverage

We expected divergent thinking to be positively related to RS connectivity of the MTG, SMG, and MeFG at pre-test.

Reference 4 - 0,10% Coverage

In post hoc analyses we tested whether the behavioral training outcomes were related to RS connectivity of the MTG, SMG, and MeFG at the pre-test.

Reference 5 - 0,13% Coverage

The study resulted in several important findings; (1) stronger connectivity between MTG and bilateral postcentral gyrus was associated with better divergent thinking performance,

Reference 6 - 0,11% Coverage

As predicted, the time course of activity within these regions showed significant correlations with each other, across hemispheres (see also [20]).

Reference 7 - 0,29% Coverage

A test for relations between functional connectivity patterns and performance revealed that higher AUT-scanner fluency scores were related to stronger connectivity between the right MTG and the postcentral gyrus. In addition to the seed-based analysis, the whole brain RS ICA analyses did not reveal any additional association between AUT-scanner performance and functional connectivity outside the seed areas.

Reference 8 - 0,15% Coverage

Extending the prior findings of Takeuchi et al. [21], divergent thinking performance is also associated with stronger connectivity within a task-relevant network, specifically between MTG and the postcentral gyrus.

Reference 9 - 0,20% Coverage

Similarly as reported by Kleibeuker et al. [10], a post-hoc analysis indicated that AUT-scanner fluency correlated with AUT-brick fluency (r = 0.39, p= 0.03) and flexibility (r = 0.49, p= 0.005), increasing the confidence in the AUT-scanner as a measure of verbal divergent thinking.

Reference 10 - 0,47% Coverage

When we tested whether behavioral improvement could be predicted by pre-test RS functional connectivity, we found that changes in AUT-scanner fluency were negatively related to connectivity between the left SMG and occipital cortex, suggesting that an anti-correlation between the SMG and occipital cortex may be a predictor of the trainability of divergent thinking. That is to say, we found that a weaker anti-correlation between SMG and occipital cortex was associated with less performance improvement. Anti-correlations between brain areas, also referred to as functional segregation, have previously been associated with better cognitive performance

Reference 11 - 0,11% Coverage

Taken together, the current study showed that divergent
thinking performance can be linked to connectivity strength in a task-relevant network in adolescents.

<Files\\Crocetti et al. (2016)> - § 2 references coded [0,87% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,43% Coverage

More specifically, parent-reported parental solicitation was related to a relative increase in adolescent-
reported antisocial behaviors 1 year later, controlling for prior levels of antisocial behaviors and gender, in adolescents with high state empathy. This result was found for both affective (empathic concern) and cognitive (perspective taking) state empathy. In contrast, parental solicitation was related to lower relative levels of antisocial behaviors in adolescents with low affective state empathy.

Reference 2 - 0,44% Coverage

In line with a wide literature (e.g., Jolliffe and Farrington, 2004; de Kemp et al., 2007; Gini et al., 2007; Ang and Goh, 2010; van Noorden et al., 2015), we found significant negative correlations, both concurrently and over time, between trait (but not state) dimensions of empathy and adolescent antisocial behaviors, consistent with previous research in which externalizing behavior appeared more consistently related to self-reported measures of trait empathy than to state empathy measures (see Miller and Eisenberg, 1988).

<Files\\Damsteegt, IJzendoorn, Out, & Bakermans-Kranenburg (2014)> - § 11 references coded [2,20% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,02% Coverage

Since adopted

Reference 2 - 0,34% Coverage

children are at risk for developing behavior problems (Hawk and McCall 2010; Juffer and Van IJzendoorn 2005) and come from diverse and sometimes adverse backgrounds, we explored relations between pre-adoption experiences, TMT, and behavior problems in adopted children.

Reference 3 - 0,30% Coverage

In thepresent studywe exploredthe relation between pre-adoption living arrangements at 6 to 9 months of age and TMT, and secondly, explored the relation between TMT and behavior problems in a sample of toddlers who were adopted from China.

Reference 4 - 0,24% Coverage

As relatively more sleep problems have been found in young children adopted from China (Tan et al. 2007), we explored the association between sleep problems and TMT asymmetry more specifically.

Reference 5 - 0,09% Coverage

TMT asymmetry was moderately stable across a time period of four months.

Reference 6 - 0,12% Coverage

there was a significant association between TMT and sleep problems two months after adoption.

Reference 7 - 0,40% Coverage

Structural equation modeling revealed that children
who were institutionalized at 6 to 9 months of age had higher left than right TMTs at Time 2 compared with children who had been placed in foster care. In contrast, preliminary analyses indicated significantly higher right TMTs for institutionalized children at Time 1.

Reference 8 - 0,21% Coverage

months after arrival during which many changes occur. A higher left relative to right TMT was associated with
increased sleep problems at Time 1 but not at Time 2.

Reference 9 - 0,19% Coverage

In addition, correlational analyses indicated that a higher left TMT was associated with increased total behavior problems for the total sample at Time 1.

Reference 10 - 0,15% Coverage

Differences in TMT asymmetry between institutionalized and foster care children are consistent with previous findings.

Reference 11 - 0,15% Coverage

Our results similarly indicate that the quality of pre-adoption living arrangements is associated with neural development.

<Files\\De Zeeuw et al. (2017)> - § 3 references coded [1,15% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,51% Coverage

In line with earlier research a significant negative association between ADHD symptoms and educational achievement was found (Polderman et al. 2010). Children, who displayed more ADHD symptoms, as rated by their mother at the same time or 5 years earlier, scored lower on an educational achievement test. Comparing the different components of ADHD, inattentiveness and hyperactivity, suggests variation in the magnitude of the association with educational achievement. Inattentiveness is to a much greater extent related to educational achievement than hyperactivity.

Reference 2 - 0,46% Coverage

The cross-sectional and longitudinal direct paths between ADHD symptoms and educational were significant. This was also true for the inattentive subtype of symptoms, but not for hyperactivity. Within genetically identical twin pairs, the twin who showed more ADHD symptoms scored lower on the educational achievement test than his or her co-twin. The children with ADHD, who used methylphenidate as treatment for their symptoms, scored significantly higher on an educational achievement test than the children with ADHD

Reference 3 - 0,18% Coverage

More importantly, fewer children with ADHD using methylphenidate attended the lowest level of secondary education during adolescence compared to the group children with ADHD who did not use medication.

<Files\\De Zeeuw et al. (2019)> - § 3 references coded [1,01% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,27% Coverage

As expected, parental SES was found to be strongly associated with EA on a standardized test taken at the end of primary school. Boys scored higher than girls in all SES groups, except in the highest SES group where there was no sex difference in EA.

Reference 2 - 0,31% Coverage

The PGS, based on genetic variants association with educational attainment in adults, was associated with parental SES with a higher mean PGS in the children from high SES families compared with children from low SES families. The variance of this PGS did not differ between SES groups.

Reference 3 - 0,44% Coverage

Although parental SES is a strong predictor of children's EA,
there are large differences between children within each SES group, especially in the lower SES groups. The EA scores in the lowest SES group displayed the full range from the lowest to the highest

possible score. This was not the case in the highest SES group, where the lowest score was absent, while many children achieve the highest score.

<Files\\De Zeeuw, Beijsterveldt, Hoekstra, Bartles, & Boomsma (2017)> - § 3 references coded [0,50% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,09% Coverage

and (c) to investigate the discordance in autistic traits in MZ and same-sex DZ twin pairs.

Reference 2 - 0,20% Coverage

Mothers and fathers showed a high agreement in their ratings of autistic traits as assessed with the PDP scale of the Child Behavior Checklist for preschoolers (Achenbach & Rescorla, 2000).

Reference 3 - 0,21% Coverage

In our study more than one-quarter of the children at genetic risk for ASD, i.e. with an identical co-twin scoring in the clinical range of autistic traits, scored in the range of normal development.

<Files\\Derks, Krugers, Hoogenraad, Joëls, & Sarabdjitsingh (2016)> - § 9 references coded [0,77% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,09% Coverage

Basal fEPSP size strongly increasedwith age, accompanied by a decrease in the required stimulation intensity;

Reference 2 - 0,05% Coverage

Females showed an overshoot in LTP magnitude at adult age only.

Reference 3 - 0,12% Coverage

In line with our expectations and earlier studies[39,40], extremely small baseline fEPSPs were observedat P8-9, accompanied by a high stimulation intensity.

Reference 4 - 0,05% Coverage

At P8-9, we also observedLTD instead ofLTP, as expected[29,30].

Reference 5 - 0,15% Coverage

Altogether, our data confirm the current views on the developmental state of signal transmission in the first postnatal week[49], both regarding basal transmission and synaptic plasticity.

Reference 6 - 0,08% Coverage

The developmental increase in synaptic plasticity after HFSwas seen regardless ofMD and in both sexes.

Reference 7 - 0,03% Coverage

although there was a trend in P85-95 females

Reference 8 - 0,11% Coverage

In none of the other groups did CORT change LTP induction, although a suppression of LTP at trend level was observed in females at P85-95.

Reference 9 - 0,09% Coverage

Spontaneous fluctuations in basal CORT levels may therefore not strongly correlate with the ability to induce LTP.

<Files\\Deutz, Geeraerts, Baar, Dekovic, & Prinzie (2016)> - § 20 references coded [6,20% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,60% Coverage

Therefore, in this study, the factor structure of DP was examined by comparing three competing models. To determine the generalizability of the results, all models were examined separately for two different developmental periods, middle childhood and adolescence. In addition, the bestfitting model was examined for multiple reporters (mothers, fathers, teachers, and youth) and for measurement invariance across gender, parents, and time. External validity and clinical relevance were examined by assessing the relation of the best-fitting model for all reporters with self-harm and suicidal ideation as reported by the adolescents themselves.

Reference 2 - 0,13% Coverage

Therefore, in this study, the factor structure of DP was examined by testing three competing models using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).

Reference 3 - 0,08% Coverage

Therefore, it is expected that the bifactor model would show the best fit to the data.

Reference 4 - 0,17% Coverage

In this study, we examined measurement invariance across gender, parents (as only father and mother reports are equivalent regarding the items constituting the AAA-scales), and time.

Reference 5 - 0,16% Coverage

Therefore, we tested measurement invariance for gender of the bestfitting DP factor model on mother reports (as these are most often used in clinical and research practice).

Reference 6 - 0,25% Coverage

Although LCA (a person-centered approach) does not necessarily result in a similar conclusion when using factor analysis (a variable-centered approach), these results do inform on our hypothesis that

the factor structure of DP is to be found for all reporters.

Reference 7 - 0,38% Coverage

In this study, the factor structure of DP was examined for father, teacher, and youth reports separately, in addition to mother-reports, to examine whether a DP structure could be found for all reporters. To further determine if the DP structure is similar across reporters, we examined measurement invariance for different reporters, fathers and mothers who answered the same item-set, with equivalent models.

Reference 8 - 0,14% Coverage

To examine whether DP is an equivalent construct in middle childhood and adolescence, measurement invariance across time was examined using mother reports.

Reference 9 - 0,31% Coverage

Given the robustness of this link, and the fact that suicidality is a form of severe adolescent psychopathology, we also examined the link between DP and suicidality to further establish the external validity of the factor model. We examined cross-informant associations of DP with youth-reported self-harm and suicidal ideation.

Reference 10 - 0,91% Coverage

In sum, the factor structure of DP was examined in middle childhood and adolescence and across reporters. Measurement invariance was examined across gender, parents, and time. It was expected that a bifactor model of DP would best represent the data, indicating that DP consists of a general dysregulation factor as well as domain-specific factors for each of the AAA-scales. Based on a previous study in which a DP class across multiple reporters was identified [3], we expected that a similar factor structure would be present for mothers, fathers, teachers, and youth themselves, and that the structure would be invariant across parents. In addition, as this phenotype has been found for boys and girls separately [e.g., 30], we expected
DP to be invariant across gender. Given the reported stability [23], we expected DP to be invariant across time. The dysregulation construct was expected to be positively related to adolescent-reported self-harm and suicidal ideation.

Reference 11 - 0,07% Coverage

Our results provided convincing support for the hypothesized bifactor structure.

Reference 12 - 0,20% Coverage

This indicates that, both in middle childhood and adolescence, DP is best conceptualized as a syndrome, which exists over and above to specific problems of anxiety and depression, aggression, and attention problems.

Reference 13 - 0,67% Coverage

Importantly, the DP bifactor structure was successfully replicated for father, teacher, and youth reports, both in middle childhood and adolescence. Furthermore, measurement invariance across parents was examined which demonstrated that the DP structure similarly appeared across fathers and mothers in assessing their children and adolescents. Measurement invariance across time

demonstrated the equivalence of DP across two developmental periods (middle childhood and adolescence). These replications show the robustness of the bifactor DP structure across parents and time and underscore that a differentiation should be made between a general syndrome, representing DP, and the specific problems of the AAA-scales.

Reference 14 - 0,42% Coverage

As we used different statistical techniques (CFA vs LCA), our results suggest that both with person- and variable-centered approaches the structure of DP can be validated across reporters. Our results underscore the conclusion that mothers, fathers, teachers, and youth reports of child and adolescent problem behavior similarly define the factor structure of DP, suggesting that all three reporters could be used in future research and clinical practice.

Reference 15 - 0,22% Coverage

The same bifactor structure of DP was found for boys and girls, both in middle childhood and adolescence. With measurement invariance across gender, means and variances of DP between boys and girls can be reliably compared in future studies.

Reference 16 - 0,40% Coverage

Interestingly, when youth themselves, their mothers, or their fathers were reporters, the general Dysregulation factor was found to be related to higher rates of concurrent self-harm and suicidal ideation as reported by adolescents themselves, whereas none of the specific factors of AD, AGG, and AP showed any relation to suicidality. For teacher reports, only AGG was related to self-harm and suicidal thoughts or behaviors.

Reference 17 - 0,51% Coverage

Furthermore, these results indicate that the previously demonstrated link between DP and suicidal behavior [e.g., 2, 9] was not an artifact of only elevated AD behavior causing a high DP score. Moreover, this finding is in line with LCA research showing that only the DP class showed elevated suicidal ideation [30], again indicating the uniqueness of DP as a construct next to other forms of psychopathology. These findings add to previous literature indicating that comorbidity of psychiatric problems especially is related to suicidality [44].

Reference 18 - 0,18% Coverage

In conclusion, this study adds to the existing body of research on DP as a broad syndrome of dysregulation by demonstrating that a bifactor model best represents the AAA-scales that constitute DP.

Reference 19 - 0,21% Coverage

This syndrome exists next to specific problems of anxiety and depression, aggression, and attention problems both in middle childhood and adolescence, and for mothers, fathers, teachers, and youth themselves as reporters.

Reference 20 - 0,20% Coverage

The bifactor DP model was invariant across gender, across parents, and across time and was uniquely associated to youth-reported self-harm and suicidal ideation, underscoring the severity of dysregulatory problems.

<Files\\Eichelsheim, Blokland, Meeus, & Branje (2019)> - § 7 references coded [1,30% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,19% Coverage

The aim of the current study is to investigate whether overtime patterns of adolescent delinquent behavior and relationship quality with parents and siblings, together with patterns of pubertal maturation, are related to characteristics of early adulthood romantic relationship engagement.

Reference 2 - 0,26% Coverage

In the current study, we incorporate this framework and specifically examine whether and how trajectory group assignment is related to respondents' engagement in romantic relationships in early adulthood (relationship involvement), antisocial behavior of the partner (partner selection), their time spent together (relationship content), and relational conflict between partners (relationship quality).

Reference 3 - 0,17% Coverage

The five groups that we distinguished differed mostly on the presence and development of delinquent behavior and conflict in relationships with parents and siblings. The groups did not differ in terms of levels nor overtime change in pubertal development.

Reference 4 - 0,27% Coverage

The smallest but most distinct and problematic group was characterized by high levels of delinquency on top of high levels of family conflict. The individuals in this group were more often still offending in early adulthood as compared with members of the other groups. On the other end of the spectrum, there is a considerably larger "well-behaved" group characterized by low levels of conflict and delinquency.

Reference 5 - 0,12% Coverage

The group classifications were hardly related to relationship engagement: Gender was a way better predictor, in the sense that females were more often involved in relationships than males.

Reference 6 - 0,19% Coverage

Individuals from lower SES families more often had delinquent partners, but also the group characterized by high levels of delinquency on top of high levels of family conflict during adolescence (Group 5) was the group in which individuals had the most antisocial partners later in life.

Reference 7 - 0,11% Coverage

Our results furthermore indicate that conflict with parents and siblings over the course of adolescence is related to conflict in partner relationships later in life.7

<Files\\Fox, Entink, & Timmers (2014)> - § 4 references coded [1,13% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,32% Coverage

To better understand students' information-seeking be-
havior, implicit feedback measures such as click-through rates and pop-up opening times are observed. The idea is that by learning about preferences of students using an indepth analysis of students' seeking behavior, the efficiency and accuracy of the system's feedback information can be further improved and used to individuate system responses.

Reference 2 - 0,18% Coverage

Therefore, a latent variable modeling approach is carried out to analyze students' seeking behavior using implicit feedback measures: (a) feedback use given click-through data and (b) attention given the pop-up opening times.

Reference 3 - 0,55% Coverage

The latent variable framework is meant for an exploratory
analysis, where interest is focused on between-student construct variability and relationships between constructs. First, it is investigated to what extent students seek information when they are invited to use the information retrieval system. Subsequently, interest is focused on the difference in intensity to search feedback between low- and high-performing students. Furthermore, attention levels of high-performing students and low-performing students are compared. Second, the variability in student feedback behavior (i.e., feedback use and attention) is explored to investigate differences in the use of automatically generated feedback

Reference 4 - 0,09% Coverage

At the level of students, although finishing the test, a subset of students did not open any of the feedback pages.

<Files\\Hawk, Becht, & Branje (2016)> - § 28 references coded [6,24% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,09% Coverage

This research, however, contrasted snooping with an undifferentiated "direct monitoring" dimension conflating solicitation and control.

Reference 2 - 0,14% Coverage

In the present research, we explicitly investigated differential patterns of correlations that snooping, solicitation, and control hold with indicators of adolescents' adjustment and relations with parents.

Reference 3 - 0,11% Coverage

Using three independent samples of adolescents and/or their parents, we aimed to examine differences and similarities between snooping and overt monitoring strategies.

Reference 4 - 0,53% Coverage

In Study 1, we examined youth reports of snooping, solicitation, and control in terms of factor structure, frequency, and links to perceived privacy invasion. In Study 2, we considered convergent and divergent associations between each parentreported monitoring strategy and correlates including youths' disclosure, secrecy, lying, and problem behavior, as well as parents' own concerns about their children and their perceptions of self-efficacy. In Study 3, we compared adolescent and parental views of when each strategy could be a justifiable method of obtaining parental knowledge. These initial comparisons can provide valuable information for adolescents, parents, practitioners, and researchers aiming to establish guidelines for acceptable and beneficial information sharing between family members.

Reference 5 - 0,24% Coverage

While we expected that all three behaviors might be linked to perceived privacy invasion (Hawk et al., 2008; Petronio, 1994), we also predicted that snooping would hold the strongest association. Finally, we explored potential gender differences in each monitoring behavior with regard to factor structure, links to perceived invasion, and reported frequency.

Reference 6 - 0,37% Coverage

Survey items related to snooping frequency emerged as a behavioral dimension distinct from parental solicitation and control in both exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. Snooping held the strongest links with perceptions of parental privacy invasion. The invasiveness of snooping was also reflected in the finding that more than half of youths reported this activity to never occur. Solicitation and control were also modestly associated with perceived invasion, with effect sizes that paralleled a prior longitudinal study of these links (Hawk et al., 2008).

Reference 7 - 0,46% Coverage

The higher levels of solicitation and control for
girls, compared to boys, are consistent with prior studies on Dutch adolescents (Hawk et al., 2008; Keijsers et al., 2009). The negative link between age and control, and a trend toward a positive link between age and solicitation, is also in line with longitudinal evidence that parents decrease control over time (Hawk et al., 2008; Keijsers et al., 2009) and instead rely more strongly on youths' own willingness to share information (Keijsers et al., 2010; Kerr et al., 2010) or disclose in the context of an open dialogue (Smetana, Metzger, Gettman, & Campione-Barr, 2006). Notably, there was also a positive correlation between age and snooping.

Reference 8 - 0,23% Coverage

In either respect, parents' likely desire to avoid
invading youths' privacy except when concerns over dishonesty or problem behavior are more severe (McKinney, 1998; Tang & Dong, 2006; see also Buyukcan-Tetik et al., 2013; Vinkers et al., 2011), and when information is unlikely to be discovered through voluntary compliance with disclosure requests.

Reference 9 - 0,27% Coverage

The results of Study 2 supported the notion that
parents' reports of monitoring strategies shared a structure similar to that of adolescents' reports in Study 1, with snooping, solicitation, and control comprising three separate dimensions of behavior.

Interestingly, a similar proportion of parents (60.10%) in Study 2 reported never engaging in snooping, compared with adolescent reports from Study 1 (62.50%).

Reference 10 - 0,17% Coverage

Further underscoring the distinctiveness of snooping, the only significant tests of correlation strength differences were those that compared this covert strategy with solicitation and control. In contrast, solicitation or control never differed from one another.

Reference 11 - 0,25% Coverage

The results showed that snooping was more
strongly tied to suspicions about youths' problem behavior than were solicitation or control. Only snooping was linked with perceptions of adolescents' antisocial behavior, as well as parents' worries about the relationship and concerns about youths' future misbehavior (although this latter correlation was not significantly stronger).

Reference 12 - 0,12% Coverage

In contrast, the positive link that efficacy perceptions held with both control and solicitation suggests that more confident parents can make their desires for knowledge overtly known.

Reference 13 - 0,10% Coverage

The results also revealed that snooping was pos-
itively associated with parent- and adolescentreported lying, as well as with adolescent-reported secrecy.

Reference 14 - 0,08% Coverage

It is noteworthy that only youths'—and not par-
ents'—reports of secrecy were directly linked to parents' snooping.

Reference 15 - 0,10% Coverage

Adolescent-reported lying and secrecy were also linked to parent-reported solicitation, while parents' perceptions of these youth behaviors were not.

Reference 16 - 0,09% Coverage

Based on these earlier findings, and the results of the first two studies, we expected that both parents and adolescents would generally view

Reference 17 - 0,23% Coverage

snooping as less justifiable than solicitation and control. However, we also expected parents to view snooping as more justifiable than would adolescents. We further predicted that both sets of respondents might view moral and prudential information as particularly legitimate targets of snooping, compared to information in the personal domain.

Reference 18 - 0,36% Coverage

less justifiable than the other two strategies. Whereas youths and parents generally agreed on the legitimacy of solicitation and control, they were more sharply divided in their views about snooping. Parents tended to see snooping as a more legitimate monitoring strategy than did adolescents. The results also closely mirrored prior findings that youths and parents generally agree about parents' legitimacy to regulate the moral domain and that older youths were particularly protective of their personal information, compared to younger respondents.

Reference 19 - 0,46% Coverage

Both parents and adolescents viewed snooping
and control—the strategies that arguably represent the clearest expressions of parents' privileged status in the relationship—as most justifiable when moral issues were concerned. Solicitation was seen as similar in legitimacy with regard to both moral and prudential issues. Solicitation was also rated as the most acceptable means of acquiring knowledge, regardless of domain, followed by control and snooping. Parents always considered snooping to be more justifiable than adolescents did. Although they showed clear preferences toward the use of solicitation and control, they signaled that more intrusive strategies were not completely out of the question.

Reference 20 - 0,14% Coverage

boundaries of parental intervention. This pattern of results suggests shared parent
and adolescent preferences for a "tiered" monitoring approach as they transition from mid-adolescence to late adolescence.

Reference 21 - 0,13% Coverage

The fact that solicitation was rated as equally justifiable for moral and prudential issues, but that control was equally justifiable for prudential and personal issues, is also indicative of such a pattern.

Reference 22 - 0,32% Coverage

This study expands prior research on beliefs
about whether parents can legitimately make rules about the moral, prudential, and personal domains, by showing that similar processes are at play regarding how parents can legitimately acquire information. The fact that parent–adolescent disagreement over monitoring legitimacy was most pronounced for snooping is yet another finding supporting the notion that it is a monitoring strategy distinct from parental solicitation or control.

Reference 23 - 0,56% Coverage

Compared to solicitation and control, both adolescents and parents reported snooping to be a relatively infrequent (cf. Cottrell et al., 2007) and less legitimate behavior. In line with these findings, snooping also showed significantly stronger ties with adolescents' general perceptions of parental invasion. Additionally, only snooping showed direct links with several indicators of parental concern, including lying, parents' worries about relationship deterioration and youths' problem behavior, and parents' lower perceived self-efficacy. These latter results, in particular, underscore a main distinction between snooping and overt monitoring behaviors: Parents appear to resort to snooping more often when they perceive disturbances in youths' adjustment, the parent–child relationship, and their ability positively influence adolescents' behavior.

Reference 24 - 0,06% Coverage

Solicitation and control were connected for adolescents in Study 1, but not with snooping.

Reference 25 - 0,09% Coverage

While parents' reports of solicitation and control were similarly correlated in Study 2, snooping also showed a correlation with solicitation.

Reference 26 - 0,15% Coverage

Thus, for parental reports, there appeared to be an information-seeking motive at play: Parents who more frequently solicited information were also somewhat more likely to try to gain that knowledge through covert tactics.

Reference 27 - 0,15% Coverage

Our findings revealed several ways in which snooping can be considered a distinct monitoring dimension, particularly in terms of lower frequency, greater perceptions of inappropriateness, and links to parents' concerns about dis-

Reference 28 - 0,23% Coverage

honesty, problem behavior, and suboptimal relationships with children. While snooping appeared to occur relatively rarely or not at all in most families, these correlations underscore that even a few experiences of such behavior might be especially upsetting for adolescents (Petronio, 1994) and be an indicator of deeper problems in family functioning.

<Files\\Hawk, Ter Bogt, Van den Eijnden, & Nelemans (2015)> - § 14 references coded [2,94% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,29% Coverage

We also aimed to extend general knowledge about adolescents'
SNS disclosures in several important ways. First, few studies have explicitly compared disclosures of relatively mundane experiences with the rarer (but potentially more damaging) disclosures about substance use and sexual activity (but see Christofides et al., 2009; Karl et al., 2010; Peluchette & Karl, 2008).

Reference 2 - 0,12% Coverage

We therefore used person-centered methods in Study 1, which allowed for consideration of how naturally-occurring groups might differ in their SNS disclosures.

Reference 3 - 0,27% Coverage

Study 1 utilized a cluster analysis in order to investigate
whether youths with specific profiles of narcissism and social power report different frequencies of normative and problematic SNS disclosures. We expected to observe classes of adolescents characterized by different combinations of relatively higher and lower narcissism and social power.

Reference 4 - 0,12% Coverage

Our main hypothesis for this study was that adolescents characterized by a High-Narcissism/Low-Power profile would report the most frequent SNS disclosures.

Reference 5 - 0,36% Coverage

A person-
centered approach identified adolescent groups characterized by fairly orthogonal combinations of narcissism and social power. Higher levels of narcissism were linked with more frequent normative SNS disclosures, regardless of power scores. For problematic SNS disclosures, however, adolescents in the High-Narcissism/ Low-Power class reported more frequent disclosure than all other groups, with the remaining three clusters showing no differences.

Reference 6 - 0,19% Coverage

In contrast, our person-centered approach indicated that a sizable proportion of higher-narcissism adolescents saw themselves as merely 'ordinary' in this respect, and these lower power perceptions were linked to more problematic SNS disclosures.

Reference 7 - 0,17% Coverage

Based on the findings of Study 1, we hypothesized that higher-narcissism youths would report lower risk perceptions around SNS disclosures after receiving a low-power manipulation, as compared to a high-power manipulation.

Reference 8 - 0,21% Coverage

Largely replicating the results of Study 1, youths scoring higher in dispositional narcissism who were asked to recall and experience oflow social power perceived less risk around problematic SNS disclosures than did those who were exposed to a high-power recall prime.

Reference 9 - 0,23% Coverage

Using both person-centered (Study 1) and experimental (Study 2) approaches, we found support for our hypothesis that a combination of higher narcissism and lower perceived social power is related to increased references to drinking, substance use, and sexual behavior on youths' SNS profiles.

Reference 10 - 0,10% Coverage

Our findings also support prior research qualifying the positive
link between power and risky behavior (Maner et al., 2007).

Reference 11 - 0,22% Coverage

Narcissistic youths' stronger desires for attention and admiration are accompanied by constant searches for reassurance, suggesting that they are ''especially vigilant to the potential loss of power'' (Maner et al., 2007, p. 453). This heightened vigilance was reflected in our results.

Reference 12 - 0,29% Coverage

In Study 1, our cluster-analytical approach revealed that the High-Narcissism/Low-Power class reported perceptions of power that were on par with mean levels for the sample as a whole (but substantially lower than for the High-Narcissism/High-Power group). At the same time, this self-view of 'ordinariness' was associated with higher levels of problematic SNS disclosure.

Reference 13 - 0,21% Coverage

Notably, adolescents in both studies generally reported low frequencies/high risk assessments of problematic disclosures. This was less the case for normative disclosures, however, which were more frequent both for girls and for the two high-narcissism classes in Study 1.

Reference 14 - 0,14% Coverage

Specifically, high-narcissism youths with lower perceptions of social power may regard problematic SNS disclosures as less risky, and share such information online more often.

<Files\\Hessels, Cornelissen, Hooge, & Kemner (2017)> - § 11 references coded [1,53% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,06% Coverage

More specifically, we wanted to investigate gaze patterns to faces during social interaction.

Reference 2 - 0,10% Coverage

Our first research question pertains to the bias for attending the eyes: Is there still a bias for attending the eyes when there is a possibility of interaction?

Reference 3 - 0,10% Coverage

If a bias to fixate the eyes is only present in the absence of social partners, we should not find a preference for fixating the eyes in the current experiment.

Reference 4 - 0,16% Coverage

If maintaining eye contact reveals something about the nature of the relationship between the two interaction partners, for example, competitive versus cooperative (Jarick & Kingstone, 2015), we expect gaze patterns to be linked to each other.

Reference 5 - 0,17% Coverage

For the first research question, we report longer total dwell times to the eyes compared with the nose, mouth, and non-AOI, and conclude that there is a bias for fixating the eye region during social interaction, as has often been observed in noninteraction settings.

Reference 6 - 0,11% Coverage

Moreover, the average dwell duration to the eyes was longer than the dwell durations to the nose and mouth. Periods of eye contact took, on average, less than 0.5 s.

Reference 7 - 0,52% Coverage

In Experiment 1, we showed that there is a bias for fixating the eye
region in the face of an interaction partner when that partner is physically present, corroborating the long-standing hypothesis that the eyes are an important source of information in faces. Moreover, we reported that the total amount of time spent looking at the eyes by either partner was highly correlated with the total amount of time the other partner spent looking at the eyes. Dwell durations in the eye region were twice as long as dwells to the nose or mouth region, indicating that when the eyes were looked at, they retained attention longer than the nose or mouth region. The average time that partners maintained eye contact—defined as the period of time in which both partners looked at each other's eyes—was less than half a second.

Reference 8 - 0,10% Coverage

In Experiment 1, there was little to no talking between partners. In seven of nine duos, there was at least one period of laughter. In Experiment 2,
300

Reference 9 - 0,07% Coverage

conversation occurred with five observers, and at least one period of laughter occurred in 17 of 30 duos.

Reference 10 - 0,09% Coverage

To conclude, when two partners look at each other while there
is the possibility of engaging in interaction, there is a bias to fixate the eyes.

Reference 11 - 0,05% Coverage

Moreover, the amount of time spent looking at the eyes is duo-dependent,

<Files\\Hessels, Hooge, & Kemner (2016) [1]> - § 14 references coded [3,07% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,11% Coverage

In the present study we are concerned with saccadic search in infancy, and how saccadic search behavior in infancy can be characterized.

Reference 2 - 0,23% Coverage

These two remaining questions are addressed in the first question of the present study, and its components:
Q1: Do infants search for a discrepant item in the absence of instructions? Q1.1 (Necessary): Is target localization above what may be expected by our model of chance?

Reference 3 - 0,22% Coverage

Second, we describe infant saccadic directional and amplitude changes during search as has previously been done in adults (Hooge et al., 2005).
Q2: In what manner do infants search? What are the fixation and saccade characteristics of infant saccadic search?

Reference 4 - 0,17% Coverage

We first report that, depending on the session and
target, targets were hit in 30% to 70% of the trials. Infants took on average 1100–1500 ms to locate the target (approximately three to four fixations).

Reference 5 - 0,49% Coverage

Another indication that infants indeed specifically search for the target, was demonstrated by the 308 and 608 target more readily being fixated than comparison nontargets at equidistant locations from the trial start point (center of the screen). The 908 target was only more readily fixated than comparison nontargets in the second session, not in the first session. We conclude that target fixation in visual search stimuli in infancy is above what can be expected based on our model of chance: in this case the fixation of a nontarget bearing no featural differences to the other nontargets.

Reference 6 - 0,09% Coverage

Moreover, the proportion of fixations on a nontarget was higher—22.9% in session 1 and 19.0% in session

Reference 7 - 0,07% Coverage

To sum, we observe multisaccadic target localization initiated without instruction,

Reference 8 - 0,20% Coverage

The proportion of target-directed saccades increases after the first saccade, up until around the third or fourth saccade. We suggest that this provides further evidence that infants search for discrepant items in the absence of instruction.

Reference 9 - 0,19% Coverage

We report that there is a bias for saccades to continue in the direction of the previous saccades with equal amplitude, or to go in the opposite direction with equal amplitude (i.e., saccades to previously fixated locations).

Reference 10 - 0,21% Coverage

Saccades generally continued along the current trajectory with the same amplitude or return to the previous fixated location. It appeared as if all elements were systematically investigated, and recently visited locations were sometimes visited again.

Reference 11 - 0,17% Coverage

We observe this pattern in infants as well. The initial saccade latency is associated with the planning of a sequence of saccades and increases with the number of elements in the task (Zingale & Kowler, 1987).

Reference 12 - 0,29% Coverage

Test–retest reliability for saccadic search performance (as determined by time to target hit) was lower for the 608 target than oculomotor characteristics (r ¼ 0.47, p , 0.05; ICC(A,1) ¼ 0.35, p , 0.05). Test– retest reliability for the 308 and 908 target was, on the other hand, not reliable at all (both not significantly different from zero).

Reference 13 - 0,33% Coverage

The main findings of the present study are as follows.
Infants search for discrepant items in the absence of instruction, and saccadic search performance is dependent on target and nontarget dissimilarity. Infant saccadic behavior in visual search displays is characterized by saccades following the current trajectory with equal amplitude, and saccades returning to previously fixated locations.

Reference 14 - 0,30% Coverage

As saccadic search appears to be above chance in 10-month-old infants, visual search displays are indeed suitable for investigating the development of saccadic search in infancy (Amso & Johnson, 2006; Frank et al., 2014; Schlesinger, Amso, & Johnson, 2007). However, as the empirical chance level was higher than what previous studies theoretically expected,

<Files\\Hessels, Hooge, & Kemner (2016) [2]> - § 16 references coded [3,14% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,11% Coverage

In the present study we are concerned with saccadic search in infancy, and how saccadic search behavior in infancy can be characterized.

Reference 2 - 0,23% Coverage

These two remaining questions are addressed in the first question of the present study, and its components:
Q1: Do infants search for a discrepant item in the absence of instructions? Q1.1 (Necessary): Is target localization above what may be expected by our model of chance?

Reference 3 - 0,09% Coverage

we hypothesize that infants at 10 months should also search for a discrepant item in the absence of instructions.

Reference 4 - 0,15% Coverage

we expect the initial fixation duration—or the latency to initiate the first saccade—to be longer than subsequent fixation durations (Hooge & Erkelens, 1996; Zingale & Kowler, 1987).

Reference 5 - 0,22% Coverage

Second, we describe infant saccadic directional and amplitude changes during search as has previously been done in adults (Hooge et al., 2005).
Q2: In what manner do infants search? What are the fixation and saccade characteristics of infant saccadic search?

Reference 6 - 0,17% Coverage

We first report that, depending on the session and
target, targets were hit in 30% to 70% of the trials. Infants took on average 1100–1500 ms to locate the target (approximately three to four fixations).

Reference 7 - 0,49% Coverage

Another indication that infants indeed specifically search for the target, was demonstrated by the 308 and 608 target more readily being fixated than comparison nontargets at equidistant locations from the trial start point (center of the screen). The 908 target was only more readily fixated than comparison nontargets in the second session, not in the first session. We conclude that target fixation in visual search stimuli in infancy is above what can be expected based on our model of chance: in this case the fixation of a nontarget bearing no featural differences to the other nontargets.

Reference 8 - 0,09% Coverage

Moreover, the proportion of fixations on a nontarget was higher—22.9% in session 1 and 19.0% in session

Reference 9 - 0,07% Coverage

To sum, we observe multisaccadic target localization initiated without instruction,

Reference 10 - 0,20% Coverage

The proportion of target-directed saccades increases after the first saccade, up until around the third or fourth saccade. We suggest that this provides further evidence that infants search for discrepant items in the absence of instruction.

Reference 11 - 0,19% Coverage

We report that there is a bias for saccades to continue in the direction of the previous saccades with equal amplitude, or to go in the opposite direction with equal amplitude (i.e., saccades to previously fixated locations).

Reference 12 - 0,21% Coverage

Saccades generally continued along the current trajectory with the same amplitude or return to the previous fixated location. It appeared as if all elements were systematically investigated, and recently visited locations were sometimes visited again.

Reference 13 - 0,17% Coverage

We observe this pattern in infants as well. The initial saccade latency is associated with the planning of a sequence of saccades and increases with the number of elements in the task (Zingale & Kowler, 1987).

Reference 14 - 0,29% Coverage

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Reference 15 - 0,16% Coverage

Infant saccadic behavior in visual search displays is characterized by saccades following the current trajectory with equal amplitude, and saccades returning to previously fixated locations.

Reference 16 - 0,30% Coverage

As saccadic search appears to be above chance in 10-month-old infants, visual search displays are indeed suitable for investigating the development of saccadic search in infancy (Amso & Johnson, 2006; Frank et al., 2014; Schlesinger, Amso, & Johnson, 2007). However, as the empirical chance level was higher than what previous studies theoretically expected,

<Files\\Junge, Rooijen, & Raijmakers (2018)> - § 1 reference coded [0,27% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,27% Coverage

Whereas the bimodal group continued to prefer alternating trials, the unimodal group changed from showing no preference to (also) preferring alternating trials.

<Files\\Kanatsou et al. (2015)> - § 5 references coded [0,94% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,28% Coverage

However, we report that MR-tg are highly comparable to their control littermates with regard to anxiety-like behavior, contextual memory formation as well as contextual and cued fear learning, at least in the paradigms we employed in this study.

Reference 2 - 0,02% Coverage

In agreement, we

Reference 3 - 0,41% Coverage

found high levels ofbasal plasma corticosterone levels in our wild type littermates. Female mice with transgenic overexpression of MRs in the forebrain displayed a tendency towards reduced basal corticosterone levels when compared to wild types although this did not reach significance, perhaps due to the large variation observed especially in the MR-tg animals.

Reference 4 - 0,08% Coverage

MR-tg and control littermates spent comparable time in the open arms,

Reference 5 - 0,15% Coverage

In contextual and cue fear conditioning, MR-tg female mice displayed comparable levels of freezing when compared to control animals.

<Files\\Kanatsou et al. (2017)> - § 1 reference coded [0,26% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,26% Coverage

Based on our current studies, it is tempting to speculate that enhanced neurogenesis and spontaneous synaptic transmission in MR overexpressing (compared to wildtype) mice may contribute to overcoming detrimental effects ofELS on spatial memory formation, but the cellular effects were rather modest and a causal relationship clearly awaits further investigation.

<Files\\Kentrop et al. (2016)> - § 4 references coded [0,64% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,17% Coverage

Five days after weaning, MD rats weighed less than no-MD controls, which was also found by others after comparable severe early life conditions (Burke et al., 2013; Fuentes et al., 2014; Marco et al., 2015).

Reference 2 - 0,10% Coverage

The attenuation in weight gain lasted until the start of 5-choice SRTT training when animals were 12 weeks of age.

Reference 3 - 0,18% Coverage

When tested for behavioral inhibition by increasing the
ITI duration from 5 to 7 s, MD animals proved to be more impulsive. That is, MD compared to no-MD rats had a significantly higher increase in premature responding.

Reference 4 - 0,19% Coverage

Next to increased premature responding when the ITI is prolonged, MD animals made fewer responses in the pellet hole in periods when no reward could be obtained (ITI and time-out), and were more focused on the stimulus holes.

<Files\\Koenis et al. (2015)> - § 17 references coded [3,86% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,09% Coverage

We mapped global and local efficiency of structural
brain networks of healthy adolescents in a longitudinal, extended, twin design.

Reference 2 - 0,16% Coverage

Using structural equation modeling [Boker et al., 2011] and network connectivity analyses [Rubinov and Sporns, 2010], we estimated the heritability and development of the brain network in adolescence at a three-year interval.

Reference 3 - 0,06% Coverage

Associations between structural brain network topology and intelligence were investigated.

Reference 4 - 0,12% Coverage

Moreover, these changes in network efficiency are related to intelligence; changes in intelligence and in the structural brain network efficiency appear to go hand in hand.

Reference 5 - 0,12% Coverage

To a smaller extent, streamline count based local efficiency was negatively related to changes in IQ in a more widespread pattern in frontal, cingulate, and occipital regions.

Reference 6 - 0,47% Coverage

A higher intelligence was accompanied by a more local efficient fiber integrity (FA) based network, but not related to streamline-based local or global efficiency. These associations (up to 0.25) are of comparable magnitude as the (genetic) association between intelligence and whole brain volume in adults [Posthuma et al., 2002]. The positive associations between IQ and FA-based local efficiency were particularly prominent in frontal and temporal nodes, emphasizing the relevance of frontal and temporal regions for intelligence [Haier et al., 1988, 2004], in accordance with the P-FIT regions (parieto-frontal integration theory of intelligence) regions [Jung and Haier, 2007].

Reference 7 - 0,24% Coverage

Importantly, the subjects with most prominent matura-
tional changes in brain wiring via FA or streamline count also showed a positive change in IQ. Although intelligence was stable over the three-year follow-up in the majority of individuals in our cohort, one in six adolescents showed a substantial change in their IQ score (> 15 points).

Reference 8 - 0,11% Coverage

Our findings support the existence of individual variations in long-term modification of the structural network for functional demands [Park and Friston, 2013].

Reference 9 - 0,30% Coverage

A relationship between change in intelligence and change in brain structure during adolescence has been shown earlier, where increases in IQ scores have been related to local increases in gray matter density [Ramsden et al., 2011] and rate of cortical thinning [Burgaleta et al., 2014a], suggesting, as we do, that individual development of intellectual capacity goes hand in hand with changes in anatomically distant brain regions.

Reference 10 - 0,27% Coverage

Over the three-year interval, we find an increase in FA
and FA-based efficiency in almost all brain areas. This longitudinal finding coincides with cross-sectional studies reporting maturation of white matter integrity [Baker et al., 2015; Kochunov et al., 2012; Lebel and Beaulieu, 2011; Schmithorst and Yuan, 2010], although local decreases in FA have also been found [Baker et al., 2015].

Reference 11 - 0,16% Coverage

Overall increases in FA cannot solely explain our network findings, since local efficiency also increases when we correct for overall increase in FA, suggesting a redistribution of the weights in the structural network during development.

Reference 12 - 0,14% Coverage

When we repeated our analyses using streamline count weighted networks, we find a net decrease in global efficiency, with local decreases in subcortical, temporal, and parietal areas, and increases in

Reference 13 - 0,25% Coverage

frontal and occipital areas. This is consistent with a recent longitudinal study that found increases and decreases in streamline density in late adolescence [Baker et al., 2015]. Our findings extend reports that both increases and decreases in local efficiency occur between 12 and 30 years [Dennis et al., 2013], and in adulthood [Gong et al., 2009]

Reference 14 - 0,13% Coverage

Thus, considerable developmental changes take place during childhood and adolescence, not only over a broad age range, but as the current study shows also within the small age range of 3 years.

Reference 15 - 0,59% Coverage

Indeed, our findings seem to imply that during development of the structural brain network, local information processing capacity improves via an increased speed of information transfer along the axons, while certain fiber bundles become more compact in volume, as was measured with net decrease in streamline count. This finding was also reflected by the differential relation between efficiency and IQ in FA versus streamline-weighted networks. FA-weighted but not streamline-weighted local efficiency correlated locally with IQ, although a change in both local streamline-weighted efficiency and local and global FA-weighted efficiency was correlated to change in IQ. That different aspects of white matter bundles (FA, T1, MTR) can independently associate with IQ has been shown [Bohlken et al., in preparation; Penke et al., 2012], supporting our findings.

Reference 16 - 0,17% Coverage

We found that streamline-weighted network efficiency was significantly higher in boys at baseline and follow-up, but boys and girls did not differ on change measures. In contrast, we found no sex differences in FA-weighted network measures.

Reference 17 - 0,47% Coverage

In conclusion, in this longitudinal study, we show that
the FA-based topological properties of the young and healthy teenage brain become more efficient with age. The streamline-based network is reorganized to a topology with decreased global efficiency via increases and decreases in local efficiency. This indicates that FA and streamline count cover different aspects of the developing brain and that maturation is not always accompanied by increases in local information processing. Moreover, the increase in FA-based local and global

efficiency is related to increases in IQ, whereas in streamline-based networks, local decreases in efficiency were related to increases in IQ.

<Files\\Kok et al. (2015) [1]> - § 9 references coded [1,99% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,19% Coverage

In the current study, the longitudinal relation of maternal and paternal caregiving with child brain structure is examined in a prospective population-based cohort (N ¼ 191).

Reference 2 - 0,19% Coverage

Second, we used repeated measures of observed parental sensitivity from 1 to 4 years of age to decrease measurement error in the estimated stability of parental sensitivity.24

Reference 3 - 0,24% Coverage

Finally, we examined total brain, white matter, and gray matter volume, and cortical thickness in addition to amygdala and hippocampus volumes to study the relation of parental sensitivity with child brain structure.

Reference 4 - 0,61% Coverage

We found that parental sensitivity in early childhood was positively associated with markers of more optimal brain development at age 8 years, including a larger total brain volume, larger gray matter volume, and thicker cortices in the precentral, postcentral, caudal middle frontal, and rostral middle frontal gyrus. The associations were similar for maternal and paternal sensitivity, and independent of infant head circumference. Our results extend the evidence for an association between the quality of early caregiving and child brain development

Reference 5 - 0,17% Coverage

Our results indicate that parental sensitivity is related to
more global measures of brain volume, but not to the volume of specific subcortical structures.

Reference 6 - 0,09% Coverage

our
results suggest a more general effect of early caregiving on brain volume.

Reference 7 - 0,09% Coverage

The associations were similar for mothers' and fathers'
parenting sensitivity.

Reference 8 - 0,14% Coverage

Our study demonstrates that normal variation in parental sensitivity in early childhood is related to brain volume at age 8 years.

Reference 9 - 0,26% Coverage

The similarity in results for maternal sensitivity and paternal sensitivity emphasizes the importance of including both maternal and paternal caregiving in research on the relation between early parental care and child brain development.

<Files\\Kok et al. (2015) [2]> - § 10 references coded [2,09% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,19% Coverage

In the current study, the longitudinal relation of maternal and paternal caregiving with child brain structure is examined in a prospective population-based cohort (N ¼ 191).

Reference 2 - 0,19% Coverage

Second, we used repeated measures of observed parental sensitivity from 1 to 4 years of age to decrease measurement error in the estimated stability of parental sensitivity.24

Reference 3 - 0,24% Coverage

Finally, we examined total brain, white matter, and gray matter volume, and cortical thickness in addition to amygdala and hippocampus volumes to study the relation of parental sensitivity with child brain structure.

Reference 4 - 0,10% Coverage

We expect that parental sensitivity is related to more optimal brain structure in childhood.

Reference 5 - 0,61% Coverage

We found that parental sensitivity in early childhood was positively associated with markers of more optimal brain development at age 8 years, including a larger total brain volume, larger gray matter volume, and thicker cortices in the precentral, postcentral, caudal middle frontal, and rostral middle frontal gyrus. The associations were similar for maternal and paternal sensitivity, and independent of infant head circumference. Our results extend the evidence for an association between the quality of early caregiving and child brain development

Reference 6 - 0,17% Coverage

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Reference 7 - 0,09% Coverage

our
results suggest a more general effect of early caregiving on brain volume.

Reference 8 - 0,09% Coverage

The associations were similar for mothers' and fathers'
parenting sensitivity.

Reference 9 - 0,14% Coverage

Our study demonstrates that normal variation in parental sensitivity in early childhood is related to brain volume at age 8 years.

Reference 10 - 0,26% Coverage

The similarity in results for maternal sensitivity and paternal sensitivity emphasizes the importance of including both maternal and paternal caregiving in research on the relation between early parental care and child brain development.

<Files\\Kretschmer et al. (2015)> - § 16 references coded [2,94% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,14% Coverage

The first aim of this study was to derive latent peer experience profiles that reflect the multifaceted nature of adolescents' peer experiences using latent profile modeling. These profiles can be linked to distal variables.

Reference 2 - 0,02% Coverage

By considering various peer expe-

Reference 3 - 0,14% Coverage

riences simultaneously, we extend prior research that has often focused on associations between parent factors and peer experiences in a one-dimensional fashion and account for the complexity of peer experiences.

Reference 4 - 0,16% Coverage

Our first aim was to systematically model the
multifaceted nature of adolescents' peer experiences. To this end, we utilized person-oriented latent profile modeling to derive distinct patterns of endorsement of items referring to peer behavior, status

Reference 5 - 0,04% Coverage

among peers, relationship quality, and peer victimization.

Reference 6 - 0,38% Coverage

The first aim of this study was therefore to employ a person-centered latent profile approach to explore whether distinct configurations of peer behavior, relationship quality, status among peers, and victimization can be identified. We expected individual variation (i.e., level differences) in each of the items reflecting peer behavior, relationship quality, status among peers, and victimization. In addition, we expected to find unique shapes, that is, configurations of different peer experiences with particular patterns of high and low endorsement of items referring to the various peer experiences.

Reference 7 - 0,14% Coverage

However, we tentatively expected that many adolescents experience positive relationships, are not victimized but relatively popular among their peers, and affiliate with peers who are not deviant—a "general positive" pattern.

Reference 8 - 0,07% Coverage

We expected the emergence of additional configurations but had no specific assumption regarding their shape.

Reference 9 - 0,21% Coverage

Our second aim was to examine links between
parent–child relationship quality and parental problem behavior and peer experiences from a multidimensional perspective. We tested whether parent factors that have previously been associated with specific peer experiences would also be linked to unique configurations of these experiences.

Reference 10 - 0,10% Coverage

Naturally, without knowledge on specific peer experience profiles, it was difficult to derive hypotheses regarding links between parent factors and other patterns.

Reference 11 - 0,25% Coverage

Latent variable modeling showed that the majority of adolescents affiliated with peers who do not display high levels of substance use and deviant behavior and to a
large part perceived their peer relationships to be positive including high levels of peer affection, behavioral confirmation, and emotional and practical help. Further, most adolescents perceived themselves to be popular among their peers.

Reference 12 - 0,55% Coverage

No support was yielded for the general negative profile—adolescents who reported relatively high levels of peer deviance and substance use also reported positive relationship quality. This seems to suggest that "bad kids" are not necessarily bad friends. Another unexpected finding was the derivation of two low-quality classes that were distinguished predominantly by high levels of victimization in one but not the other group. Fortunately, the group of adolescents who reported being the target of gossip or bullying and also did not perceive much affection or behavioral confirmation from their classmates still received help from friends, which may cushion the victimization experience somewhat (Hodges et al., 1999). In other words, while some peer relationship quality measures explicitly referred to classmates, emotional and practical help referred to nominated friends.

Reference 13 - 0,15% Coverage

Based on perspectives suggested by attachment,
social learning, and social and ecological systems theories, we expected less parental affection and behavioral confirmation to be linked to greater risk for low-quality peer relations.

Reference 14 - 0,14% Coverage

This association was also found in our study; that is, adolescents who had reported less parental affection and behavioral confirmation were more likely to experience low-quality peer relationships and high levels of victimization.

Reference 15 - 0,33% Coverage

To some extent, associations differed by gender.
That is, boys whose parents had engaged in problem behavior were more likely to have deviant friends than to experience low-quality friendships, but the latter were still more common than experiences of victimization, which in turn were more likely than high-quality peer experiences. Girls, in contrast, showed greater interpersonal sensitivity, a pattern that is in line with previously found gender differences (van Eijck, Branje, Burk, & Meeus, 2012; Rose & Rudolph, 2006).

Reference 16 - 0,12% Coverage

We showed that peer experience profiles are differentially related to prior relationships with parents and, to a lesser extent and in a more gender-specific manner, parental problem behavior.

<Files\\Kretschmer et al. (2018)> - § 12 references coded [1,90% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,09% Coverage

Overall, we expected individuals who have been involved in bullying as adolescents to fare worse with respect to mastering these developmental tasks.

Reference 2 - 0,08% Coverage

Third, we explored whether boys and girls differed with
respect to mastery of normative tasks following bullying involvement.

Reference 3 - 0,19% Coverage

Overall, similar rates of mastery were observed for law-abidance and tobacco use in both cohorts whereas romantic relationships were more common amongst TRAILS participants, and alcohol and cannabis use were more common amongst RADAR-young participants, probably a function of the slightly different ages ofparticipants.

Reference 4 - 0,18% Coverage

Associations ofvictimization with education/work and finan-
cial competence were detected in the TRAILS sample, though only the link between victimization and welfare dependence remained statistically significant after controlling for a range of potential confounders and when associations between child

Reference 5 - 0,04% Coverage

psychopathology and developmental tasks were estimated simultaneously.

Reference 6 - 0,14% Coverage

In RADAR-young, victimized teens were at greater risk to smoke at least occasionally by early adulthood though this link weakened to non-significance when adjusted for childhood demographics, intelligence, and psychopathology.

Reference 7 - 0,23% Coverage

Overall, these results indicate that victims of bullying fare
worse not only with respect to mental health as shown in previous research but to some extent also display greater difficulties in mastering developmental tasks. It is important to note, however, that associations were fewer and much less systematic than expected, certainly not as common as for mental health outcomes

Reference 8 - 0,18% Coverage

Of particular interest to this study given the relative lack
and ambiguity of knowledge concerning its outcomes, bullying perpetration was initially linked to greater substance use and less law-abiding behavior in both samples, though these associations were mostly explained by externalizing symptoms.

Reference 9 - 0,21% Coverage

Curiously, in both samples bullying perpetration was asso-
ciated with decreased likelihood for cannabis abstention, though only when childhood demographics and intelligence were part ofthe model. What is more, cannabis abstention was less likely in young adults from well-off, stable family backgrounds who had scored higher on child intelligence tests.

Reference 10 - 0,11% Coverage

Indeed, parental support was associated with mastery of developmental tasks (at least in TRAILS), but no interactions between parental support and bullying victimization were observed.

Reference 11 - 0,26% Coverage

For the time being, we conclude that involvement in bullying is associated with mastery of developmental tasks to the same (partial) extend for boys and girls and that parental support makes little difference for either of them but, given divergent findings in past research, future research into correlates ofperpetration and victimization is still advised to explore whether gender or social support might modulate associations.

Reference 12 - 0,18% Coverage

In both cohorts, perpetrators of bullying were more likely to use substances and less likely to lead a law-abiding life. Findings varied for victims -inTRAILSthey werelesslikelytobeineducation or work and less financially competent, while in RADARyoung, they were more likely smoke at least occasionally.

<Files\\Kretschmer, Barker, Dijkstra, Oldewinkel, & Veenstra (2015)> - § 8 references coded [2,62% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,38% Coverage

Responding to this need, we aimed to extend previous findings on the association between peer victimization and maladjustment symptoms in adolescence using a longitudinal person-centered approach and information on withdrawal and anxiety as symptoms from the internalizing spectrum, delinquency and aggression from the externalizing spectrum, and somatic complaints.

Reference 2 - 0,15% Coverage

Based on prior research, we hypothesized that profiles with higher levels of maladjustment symptoms would be more common in victimized adolescents.

Reference 3 - 0,25% Coverage

In sum, our analyses not only respond to calls for person-centered analytic approaches but also elucidate the relative likelihood of particular and previously established outcomes of peer victimization in the presence of other possible outcomes.

Reference 4 - 0,14% Coverage

What our results show, though, is that internalizing problems were more likely than externalizing problems in victimized adolescents.

Reference 5 - 0,17% Coverage

Extending the latent profile models to describe stability and change in maladjustment, the transition model suggested that recently victimized adolescents more often

Reference 6 - 0,77% Coverage

began to show internalizing problems than their non-victimized counterparts whereas non-victimized adolescents more often reported externalizing problems than victimized adolescents. Starting out differently but essentially showing a similar pattern, those with comorbid maladjustment symptoms in early adolescence more often showed internalizing problems in mid-adolescence if they were victimized during this time than those who did not report peer victimization whereas the pattern was reversed for the transition into a profile with externalizing problems. Overall, these movements confirm that internalizing problems were not only more likely than symptom absence in victimized adolescents, but also more likely than externalizing problems.

Reference 7 - 0,10% Coverage

Of note, peer victimization explained only a modest proportion of variance in maladjustment.

Reference 8 - 0,66% Coverage

Notwithstanding these limitations, our results extend
previous knowledge by showing that, in the presence of peer victimization, internalizing maladjustment is not only more likely than absence of maladjustment symptoms but also more common than externalizing problems. This pattern was also evident over time in that victimized adolescents more often transitioned from the Low into the Internalizing profile than non-victimized adolescents. Taken together, our findings make a clear case for considering multiple outcomes

simultaneously to fully understand concurrent and longitudinal associations between risk and maladjustment.

<Files\\Kretschmer, Vollebergh, & Oldehinkel (2017)> - § 11 references coded [2,20% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,14% Coverage

The second main aim ofthis study was to establish empirical support for this hypothesis by testing whether associations between parent–child and romantic relationships were partly accounted for by social skills.

Reference 2 - 0,26% Coverage

To understand these patterns in more detail, we examined linear
as well as nonlinear associations between parent–child relationship quality and emerging adults' commitment and satisfaction in those who were romantically involved. Linear positive associations would provide support for a congruence pattern whereas linear negative associations could be indicative of compensatory mechanisms.

Reference 3 - 0,03% Coverage

Are these associations linear or nonlinear?

Reference 4 - 0,36% Coverage

Informed by prior research, we expected nonlinear associations
between parent–child relationships (conceptualized as parent–child positivity) and engagement, commitment and satisfaction in emerging adults' romantic relationships. In detail, we expected greater involvement, commitment and satisfaction among those individuals with particularly positive parent–child relationships, indicating congruence, but tentatively also those individuals whose parent– child experiences were very low in positivity, indicating compensation.

Reference 5 - 0,24% Coverage

Some ofour findings, specifically those suggesting that parent–child positivity and romantic commitment were linked in linear but also nonlinear fashion, are in line with our expectations, but empirical support was not obtained for all hypotheses and associations between covariates and romantic relationship indicators were stronger and more stable than expected.

Reference 6 - 0,09% Coverage

Whereas parent–child positivity did not affect romantic involvement as such, consistent associations with commitment were found.

Reference 7 - 0,24% Coverage

Our results suggest a weak positive linear trend overall with deviations at both ends of the continuum as indicated by nonlinear associations. Thus, congruence was generally supported and those young people whose parent–child experiences were more positive were also more likely to report higher levels ofcommitment and satisfaction in romantic relationships.

Reference 8 - 0,15% Coverage

The nonlinear effect suggests that, despite this overall trend, individuals who had experienced particularly high or low levels of positivity, were somewhat more committed, the latter possibly reflecting compensation.

Reference 9 - 0,30% Coverage

It is important to keep in mind that the nonlinear effect we found
was small and only trend-level significant, thus linear effects seem more dominant. Nonetheless, our findings might serve as a reminder that the shape of associations between constructs is not always straightforward. More extreme relationship experiences than tested here—both positive and negative—can be more strongly linked to adjustment difficulties than average experiences.

Reference 10 - 0,09% Coverage

The highest levels of commitment and satisfaction were observed in young people whose parent–child relationships were of average positivity.

Reference 11 - 0,30% Coverage

Despite these shortcomings, our study contributes important and
novel information to the literature on emerging adults' romantic relationships in showing that associations with parent–child relationship quality are not straightforwardly linear. This means that particularly strong romantic commitment and satisfaction in a period of exploration and change is observed especially amongst those whose parents showed very little or very much positivity.

<Files\\La Roi, Kretschmer, Dijkstra, Veenstra, & Oldehinkel (2016)> - § 19 references coded [1,97% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,12% Coverage

Aiming to fill these gaps, we examine from which developmental period disparities in depressive symptoms between heterosexual and LGB youth begin to occur and which factors act as catalysts of these disparities.

Reference 2 - 0,11% Coverage

Of particular interest to the current study is that depressive symptoms are more prevalent among LGB adolescents than among heterosexual adolescents (Kuyper 2015; Marshal et al. 2011; Mustanski 2015).

Reference 3 - 0,07% Coverage

Thus, examining gender differences in the association between sexual orientation and depressive symptoms is worthwhile.

Reference 4 - 0,09% Coverage

In addition, we examine whether the association

between sexual orientation and depressive symptoms differs for bisexuals in comparison to gays/lesbians.

Reference 5 - 0,12% Coverage

From both a theoretical and an empirical point of view, there are thus reasons to explore whether differences with heterosexuals in depressive symptoms are different for bisexuals than for gays and lesbians.

Reference 6 - 0,45% Coverage

The aims of this study were to examine from what developmental period onwards disparities in depressive symptoms between heterosexual and LGB youth start to occur, how these disparities develop over time and what factors act as catalysts ofthese disparities.We argue that LGB youth begin to develop an increased risk of depressive symptoms from the period at which they start to become aware of their sexual orientation, as we expect them to experience a heightened susceptibility to LGB-related stigma and prejudice from that period onwards. We expect initial sexual orientation development to be stimulated at least partly by adrenarche, a biodevelopmental process that occurs in late childhood. Therefore, our first hypothesis is that in late childhood, LGB youth already have higher levels

Reference 7 - 0,03% Coverage

of depressive symptoms than heterosexual youth (H1).

Reference 8 - 0,11% Coverage

Lastly, this study will extensively explore potential gender differences and differences between bisexuals and gays/lesbians in the association between sexual orientation and depressive symptoms.

Reference 9 - 0,11% Coverage

Before estimating statistical models that serve to test our hypotheses formulated above, we therefore test whether boys and girls follow significantly different depressive symptom trajectories.

Reference 10 - 0,08% Coverage

Also, we check whether disparities in depressive symptom trajectories between LGB and heterosexual youth are different for boys and girls.

Reference 11 - 0,08% Coverage

Lastly, we explore whether contrasts to heterosexual youth in depressive symptoms are larger for bisexuals than for gays and/or lesbians.

Reference 12 - 0,14% Coverage

Preliminary analyses indicated that men and women
followed different depression trajectories. Furthermore, preliminary analyses suggested that sexual orientation disparities in depressive symptoms were substantially larger for girls than for boys.

Reference 13 - 0,06% Coverage

Results furthermore indicated that these differences increased over time and were related to pubertal development.

Reference 14 - 0,07% Coverage

Moreover, descriptive analyses suggested that sexual orientation disparities were larger for bisexuals than for gays/lesbians.

Reference 15 - 0,06% Coverage

Results further indicated that these differences increased over time and were related to pubertal development.

Reference 16 - 0,04% Coverage

Yet, disparities in our sample were more pronounced for girls than for boys.

Reference 17 - 0,08% Coverage

Bisexual youth did however seem to experience larger depression disparities than heterosexual youth, in comparison to gay/lesbian youth.

Reference 18 - 0,06% Coverage

Disparities between LGB and heterosexual youth were found to be especially pronounced for girls and/or bisexuals.

Reference 19 - 0,09% Coverage

Another contribution is that we found that pubertal development was associated with an increase of depression disparities between LB and heterosexual youth.

<Files\\Laceulle, Jeronimus, Aken, & Ormel (2015)> - § 6 references coded [0,92% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,18% Coverage

In line with previous studies, we hypothesised that ado-
lescents low (versus high) on effortful control (H1a), high (versus low) on frustration (H1b) and high on affiliation or intensity pleasure and low on shyness (H1c) experience (evoke) more subsequent stressful social events.

Reference 2 - 0,20% Coverage

The observation that patterns were different for peers and
romantic partners might be somewhat surprising insofar those relationships between peers and romantic partners are often seen as more comparable than between parents and romantic partners (Furman & Buhrmester, 1992; Furman & Shomaker, 2008; Hartup, 1989).

Reference 3 - 0,09% Coverage

Adolescents high on extraversion evoked more stressful events with romantic partners (in line with hypothesis H1c) but not with parents and peers.

Reference 4 - 0,14% Coverage

It seems that adolescents high on extraversion had more frequent and more intense interactions with romantic partners than adolescents whom were more reticent, resulting in both more positive and negative events.

Reference 5 - 0,18% Coverage

Nonetheless, it should be noted that the association between temperament (shyness, affiliation and high intensity pleasure) and stressful events disappeared in post-hoc analyses in the subgroup of adolescents who reported at least one romantic relationship between age 11 and 16.

Reference 6 - 0,13% Coverage

Although perceived affect may be conceptually most akin to affiliation, the association between affiliation and perceived parental affection was not much stronger than it was for frustration or effortful control.

<Files\\Laceulle, Nederhof, Aken, & Ormel (2015)> - § 14 references coded [3,51% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,11% Coverage

The current study aims to investigate associations between various measures of HPA-axis functioning and personality facets during adolescence.

Reference 2 - 0,08% Coverage

In the present study, we will explore whether anticipatory HPA-axis activity is also associated with personality.

Reference 3 - 0,14% Coverage

Consequently, it seems plausible that personality traits have the strongest association with trait components ofHPA-axis functioning (basal cortisol and to some extent also STAUCg).

Reference 4 - 0,11% Coverage

In this project, we investigated the associations between HPAaxis functioning and personality in a large population-based sample of adolescents

Reference 5 - 0,79% Coverage

In a large sample of adolescents, we tested the hypothesis
that trait aspects of HPA-axis functioning, basal cortisol, and possibly STAUCg are more strongly related to personality than the more state-like aspects ofHPA-axis functioning, the CAR, and stress task–induced anticipation, reactivity, and recovery. Consequently, we hypothesize that none of our

personality facets is substantially related to stress reactivity. With regard to the personality facets under study, we expect
that facets of Neuroticism show stronger associations with basal cortisol than facets of Extraversion and Conscientiousness. However, given the previously reported nonsignificant association between basal cortisol and either Extraversion or Neuroticism (Schommer et al., 1999), it might be that only some, but not all, facets of Neuroticism are related to basal cortisol. In particular, the Neuroticism facet vulnerability is hypothesized to be related to basal cortisol, given the previously mentioned presumed link with sensitivity to stress (e.g., Norris et al., 2007).

Reference 6 - 0,23% Coverage

In line with our hypothesis, our results showed that individual differences in basal cortisol levels were related to individual differences in certain personality facets. Adolescents with high basal cortisol levels were higher on impulsivity and vulnerability, and lower on assertiveness and self-discipline.

Reference 7 - 0,81% Coverage

As expected, we found that basal cortisol levels were related to several facets of personality, probably because of the more trait-like nature of basal cortisol (Bartels et al., 2003; Federenko et al., 2004; Hellhammer et al., 2007; Wüst et al., 2000). Moreover, the strength of the effects is probably an underestimation of the real associations, since previous research has suggested that basal cortisol levels fluctuate across days due to situational factors like waking time and subjective stress load for the prior and upcoming day (Hellhammer et al., 2007). In our sample, situational variability between participants was relatively small since morning cortisol measures were collected on the same day as the behavioral experiments in 95% of the adolescents, resulting in large similarity between adolescents with respect to the upcoming day. Additionally, the relatively low internal consistency of the personality facets is also likely to suppress the correlations between personality and HPA-axis functioning, resulting in an even stronger underestimation of the associations.

Reference 8 - 0,18% Coverage

We found that higher basal cortisol levels were associated with higher levels of two facets of Neuroticism: impulsivity and vulnerability. Taking into account the strong relation between Neuroticism and depression, our results seem reasonable.

Reference 9 - 0,07% Coverage

We found that high basal cortisol levels were associated with low levels of self-discipline.

Reference 10 - 0,22% Coverage

Basal cortisol was related to most, but not all, of the per-
sonality facets in our study. For example, the Neuroticism facet angry/hostility was not related to cortisol, in contrast to the Neuroticism facets impulsivity and vulnerability, which were positively associated with basal cortisol.

Reference 11 - 0,10% Coverage

The absence of associations between personality and both CAR and stress-induced cortisol seem to be in line with the literature.

Reference 12 - 0,36% Coverage

None ofthe single-time cortisol measures were correlated with our personality facets, except CM2, which was positively related to vulnerability and negatively to self-discipline. This is probably due to the relatively high correlation with cortisol concentrations at awakening (CM1, r = .51). For example, more vulnerable individuals wake up with higher cortisol concentrations but show similar cortisol awakening responses (CAR), resulting in similarly higher levels of CM2.

Reference 13 - 0,18% Coverage

The results of the current study were in line with these findings. Higher cortisol levels were found in boys both prior to the stress task and during the stress task, as well as a larger reactivity. Girls showed stronger recovery after the task.

Reference 14 - 0,14% Coverage

In conclusion, our study is one of the first providing evi-
dence that basal cortisol is related to facets of the personality traits Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Conscientiousness.

<Files\\Loi (2017)> - § 5 references coded [0,29% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,08% Coverage

These behavioral effects were accompanied by changes in neuronal activity of principal neurons in the dorsal CA1 hippocampus and dorsomedial striatum.

Reference 2 - 0,03% Coverage

Noteworthy, reward learning was rather weak in control rats,

Reference 3 - 0,05% Coverage

Differences between groups were lateralized and particularly strong in the right hemisphere.

Reference 4 - 0,06% Coverage

After MD, mEPSC frequency in CA1 neurons from VEH-treated rats was reduced, but not in MIF-treated rats.

Reference 5 - 0,06% Coverage

Yet, spontaneous glutamatergic transmission in the dorsomedial striatum was increased after MD and restored by MIF.

<Files\\Loi (2017a)> - § 6 references coded [0,59% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,13% Coverage

Although we did not extensively monitor the neuroendocrine consequences of the model in the current study, we noticed a clear and significant attenuation in body weight gain, one of the characteristics earlier reported for this model in male rats (Oomen et al., 2009, 2010).

Reference 2 - 0,09% Coverage

First, the behavior of female rats in the EPM did not differ among the groups. Second, with respect to the rIGT, female MD rats did not show any impairment compared to the control group,

Reference 3 - 0,12% Coverage

This underscores that behavioral performance of female rodents -and their vulnerability to early-life adversity- in the rIGT may differ from that of males, which agrees with the earlier reported sex differences in this task (Van den Bos et al., 2012).

Reference 4 - 0,04% Coverage

It should be noted that in our study DI values in most groups were only just above chance.

Reference 5 - 0,09% Coverage

The current behavioral results were accompanied by a
similar absence of differences between the groups in the measures for DG volume, proliferation (Ki-67) and neurogenesis (DCX).

Reference 6 - 0,10% Coverage

The same applies to the earlier found decrease in DG cell number and density measured at 10 weeks after MD at PND3 (Oomen et al., 2011), which was not maintained in the animals we collected around 17 weeks of age.

<Files\\Maciejewski et al. (2019)> - § 17 references coded [3,40% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,18% Coverage

Moreover, a second goal was to study correlates of normative and nonnormative mood variability trajectories by relating distinct mood variability trajectories to changes in mean levels of three prominent adolescent adjustment problems, namely depressive symptoms, delinquency, and alcohol consumption across ages 13 to 20.

Reference 2 - 0,18% Coverage

The first objective of this study was to test the heterogeneity in mood variability development to identify whether these interindividual differences represent a variation around the average or whether they signal the presence of distinct subgroups of adolescents following different mood variability trajectories.

Reference 3 - 0,19% Coverage

A second objective of the present study was to explore the developmental significance of following distinct developmental trajectories of mood variability by linking them to changes in mean levels of

three core adjustment problems that often emerge during adolescence; namely depressive symptoms, delinquency, and alcohol consumption.

Reference 4 - 0,09% Coverage

The present study extended this to the period of late adolescence and young adulthood and additionally examined the association with delinquency and alcohol consumption.

Reference 5 - 0,12% Coverage

We extend this research by examining different developmental trajectories of mood variability among adolescents over a prolonged period of time and their association with different types adolescent adjustment.

Reference 6 - 0,21% Coverage

Using a sample of adolescents that were followed from ages 13 to 20 years, the present longitudinal, person-centered study examined (a) distinct subtypes with different developmental trajectories of mood variability across adolescence and (b) how these subgroups differed in developmental mean level changes of depressive symptoms, delinquency, and alcohol consumption.

Reference 7 - 0,12% Coverage

Concerning the differences in adjustment development, we expected that adolescents in subgroups with increasing mood variability trajectories would also develop more adjustment problems across the period of adolescence.

Reference 8 - 0,19% Coverage

A large majority of adolescents developed more stable moods across adolescence (the decreasing mood variability class; 88%), whereas a small minority showed increasingly unstable moods across adolescence, with a peak around middle adolescence and a slight decline toward late adolescence (the increasing mood variability class; 12%).

Reference 9 - 0,22% Coverage

Moreover, adolescents from the increasing mood variability class stayed stable in their depressive and delinquency symptoms in early to middle adolescence, whereas adolescents from the decreasing mood variability class showed a significant decline. At age 16, there was a significant difference in depressive and delinquency symptoms, which stayed stable from middle to late adolescence

Reference 10 - 0,15% Coverage

Although the two groups did not differ concerning their alcohol consumption in early and middle adolescence, the increasing mood variability class exhibited less steep increases in alcohol consumption toward late adolescence compared with the decreasing mood variability class.

Reference 11 - 0,13% Coverage

The results on the distinct mood variability developmental

profiles emphasize that most adolescents become more stable in their mood over time, although a minority were identified who struggled with increases in emotional instability.

Reference 12 - 0,44% Coverage

The current analyses add to these results by identifying a subgroup of adolescents who do not follow this normative declining pattern. Adolescents from the two classes developed mood variability in opposite directions particularly in early to middle adolescence, a period in which adolescents are confronted with many biological and environmental challenges. Toward late adolescence, the increasing mood variability class seemed to become more stable again, which might be explained by the fact that new equilibriums are reached during that time (De Goede et al., 2009; Somerville, Jones, & Casey, 2010). Our findings are in line with studies that suggest youths restructure their emotion regulation repertoire especially during early and middle adolescence (Zimmermann & Iwanski, 2014).

Reference 13 - 0,24% Coverage

identity research that shows that about 15% of adolescents are not able to find a stable identity and instead stay in a moratorium-like identity, characterized by uncertain and fluctuating commitments (Meeus, Van De Schoot, Keijsers, Schwartz, & Branje, 2010). To our knowledge, our study was the first to identify adolescents following different trajectories of mood swings, and therefore these findings need replication.

Reference 14 - 0,10% Coverage

tal differences between the groups, although this was different for depressive and delinquency symptoms as well as alcohol consumption, both in terms of the time course and the direction.

Reference 15 - 0,41% Coverage

The time course further emphasizes that early to middle adolescence is a time in which trajectories are altered in ways that may lead to ongoing difficulties in late adolescence and young adulthood (Dahl, 2004). The majority of adolescents outgrow adjustment problems in early to middle adolescence, whereas a minority with mood regulation problems have more difficulties catching up and show stable delinquency and depressive symptoms during that time. Notably, both groups reported similar declines in delinquency and similar increases in depressive symptoms toward late adolescence, indicating that, as a whole, adolescents eventually desist from delinquency problems, whereas that does not seem to be the case for depressive symptoms.

Reference 16 - 0,09% Coverage

In conclusion, most adolescents do not experience a rise in
mood variability during this period. Only a minority reported increases in emotional storm and stress.

Reference 17 - 0,35% Coverage

Although these adolescents were protected from increases in alcohol use toward late adolescence, they also developed more depressive and delinquency symptoms in early to middle adolescence (indicated by adolescents showing stable symptoms of depression and delinquency, in contrast to adolescents from the decreasing mood variability class who showed declines in these symptoms), a

difference that stayed stable toward late adolescence. Thus, the present study suggests that most adolescents fare well in terms of emotional development, but that a minority with escalating mood swings should be monitored more closely.

<Files\\Maciejewski, Lier, Branje, Meeus, & Koot (2017)> - § 20 references coded [4,24% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,22% Coverage

First, using longitudinal data from adolescents that were followed from ages 13 to 18, we tested whether adolescent daily emotions (happiness, sadness, anger, and anxiety) were measurement invariant across sex and time. Second, we examined the developmental changes of daily emotions across adolescence, while taking into account possible sex differences.

Reference 2 - 0,23% Coverage

To address the short-coming of previous studies, which are predominately based on conventional self-reports, have employed cross-sequential or cross-sectional designs, and/or have not examined different emotions, the first aim of the present study was to study sex-specific developmental trajectories of four primary emotions, namely happiness, anger, sadness, and anxiety.

Reference 3 - 0,35% Coverage

The present study had two aims: First, we tested whether ado-
lescent daily emotions were measurement invariant across sex and time. Specifically, we tested for invariance across sex, days within a normal school week (i.e., Monday to Friday), and days across years, using daily emotion data that were collected during a 5-year period (ages 13 to 18). Second, if we indeed found evidence for configural, metric, and scalar invariance across sex and time, we sought to examine developmental changes of emotions and sex differences in these changes across the period of adolescence.

Reference 4 - 0,21% Coverage

Based on previous longitudinal studies on developmental trajectories of aggression, depressed mood, and anxiety, we hypothesized initial increases in anger, followed by decreases (i.e., peaks in middle adolescence), increases for sadness, and initial decreases for anxiety in early adolescence, followed by increases toward late adolescence.

Reference 5 - 0,34% Coverage

We found strong evidence for configural, metric, and scalar invariance across sex, short-term and long-term periods. Strict invariance could partially be established for days within weeks, but less convincingly across sex and days across years. Further developmental analyses indicated that happiness decreased toward middle adolescence, whereas anger, sadness, and anxiety increased. Anger returned to baseline toward late adolescence. The decrease of happiness and the increase of anxiety ceased without reversing, whereas sadness continued to increase.

Reference 6 - 0,12% Coverage

The fact that configural and metric invariance were consistently established across sex and time indicates that the structure and unit of measurement (i.e., factor loadings) is equal between boys and

Reference 7 - 0,20% Coverage

girls and different time frames. This implies that the items of the different emotions have the same importance for the emotion scores for boys and girls, on different weekdays, and different ages (e.g., item “worried” for the emotion anxiety). Moreover, it also suggests that the different emotions have the same importance for

Reference 8 - 0,03% Coverage

the general negative mood factors across sex and time.

Reference 9 - 0,13% Coverage

Due to the establishment of metric invariance, it is justified to compare associations among daily emotion ratings and relations of these with other external variables across sex, and shorter and longer time-frames.

Reference 10 - 0,14% Coverage

The finding that scalar invariance was also established for all
three model sets indicates that the starting point in rating emotions is equal between boys and girls and does not change across shorter and longer time frames.

Reference 11 - 0,16% Coverage

Our results point to important developmental changes in emotions during that time. The results are, overall, in line with previous studies (Larson et al., 2002; Moneta et al., 2001), which found a similar deterioration of overall mood across adolescence.

Reference 12 - 0,05% Coverage

Our results suggest that the different emotions do not entirely develop in the same way.

Reference 13 - 0,40% Coverage

Based on previous longitudinal research using more conventional self-report questionnaires (e.g., Karriker-Jaffe et al., 2008; Nelemans et al., 2014; Van Oort et al., 2009), we predicted initial increases in anger, followed by decreases, increases in sadness, and decreases in anxiety, followed by increases. We did not form predictions about happiness due to limited previous research. Our results were largely in line with these predictions. We found that anger peaked during middle adolescence and that sad emotions continuously increased across adolescence. Anxiety did not show the initial decrease followed by an increase, as hypothesized, but

Reference 14 - 0,32% Coverage

increased already in early adolescence with a leveling off of this increase toward late adolescence (see also Nelemans et al., 2014). Happiness decreased across adolescence with a slight leveling off toward late adolescence, which is in line with the increase in anxiety and sadness. To summarize, our daily diary results of different emotions largely converge with results from other studies which used

more state-like assessments of emotions or psychopathological symptoms, thus contributing to the robustness of such findings.

Reference 15 - 0,12% Coverage

It is interesting that anger returned to baseline at the end of adolescence, which is in contrast to the development of happiness, sadness, and anxiety, which stayed low and high, respectively.

Reference 16 - 0,53% Coverage

There was a lot of interindividual variability in the developmen-
tal trajectories of the different emotions, as indicated by the significant variances of the intercept and slope factors. This suggests that adolescents differ in their overall emotion level (e.g., some adolescents are in general sadder than others) as well as in their developmental change across time (e.g., some adolescents may show steeper increases in sadness or level off to a lesser extent than others). The rank-order stability was quite high and significantly increased toward late adolescence. This indicates that a large majority of adolescents keep their relative place across time, especially when they get older (i.e., an adolescent with high levels of sadness at one time is also likely to report high levels at another time). Our results further pointed toward some sex differences.

Reference 17 - 0,22% Coverage

Previ-
ous studies that merged positive and negative moods found little evidence for sex-specific developments of average moods (Larson et al., 2002; Moneta et al., 2001). Our study suggests that this is largely true. The only differences we found were that girls reported more sadness in general and experienced steeper declines in happiness compared to boys.

Reference 18 - 0,10% Coverage

It is intriguing that girls showed steeper declines in happiness than boys, whereas we did not find such patterns for the other emotions, especially not for sadness.

Reference 19 - 0,27% Coverage

Despite these limitations, results of the present study suggest
that differences in emotion ratings between boys and girls, between weekdays, and between years can be adequately interpreted. This is particularly interesting because it indicates that the structure of emotions, as collected with daily diaries in the present study, does not differ between boys and girls and also does not change across shorter and longer time-frames.

Reference 20 - 0,11% Coverage

sults suggest that adolescence is a time in which adolescents become less happy and that it is important to consider different emotions to uncover developmental or sex differences.

<Files\\Mastrotheodoros, Van der Graaff, Dekovic, Meeus, & Banje (2019a)> - § 28 references coded [5,97% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,25% Coverage

In this study, we investigated longitudinal changes in levels of parental support and parental behavioral control as perceived by fathers, mothers, and adolescents between ages 13 and 18 years. In addition, we examined the developmental changes in the extent to which fathers, mothers, and adolescents differ in their perceptions of parental support, and parental behavioral control.

Reference 2 - 0,06% Coverage

Therefore, this study focuses on the development of parental support and behavioral control.

Reference 3 - 0,17% Coverage

In this study, we aim to investigate how parenting,
conceptualized as support and behavioral control, develops throughout adolescence, using reports from both mothers and fathers, as well as adolescent reports on the parenting of both mothers and fathers.

Reference 4 - 0,31% Coverage

First, we investigate the trajectories of both parental support and behavioral control, offering a broader picture of how parenting develops. We expect that support will show curvilinear changes throughout adolescence, decreasing between early and middle adolescence, and either stabilizing or even increasing thereafter. Behavioral control is expected to show decreasing trajectories, but no specific hypotheses can be made regarding the form of its development.

Reference 5 - 0,37% Coverage

Second, we use four different reports for parental support and for parental behavioral control (mother for adolescent, father for adolescent, adolescent for mother, adolescent for father), extending, therefore, the parent–adolescent relationship literature. Based on previous results, we expect that mothers and fathers will differ at the mean level on both support and behavioral control, but not on the trajectories they will follow. Same-gender parent–adolescent dyads are expected to become more similar than opposite-gender parent–adolescent dyads.

Reference 6 - 0,10% Coverage

Finally, by including these four different reports, our third aim is to shed light on the development of parent–adolescent divergence in views.

Reference 7 - 0,24% Coverage

We expect that adolescents will report less support and less control than parents, based on the finding that adolescents expect to attain autonomy at an earlier age than parents do (Dekovi~c et al., 1997). Parent–adolescent views are expected to converge during adolescence, as adolescents gain more real-life experience with attaining developmental tasks.

Reference 8 - 0,08% Coverage

In sum, this study aims at investigating how parent–adolescent relationships develop during the course of adolescence.

Reference 9 - 0,27% Coverage

Consistent with theoretical accounts of the development of parent–adolescent relationships and existing empirical studies (De Goede et al., 2009; Keijsers & Poulin, 2013; McGue et al., 2005; Shanahan et al., 2007; Smetana, 2011; Smetana et al., 2005), we found evidence of change in parenting as well as evidence of increasing similarity between parents' and adolescents' views during the course of adolescence.

Reference 10 - 0,06% Coverage

Parental support decreased from early to middle adolescence, and remained stable thereafter.

Reference 11 - 0,19% Coverage

In line with our hypothesis, behavioral control decreased from early to middle adolescence, and we further found that the decrease was stronger between middle and late adolescence than between early and middle adolescence. These patterns were robust across gender and across reporters,

Reference 12 - 0,12% Coverage

We found that adolescents and parents reported initially divergent parental support and behavioral control levels, which were increasingly convergent throughout adolescence.

Reference 13 - 0,19% Coverage

The finding that parental support develops in a curvilinear way corroborates theoretical hypotheses that, in the search for autonomy, parent–adolescent relationships undergo change, which includes also increased distance and less emotional parental support from parents (Branje et al., 2012).

Reference 14 - 0,24% Coverage

Our results support this view: the initial drop and then stability of parental support means that the relationship reaches a new balance in which parents are not expected to provide the same level of parental support (e.g., emotional warmth) they did at the outset of adolescence, because the relationship has been transformed into a more horizontal one.

Reference 15 - 0,19% Coverage

Behavioral control also decreased, but its trajec-
tory was different from that of parental support. From early to middle adolescence, we found a significant drop in control according to all four reports. However, it continued to decrease at a higher rate from age 16 to age 18.

Reference 16 - 0,18% Coverage

These results are in accordance with previous studies of control
trajectories in the Netherlands and the United States that showed linear decrease between ages 13 and 16 (Keijsers et al., 2009), as well as stronger decrease from age 16 on (Keijsers & Poulin, 2013).

Reference 17 - 0,57% Coverage

Taken together, these two developments, along

with the finding that the trajectories were the same across informants (with the only exception that parents of girls did not report change in parental support during this period), paint a rather clear picture of the relationships that transform toward more reciprocity (Steinberg & Silk, 2002; Youniss & Smollar, 1985). On the one hand, distance develops up to a degree; warmth decreases, and then levelsoff, stabilizing. On the other hand, behavioral control decreases throughout adolescence. In other words, from middle adolescence onward adolescents continue to develop more autonomously (less need for control), but do not further decrease in the warmth they feel as they stay connected to their parents. The fact that these patterns emerged from all four reports suggests that this transformation is normative.

Reference 18 - 0,17% Coverage

In both parental support and control, age 16 may,
on average, be a significant “turning point.” Parental support stops decreasing from this point on (with an exception for the perceptions of boys, see below), and control decreases more than it did in the

Reference 19 - 0,71% Coverage

A common finding in both parental support and control was that those reporters in the parent–adolescent dyad who had the higher initial mean level showed the steeper decline across time. Put simply, those who started higher, dropped more. This resulted in converging views over time. For example, boys showed a higher mean level of parental support than mothers, but also showed a stronger decline than mothers, both during early to middle and during middle to late adolescence. In a different way, bivariate correlations also support this finding. Adolescent reports for both mothers and fathers became increasingly correlated with parental reports during adolescence, which shows that the rank-order similarity of parents and adolescents increased between ages 13 and 18. Given higher shared variance between reporters, at age 18 parents and adolescents tended to agree more whether parental support and control were relatively higher or lower than in other families, and thus parents and adolescents became more in line with each other than was the case at age 13.

Reference 20 - 0,10% Coverage

Parents’ and adolescents’ perceptions of their relationships grew closer (i.e., became more alike) to each other during the course of adolescence.

Reference 21 - 0,14% Coverage

At the outset of the study, adolescents viewed
parents generally more leniently than parents viewed themselves. Adolescents reported more parental support, and less behavioral control than what parents reported.

Reference 22 - 0,27% Coverage

Our results corroborate these theoretical accounts, as boys and girls have a more “advantageous” perception of the relationships with their parents at age 13 (higher parental support and lower control than parents report), but develop a more egalitarian (depicted by the drop in parental support and control) and pragmatic (depicted by the convergence with parental views) view of their parents later on.

Reference 23 - 0,25% Coverage

The aforementioned developmental patterns held largely across parent and adolescent gender, with a few exceptions. Regarding parent gender, mothers and fathers
differed only on the mean levels of both support and behavioral control. According to both parents and adolescents, mothers showed a significantly higher mean level of support, and behavioral control than fathers.

Reference 24 - 0,11% Coverage

However, there were no differences between mothers and fathers in developmental changes in the support and behavioral control they offer to their adolescent children.

Reference 25 - 0,27% Coverage

Adolescent boys and girls only reported a differ-
ence in behavioral control. Girls perceived a significantly slower decline in behavioral control than boys. This finding was further corroborated by the parent–adolescent comparisons, according to which parents and boys did not differ in the rate of change in behavioral control during the first half of adolescence, whereas parents and girls did (see Table 4).

Reference 26 - 0,02% Coverage

Adolescence is indeed a period

Reference 27 - 0,25% Coverage

during which parent–adolescent relationships change significantly, as they gradually transform from vertical/hierarchical to more horizontal. Finally, although parents and adolescents hold significantly divergent views regarding parenting the in early adolescence, the progression toward middle and then late adolescence brings these initially divergent views closer together.

Reference 28 - 0,10% Coverage

Finally, our results show that few, if any, differences exist between adolescent boys and girls in how they perceive their relationships with their parents.

<Files\\Mastrotheodoros, Van der Graaff, Dekovic, Meeus, & Branje (2019b)> - § 18 references coded [3,40% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,35% Coverage

In this study, we focused on within-person effects between interparental conflict management strategies and the parent–adolescent relationship (Curran & Bauer, 2011), controlling for relatively stable between-person differences. By doing so we were able to investigate how changes in interparental conflict management in a family are associated with changes in the parent–adolescent relationship in the same family, which allows for a better test of the relevant theoretical ideas (Knopp et al., 2017).

Reference 2 - 0,16% Coverage

Therefore, in the current study we examined effects at the within-person level, which offers the possibility for a more direct test of the basic premises regarding interparental conflict and parent–adolescent relationships.

Reference 3 - 0,12% Coverage

In this study, we examined how conflict engagement, withdrawal, and problem solving during interparental conflict longitudinally associate with parent–adolescent relationships.

Reference 4 - 0,11% Coverage

Thus, in this study we used multiple aspects of interparental conflict and parent–adolescent relationships to further tap into their longitudinal associations.

Reference 5 - 0,12% Coverage

In the current study we investigated the longitudinal associations among interparental conflict management styles and parent–adolescent relationships across adolescence.

Reference 6 - 0,13% Coverage

Second, we investigated the longitudinal associations ofconstructive and destructive interparental conflict management strategies with three aspects of parent–adolescent relationships.

Reference 7 - 0,10% Coverage

Third, we used multiple informants to investigate interparental conflict and parent–adolescent relationships for six waves across adolescence.

Reference 8 - 0,14% Coverage

Fourth, we examined adolescents' relationships with both their mother and father using four different reports: from the mother, the father, and the adolescent for his or her mother and father separately.

Reference 9 - 0,15% Coverage

In accordance with the spillover hypothesis and earlier research, we expected to find negative associations between interparental conflict and parent–adolescent relationship quality on the between-person level.

Reference 10 - 0,25% Coverage

Overall, the associations at the between-person level were in accordance with previous studies: More destructive conflict management was associated with worse parent–adolescent relationship quality and more constructive conflict management was associated with better parent–adolescent relationship quality (e.g., Cui & Conger, 2008; Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2007).

Reference 11 - 0,38% Coverage

In families that report more destructive and less constructive interparental conflict than other families, parent–adolescent relationships contain lower parental support and higher parent–adolescent negative interaction (e.g., Buehler & Gerard, 2002; Cui & Conger, 2008; Pleck & Hofferth, 2008; Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2007). These associations held for all three conflict management strategies and were fairly robust across informants. These correlations can be partly accounted for by factors such as lack of social skills or personality.

Reference 12 - 0,08% Coverage

Parental control was not associated with any of the conflict management strategies at the between-person level.

Reference 13 - 0,13% Coverage

Generally, we found only few significant associations on the within-person level, which can be taken as support for the compartmentalization hypothesis (Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000).

Reference 14 - 0,39% Coverage

Significant within-person effects were
found in only three models, which included father reports. These effects referred to both within-person correlated change and within-person cross-lagged effects. The former indicates that the years that interparental destructive conflict management is increased are also those years that the father–adolescent relationship is strained, whereas the latter indicates that the years that the father–adolescent relationship negativity increases are followed by years where interparental conflict management increases.

Reference 15 - 0,09% Coverage

Increases in father–adolescent negativity go hand in hand with but also precede increases in destructive interparental conflict.

Reference 16 - 0,26% Coverage

On the between-person level, the correlations were similar for mothers and fathers, but the finding that on the within-person level marital conflict was exclusively related to the father–adolescent relationship indicates that it may be more difficult for fathers than mothers to navigate between the parental and the spousal roles (Coiro & Emery, 1998; Elam et al., 2017).

Reference 17 - 0,25% Coverage

The current study furthers our understanding by showing that the associations of these phenomena are due to stable differences between families, and although significant intrafamilial processes occur in both interparental conflict and parent–adolescent relationship quality during adolescence, these intrafamilial changes do not associate with each other.

Reference 18 - 0,21% Coverage

Although the pattern of associations supports the idea that families with more destructive interparental conflict management strategies tend to be those families with lower parent–

adolescent relationships, extant research has mistakenly interpreted similar patterns as support for the spillover hypothesis.

<Files\\Moorman, Gobes, Van de Kamp, Zandbergen, & Bolhuis (2015)> - § 8 references coded [2,31% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,09% Coverage

Here, we investigated brain lateralisation during sleep in song. More
.In
birds.

Reference 2 - 0,18% Coverage

We expected to find differential neuronal activation between the tutor song-exposed juveniles, and the ones that heard novel song or remained in silence during the day.

Reference 3 - 0,41% Coverage

We demonstrated differential lateralisation ofneuronal activation in a 'Wernicke-like' brain region (the NCM) and a 'Broca-like' brain region (HVC) during sleep in juvenile male zebra finches. The strength of song learning was correlated with the lateralisation ratio in the NCM during sleep, with greater song similarity related to stronger neuronal activation in the left hemisphere.

Reference 4 - 0,37% Coverage

When we divided the experimental subjects into ''poor learners'' and ''good learners'', we found that for the NCM, the right hemisphere was predominantly activated during sleep in poor learners, while the left hemisphere was dominant in good learners. HVC activation ofsleeping juveniles was right-dominant independent ofthe strength ofsong learning.

Reference 5 - 0,18% Coverage

Taken together these results suggest differential
lateralisation of neuronal activation depending on the behavioural state of the animal (sleeping or awake; Fig. 4).

Reference 6 - 0,36% Coverage

Most studies measuring neural activity during anesthesia
or sleep show a right-dominant pattern ofneuronal activation, while studies in awake animals mostly show left-sided dominance, in both the NCM and HVC (reviewed in Ref. 23). Our findings concerning behavioural state-dependent neuronal activation in HVC fit this pattern of results.

Reference 7 - 0,21% Coverage

In accordance with both hypo-
theses, the most extreme left-dominant birds (which were the best learners) had very low levels of activation in the right NCM in comparison to right-dominant birds.

Reference 8 - 0,50% Coverage

In conclusion, we found lateralised brain activation during sleep in
juvenile songbirds that were in the process of learning their song. A ‘Broca-like’ brain region (HVC) showed differential activation ofthe two hemispheres depending on behavioural state: left-dominant during the day37
sleep. Spontaneous neuronal activation during sleep in a ‘Wernickelike’ brain region (the NCM)was left-lateralised in good learners, and right-lateralised in poor learners.

<Files\\Nelemans et al. (2014)> - § 17 references coded [3,89% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,11% Coverage

Therefore, this study aims to gain a better understanding of potential neurobiological factors involved in the development

Reference 2 - 0,15% Coverage

ofadolescent anxiety and depressive disorder symptoms in the general population, by focusing on the association between these symptoms and secretory cortisol (i.e., stress) levels.

Reference 3 - 0,25% Coverage

Therefore, the present study aimed to identify subgroups of
adolescents with different patterns ofCAR across 3 years, and to relate these different patterns of CAR to developmental trajectories of different anxiety disorder symptoms and depressive symptoms in adolescents from the general population.

Reference 4 - 0,26% Coverage

We anticipated finding a subgroup of adolescents with persistent heightened CAR over 3 successive years (i.e., “high risk” developmental profile of CAR) in addition to a larger group ofadolescents with more typical and lower CAR curves over 3 successive years (i.e., “low risk” developmental profile of CAR).

Reference 5 - 0,21% Coverage

In line with previous studies and suggestions, we expected
adolescents with persistent heightened CAR across 3 years to show higher levels of depressive symptoms over the studied period than adolescents with more typical and lower CAR curves.

Reference 6 - 0,36% Coverage

Furthermore, we explored potential differential associations between CAR and distinct anxiety disorder symptoms (Generalized Anxiety Disorder, Panic Disorder, Separation Anxiety Disorder, and Social Anxiety Disorder) by examining whether adolescents with persistent heightened CAR across 3 years also reported higher levels of distinct anxiety symptoms over the studied period than adolescents with more typical and lower CAR curves.

Reference 7 - 0,14% Coverage

Based on the unique characteristics of distinct anxiety disorder symptoms, we expected that some anxiety symptoms could have stronger associations with CAR than others.

Reference 8 - 0,06% Coverage

we also examined the results of this study including sex as a covariate.

Reference 9 - 0,60% Coverage

Our results suggested that a small percentage of the adolescents showed persistent heightened CAR AUCg over 3 successive years, while the majority of adolescents showed stable lower CAR AUCg over time. In comparison to adolescents with stable low CAR AUCg, adolescents with persistent heightened CAR AUCg showed slightly higher mean levels of depressive symptoms, but did not show higher mean levels of anxiety disorder symptoms when sex was accounted for. These results suggest that adolescents' persistent heightened levels of CAR AUCg
are more strongly, yet modestly,
relatedtodepressivesymptomsthantoanxiety disorder symptoms, despite of the regular co-occurrence of adolescent depression and anxiety.

Reference 10 - 0,27% Coverage

In line with previous studies on adults (Wüst et al. 2000b),
we found large individual differences in adolescents' CAR. Moreover, we found only low rank-order stability of CAR AUCg (correlation of 0.25 between successive waves), suggesting large individual differences in the stability of adolescent stress levels over time.

Reference 11 - 0,15% Coverage

In line with our expectations, we identified a small subgroup of adolescents (15 % of the total sample) with persistent heightened CAR AUCg over 3 successive years (see Fig. 1).

Reference 12 - 0,23% Coverage

We should also state, however, that in the whole range of risk factors associated with adolescent anxiety and depressive symptoms the significance ofCAR appears to be onlymodest, since the effect size ofdifferences between the CAR groups in depressive symptoms was rather small.

Reference 13 - 0,24% Coverage

Regarding adolescent anxiety disorder symptomatology, our
unconditional results suggested that adolescents with persistent heightened CAR reported significantly higher mean levels of PD and SepAD symptoms over time, but not GAD and SAD symptoms, than adolescents with stable lower CAR.

Reference 14 - 0,14% Coverage

However when sex was included as a covariate, differences between adolescents remained significant for depressive symptoms only, but no longer for PD and SepAD symptoms.

Reference 15 - 0,25% Coverage

Secondly, the unconditional results suggest that despite of the strong association between anxiety and depressive symptoms, which seems to be especially true for GAD and depressive symptoms, chronically heightened cortisol levels are not uniformly associated with all of these internalizing symptoms.

Reference 16 - 0,17% Coverage

In addition, differences between adolescents with stable low CAR and adolescents with persistent heightened CAR remained significant for depressive symptoms only when sex was included as a covariate.

Reference 17 - 0,28% Coverage

Altogether, to our knowledge the present study is one ofthe
first to specifically focus on individual differences in adolescent adrenal cortisol secretory activity over a longer period of time (i.e., persistence and chronicity ofadolescents' CAR curves) in association with symptoms of depression and distinct anxiety disorder symptoms.

<Files\\Nelemans et al. (2016)> - § 17 references coded [3,73% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,12% Coverage

Therefore, in the present study, we aimed to examine how discrepancies in adolescents' and parents' perceptions of their relationship were associated with early adolescent depressive symptoms.

Reference 2 - 0,19% Coverage

In the present multi-informant, 2-year longitudinal community study, we aimed to examine how discrepancies in parents' and adolescents' perceptions of the parent–adolescent relationship were associated with early adolescent depressive symptoms, both concurrently and longitudinally over a 1-year period.

Reference 3 - 0,18% Coverage

Furthermore, in line with family systems theory, we distinguished between discrepancies in the mother–adolescent and the father–adolescent relationship in association with early adolescent depressive symptoms and considered adolescent gender as a potential moderator of these associations.

Reference 4 - 0,12% Coverage

we distinguished between perceptions of the mother–adolescent and the father– adolescent relationship to examine potential differential associations with early adolescent depressive symptoms.

Reference 5 - 0,13% Coverage

Fourth and finally, we examined all associations with early adolescent depressive symptoms both concurrently and longitudinally over a 1-year period, controlling for adolescents' earlier depressive symptoms.

Reference 6 - 0,20% Coverage

In light of the relative stability of depressive symptoms over time (Holsen et al. 2000; Kessler et al. 2012), it is crucial to check whether discrepancies in perceptions of the parent–adolescent relationship have any additional value above-andbeyond the relative stability of depressive symptoms over time.

Reference 7 - 0,63% Coverage

Using interaction terms in polynomial regression anal-
ysis (Laird and De Los Reyes 2013), we tested whether associations between higher (or lower) adolescent reports of negative interaction in the parent–adolescent relationship and early adolescent depressive symptoms varied as a function of higher (or lower) mother/father reports of negative interaction. Vice versa, we tested whether associations between mother/father reports of negative interaction in the parent–adolescent relationship and early adolescent depressive symptoms varied as a function of adolescent reports of negative interaction. In other words, we tested for significant moderation effects. Based on theories that emphasize the importance of a fit between adolescents and their parents (e.g., Eccles et al. 1993; Lerner 1985; Thomas and Chess 1977), we expected significant interactions between adolescents' and parents' perceptions of their relationship in association with early adolescent depressive symptoms.

Reference 8 - 0,12% Coverage

Specifically, we hypothesized that larger discrepancies between adolescents' and parents' perceptions of their relationship would be associated with higher early adolescent depressive symptoms.

Reference 9 - 0,55% Coverage

In addition, we tested whether the associations between
adolescent and mother/father reports of negative interaction in the parent–adolescent relationship as well as interactions between adolescents' and parents' perceptions of their relationship and early adolescent depressive symptoms were moderated by adolescent gender. In line with interpersonal models of depression, which suggest that adolescent girls place greater value on their interpersonal relationships than do boys and that disturbances in these relationships may thus more strongly affect adolescent girls than boys (Rudolph 2009), we expected that, if we would find any significant gender differences, associations between (discrepancies in) negative interaction in the parent–adolescent relationship and early adolescent depressive symptoms would be stronger for early adolescent girls than boys.

Reference 10 - 0,19% Coverage

Results suggested the highest levels of adolescent depressive symptoms with congruence in reports of high negative interaction between mothers and adolescents (Fig. 1), but also with discrepancies between adolescent-reported high negative interaction and fatherreported low negative interaction (Fig. 2).

Reference 11 - 0,18% Coverage

Results from polynomial regression analyses including interaction terms between different informants' perceptions suggested the highest levels of concurrent adolescent depressive symptoms when there was congruence in mother and adolescent reports of high negative interaction (see Fig. 1).

Reference 12 - 0,30% Coverage

in a way that congruence of low negative interaction and conflict reported by both adolescents and mothers appears to be associated with the lowest levels of adolescent depressive symptoms. Yet, our findings seem to be more in line with principles of cumulative or additive risk models, by suggesting that congruence of high negative interaction reported by both adolescents and mothers appears to be associated with the highest levels of adolescent depressive symptoms.

Reference 13 - 0,22% Coverage

Furthermore, results from polynomial regression analy-
ses including interaction terms between different informants' perceptions suggested the highest levels of concurrent adolescent depressive symptoms when there was a discrepancy between adolescent-reported high negative interaction and father-reported low negative interaction (see Fig. 2).

Reference 14 - 0,17% Coverage

Also, these findings suggest that when early adolescents experience levels of negative interaction that are not experienced at a comparable level by the parent, thereby implying a loss of the parent–adolescent bond, this is associated with adolescent depressive symptoms.

Reference 15 - 0,08% Coverage

These findings may suggest that experiences of paternal neglect may be associated with higher adolescent depressive symptoms

Reference 16 - 0,15% Coverage

In this study, both congruence in adolescents' and mothers' perceptions of a highly conflictual mother–adolescent relationship and discrepancies in adolescents' and fathers' perceptions of the father–adolescent relationship were

Reference 17 - 0,18% Coverage

found to be associated with higher early adolescent depressive symptoms. These associations were stronger for concurrent depressive symptoms than changes in symptoms over a 1-year period, controlling for stability in adolescent depressive symptoms over this period of time.

<Files\\Nelemans, Hale III Branje, Meeus, & Rudolph (2018)> - § 26 references coded [6,32% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,19% Coverage

(b) to determine whether individual vulnerability (i.e., a tendency toward anxious solitude) early in elementary school (in second grade) distinguished youths' anxiety trajectories, and (c) to differentiate youths' anxiety trajectories based on specific qualities of youths' social contexts (i.e., stressful vs. supportive) during middle school.

Reference 2 - 0,08% Coverage

Hence, the second goal of this study was to determine whether anxious solitude early in elementary school could distinguish youths' anxiety trajectories.

Reference 3 - 0,14% Coverage

Hence, the third goal of this study was to examine whether specific qualities of youths' social contexts (i.e., stressful vs. supportive) during middle school were associated with youths' anxiety trajectories across the transition from elementary to middle school.

Reference 4 - 0,41% Coverage

Based on the aforementioned theories (e.g., Cicchetti & Rogosch, 1996, 2002; Rutter, 1996; Weems, 2008) and empirical findings on anxiety development and trajectories in either childhood or adolescence, we expected that most youth would generally show low and stable levels of anxiety symptoms across time, which might fluctuate slightly or showmodest declines that are attributable to normative decreases in anxiety across time, but would show relative continuity across the middle school transition. We expected that a second subgroup ofyouth would show relatively high and stable levels of anxiety over time, representing a high-risk group of youth burdened with persistent anxiety problems that would also show relative continuity across the middle school transition.

Reference 5 - 0,26% Coverage

Finally, we expected that the middle school transition could be a potential breakpoint in developmental trajectories of anxiety for some youth. This could result in increasing anxiety symptoms for some but decreasing anxiety symptoms for other youth after this transition. In line with prior research, we expected girls to be overrepresented in the anxiety trajectory groups with stable high or increasing levels of anxiety into adolescence (i.e., after the middle school transition).

Reference 6 - 0,39% Coverage

Third, we aimed to distinguish youths' anxiety trajectories
based on specific qualities of youths' social contexts (i.e., stressful vs. supportive) from early to middle adolescence during middle school. In line with developmental theories (Cicchetti & Rogosch, 1996, 2002; Muris, 2006; Vasey & Dadds, 2001) and with studies showing strong associations between psychosocial functioning in the school, peer, and family context and adolescent anxiety symptoms (e.g., Bo¨gels & Brechman-Toussaint, 2006; Kingery et al., 2010; Seipp, 1991), we expected that anxiety trajectories would be distinguished by experiences in the new middle school context as well as in relationships with peers and parents throughout middle school.

Reference 7 - 0,14% Coverage

Specifically, we predicted that stable high or increasing anxiety trajectories would be characterized by stressful or unsupportive social contexts, whereas stable low or decreasing anxiety trajectories would be characterized by positive or supportive social contexts.

Reference 8 - 0,23% Coverage

Results suggested that anxiety trajectories of the majority of youth (81%) showed continuity across the middle school transition and were characterized by fairly stable levels of either high or low anxiety symptoms throughout elementary and middle school from middle childhood to middle adolescence. These subgroups ofyouth could be distinguished by their levels of teacher-reported anxious solitude in middle childhood (second grade);

Reference 9 - 0,02% Coverage

youth with stable high anxiety

Reference 10 - 0,05% Coverage

were characterized by higher anxious solitude than youth with stable low anxiety.

Reference 11 - 0,43% Coverage

In contrast, the middle school transition was associated
with discontinuity in anxiety trajectories for a minority of youth (19%), who showed either strongly increasing or decreasing levels of anxiety after the transition in early adolescence. Although levels of anxious solitude in middle childhood did not distinguish these subgroups of youth from each other, their strongly diverging anxiety trajectories were significantly associated with perceived qualities of youths' social contexts (i.e., stressful vs. supportive) during middle school from early to middle adolescence; youth with increasing levels of anxiety after the transition reported more transition-related stressors and poorer quality relationships with friends and parents than youth with decreasing levels of anxiety after the transition.

Reference 12 - 0,34% Coverage

Overall, our findings suggest that the middle school tran-
sition has the potential to alter developmental trajectories of anxiety for some youth, either for better or for worse, although the majority of youth appeared to show continuity in their anxiety trajectories from middle childhood to middle adolescence. Furthermore, youths' individual vulnerability to anxiety partially distinguished those who start along different anxiety trajectories in middle childhood, whereas perceived qualities of youths' social contexts partially distinguished those who progress along different anxiety trajectories after the middle school transition.

Reference 13 - 0,37% Coverage

Despite the traditional view of the middle school transition as a stressful time for youth (Simmons & Blyth, 1987) that coincides with the start of rapid biological, psychological, cognitive, and social changes associated with the transition from childhood to adolescence, our findings suggested that the middle school transition was not associated with (temporary) increases in anxiety for the majority of youth. In fact, global levels of anxiety tended to gradually decrease as youth grew older, in line with past research (e.g., Olatunji & Cole, 2009; Van Oort et al., 2009), and only a small minority of youth (5%) showed increasing anxiety symptoms after the middle school transition.

Reference 14 - 0,17% Coverage

Of note, this study revealed both continuity and discontinuity in youths' anxiety trajectories from middle childhood to middle adolescence. Regarding continuity, the majority ofyouth in our study appeared to show strong stability in their anxiety levels (either high or low) from middle childhood to middle adolescence.

Reference 15 - 0,10% Coverage

However, anxiety trajectories of approximately 20% of youth did showsubstantial change fromearly to middle adolescence, suggesting that levels of youth anxiety are not necessarily fixed.

Reference 16 - 0,10% Coverage

Specifically, whereas youth in the persistent low and the decreasing anxiety trajectories showed very different initial levels of anxiety in middle childhood (second grade), these youth

Reference 17 - 0,07% Coverage

showed quite similar low levels of anxiety in middle adolescence (eighth grade), illustrating the principle of equifinality.

Reference 18 - 0,49% Coverage

In contrast, whereas youth in the persistent high and decreasing anxiety trajectories showed quite similar initial levels of anxiety in middle childhood (second grade), these youth showed very different levels of anxiety in middle adolescence (eighth grade), illustrating the principle of multifinality. Furthermore, even though youth in the persistent high and increasing anxiety trajectories showed quite similar levels of anxiety in both middle childhood (second grade) and middle adolescence (eighth grade), these youth showed quite different levels of anxiety in between these points in time. Hence, our findings illustrate the importance of delineating the exact anxiety trajectories that youth follow, because youths' level of anxiety at any point in time should be considered within the context of how that level of anxiety has evolved over the course of development (Cicchetti & Rogosch, 2002).

Reference 19 - 0,57% Coverage

Overall, we found gender differences in line with previous studies (for a systematic review of gender differences across the life span, see McLean & Anderson, 2009) suggesting that girls report somewhat higher anxiety symptoms than boys (although differences in middle childhood were only marginally significant) and are more likely than boys to report stable high or increasing levels of anxiety over time. Exploratory multiple-group GMM analyses, allowing for differences between boys and girls in the number and the shape of the anxiety trajectories, suggested the same number of anxiety trajectories with a similar shape for both boys and girls and similar to results from our total-sample GMM analyses. Therefore, whereas girls tended to report slightly higher levels of anxiety than boys and the proportion of girls in the increasing and particularly the persistent high anxiety trajectories was higher than the proportion of boys, boys and girls show a similar pattern of individual differences in anxiety trajectories across the middle school transition.

Reference 20 - 0,50% Coverage

in middle childhood significantly distinguished between youth with high versus low initial levels of anxiety in second grade. Specifically, youth in the persistent high and decreasing anxiety trajectories showed higher individual vulnerability to anxiety in middle childhood than youth in the persistent low trajectory, in line with suggestions that individual vulnerability to anxiety plays an important role in early levels of anxiety (Biederman et al., 1995; Hirshfeld-Becker et al., 2004; Lonigan et al., 2011; Rosenbaum et al., 1993). Even though youth in the increasing anxiety trajectory did not significantly differ from all other youth with respect to their individual vulnerability to anxious solitude in second grade (these youth appeared to be characterized by somewhat moderate levels of anxious solitude), they did show higher levels of anxiety symptoms in second grade than youth in the persistent low trajectory.

Reference 21 - 0,37% Coverage

In line with the abundant evidence suggesting strong associations between anxiety and functioning in educational (Ialongo et al., 1995; Seipp, 1991) and social contexts (Bo¨gels & Brechman-Toussaint, 2006; Kingery et al., 2010), anxiety trajectories after the middle school transition from early to middle adolescence appeared to be strongly linked to youths' experiences in these contexts during and after the transition. Specifically, youth who showed initially moderate individual vulnerability to anxiety in middle childhood who experienced stressful school, peer, and family contexts after the transition showed strongly increasing anxiety trajectories from early to middle adolescence.

Reference 22 - 0,15% Coverage

At the same time, youth who showed individual vulnerability to anxiety in middle childhood but who experienced more positive or supportive experiences in these contexts after the transition showed strongly decreasing anxiety trajectories from early to middle adolescence.

Reference 23 - 0,21% Coverage

Finally, some youth with both an individual vulnerability to anxiety in middle childhood and stressful school, peer, and family contexts after the middle school transition showed persistent high levels of anxiety over time, whereas youth without an individual vulnerability to anxiety in middle childhood and with more positive or supportive experiences in these contexts after the transition showed

Reference 24 - 0,09% Coverage

Altogether, this research indicates that youth do not form a homogenous group with respect to their anxiety development from middle childhood to middle adolescence.

Reference 25 - 0,22% Coverage

Moreover, the middle school transition appears to be a potential breakpoint for development for some youth, rather than a stressful life transition for all. Specifically, whereas a majority of youth show relatively stable levels of either high or low anxiety from middle childhood to middle adolescence, other youth may show strongly increasing or decreasing anxiety after the middle school transition.

Reference 26 - 0,22% Coverage

Consistent with developmental psychopathology theories that emphasize the interplay between personal and social–contextual risk and protective factors in determining the specific developmental trajectories followed by youth, individual differences in youth anxiety trajectories are distinguished by a combination of individual vulnerability to anxiety as well as the degree of perceived transition-related stress.

<Files\\Nelemans, Hale III, Branje, Hawk, & Meeus (2014)> - § 2 references coded [0,33% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,13% Coverage

Therefore, this study specifically focused on the potential bidirectional associations between maternal criticism and adolescent depressive and GAD symptoms over time.

Reference 2 - 0,20% Coverage

Generally, low reliability coefficients make it more difficult to find statistically significant paths, so our results may be an underestimation of the associations between maternal reports of criticism and adolescent perceived criticism and psychopathological symptoms.

<Files\\Neumann et al. (2017)> - § 4 references coded [0,37% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,04% Coverage

Two loci showed suggestive associations

Reference 2 - 0,11% Coverage

Furthermore, the SNP showed a nominally significant association with plasma cortisol in the same direction as saliva cortisol.

Reference 3 - 0,14% Coverage

The results are consistent with phenotypic studies indicating that
only a small proportion of cortisol variance shows a stable trait-like pattern.

Reference 4 - 0,08% Coverage

Reducing the within-day variation appears to be insufficient to reduce the contextual noise.

<Files\\Pappa et al. (2015)> - § 15 references coded [3,46% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,26% Coverage

Here we present results from a genome wide association study (GWAS), and from gene-based and pathway analyses, aiming to elucidate the genetic components of infant attachment disorganization and security.

Reference 2 - 0,37% Coverage

In the current study, we observed infant attachment using the Strange Situation

Procedure (SSP; Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978) in an ethnically homogenous group of 14-month-old infants, generating the largest sample with both attachment and genome-wide data (N = 657) to date.

Reference 3 - 0,26% Coverage

To our knowledge, this is the most extensive exploratory study and the first of its kind to explore the genetic components of infant attachment disorganization and security using state-of-the-art methods.

Reference 4 - 0,13% Coverage

We found no genome-wide significant associations between single SNPs and attachment disorganization.

Reference 5 - 0,20% Coverage

However, gene-based analyses using the VEGAS tool provided evidence of three genes associated with attachment disorganization (i.e. HDAC1, ZNF675 and BSDC1).

Reference 6 - 0,18% Coverage

Further analyses with the PANTHER tool showed overrepresentations of the synaptic transmission and cation transport pathways related to higher

Reference 7 - 0,24% Coverage

Similar analyses for attachment security yielded evidence of one significantly associated gene (BECN1) but no overrepresentation of pathways related to higher scores on attachment security.

Reference 8 - 0,29% Coverage

The quantile-quantile plot of attachment disorganization indicated a possible association with the CACNA2D3 gene, on chromosome 3p21, which codes for a voltage-dependent calcium channel (Boehm et al., 2006;Roweet al., 2007).

Reference 9 - 0,19% Coverage

In addition to CACNA2D3, our gene-based analyses (with the VEGAS tool) indicated HDAC1 as a possible gene associated with attachment disorganization.

Reference 10 - 0,21% Coverage

We identified two other genes that were significantly associated with infant attachment disorganization – ZNF675 and BSCD1 – but little is known about their function.

Reference 11 - 0,24% Coverage

The pathway analysis (with the PANTHER tool) indicated two biological processes (synaptic transmission and cation transport) overrepresented in association with attachment disorganization.

Reference 12 - 0,17% Coverage

Although many genes are involved in these pathways, the results point to pathways involved in neuronal function and synaptic plasticity.

Reference 13 - 0,27% Coverage

Similar analyses for attachment security also revealed only suggestive and no significant loci in our GWAS analysis. However, gene-based tests indicated an association between BECN1 and attachment security.

Reference 14 - 0,26% Coverage

The gene-based analysis indicated two suggestive genes (ZNF675 and CNTD1) associated with both attachment disorganization and security, indicating the possibility of partially shared genetic etiology.

Reference 15 - 0,19% Coverage

Attachment disorganization and security are related and partially overlapping constructs, with a moderate negative correlation in the current sample

<Files\\Pas, Munkhof, Plessis, & Vink (2017)> - § 9 references coded [3,24% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,34% Coverage

Similar to previous work on inhibition performance on similar tasks (Zandbelt and Vink, 2010; Zandbelt et al., 2011), we expect to find differences in striatal and motor cortex activation when comparing correct and incorrect stops.

Reference 2 - 0,19% Coverage

We therefore anticipate finding more striatal activation when subjects expect a stop to occur, compared to unexpected stops.

Reference 3 - 0,26% Coverage

The current study shows for the first time that striatal activation during reactive inhibition is associated with the pre-existing subjective expectation of having to stop.

Reference 4 - 0,51% Coverage

In our task, there was significantly more bilateral activation in the striatum during stopping when subjects already expected the stop-signal to occur. There was no difference in activation between correct and incorrect stops, as we had found previously when we did not correct for expectation (Vink et al., 2005; Zandbelt and Vink, 2010).

Reference 5 - 0,73% Coverage

Similar to earlier findings (Zandbelt and Vink, 2010; Vink et al., 2014, 2015b), subjects slowed down their responses when the cue showed a high probability of a stop-signal, and slowed down even more when they also indicated that they expected a stop-signal. The link between expectation of stop signals and the striatum is in line with studies that have reported striatal activity when the occurrence of a stop-signal was highly predictable (Vink et al., 2005; Zandbelt and Vink, 2010).

Reference 6 - 0,25% Coverage

Motor cortex activation was lower for successful
stops, but contrary to our expectation we did not find lower motor cortex activation when those stops were expected.

Reference 7 - 0,51% Coverage

Notably, activity in the striatum during the response
period did not directly correlate with accuracy, even though expectancy was both associated with striatal activity and accuracy. Accuracy for expected stops were significantly higher, presumably because subjects slowed down more and therefore had more time to inhibit their response.

Reference 8 - 0,10% Coverage

Stop trials that were expected and where a stop signal did end up

Reference 9 - 0,35% Coverage

appearing, were more often correct, simply because subjects slowed down their responses. Therefore, the relationship between striatal activity and accuracy exists only indirectly and possibly is not strong enough to be significant

<Files\\Rekker, Keijsers, Branje, Koot, & Meeus (2017)> - § 14 references coded [2,31% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,19% Coverage

In sum, our first hypothesis (H1) was that adolescents whose parents exercise more solicitation and control engage in less delinquent behavior than other adolescents who are monitored less (i.e., between-individual effect).

Reference 2 - 0,10% Coverage

In sum, the present study was among the first to examine within-individual associations between delinquency and
monitoring.

Reference 3 - 0,22% Coverage

Despite the lack of prior research, we hypothesized (H2) on theoretical grounds that adolescents offend less during periods in which their parents exercise more solicitation and control than during other periods with less monitoring (i.e., within-individual effect).

Reference 4 - 0,14% Coverage

Moreover, we examined adolescents' disclosure (H3), which has consistently been associated with less problem behavior (e.g., Keijsers et al., 2010; Kerr et al., 2010).

Reference 5 - 0,24% Coverage

We expected delinquency to be associated with lower levels of parental solicitation and control between adolescents (H1) and potentially also within adolescents over time (H2). Furthermore, we hypothesized that delinquency would be associated with lower levels ofadolescent disclosure (H3).

Reference 6 - 0,12% Coverage

Between individuals, parental solicitation and control were not significantly associated with adolescent delinquency after controlling for SES

Reference 7 - 0,13% Coverage

Unlike parental monitoring, adolescent disclosure was strongly associated with less delinquency both between and within adolescents and regardless of SES.

Reference 8 - 0,09% Coverage

These results strongly contradicted our hypothesis that monitoring would be related to less delinquency.

Reference 9 - 0,31% Coverage

Although this study revealed similar correlations at the bivariate level (Table 1), these associations were reduced to non-significance by controlling for gender and SES. The strongest contradiction with our hypothesis and previous literature (e.g., Stattin & Kerr, 2000) was however posed by the finding that control was overall linked to more delinquency within individuals.

Reference 10 - 0,18% Coverage

Challenging the idea that monitoring can preclude delinquent behavior, this finding implies that adolescents offended more when their parents exercised higher levels of control than during other periods with less control.

Reference 11 - 0,19% Coverage

Unlike delinquency, adolescent disclosure was however decisively associated with higher levels of solicitation both between and within adolescents, which suggests that solicitation could nonetheless have beneficial effects.

Reference 12 - 0,13% Coverage

Unlike parental solicitation and control, adolescents' voluntary disclosure was strongly associated with less delinquency
both between and within adolescents.

Reference 13 - 0,09% Coverage

Interestingly, the association between solicitation and delinquency reversed after controlling for disclosure.

Reference 14 - 0,17% Coverage

The within-individual finding that higher levels of parental control more often co-occurred with higher levels of de-
linquency among low-SES adolescents than among high-SES adolescents was unexpected.

<Files\\Richards et al. (2016)> - § 9 references coded [1,32% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,17% Coverage

Instead, we observed a complex pattern ofthe following two-way and three-way interactions: an interaction between deviant peer affiliation and age2 for total GM volume, and between 5-HTT, DAT1,or DRD4 variants and positive peer affiliation or maternal criticism on total GM and putamen volumes.

Reference 2 - 0,03% Coverage

These findings were independent ofADHD severity.

Reference 3 - 0,21% Coverage

We found different age-effects for total GM and putamen volumes, depending on genotype and/or environmental exposure. In agreement with age-related reductions of total GM volume found in longitudinal studies [39, 40], participants scoring high on positive peer affiliation carrying the DAT1 9-repeat or two HTTLPR long alleles had smaller total GM volumes with age.

Reference 4 - 0,07% Coverage

Moreover, participants with the same genotype, but low positive peer affiliation had larger GM volumes with age.

Reference 5 - 0,32% Coverage

However, we also found positive associations between total GM and age in participants scoring low on deviant peer affiliation, regardless ofgenotype, while participants with high deviant peer affiliation had no association with age. Similarly, for putamen volume, carriers ofthe DRD4 7-repeat or DAT1 10/10 genotypes had larger volumes over age when exposed to high positive peer affiliation or low maternal criticism respectively, but opposite patterns, i.e., smaller volumes over age, when exposed to low positive peer affiliation or high criticism.

Reference 6 - 0,13% Coverage

That is, DAT1 9-repeat carriers showed age-dependent associations between positive peer affiliation and GM volumes, while DAT1 10-repeat homozygotes showed differential associations between maternal criticism and putamen volumes.

Reference 7 - 0,20% Coverage

In contrast to what we expected, both genotypes showed the same direction of association with two opposing environments; participants with high positive peer affiliations or high maternal criticism both had smaller GM volumes with age, while participants with low positive peer affiliations or low criticism showed the opposite pattern.

Reference 8 - 0,14% Coverage

This is illustrated by our finding that, for carriers ofthe same gene variants, low positive peer affiliation or high maternal criticism was related to smaller total GM or putamen volumes in preadolescents, but to larger volumes in young adults.

Reference 9 - 0,05% Coverage

Higher deviant peer
affiliation was associated with slightly smaller caudate volumes.

<Files\\Richards et al. (2019)> - § 3 references coded [0,48% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,25% Coverage

adolescence jointly predict wellbeing and functioning in young adulthood. The results showed that 12–15% of the variance in functioning at age 22 was explained by adolescent family and peer experiences, of which family relations during early and mid-adolescence (ages 11 and 16) were most predictive.

Reference 2 - 0,10% Coverage

Young adolescents reporting less negative family experiences overall demonstrated better adjustment in young adulthood.

Reference 3 - 0,13% Coverage

but that especially adolescent family experiences, such as parental overprotection and family dysfunction, are associated with young adult functioning.

<Files\\Riem et al. (2017)> - § 8 references coded [1,16% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,11% Coverage

We expected that enhanced oxytocin levels after massage are related to decreased handgrip force in response to infant signals,

Reference 2 - 0,13% Coverage

Our finding extends previous studies investigating the effects of massage by showing that massage without human touch may also elevate oxytocin levels.

Reference 3 - 0,13% Coverage

Interestingly, we found that higher oxytocin levels after massage were related to reduced handgrip force during exposure to infant crying and laughter.

Reference 4 - 0,10% Coverage

Individuals with high oxytocin levels after massage exerted less force than individuals with lower oxytocin levels.

Reference 5 - 0,16% Coverage

Unfortunately, massage attenuated oxytocin level decreases over
time only in men with positive childhood experiences, but not in men with experiences of emotional maltreatment.

Reference 6 - 0,21% Coverage

This may indicate that stimulating effects of massage on oxytocin release are hindered in individuals with negative childhood experiences. Moreover, salivary oxytocin levels were lower in individuals with experiences of emotional maltreatment.

Reference 7 - 0,12% Coverage

However, we found that men with experiences of emotional maltreatment showed lower oxytocin levels, which did not increase after massage.

Reference 8 - 0,21% Coverage

These findings indicate that negative childhood experiences are associated with atypical responding to stimulation of endogenous oxytocin release and extends previous research showing a dysregulated oxytocin system after early adversity.

<Files\\Riem, Alink, Out, Van IJzendoorn, & Bakermans-Kranenburg (2015)> - § 11 references coded [1,20% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,11% Coverage

In the current paper, we present an empirical study on the association of childhood maltreatment with hippocampal volume, and we present a meta-analysis to test whether the association be-

Reference 2 - 0,08% Coverage

tween childhood maltreatment and reductions in hippocampal volume is replicable across studies, and is dependent on sensitive age periods.

Reference 3 - 0,07% Coverage

In the current paper, we present two studies addressing the association between hippocampal volume and childhood abuse.

Reference 4 - 0,08% Coverage

In line with previous studies, we expect that experiences of child maltreatment are associated with a reduction in hippocampal volume.

Reference 5 - 0,08% Coverage

In the second study, we present meta-analytic evidence for reduced hippocampal volume in individuals who experienced child maltreatment.

Reference 6 - 0,09% Coverage

We found evidence for a reduction of hippocampal volume in individuals with experiences of childhood maltreatment and in individuals with other traumatic events.

Reference 7 - 0,14% Coverage

It is interesting that the experiences of childhood reported
during the AAI were related to a reduction in left hippocampal volume, whereas exposure to traumatic events as measured with the PDS was related to a reduction in right hippocampal volume.

Reference 8 - 0,04% Coverage

No associations between unresolved trauma and hippocam-
pal volumewere found.

Reference 9 - 0,30% Coverage

In addition, we found that individuals who reported having experienced maltreatment at older ages had larger reductions in hippocampal volume compared to individuals who reported maltreatment in early childhood. In line with the empirical study, our meta-analysis confirmed that experiences of childhood maltreatment are associated with a reduction in hippocampal volume and that the associations with maltreatment are more pronounced when the maltreatment occurred in middle childhood compared to early or late childhood and adolescence.

Reference 10 - 0,11% Coverage

We did not find a significant combined effect size of mal-
treatment experiences on children's hippocampal volume, whereas maltreatment experiences were associated with adults' hippocampal volume.

Reference 11 - 0,10% Coverage

In conclusion, in the current paper, we present empirical
and meta-analytic evidence for the association between childhood maltreatment and reductions in hippocampal volume.

<Files\\Riem, Van IJzendoorn, De Carli, Vingerhoets, & Baermans-Kranenburg (2017) [1]> - § 1 reference coded [0,22% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,22% Coverage

Common activity across both adult and infant tears was found in the visual cortex.

<Files\\Riem, Van IJzendoorn, De Carli, Vingerhoets, & Baermans-Kranenburg (2017) [2]> - § 1 reference coded [0,22% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,22% Coverage

Common activity across both adult and infant tears was found in the visual cortex.

<Files\\Riem, Van IJzendoorn, De Carli, Vingerhoets, & Baermans-Kranenburg (2017a)> - § 11 references coded [1,39% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,16% Coverage

The current study examines the perception of infant and adult tears with functional MRI (fMRI) and aims to gain insight into the function of tears in different stages of development.

Reference 2 - 0,12% Coverage

Here, we examine the perception of and responding to infant and
adult tears in individuals with varying childhood caregiving experiences.

Reference 3 - 0,15% Coverage

The current study examined brain activity during the perception
of photos of infants and adults with tears and the same set of photos with tears digitally removed.

Reference 4 - 0,05% Coverage

We found blunted amygdala reactivity to adult tears in individ

Reference 5 - 0,10% Coverage

We found that individuals with experiences of maternal love withdrawal showed less amygdala reactivity to adult tears.

Reference 6 - 0,19% Coverage

No effects of maternal love withdrawal were found for amygdala reactivity to infant tears, and love withdrawal was more strongly related to amygdala reactivity to adult tears than to amygdala reactivity to infant tears.

Reference 7 - 0,04% Coverage

uals with experiences of maternal love withdrawal.

Reference 8 - 0,10% Coverage

In contrast to these results, we found reduced reactivity in individuals with negative childhood experiences.

Reference 9 - 0,18% Coverage

Surprisingly, individuals with experiences of maternal love withdrawal did not show differential insula reactivity to adult tears but reduced deactivation of the insula during exposure to adults without tears.

Reference 10 - 0,16% Coverage

Individuals who reported love withdrawal did not respond more slowly to adult tears in the approach condition compared with the avoidance condition than individuals without experiences

Reference 11 - 0,12% Coverage

We found that individuals with experiences of maternal love withdrawal show blunted neural responses to adult tears, but not to infant tears.

<Files\\Rijlaarsdam et al. (2016)> - § 8 references coded [1,77% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,15% Coverage

The aim ofthis study was to examine the association between
prenatal exposure to maternal stress and offspring genome-wide cord blood methylation using different methods.

Reference 2 - 0,52% Coverage

Both the study-specific epigenome-wide analyses in two independent population-based cohort studies, Generation R
(n D 912) and ALSPAC (n D 828), and the EWAS meta-analysis in the total sample (ntotal D 1,740), failed to provide evidence of Bonferroni-corrected DNA methylation differences in the cord blood of children exposed to prenatal maternal stress. The correlation test of the CpG probes (nCpGs D 39,308) showing an association at a nominal threshold level in our EWAS meta-
analysis (meta P < 0.05), indicated convergence between the Generation R and ALSPAC samples [r(39,308) D 0.75, P < 0.01].

Reference 3 - 0,29% Coverage

Of note, our sensitivity analysis of extreme groups (10% highest vs. 10% lowest prenatal maternal stress) similarly revealed no Bonferroni-corrected hits, which further supports the results of our meta-analysis but was very underpowered to confirm if there is a threshold effect of prenatal stress exposure on neonatal DNA methylation.

Reference 4 - 0,16% Coverage

Of the CpG probes that did not surpass epigenome-wide
thresholds in our study, the top hit (cg13529437, meta P D 1.00e-06) was located in chromosome 6p21.1, in the
MAD2L1BP gene.

Reference 5 - 0,16% Coverage

Exploratory follow-up analysis of the top CpG probes (meta
P < 1.00e-04) identified by our EWAS meta-analysis indicated an over-representation of the methyltransferase activity pathway.

Reference 6 - 0,08% Coverage

Among our top EWAS meta-analytic results, both DNA and protein-methyltransferases were found.

Reference 7 - 0,23% Coverage

The differentially methylated regions (DMRs) analysis in the
Generation R sample identified three clusters in 20q13.33, 7q33, and 17q25.1 showing marginal associations with prenatal maternal stress. However, we were unable to replicate these clusters in the ALSPAC sample.

Reference 8 - 0,19% Coverage

Combining data from two independent population-based
samples of mothers and neonates in an EWAS meta-analysis, this study identified no single CpG probe with strong associations with prenatal maternal stress exposure.

<Files\\Rijlaarsdam et al. (2017)> - § 4 references coded [0,97% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,40% Coverage

Specifically, the association between OXTR methylation and communication problem scores was stronger for G-allele homozygous children than for A-allele carriers. Prenatal maternal stress exposure was uniquely associated with child autistic traits but was unrelated to OXTR methylation across both OXTR rs53576 G-allele homozygous children and A-allele carriers.

Reference 2 - 0,14% Coverage

Furthermore, in contrast to the study by Cecil et al. [2014], OXTR methylation did not associate with prenatal stress exposure.

Reference 3 - 0,13% Coverage

Of note, the observed interaction reflected shared variance rather than variance due to solely autistic traits or PDP.

Reference 4 - 0,30% Coverage

In conclusion, the current findings support previous research linking prenatal maternal stress exposure and child autistic traits, but additionally point to molecular genetic differences that may be implicated in gene expression as a factor contributing to autistic traits.

<Files\\Rippe et al. (2016)> - § 6 references coded [1,52% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,21% Coverage

Our hypothesis is that lower SES and ethnic minority status are associated with higher hair cortisol levels, even after taking into account potential confounders including hair color, sun hours in the month of hair sampling, and hair treatment.

Reference 2 - 0,17% Coverage

Most importantly, we found that lower SES and belonging to an ethnic minority are each independently associated with higher hair cortisol levels, after co-varying a set of potentially confounding variables.

Reference 3 - 0,16% Coverage

Central tendencies of the distribution of cortisol levels in chil-
dren (as described in Table 2) were similar to those described in adults, both in healthy and clinical subpopulations.

Reference 4 - 0,43% Coverage

Furthermore, both cortisol and cortisone concentrations were found to be higher for males than for females. Other related variables were BMI and hair washing, although the latter was only associated with cortisol and cortisone levels in females. It should be noted that we observed similar associations for cortisol and cortisone, but the strength of the associations with cortisone was somewhat lower for all variables. The number of sun hours in the month of sampling was associated with cortisone only.

Reference 5 - 0,09% Coverage

Cortisol and cortisone levels showed similar associations, albeit
with lower coefficients for cortisone.

Reference 6 - 0,47% Coverage

Based on our results, research involving hair cortisol and hair cortisone concentrations should at least take into account the potentially confounding role of gender, BMI, ethnicity, family income, the number of children in the household, time since last hair washing and hair color (see Questionnaire "CoMCoH", Appendix A). Our study suggests that belonging to low SES and ethnic minority families is associated with higher levels of hair cortisol and cortisone, possibly due to elevated stress that the children from such families generally experience.

<Files\\Sarabdjitsingh et al. (2014b)> - § 2 references coded [0,31% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,12% Coverage

Our data show that plasma corticosterone levels are lower after stress in UE2316 treated animals

Reference 2 - 0,18% Coverage

While 11b~HSD1 is present in the amygdala (Pelletier et al., 2007), GR expression in these cells is considerably lower than in the hippocampus.

<Files\\Sarabdjitsingh, & Joëls (2014)> - § 1 reference coded [0,27% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,27% Coverage

It is important to note that we did not see any changes in baseline fEPSP amplitude after stress, which contrasts with earlier studies (e.g. Karst et al., 2010; Kavushansky & Richter-Levin, 2006; Vouimba, Yaniv, Diamond, & Richter-Levin, 2004).

<Files\\Staats, Valk, Meeus, & Branje (2018)> - § 4 references coded [0,41% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,08% Coverage

Therefore, the aim of this study was to longitudinally investigate associations between conflict management styles used in inter-

Reference 2 - 0,06% Coverage

parental, adolescent–parent, adolescent–friend, and adolescent–partner relationships.

Reference 3 - 0,17% Coverage

Although we found a concurrent relation at Time 1 between inter-parental conflict management and adolescent conflict management with parents and friends for both positive problem solving and withdrawal, no significant correlated changes or effects over time emerged.

Reference 4 - 0,10% Coverage

We only found a concurrent relation at Time 1 and correlated changes between adolescent's use of withdrawal in relationships with parents and friends.

<Files\\Swagerman et al. (2017)> - § 4 references coded [1,26% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,30% Coverage

Here, we aimed to explore the association between parents' and offspring's reading skills further: in a sample of Dutch twins, their siblings and their parents, we estimated resemblance of family members on a commonly used word-reading task.

Reference 2 - 0,46% Coverage

We test if offspring resemble their parents, if there is assortative mating between parents, if there is resemblance among offspring and if this resemblance is larger for monozygotic twin pairs than for dizygotic pairs and non-twin siblings. This is the first general-population study that explores the family resemblance of reading ability in a genetically-sensitive design.

Reference 3 - 0,07% Coverage

Secondly, we aimed to test if assortative mating is present.

Reference 4 - 0,42% Coverage

Reading ability of spouses appeared to be correlated (assortative mating, 0.38), which is in line with findings from Wadsworth et al. (2002: 0.26) and other studies of traits that correlate with reading, like intelligence (Vinkhuyzen, van der Sluis, Maes, & Posthuma, 2012: 0.37), but lower than found by van Bergen et al. (2015: 0.16).

<Files\\Teeuw et al. (2019)> - § 8 references coded [1,16% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,12% Coverage

In the current study, we report on the development of cortical thickness in the BrainSCALE twin cohort for which we measured the twins again at age 17 years, bringing the number of repeated assessment to three.

Reference 2 - 0,09% Coverage

At age 17 years, a new genetic factor comes in to play, separating cortical thickness development in late adolescence from early adolescence and childhood.

Reference 3 - 0,35% Coverage

We report an accelerating decrease in cortical thickness in twins in this longitudinal design with up to 3 measurements (Fig. 3; Supplementary Table S3) that is compatible with cortical development in healthy typically developing singletons (Gogtay et al. 2004; Sowell et al. 2007; Raznahan et al. 2011b; Storsve et al. 2014; Schnack et al. 2015). The patterns in phenotypic correlation across time (Fig. 4a), with strong correlations between homotopic regions and correlation of the same region across development, are comparable to those found by structural covariance analyses (Raznahan et al. 2011a; Alexander-Bloch et al. 2013).

Reference 4 - 0,06% Coverage

this core genetic factor there is evidence for spatial genetic differentiation between the major lobes.

Reference 5 - 0,17% Coverage

In addition, genetic innovation was found in other areas, such as the medial and middle orbital frontal cortices, the fusiform, Heschl's, and parahippocampal gyri and the cuneus between age 9 and 12 years and the calcarine, lingual, superior parietal and supramarginal cortices between age 12 and 17 years.

Reference 6 - 0,10% Coverage

Results from our analysis show a similar strong overlap in genetic factors among neocortical areas while providing evidence for spatial differentiation among the major lobes.

Reference 7 - 0,20% Coverage

A similar conclusion can be made from our results where age 12 years shows increased complete genetic overlap between cortical regions compared with age 9 and 17 years, although this conclusion should be treated with caution as it might be the result of diminished statistical power to detect genetic differentiation due to reduced sample size at age 12 years.

Reference 8 - 0,09% Coverage

Our longitudinal data on cortical thickness development reveals no sex differences in global cortical thickness across childhood and adolescent development (Fig. 3).

<Files\\Thijssen et al. (2015)> - § 20 references coded [3,42% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,15% Coverage

In the present study, we explored the neuroanatomical correlates of normal variation in aggressive behavior in a large population-based sample of 6- to 9year-old children using a multiple-informant approach.

Reference 2 - 0,23% Coverage

The present study assessed the association between the
normal variation in aggressive behavior and cortical thickness, surface area, gyrification, and amygdala and hippocampal volume in a large population-based sample of 6- to 9-year-old children using combined parent-reported and child-reported measures of aggression.

Reference 3 - 0,06% Coverage

We hypothesized that aggression would be related to reduced amygdala and hippocampal volume.

Reference 4 - 0,15% Coverage

Based on prior studies showing gender differences in aggressive behavior as well as cortical development, we also expected genderrelated differences in the association between brain morphology and aggression.

Reference 5 - 0,19% Coverage

As hypothesized, childhood aggression was associated with smaller amygdala volume. Moreover, aggressive behavior was associated with decreased cortical thickness in the left precentral cortex and the right inferior parietal, supramarginal and postcentral cortex.

Reference 6 - 0,13% Coverage

We found a moderating effect of gender on the association between aggressive behavior and cortical thickness in the right frontal cortex as well as in the right medial posterior cortex.

Reference 7 - 0,13% Coverage

While aggressive behavior was not associated with cortical surface area, we found widespread associations between aggressive behavior and decreased right hemisphere gyrification.

Reference 8 - 0,09% Coverage

In the present study, aggressive behavior was associated with a smaller amygdala volume in typically developing children.

Reference 9 - 0,22% Coverage

In our large sample, the association between aggression and amygdala volume was significant, but the effect size is small. Amygdala volume differences related to aggression may be more pronounced in clinical populations, but our findings show that the same association can be found in non-clinical groups.

Reference 10 - 0,10% Coverage

Increased aggression was associated with decreased precentral, as well as inferior parietal, supramarginal, and
postcentral cortical thickness.

Reference 11 - 0,09% Coverage

was related to more aggression in girls, whereas in boys, thinning of the cortex was related to more aggressive behavior.

Reference 12 - 0,07% Coverage

As expected, boys were more aggressive than girls (Alink
et al., 2006; Borsa et al., 2013).

Reference 13 - 0,30% Coverage

We found a moderating effect ofgender on the association between aggressive behavior and cortical thickness in a cluster covering the right precuneus, isthmus of the cingulate cortex, and lingual cortex as well as in a cluster covering the right middle and superior frontal cortex. For the right medial posterior cluster, cortical thickness was positively correlatedwith aggressive behavior in girls, but unrelated in boys.

Reference 14 - 0,17% Coverage

Childhood aggression was associated with decreased
gyrification in a cluster including the right precentral cortex, extending posteriorly to the postcentral, and parietal cortex, and anteriorly to the middle and superior frontal cortex.

Reference 15 - 0,30% Coverage

In part of this cluster, the negative association between gyrification and aggression was found only in boys. Moreover, aggressive behavior was related to decreased gyrification in a cluster including the right lateral occipital and inferior parietal cortex. These regions partly overlap with our cortical thickness findings, and thus suggest a general rather than specific structural relation with aggressive behavior.

Reference 16 - 0,10% Coverage

aggression-related differences in gyrification were found across the entire lateral right hemisphere and thus suggest a more global effect.

Reference 17 - 0,12% Coverage

However, the associations between aggressive behavior and right hemisphere gyrification remained significant after correction for internalizing and attention problems.

Reference 18 - 0,11% Coverage

Although the hippocampus has often been implicated in
aggressive behavior, we did not find an association between aggression and hippocampal volume.

Reference 19 - 0,21% Coverage

Several studies on clinical and non-clinical aggression have
reported reduced right ACC and OFC volume or cortical thickness in association with aggression (Ameis et al., 2014; Boes et al., 2008; Ducharme et al., 2011; Yang & Raine, 2009). Our exploratory analyses did not replicate these findings.

Reference 20 - 0,54% Coverage

While several studies have shown associations between aggression and amygdala volume in clinical samples or in adults, we provide novel evidence that aggression is related to decreased amygdala volume also in young typically developing children. We show that childhood aggressive behavior is associated with decreased sensorimotor cortical thickness and widespread decreased right hemisphere gyrification. Moreover, aggressive behavior was associated with cortical thickness in regions that are part of the DMN, with positive associations in girls and negative associations in boys. While the associations with a priori hypothesized regions were small, larger effects were found that were widespread and suggested a more global association with brain morphology.

<Files\\Thijssen et al. (2017)> - § 9 references coded [1,15% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,17% Coverage

The present cross-sectional magnetic resonance imaging
(MRI) study examined whether the association between age and amygdala–mPFC connectivity in 6- to 10-year-old children is correlated with normal variation in parental care.

Reference 2 - 0,07% Coverage

We hypothesized that children from less sensitive parents show accelerated development of the

Reference 3 - 0,09% Coverage

507
amygdala–mPFC circuit, with amygdala–mPFC coupling already increasing over age in the period from 6 to 10 years.

Reference 4 - 0,09% Coverage

In children from more sensitive parents, amygdala–mPFC coupling would not yet show an increase with age in the current sample.

Reference 5 - 0,20% Coverage

Moreover, as several studies provide evidence that parents may have differential effects on the neurobiology of male and female offspring (Ellis, Schlomer, Tilley, & Butler, 2012; Wu et al., 2014; Yu et al., 2012), we explored Sensitivity~Age~Sex interaction effects.

Reference 6 - 0,14% Coverage

less sensitive parents, age was related to stronger amygdala– mPFC connectivity, while in children from more sensitive parents, age was not associated with amygdala–mPFC connectivity.

Reference 7 - 0,18% Coverage

The results of the exploratory three-way interaction analy-
ses are only partly in accordance with our hypothesis. Consistent with the sex-controlled analyses, daughters of less sensitive parents show an increase in functional connectivity over

Reference 8 - 0,10% Coverage

However, contrary to our hypothesis, daughters from highly sensitive parents show a decrease in functional connectivity over age.

Reference 9 - 0,12% Coverage

Not only extreme caregiving experiences, but also normal variation in caregiving appears to be associated with development of amygdala–mPFC functional connectivity.

<Files\\Treur et al. (2018)> - § 4 references coded [0,91% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,28% Coverage

For smoking heaviness, there was some evidence for G×E such that PRS for smoking heaviness were only associated with smoking heaviness when participants were exposed to smoking during childhood, not when participants were not exposed.

Reference 2 - 0,21% Coverage

When we analyzed PRS for smoking initiation together with a variable reflecting exposure to smoking during childhood, both were significantly associated with smoking initiation.

Reference 3 - 0,15% Coverage

PRS for smoking heaviness as well as exposure to smoking during childhood were associated with heavy versus light smoking.

Reference 4 - 0,27% Coverage

In the present study, we tested
the association between PRS for smoking and exposure to smoking during childhood and found no evidence for an association and thus no evidence for gene–environment correlation (data not shown).

<Files\\Van Bergen et al. (2018)> - § 2 references coded [0,24% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,10% Coverage

In fact, we found that reading ability accounted for 16% of the variance in print exposure.

Reference 2 - 0,14% Coverage

We dissected the association between 7½-year-old children's reading ability and reading frequency and volume (called print exposure).

<Files\\Van Bommel, Van der Giessen, Van der Graaff, Meeus, & Branje (2019)> - § 19 references coded [2,76% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,15% Coverage

Therefore, the main aim of this observational study is to identify adaptive conflict interaction sequences between mothers and adolescents by examining how transitions to negative and positive emotions are made in real-time conflict interactions.

Reference 2 - 0,16% Coverage

Consequently, guided by a social learning perspective, we expect that mothers will be more likely than adolescents to initiate positivity after negativity during conflict interactions, because they are better able to model adaptive transitions in emotions due to more

Reference 3 - 0,14% Coverage

Moreover, we expect adolescents to be more likely than mothers to reciprocate both positive and negative emotions, as social learning perspective suggests that adolescents learn emotion regulation strategies from their mother.

Reference 4 - 0,17% Coverage

In line with expectancy violation realignment theory, we expect that adolescents will be more drawn to expressing negativity in order to negotiate more mature privileges, which results in more negative reciprocity and less initiation of positivity by adolescents compared to mothers.

Reference 5 - 0,28% Coverage

First, we expect that dyads with mothers high in internalizing problems will show less emotionally variable interactions and thus make fewer transitions in emotional states than dyads with mothers low in internalizing problems. Second, we expect that mothers high in internalizing problems will have more difficulties in initiating positivity after negativity and will be more likely to reciprocate negativity than mothers low in emotion regulation problems.

Reference 6 - 0,09% Coverage

The first research question is as follows: "How do mother–adolescent dyads make transitions from negative to positive emotional states, and vice versa?"

Reference 7 - 0,08% Coverage

The second research question is as follows: “Are mothers more inclined to initiate positivity after negativity than adolescents?”

Reference 8 - 0,12% Coverage

Since emotions are more likely transmitted from mothers to adolescents than from adolescents to mothers, we expect adolescents to more strongly reciprocate the emotions of the mother than vice versa.

Reference 9 - 0,09% Coverage

The third and last research question is as follows: “How do transitions differ between dyads with mothers high and low in internalizing problems?”

Reference 10 - 0,23% Coverage

First of all, we expect that dyads with mothers high in internalizing problems make fewer transitions during conflict interactions than mothers low in internalizing problems. Second, we expect that mothers high in internalizing problems are less likely to initiate positivity after negativity and more likely to reciprocate negativity than mothers low in internalizing problems.

Reference 11 - 0,11% Coverage

We found that mothers are more likely than adolescents to initiate positivity after negativity and to reciprocate positivity, whereas adolescents are more likely than mothers

Reference 12 - 0,14% Coverage

In line with social learning theory (Bandura,
1977) and previous studies (e.g., Fletcher et al., 1996; Granic & Lamey, 2002), our study indicated that mothers model adaptive regulation strategies by initiating positivity.

Reference 13 - 0,10% Coverage

Because adolescents are more likely to reciprocate negative emotions than mothers, conflicts are more likely to get stuck in negativity if adolescents have to

Reference 14 - 0,13% Coverage

Despite the differences we found between moth-
ers and adolescents in responding with negative or positive emotions after negativity, most transitions in emotional states happen within persons themselves.

Reference 15 - 0,22% Coverage

While we found that adolescents are more likely than mothers to reciprocate negativity and that mothers are more likely than adolescents to reciprocate positivity, the actual effect sizes of firstorder reciprocation responses were much smaller than expected based on earlier research (Fletcher et al., 1996) that only examined transitions between persons.

Reference 16 - 0,08% Coverage

Although many of the study's hypotheses
received support, we did not find that mothers high in internalizing problems have more

Reference 17 - 0,20% Coverage

Also, we could not conclude that mothers high in internalizing problems differed in their reciprocation of negativity from mothers low in internalizing problems, although more detailed inspection of effects indicates a possible existence of a trend of more negative reciprocity by mothers high in internalizing problems.

Reference 18 - 0,10% Coverage

Adolescents with mothers low in internalizing problems were more likely to reciprocate negativity than adolescents with mothers high in internalizing problems,

Reference 19 - 0,17% Coverage

Although we did not find that mothers high in internalizing problems showed less adaptive interaction processes than mothers low in internalizing problems, we found a possible trend of maternal internalizing problems influencing the reciprocation of negativity by mothers.

<Files\\Van den Boomen, Jonkman, Jaspers-Vlamings, Cousijn, & Kemner (2015)> - § 12 references coded [2,87% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,16% Coverage

In the current study we investigated the developmental trajectory of selective processing ofHSF and LSF in the brain.

Reference 2 - 0,39% Coverage

In the current study, we investigated developmental changes in the temporal EEG signal characteristics of selective processing ofHSF versus LSF in children aged 3 to 10 years, and compared their brain activity to children in which these processes have matured (14 to 15 yearolds) [7,10].

Reference 3 - 0,21% Coverage

For these peaks, we investigated whether peak latency and peak amplitude differed between HSF versus LSF, and whether these differences changed with age.

Reference 4 - 0,13% Coverage

We expected that processing ofHSF develops until age 6, and that ofLSF until 10 years of age.

Reference 5 - 0,32% Coverage

Prominent developmental changes were observed in the early N80 and late N2 peaks (Fig. 2 and 4). More specifically, the difference in N2 peak amplitude for HSF versus LSF was larger in children aged 3 to 8 years compared to older ones.

Reference 6 - 0,36% Coverage

This was due to a decrease in N2 peak amplitude evoked by LSF between 5–6 and 7–8 years of age, followed by a decrease in N2 peak amplitude evoked by HSF between 7–8 and 9–10 years of age. On the contrary, the difference in the early N80 peak amplitude evoked by

Reference 7 - 0,22% Coverage

HSF versus LSF was smaller in children aged 3 to 6 years than older children. This was due to an increasing N80 peak amplitude evoked by HSF until 7–8 years of age.

Reference 8 - 0,10% Coverage

After that age, the N80 peak was only evoked for HSF, not LSF gratings.

Reference 9 - 0,18% Coverage

Thus, the current results show that with age, selective processing of HSF versus LSF occurred earlier in time in the EEG signal.

Reference 10 - 0,19% Coverage

Contrary to our expectations, early processing ofHSF becomes evident in the ERPs only at the school-age, and shows a prolonged development.

Reference 11 - 0,35% Coverage

Our ERP results, combined with previous behavioural results, therefore suggest that even though 3–6 year-old children can already perceive HSF, they show delayed selective processing ofHSF versus LSF in the occipital cortex compared to children over 7 years.

Reference 12 - 0,25% Coverage

In conclusion, the current study reveals that selective processing ofHSF (detailed information) versus LSF (global information) occurs at a rather late time-point (during the N2 instead

<Files\\Van der Meulen et al. (2017a)> - § 6 references coded [1,17% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,22% Coverage

The first study (fMRI study) tested systematic variations in neural activity (ACC and insula) following (perceived) body sizes ofthe portrayed media models (i.e., being too thin or normal) and subsequent peer feedback (i.e., too thin or normal).

Reference 2 - 0,17% Coverage

The ratings of the media models' body sizes as normal or too thin generally converged with our pretest results, indicating that the selection ofmedia models was successful in our study samples.

Reference 3 - 0,21% Coverage

Interestingly, regardless of their own ratings of media models' body sizes (i.e., rating the model as too thin or normal), it took participants longer to rate the precategorized too thin models compared to the precategorized normal models.

Reference 4 - 0,20% Coverage

The results showed increased activity in the dmPFC/ACC and insula in incongruent situations: that is, when the participant rated the model as normal while the peer feedback indicated the model as too thin, or vice versa.

Reference 5 - 0,20% Coverage

The finding of stronger ACC activation for incongruent
feedback to a normal rating also fit with the results of Experiment 2, which showed that participants actually changed their behavior in the direction of the feedback.

Reference 6 - 0,17% Coverage

In line with the neural results from Experiment 1, the change in behavior was only found for models that were precategorized as normal (and after the feedback rated more often as too thin).

<Files\\Van der Meulen et al. (2017b)> - § 13 references coded [2,47% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,13% Coverage

The aim of the current study was to investigate the behavioral and
neural correlates of reactions to observed social exclusion in middle childhood.

Reference 2 - 0,17% Coverage

We used the Prosocial Cyberball Game (Riem et al., 2013) to study possible reactions to observed social exclusion, namely experience of possible self-exclusion and prosocial compensating behavior.

Reference 3 - 0,40% Coverage

The behavior was robust across three samples. Furthermore, in a meta-analysis across the three samples there was increased activity in striatum and dACC when participants experienced inclusion themselves, and increased activity in orbitofrontal cortex when participants experienced exclusion, consistent with prior studies showing that these are important areas for the feelings of inclusion and exclusion in traditional Cyberball games (Lieberman and Eisenberger, 2009).

Reference 4 - 0,15% Coverage

However, contrary to our expectations, there were no neural regions that distinguished between compensating an excluded player and tossing the ball to the non-excluded players.

Reference 5 - 0,23% Coverage

The pattern of increased activity in social-affective brain regions as previously found in adults (van der Meulen et al., 2016) could not be confirmed in 7–10-year-old children, even when we used specific regions of interest in the social brain network or in a meta-analysis.

Reference 6 - 0,20% Coverage

That is to say, experienced self-inclusion (receiving the ball from the two excluding players) was associated with increased activity in the striatum and the dACC in each of the three samples, and this was confirmed in a meta-analysis.

Reference 7 - 0,14% Coverage

The reversed contrast, experienced self-exclusion (not receiving the
ball from the two excluding players) was associated with activation in the orbitofrontal cortex.

Reference 8 - 0,10% Coverage

Taken together, across three samples and confirmed by a meta-analysis, we observed consistent neural activation

Reference 9 - 0,15% Coverage

patterns for experienced self-inclusion and self-exclusion in 7–10-yearold children, validating this as a paradigm to investigate responses to a situation of social exclusion.

Reference 10 - 0,18% Coverage

We found no evidence in the current study for neural regions that
correlate with prosocial compensating behavior, that is to say, ball tossing to the excluded player versus ball tossing to the other players.

Reference 11 - 0,17% Coverage

In conclusion, the current study confirmed the hypothesis that
children ages 7–10-years show prosocial compensating behavior in a relatively new paradigm in children: the Prosocial Cyberball Game.

Reference 12 - 0,21% Coverage

Interestingly, we found no strong evidence for specific neural activity related to prosocial compensating behavior towards the excluded player, but robust evidence was found for neural contributions to feelings of self-inclusion and –exclusion.

Reference 13 - 0,25% Coverage

The relation between prosocial

compensating behavior and neural activity during self-inclusion and –exclusion is not yet clear, but possibly these findings highlight the switch from self to other motivations to engage in prosocial compensating behavior in late childhood and emerging adolescence.

<Files\\Van der Meulen Steinbeis, Achterberg, Van IJzendoorn, & Crone (2018)> - § 8 references coded [1,25% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,11% Coverage

This study therefore had two goals: I) To test the main contrasts and
the brain-behavior relations of possible social exclusion, inclusion, and prosocial compensating.

Reference 2 - 0,11% Coverage

First, we expected that experiencing selfexclusion would be associated with activation in IFG and sgACC (Cacioppo et al., 2013; Vijayakumar et al., 2017), as well as mPFC

Reference 3 - 0,08% Coverage

Second, we expected that children would show prosocial behavior in situations of observed exclusion (Masten et al., 2011).

Reference 4 - 0,30% Coverage

We found that children show prosocial compensating behavior after observing social exclusion by others, which fits well with prior studies in children and adults (Tousignant et al., 2017; van der Meulen et al., 2017, 2016; Vrijhof et al., 2016). Behavioral correlation analyses further showed that participants who demonstrated more prosocial compensating behavior, afterwards liked the excluded player more, and were also more inclined to donate a sticker to the excluded player.

Reference 5 - 0,09% Coverage

First, experience of possible self-exclusion was associated with activity in an affective salience network including IFG, amygdala, and sgACC.

Reference 6 - 0,14% Coverage

Whereas earlier studies in adults showed that more prosocial behavior was related to increased activity in mPFC, we found that in children prosocial compensating was associated with increased activity in PCC/precuneus.

Reference 7 - 0,16% Coverage

We also found a negative association between prosocial behavior and activity in the bilateral insula, consistent with other studies towards insula activation during prosocial behavior in adolescence (Güroğlu et al., 2014; Schreuders et al., 2018).

Reference 8 - 0,28% Coverage

Further, although we note that certain conclusions are based on reverse inference, our findings suggest that children experience possible social self-exclusion as a negative event (as indicated by

activity in IFG, smPFC and amygdala), inclusion as a positive and salient event (as indicated by striatum and ACC-insula activity) and that prosocial compensating behavior is partly driven by mentalizing capacities (as indicated by activity in PCC).

<Files\\Van Doeselaar, Meeus, Koot, & Branje (2016)> - § 15 references coded [4,06% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,23% Coverage

The present longitudinal study examined whether adolescents' educational identity is associated over time with their perception of the level of balanced relatedness provided by their best friend and with their best friend's educational identity.

Reference 2 - 0,16% Coverage

Our study examined whether the level ofperceived balanced relatedness provided by best friends is reciprocally positively related over time to adolescents' educational identity.

Reference 3 - 0,13% Coverage

Therefore, we examined whether adolescents' and their best friends' educational identities are positively associated with each other over time.

Reference 4 - 0,37% Coverage

In the present study, we examined whether adolescents' perceptions of the balanced relatedness provided by their best
friends were reciprocally positively associated with adolescents' educational identity over time. Moreover, we examined whether adolescents' and best friends' educational commitment, in-depth exploration, and reconsideration were positively associated with each other over time.

Reference 5 - 0,21% Coverage

Our findings provide support for over-time associations between adolescents' educational identity and perceived balanced relatedness, but these associations took on a different form for each ofthe three identity dimensions.

Reference 6 - 0,13% Coverage

That is, the perception of best friends' balanced relatedness was negatively related to adolescents' educational reconsideration one year later.

Reference 7 - 0,29% Coverage

adolescents' educational in-depth exploration and, in an inconsistent pattern, educational commitment were positively associated with perceived balanced relatedness of friends one year later. Our findings provide no support for positive overtime associations between adolescents' and best friends' educational identity.

Reference 8 - 0,39% Coverage

The most consistent finding ofthis studywas that a higher level ofperceived balanced relatedness provided by best friends
was related to lower educational reconsideration. These associations were small, but consistent over time, as evident in the T1 correlation, correlated changes, and relations over time ofhigher balanced relatedness with a relative decrease in adolescents' educational reconsideration one year later.

Reference 9 - 0,37% Coverage

Our findings did not show associations of perceived balanced relatedness with adolescents' educational commitment and in-depth exploration one year later. Thus, adolescents' perception of their best friends' balanced relatedness does not relate to the adaptive processes ofeducational identity formation over time, but might play a role in decreasing adolescents' problematic educational reconsideration.

Reference 10 - 0,53% Coverage

The adaptive processes of educational identity formation were also associated with adolescents' perceptions of their best
friends' balanced relatedness over time. Specifically, a higher level of educational in-depth exploration was related to a relative increase in adolescents' perceived balanced relatedness one year later. In addition, at several time points, a stronger educational commitment was associated with a relative increase in perceived balanced relatedness. No associations of reconsideration with perceived balanced relatedness one year later were found.

Reference 11 - 0,23% Coverage

Although we found significant associations ofeducational commitment and in-depth exploration with perceived balanced
relatedness one year later, these associations varied with the age of adolescents and the stability of adolescent friendships.

Reference 12 - 0,18% Coverage

The over-time association of adolescents' educational commitment with perceived balanced relatedness was significant only when adolescents were somewhat older, that is, about 16e18 years old.

Reference 13 - 0,33% Coverage

Unexpectedly, adolescents' educational in-depth exploration and reconsideration were not related over time to their best
friends' level on these respective dimensions. However, adolescents' stronger educational commitment was associated with a small relative decrease in their best friends' educational commitment one year later within stable friendships.

Reference 14 - 0,33% Coverage

The findings of this study did not support the hypothesis that adolescent best friends' educational identity dimensions are

positively associated and become more similar over time. However, this study shows that adolescents' educational identity dimensions are associated over time with adolescents' perceptions of their best friends' balanced relatedness.

Reference 15 - 0,18% Coverage

Most of the over-time associations were small. However, the associations from in-depth exploration to balanced relatedness, and from balanced relatedness to reconsideration were consistent over time.

<Files\\Van Wijk et al. (2019)> - § 5 references coded [0,98% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,19% Coverage

In the current study, we examined the associations among Fear, EC, and resting FA and explored whether temperamental features and FA are influenced by distinct or overlapping genetic and environmental factors in early childhood.

Reference 2 - 0,13% Coverage

Cross-trait, within-twin correlations were not significant in any model, precluding overlapping genetic or environmental factors on Fear and EC or on Fear and FA.

Reference 3 - 0,23% Coverage

With regard to the association between Fear and EC or between Fear and FA, our results showed only few significant cross-trait correlations. Moreover, the bivariate models did not find any significant cross-trait, within-twin correlations, suggesting that the traits were not associated.

Reference 4 - 0,22% Coverage

This is not in line with our hypotheses and previous studies reporting associations between these traits in young children (Cole et al., 2016; Fox et al., 2001; Hill-Soderlund & Braungart-Rieker, 2008; Howarth et al., 2016; Kiff et al., 2011; Rothbart, 2011; Schmidt, 2008).

Reference 5 - 0,20% Coverage

In addition, partial correlations between Fear and FA while controlling for EC were only slightly different from the correlations between Fear and FA without controlling for EC, suggesting that EC did not affect the relation between Fear and FA.

<Files\\Viuff et al. (2018)> - § 9 references coded [2,23% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,22% Coverage

The aim of this study was to test the hypothesis that prenatal maternal depression would be associated with epigenome-wide differences in methylation in the cord blood of newborns in a large birth cohort study.

Reference 2 - 0,11% Coverage

Maternal depression (occurring at any time point dur-
ing pregnancy) was associated with offspring cord blood

Reference 3 - 0,05% Coverage

These findings were not replicated in our study.

Reference 4 - 0,15% Coverage

Depression in mid-pregnancy, late pregnancy, and at
both time points (throughout pregnancy) was associated with 7, 23, and 2 DMRs, respectively.

Reference 5 - 0,50% Coverage

Depression in midpregnancy was the only exposure definition associated with any individual CpG sites with genome-wide significance. However, findings for the two identified CpGs (cg08667740 and cg22868225) did not replicate in Generation R. Although we found that 72% CpG sites within DMRs identified in ALSPAC showed the same direction of association between antenatal maternal depression and offspring DNA methylation in Generation R, none of our findings replicated with statistical significance.

Reference 6 - 0,46% Coverage

Although none of the ALSPAC DMRs replicated in the Generation R study with statistical significance, the direction of association was the same at some regions that have previously been associated with neurodevelopmental and psychiatric outcomes. Out of the 49 CpG sites that had the same direction of association in both ALSPAC and the Generation R study 35 were hypomethylated in both cohorts and located in the promoter region of the HOXA5 gene.

Reference 7 - 0,15% Coverage

Another seven CpG sites that were all hypermethylated
in both ALSPAC and the Generation R study mapped to the promoter region of the LYNX1 gene.

Reference 8 - 0,33% Coverage

In the cord blood of the children exposed to depression
at any time point in pregnancy we found a DMR spanning more than 20 CpG sites mapping to the promotor region of the NNATgene which is an imprinted gene that may be involved in brain development and in forming and maintaining the structure of the nervous system45.

Reference 9 - 0,26% Coverage

We identified some single and regional DNA methyla-
tion differences in umbilical cord blood of newborns exposed to maternal depression during pregnancy, compared to newborns that were unexposed but these results did not replicate in an independent cohort.

<Files\\Voorthuis, Bakermans-Kranenburg, & Van IJzendoorn (2019)> - § 3 references coded [0,70% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,16% Coverage

Compared to participants without OC use, participants with OC use had significantly lower levels of T at all time points, whereas no such difference was found for basal CORT.

Reference 2 - 0,25% Coverage

Our results show that not only the levels of T differ between women with and without OC use; the interaction between T and CORT is also significantly different. Thus, when examining T in women, OC use should always be taken into account as a potential moderator.

Reference 3 - 0,29% Coverage

In sum, T was significantly higher in women without OC use compared to women with OC use. In women without OC use, participants with higher basal CORT showed higher initial T levels and a larger decrease of T compared to individuals with lower basal CORT whereas no effect of CORT was found in women with OC use.

<Files\\Werner, Graaff, Meeus, & Branje (2016)> - § 15 references coded [2,60% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,14% Coverage

The aim of this study is to examine relations between maternal empathy, maternal psychological control and boys' and girls' depressive symptoms over the course of adolescence.

Reference 2 - 0,13% Coverage

Therefore, this study will explore bothmothers' empathic concern and perspective taking tendencies separately in relation to mothers' psychological control.

Reference 3 - 0,15% Coverage

Therefore, in this study, gender differences were explored in the relations between adolescent depressive symptoms, maternal psychological control and maternal empathy across adolescence.

Reference 4 - 0,37% Coverage

Given the expected link between adolescents' depressive symptoms and maternal psychological control, and between maternal psychological control and maternal empathy, the aim of this study was to examine across adolescence if adolescents' depressive symptoms both predict, and are predicted by mothers' psychological control, and whether mothers' psychological control is in turn predicted by mothers' empathic concern and perspective taking tendencies.

Reference 5 - 0,36% Coverage

This was done by examining (1) the indirect relation over time between maternal empathic concern and perspective taking, and adolescents' depressive symptoms, via maternal psychological control, through examination of(2) the relation between maternal psychological control and adolescents' depressive symptoms over time, and (3) the relation between maternal empathic concern and perspective taking and maternal psychological control over time.

Reference 6 - 0,14% Coverage

Finally, (5) gender differences were explored in the relations between maternal empathy, maternal psychological control and adolescents' depressive symptoms over time.

Reference 7 - 0,18% Coverage

It was expected that throughout adolescence, maternal empathic concern and perspective taking expresses itself in mothers' use of psychological control, and is thus indirectly related to adolescents' depressive symptoms.

Reference 8 - 0,21% Coverage

Additionally, no direct link between maternal empathic concern and perspective taking and adolescents' depressive symptoms was expected, as it was hypothesized that empathy is only important for adolescents' outcomes when expressed in concrete parenting

Reference 9 - 0,04% Coverage

behaviors, such as psychological control.

Reference 10 - 0,07% Coverage

Finally, given contradicting theoretical options, gender differenced were explored.

Reference 11 - 0,03% Coverage

For boys, this relation was found

Reference 12 - 0,03% Coverage

consistently from age 13 to 18.

Reference 13 - 0,18% Coverage

Yet, girls' depressive symptoms were predicted by maternal psychological control only until age 17, while girls remained to experience higher levels of depressive symptoms and psychological control than boys at this age.

Reference 14 - 0,26% Coverage

This negative association was found throughout adolescence for girls for both empathic concern and perspective taking. For boys, it was consistently found between age 15 and 18, but remarkably, this relation was positive between age 13 and 14 for empathic concern, and between age 14 and 15 for perspective taking.

Reference 15 - 0,31% Coverage

The absence ofa direct association between mothers' empathic concern and perspective taking, and adolescents' depressive symptoms, suggests that mothers' empathic tendencies are only important for predicting adolescents' depressive symptoms when they are expressed in concrete parenting behaviors such as psychological control, which in turn predict adolescents' depressive symptoms.

<Files\\Wildeboer et al. (2015) [1]> - § 10 references coded [1,87% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,13% Coverage

The current study investigates early childhood levels and patterns of parent-reported aggression and tests whether these are associated with aggression and related problem behaviours reported by the teacher.

Reference 2 - 0,22% Coverage

In the current study, we examined how levels and patterns of parent-reported aggression (which comprises physical and non-physical aggressive behaviours, such as defiant behaviour) in early childhood are related to aggression problems as reported by the teacher, testing whether this specific behaviour is pervasive across settings and time at a young age.

Reference 3 - 0,09% Coverage

we also investigated how levels and patterns of parent-reported aggression are related to teacher-reported attention problems and rulebreaking behaviour.

Reference 4 - 0,21% Coverage

Since it has been argued that the differentiation between physical and other forms of aggressive behaviour is important (Tremblay, et al., 1999), we not only examined aggression in general, but also explored whether parent-reported physical and non-physical aggression is related to teacher-reports of these subtypes of aggression.

Reference 5 - 0,20% Coverage

we found three trajectories of total aggression in our sample of 4,781 children. Analyses on the smaller sample with teacher-reporteddata (n¼2,756) showedthat trajectories of parent-reported total aggression were related to teacher-reported total aggressive behaviour, attention problems, and rule-breaking behaviour.

Reference 6 - 0,10% Coverage

Similar trajectories were found for physical and non-physical aggression and their relations to teacher-reported physical and non-physical aggression were comparable.

Reference 7 - 0,32% Coverage

The convergence among trajectories of different types of
aggression might indicate that aggression is a relatively homogeneous developmental phenomenon in early childhood. Whereas different types of aggression are present at a young age and have been suggested to show different patterns across childhood (e.g. Coˆte´, Vaillancourt, et al., 2007), we did

not find evidence for such differences. Differentiation in developmental trajectories of physical and non-physical aggression might occur at a later age.

Reference 8 - 0,28% Coverage

The current study showed that the high increasing trajectory was
associated with more teacher-reported problem behaviour, with substantial effect sizes for the mean differences with the intermediate and low decreasing class. Moreover, this high increasing total aggression trajectory contained in general a larger percentage of children scoring in the borderline and clinical range of teacherreported problems as compared to the other classes.

Reference 9 - 0,09% Coverage

The overall effect sizes for the associations between parent-
reported aggression and teacher-reported problems in our study were small.

Reference 10 - 0,24% Coverage

Parent-reported physical and non-physical aggression showed similar developmental trajectories as total aggression, with high increasing, intermediate and low decreasing trajectories. Further, effect sizes for the association of total, physical and non-physical trajectory class membership with respectively teacher-reported total, physical, and nonphysical aggression were comparable.

<Files\\Wildeboer et al. (2015) [2]> - § 11 references coded [1,98% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,13% Coverage

The current study investigates early childhood levels and patterns of parent-reported aggression and tests whether these are associated with aggression and related problem behaviours reported by the teacher.

Reference 2 - 0,22% Coverage

In the current study, we examined how levels and patterns of parent-reported aggression (which comprises physical and non-physical aggressive behaviours, such as defiant behaviour) in early childhood are related to aggression problems as reported by the teacher, testing whether this specific behaviour is pervasive across settings and time at a young age.

Reference 3 - 0,09% Coverage

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Reference 5 - 0,11% Coverage

We hypothesized that children in trajectories with high and stable or increasing levels ofaggression will, on average, show higher levels of teacher-reported problem behaviour.

Reference 6 - 0,20% Coverage

we found three trajectories of total aggression in our sample of 4,781 children. Analyses on the smaller sample with teacher-reporteddata (n¼2,756) showedthat trajectories of parent-reported total aggression were related to teacher-reported total aggressive behaviour, attention problems, and rule-breaking behaviour.

Reference 7 - 0,10% Coverage

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<Files\\Wildeboer et al. (2018)> - § 9 references coded [1,50% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,16% Coverage

Therefore, the current study focuses on structural (cortical thickness) and functional (fMRI resting state) neurobiological correlates of a specific, costly type of observed prosocial behavior: donating to a charity.

Reference 2 - 0,20% Coverage

Furthermore, we utilized resting state fMRI to examine whether functional connectivity with clusters identified using structural MRI was associated with donating behavior and whether the structural clusters share a functional organization related to donating behavior.

Reference 3 - 0,18% Coverage

Such analysis might shed light on a network of brain areas involved in donating behavior and might also provide more insight into whether brain areas identified in the structural analyses work in cooperation when it involves donating behavior.

Reference 4 - 0,16% Coverage

A thicker cortex in a cluster covering regions of the right lateral orbitofrontal cortex and pars orbitalis and in a cluster comprising parts of the right pre- and postcentral cortex was related to higher donations.

Reference 5 - 0,17% Coverage

While several studies examined the association between brain function and donating, we are the first to show that variance in children's donating behavior is associated to a measure of brain morphology, namely cortical thickness.

Reference 6 - 0,22% Coverage

While we did not find a mean level difference in
donating behavior between the antisocial and the prosocial or control group, from which we selected children, the areas for which a thicker cortex was associated with higher donations have also found to be implicated in aggressive behavior.

Reference 7 - 0,07% Coverage

We found cortical thickness clusters in the right hemi-
sphere related to donating behavior.

Reference 8 - 0,14% Coverage

Furthermore, whether the associations between donating and cortical thickness that were found in the present study also apply to adolescent or adult populations is as yet unknown.

Reference 9 - 0,18% Coverage

In sum, we identified two clusters, covering parts of the lOFC/pars orbitalis and the pre-/postcentral cortex, in which a thicker cortex was related to children's willingness to share or even give up their well-deserved monetary resources.

<Files\\Willems et al. (2018)> - § 5 references coded [1,01% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,29% Coverage

Next, we examined associations between the ASCS and several relevant outcomes including well-being, educational achievement (i.e., school results in math, language, education level in high-school and classroom compliance, evaluated individually), and substance use (i.e., alcohol use, drunk prevalence, smoking, evaluated individually).

Reference 2 - 0,07% Coverage

We also tested sex differences applying scalar and non-scalar sex limitaton models.

Reference 3 - 0,35% Coverage

In addition, we found high cross-sectional and longitudinal correlations between the ASCS and outcomes that were derived from the existing literature as being related to self-control (de Ridder et al. 2012; Moffitt et al. 2011), including wellbeing, educational achievement, and substance use. We also found that mother-, father-, self-, and teacher-reports were significantly correlated over time.

Reference 4 - 0,10% Coverage

Adding to the psychometric soundness of the ASCS, we found heritability estimates paralleling earlier twin studies

Reference 5 - 0,20% Coverage

on self-control. A remarkable finding was that at age 12, genetic influences based on parent-reports accounted for 74–75% of the variance, while genetic influences based on self-reports accounted for only 47% of the variance.

<Files\\Windhorst et al. (2017)> - § 3 references coded [0,25% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,10% Coverage

Our results of low cortisol levels in case of harsh parenting are thus consistent with meta-analytically established correlates of low cortisol levels.

Reference 2 - 0,07% Coverage

In the absence of harsh parenting, children with mild perinatal adversity showed the highest hair cortisol levels.

Reference 3 - 0,09% Coverage

Maternal harshparentingwasassociated with lower hair cortisol levels6years after birthinchildrenwithahistoryofmildperinatal adversity.

<Files\\Yu et al. (2016) [1]> - § 2 references coded [0,22% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,07% Coverage

The only exception was that CARAUCg was positively linked to the intercept of adolescent selfreported aggression.

Reference 2 - 0,15% Coverage

For adolescents with low CARAUCg, there was no significant association between neighbourhood density and delinquent behaviours, whereas for those with high CARAUCg, there were positive associations between neighbourhood density and delinquency.

<Files\\Yu et al. (2016) [2]> - § 3 references coded [0,37% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,15% Coverage

We expected that adolescents with high CARAUCg, compared to those with low CARAUCg, would score higher in externalizing problem behaviours in a high-density neighbourhood but score lower in externalizing problem behaviour in a low-density neighbourhood.

Reference 2 - 0,07% Coverage

The only exception was that CARAUCg was positively linked to the intercept of adolescent selfreported aggression.

Reference 3 - 0,15% Coverage

For adolescents with low CARAUCg, there was no significant association between neighbourhood density and delinquent behaviours, whereas for those with high CARAUCg, there were positive associations between neighbourhood density and delinquency.

<Files\\Yu et al. (2017)> - § 7 references coded [1,41% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,28% Coverage

effectiveness of treatment in this developmental period.15 Therefore, we have analysed data from three longitudinal
studies to investigate links between depression and violence using both community and clinical samples of adolescents and young adults.

Reference 2 - 0,17% Coverage

We also found that the odds of violent outcomes were typically higher in girls (aORs ranged from 2.2 to 7.1) than in boys (aORs ranged from 1.6 to 2.7).

Reference 3 - 0,19% Coverage

This is a clear improvement, and we report similar findings despite geography, differences in measurements of exposures and outcomes, and increased violence risk by severity.

Reference 4 - 0,26% Coverage

Although the associations between depression and violence reported here were slightly weaker than previous longitudinal studies in adults,2,4 this may be a consequence of higher base rates of mild depression reported in younger persons.

Reference 5 - 0,16% Coverage

Across all three cohorts, there was a trend that the odds
of violent behaviors were higher for girls than for boys, although CIs overlapped.

Reference 6 - 0,20% Coverage

The finding that depression in adolescents and young
adults is associated with long-term violent outcomes has some potentially important implications for intervention and prevention.

Reference 7 - 0,14% Coverage

This study has identified longitudinal associations
between depression and later violent behaviors in three longitudinal cohorts.

<Files\\Zondervan-Zwijnenburg et al. (2019) [1]> - § 2 references coded [0,26% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,19% Coverage

We found evidence for a negative linear relation
between parental age and externalizing problems as reported by parents. That is, older parents have children with less externalizing behavior problems. There was also evidence for a negative linear relation between maternal age and externalizing problems as reported by teachers.

Reference 2 - 0,07% Coverage

Older mothers from more recent birth cohorts are more socioeconomically advantaged, and happier after childbearing.

<Files\\Zondervan-Zwijnenburg et al. (2019) [2]> - § 3 references coded [0,33% Coverage]

Reference 1 - 0,19% Coverage

We found evidence for a negative linear relation
between parental age and externalizing problems as reported by parents. That is, older parents have children with less externalizing behavior problems. There was also evidence for a negative linear relation between maternal age and externalizing problems as reported by teachers.

Reference 2 - 0,07% Coverage

Tentatively, older parenthood might be associated with both high and low vulnerability to develop internalizing problems.

Reference 3 - 0,07% Coverage

Older mothers from more recent birth cohorts are more socioeconomically advantaged, and happier after childbearing.