

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTING STYLE, GENDER AND
ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT WITH OPTIMISM AMONG
ADOLESCENTS

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ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTING STYLE, GENDER AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT WITH OPTIMISM AMONG ADOLESCENTS

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The present study aimed to investigate optimism level of adolescents' aged between 14-18 and its relation with parenting style, gender, and academic achievement. The sample consisted of 1366 students (708 male, 645 female, and 13 missing cases) who volunteered to participate in the study from Ümitköy Anatolian High School, Türk Telekom Anatolian Technical High School and 75. Yıl High School in Ankara. Life Orientation Test (Scheier & Carver, 1985) and Parental Attitude Scale (PAS; Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, Dornbusch, 1991) were used as the data collection instruments.

The results of one way and two way ANOVA indicated that the main effect of parenting style and academic achievement on optimism level of adolescents was found significant. The results yielded that the main effect for gender, the gender and parenting style interaction effect and the academic achievement and parenting style interaction effect was not significant. Optimism levels of high achiever adolescents were found higher than low achiever adolescents'. The results revealed significant differences in optimism scores of the adolescents as

a function of four parenting styles. In other words, the results of this study showed that the adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritative had a relatively higher level of optimism than those who perceived their parents as authoritarian and neglectful. Results also indicated that the adolescents who characterize their parents as permissive had a relatively higher level of optimism than those who characterize their parents as neglectful and authoritarian.

Keywords: Optimism, Academic Achievement, Gender, Parenting Style, Adolescents.

ÖZ

ERGENLERDE ANNE BABA TUTUMLARI, CİNSİYET VE AKADEMİK BAŞARININ İYİMSERLİK İLE İLİŞKİSİ

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Bu çalışmanın amacı 14-18 yaş arasındaki ergenlerin iyimserlik düzeyleri ile algıladıkları anne baba tutumları, cinsiyet ve akademik başarı arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektir. Araştırmanın örneklemini, Ankara ilinde Ümitköy Anadolu Lisesi, Türk Telekom Anadolu Teknik Lisesi ve 75. Yıl Lisesi okullarında okumakta olan 1366 öğrenci (708 erkek, 645 kız ve 13 kişi cinsiyetini belirtmemiş) oluşturmaktadır. Veri toplama aracı olarak İyimserlik Ölçeği (Scheier & Carver, 1985) ve Anne-Baba Tutum Ölçeği (Lamborn et al., 1991) kullanılmıştır.

Öğrencilerin iyimserlik puanlarına yapılan tek yönlü ve çift yönlü varyans analizi sonuçları anne-baba tutumları ve akademik başarı temel etkilerinin istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olduğunu göstermektedir. Cinsiyet temel etkisi, cinsiyet - anne baba tutumu ortak etkisi ve akademik başarı - anne baba tutumu ortak etkisi anlamlı bulunmamıştır. Akademik başarıları yüksek olarak nitelenen öğrencilerin iyimserlik düzeyleri, akademik başarıları düşük olarak nitelenen öğrencilerden daha yüksek olarak bulunmuştur. Araştırmada,

öğrencilerin iyimserlik puanlarının algıladıkları anne baba tutumlarına göre anlamlı olarak farklılaştığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Başka bir ifade ile bu çalışma sonucunda, ailelerini “demokratik” olarak algılayan gençlerin iyimserlik düzeyleri, ailelerini “ilgisiz” ve “otoriter” olarak algılayan gençlerin iyimserlik düzeylerinden daha yüksek çıkmıştır. Sonuçlar anne-babalarını “müsamahakar” olarak algılayan öğrencilerin de iyimserlik düzeylerinin anne babalarını “ilgisiz” ve “otoriter” olarak algılayan öğrencilerden daha yüksek olduğunu göstermektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İyimserlik, Akademik Başarı, Cinsiyet, Anne-Baba Tutumu, Ergenler.

To My Son, EMRE and My Mother, SACIDE...

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study

People come with many problems and challenges in their life. They have to develop some strategies to cope with these challenges. Some of people have a tendency to expect good outcomes and behave according to these expectations. On the contrary, some people have a tendency to expect bad outcomes and behave this way. These two types of expectation style are defined as optimism and pessimism by researchers (Carver, & Scheier, 2002).

Expectancies are crucial in theories of optimism. There are two approaches about expectancies. According to these approaches, definitions about expectancies and the way of measuring them changes. One approach assumes that people's expectancies for the future depend on their explanations about past experiences or failure. People's explanations about past failures influence people's expectations. If people's explanations or attributions for past failures are stable, global and internal, their expectancy for future becomes in the same domain. On the other hand, if people have unstable, specific and external attributions, their expectancy for future becomes in the same manner (Carver, & Scheier, 2002; Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 2001). All people have explanatory styles, how people habitually explain the causes of events that occur to them. Explanatory style is measured with two different ways. One of them is self-

report questionnaire called the Attributional Style Questionnaire (ASQ) developed by Peterson, Semmel, von Baeyer, Abramson, Metalsky, and Seligman in 1982. The second way of measuring explanatory style is a content analysis procedure called Content Analysis of Verbatim Explanations (CAVE) (Peterson, & Steen, 2002).

The other approach adopted by Scheier and Carver (1985) use the term "dispositional optimism" defines optimism as generalized positive expectancies for one's life and measures expectancies directly. Scheier and Carver (1985) developed a measure called Life Orientation Test to assess differences between people in optimism and pessimism. In the present study, this definition and assessing instrument were used.

In the literature, there are many studies that investigate the relationship between dispositional optimism and physical well being (e.g., Aydın, & Tezer, 1991; Reker, & Wong, 1983; Scheier, Matthews, Owens, Abbot, Lebfèvre, & Carver, 1986 as cited in Scheier & Carver, 1987) and psychological well being (e.g., Aspinwall & Taylor, 1992; Carver, & Gaines, 1987; Puskar, Sereika, & Lamb, 1999). Most of the studies have consistent findings and showed positive outcomes of optimism on physical and psychological well being. Except for the influence of optimism on psychological and physical well-being, the origins of optimism and its relationship with other variables, such as gender (e.g. Boman, Smith, & Curtis, 2003; Huan, Yeo, Ang, & Chong, 2006; Lai, & Cheng, 2004) and academic achievement (e.g., Aydın, & Tezer, 1991; Et-Anzi, 2005) were also examined. Most of the research results are consistent with the each other and show positive correlation between optimism and academic achievement and no significant relation with gender.

There are different views about the origin of optimism. One of them is nature side (genetic influence). According to this nature side, individual differences in optimism - pessimism may be partly inherited. The other one is environmental

side that is a child acquires a sense of optimism from their parents. In other words, children might become optimistic or pessimistic by observing their parents do (Scheier, & Carver, 1993).

Darling (1999) defined parenting as a complicated activity containing many specific behaviors that work individually and together to affect child outcomes. One of the earliest parenting frameworks emerged from Baldwin's (1948) identification of three syndromes that are control, democracy and activity. Baumrind (1966) developed the other framework and her typology about parenting style focused on parental control and postulated three parenting styles that are "permissive", "authoritarian" and "authoritative". Baumrind (1966) defined permissive parenting style as parents behave in a nonpunitive, acceptant and affirmative manner toward the child's impulses, desires and actions. Authoritarian parenting style was defined as parent shape, control and evaluates the behavior and attitudes of child according to absolute standards. These parents try to preserve traditional structure and don't encourage verbal give and take. Authoritative parenting style refers to encouragement of verbal give and take with the child and giving importance to the child's individual interests and special ways.

Maccoby and Martin (1983) defined parental responsiveness (parental warmth/supportiveness) and parental demandingness (behavioral control) as two important elements of parenting. Moreover, they stated that all demanding families into a single category named as "permissive" misses the variations in warmth dimension. They underlined that there are two types of families who show low level control to their children. While in some families low control depends on families' ideology that is related to trust, democracy and indulgence which was named as "indulgent permissiveness"; in some families low control demonstrate disengagement from responsibilities of child rearing which was named as "neglectful permissiveness". A typology of four parenting styles was conducted according to whether parents are high or low on parental

demandingness and responsiveness: indulgent permissive, neglectful permissive, authoritarian and authoritative. Indulgent permissive parenting style was defined as being low on demandingness but high on responsiveness, however neglectful permissive parenting style was characterised as low on both responsiveness and demandingness. Moreover, while being high on demandingness but low on responsiveness classified as authoritarian parenting style, authoritative parenting was defined as being high on both responsiveness and demandingness (Maccoby, & Martin, 1983).

Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, and Dornbusch (1991) employed a fourfold typology of parenting style consistent with Maccoby and Martin's (1983) framework. Based on intersection of acceptance/involvement and strictness/supervision dimensions, four parenting styles were formed. Acceptance/involvement dimension shows parents' acceptance, love and warmth. Strictness/supervision reflects parental control and monitoring. Authoritative parenting was defined as being high on both dimensions, while neglectful parenting was defined as being low on both dimension. Being high on acceptance/involvement but low on strictness/supervision classified as permissive and the reverse intersection was classified as authoritarian parenting style. This typology was also used in the present study.

Because the influence of parenting on children and adolescents' ideas and behaviours was viewed as vital, the relationship between parenting style and optimism were also investigated. Results of studies are consistent with the each other and show that authoritative parenting style is significantly related to optimism (Baldwin, McIntre, & Hardaway, 2007). Moreover, optimism takes a mediator role between authoritative parenting and adolescents' adjustment (Jackson, Pratt, Hunsberger, & Pancer, 2005).

As it is explained in this section, there are some studies on optimism and its relationship with gender, academic achievement and parenting style. Almost

all studies reveal positive relation between optimism and academic achievement and optimism and authoritative parenting style and no significant relation between optimism and gender. In Turkish literature optimism level of adolescents and its relation with gender, academic achievement and parenting style was not investigated.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

The aim of this study is to investigate optimism level of Turkish adolescents, and its relation with gender, academic achievement and parenting style.

1.3. Research Questions

Is there any significant difference in optimism levels of female and male adolescents?

Is there any significant difference in optimism levels of female and male adolescents as a function of perceived parenting style?

Is there any significant difference in optimism levels of high achiever and low achiever students?

Is there any significant difference in optimism levels of high achiever and low achiever students as a function of perceived parenting style?

1.4. Significance of the Study

Although most studies were related with adult's optimism, adolescents' optimism has also been studied in the different cultures. In Turkey, optimism and its relationship with other variables such as academic achievement and gender (Aydın, & Tezer, 1991), personality (Gençoğlu, 2006), menopause

(Tekek, 1994), nutrition habits (Açıkgöz, 2006), and health locus of control (Akkoyun, 2002) were examined. Most of the studies related with optimism were conducted with adults or university students. However, as far as the researcher obtain, there isn't any study about adolescents' optimism and its relation with gender, academic achievement and parenting style. The present study has significance in investigating optimism and its relation with gender, academic achievement and parenting style among adolescents. This study may provide the understanding of the researchers about the relations of these subjects in Turkish adolescents.

In examining how parents help children gain approved behaviors, researchers have focused on different variables such as parental warmth, permissiveness, control, and democratic practices and related to them to the development of a wide variety of behaviors in children like anxiety, fearfulness, aggressiveness, curiosity, originality and responsibility (Brooks, 2004). Studies on parenting style were also conducted in Turkey. In Turkish literature, there are many studies related to adolescents' perception about parenting style and different personality traits such as adjustment (Bostan, 1993), self- esteem (Haktanır, & Baran, 1998), self-perception (Yılmaz, 2000), social anxiety (Erkan, Güçray, & Çam, 2002) and learned resourcefulness (Türkel, & Tezer, 2008). However, the relationship between perceived parenting style and optimism among adolescents was not examined. By examining the relationship between parenting style and adolescents' optimism, this study will shed light on the relationship between these two concepts and provide to understand which parenting style support more optimistic view among adolescents.

The results of the present study might also be valuable in providing a new frame for the counselors who work with adolescents to help their clients for gaining more optimistic view and to plan training programs and seminars for parents and teachers.

1.5. Definitions of the Terms

Dispositional optimism: Dispositional optimism is defined as generalized positive expectancies for one's life (Scheier, & Carver, 1985).

Parenting style: "Parenting styles are broad categories that include parents' attitudes, beliefs, and ways of reasoning about their own and children's behavior" (Brooks, 2004, p.59).

Authoritative parenting style: Authoritative parenting style refers to encouragement of verbal give and take with the child and giving importance to the child's individual interests and special ways (Baumrind, 1966).

Authoritarian parenting style: "They are obedience- and status oriented, and expect their orders to be obeyed without explanation" (Baumrind, 1991, p. 62). These parents try to preserve traditional structure and don't encourage verbal give and take (Baumrind, 1966).

Permissive parenting style: Permissive parents put few limits to their children and behave in a non-punitive, acceptant and affirmative manner toward the child's impulses, desires and actions (Baumrind, 1966).

Neglectful parenting style: Neglectful parents are defined as low in warmth / responsiveness and control / demandingness (Darling, 1999).

Academic Achievement: Students' Grade Point Average (GPA), which is the sum of grade points a student has earned in 9th, 10th and 11th grades divided by the number of course hours taken.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter presents the research literature most relevant to the purpose of this study. This chapter includes three sections. In the first section, studies related to optimism were represented. In the second section, variables associated with optimism were introduced. In the third section, since optimism and parenting style has not been studied together in Turkey, studies related to optimism and parenting style in Turkey were presented separately.

2.1. Research on Optimism

Dispositional optimism was introduced by Scheier and Carver (1985) to denote a generalized tendency, a belief that good as opposed to bad things will generally occur in one's life across a wide variety of settings. Scheier and Carver (1993) stated that generalized expectancies constitute an important part of personality and they are relatively stable across time and context. They construed this part of personality as optimism and defined it as the belief that good things will generally happen in one's life. Scheier and Carver (1985) stated that people are different in their outlook. Some people who are so called optimists expect good outcomes and generally believe that good rather than bad things will happen to them, however, others who are defined as pessimists think the opposite and wait bad outcomes. Moreover, optimists and pessimists have different approaches for how to deal with problems and adversity. Optimists

have a sense of confidence and assume that adversity can be handled successfully, however pessimists are doubtful and hesitant. While optimists' confidence provides positive feelings and outcomes, pessimists' doubts cause negative feelings and outcomes. (Carver & Scheier, 2002).

Researchers (Scheier, Weintraub, & Carver, 1986; Puskar, Sereika, & Lamb, 1999; Tusaie, Puskar, & Sereika, 2007) also examined the coping strategies and resilience of both optimists and pessimists. Scheier and Carver (1986) conducted two studies to identify how optimists differ from pessimists in the kinds of coping strategies that they use. In both studies, they found positive correlations between optimism and problem-focused coping, seeking of social support, and emphasising positive aspects of the stressful situation. Moreover, their results showed that pessimism was related with denial and distancing, with focusing on stressful feelings and disengagement from the goal. Therefore, it was claimed that optimists engage in more adaptive coping responses than pessimists. Puskar et al. (1999) examined levels of optimism and the relationship of optimism to depression, coping, anger, and life events in a sample consisted of 624 adolescents from rural area. They found a negative relation between optimism and depressive symptomatology, and also between optimism and anger. Moreover, negative life events and optimism found as negatively related. Their findings indicated that optimist adolescents use more problem-focused coping strategies than pessimists.

Tusaie et al. (2007) studied psychological resilience of 624 rural adolescents and the relationship among optimism, chronological age, gender, perceived family and friend support, number of bad life events and psychological resilience. Results indicated that optimism, bad life events, gender, age and perceived support by family predicted psychological resilience. Moreover, it was concluded that adolescents' psychological resilience was strongly influenced by optimism than perceived family support.

In the literature, there are many studies about optimism and its positive effects on physical and psychological well being. For example, Reker and Wong (1983; as cited in Scheier & Carver, 1987) measured optimism level of people and examined physical symptomatology. They found that persons assessed earlier as optimists reported fewer symptoms at the time of the two-year follow-up than pessimist, along with more positive physical, psychological, and general well being. Scheier, Matthews, Owens, Abbot, Lebfèvre, and Carver (1986; as cited in Scheier & Carver, 1987) examined the impact of optimism on physical well being among 54 bypass patients. In their study, effects of dispositional optimism on recovery from coronary artery bypass surgery were examined. Results revealed that optimism exerted a strong and pervasive positive effect on the patients' physical well being, both during and immediately following surgery. Moreover, coping strategies of participants were measured twice-before and after the surgery. Prior to surgery, optimists were observed as making plans, setting goals, and concentrating on recovery period than pessimist. In addition, optimists were able to normalise their life styles more fully and more quickly than were pessimists (Scheier & Carver, 1993).

As mentioned before, many studies were conducted to examine the effects of dispositional optimism on psychological well being. For example, Carver and Gaines (1987) examined the development of depression in a group of women after childbirth. Women in this study completed LOT and a depression scale in the last third of their pregnancy. They completed the same depression scale after birth. Optimistic women observed as less likely to become depressed. Their findings showed that optimism was related to lower depression symptoms and predicted lower levels of depression.

Another study was carried out by Brodhagen and Wise (2008) to investigate whether optimism has as a mediator role between the experience of child abuse, other traumatic events, and distress or not. In that paper, the role of dispositional optimism in mediating distress among students who experienced

traumatic events, including child physical abuse, emotional abuse and sexual abuse were examined. From private university in Oregon, 199 undergraduate and graduate students whose ages are between 18 and 63 were selected as participant. It was shown that dispositional optimism is a protective factor against current distress in individuals who have experienced traumatic events. Those events are, for example, physical assault, assault with a weapon, sexual assault, combat or exposure to a war zone, captivity, and/or severe human suffering, child physical abuse, and child emotional abuse.

In the literature, there are many studies conducted with cancer patients to investigate how optimism related to different variables such as psychological well being, finding benefit and health-related quality of life. Pinquart, Fröhlich and Silbereisen (2007) investigated the effect of optimism and pessimism on the psychological well being of 161 newly diagnosed cancer patients over the course of therapy which was 9-month period. They found different results from the literature. Optimism and pessimism was conceptualized as two separate factors in the study. They found that both optimism and pessimism indicated concurrent associations with affect balance, however, only pessimism predicted change in affect balance over the 9-month period. In other words, they found effects of pessimism but not optimism on change in cancer patients' psychological well being. According to results of the study they proposed that being less pessimistic might be more important than being optimistic for cancer patients.

Tallman, Altmaier, and Garcia (2007) stated that a growing literature has been emphasized the possibility of positive growth through traumatic experience. Although various terms have been used to define positive psychological transition from traumatic experience, Tallman et al. (2007) used the term "finding benefit" for this concept in their study. Finding benefit among 56 adult cancer patients over a period of three years and the role of optimism and finding benefit on later depression and physical functioning were examined in that

study. Results showed that cancer patients perceive their illness and treatment experience as beneficial at one year after treatment. Tallman et al. reported that optimism was positively related to finding benefit and physical functioning and negatively related to depression. In addition, results revealed that finding benefit was a significant mediator between optimism and depression and physical functioning.

Gustavsson-Lilius, Julkunen, and Hietanen (2007) aimed to search for the role of dispositional optimism, hopelessness and partner support as predictors of health related quality of life in 155 cancer patients and their partners and worked on these points. They found out that there was a relationship between the partner support and the high optimism and low hopelessness in patients, and health related quality of life was predicted by these factors after 8 month later. As a result of this study, the previous findings support that more optimistic appraisals bring better situations than less optimistic appraisals. During this study, 8 month after diagnosis, health related quality of life of more optimistic and hopeful patients was higher and better than less optimistic patients. Besides, gender differences were also found. Although health related quality of life in women affected by optimism, low hopelessness and partner support, health related quality of life in men were predicted by low hopelessness.

Many researchers (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1992; Chong, Huan, Yeo & Ang, 2006; Pritchard, Wilson & Yamnitz, 2007) examined the relationship between optimism and adjustment.

Aspinwall and Taylor (1992) investigated the relationship between optimism and adjustment in college students. When students arrived to the campus, their optimism, self-esteem, locus of control and desire for control were measured. Independent of effects of other variables, higher levels of optimism predicted lower levels of psychological distress at the end of the semester.

Chong et al. (2006) studied with 519 thirteen-year-old Asian adolescents and reported that dispositional optimism plays a significant mediating role between perceived support from parents, peers, and school and psychological adjustment, suggesting that as family, peers and school support increases, the optimism level of adolescents would be greater. Findings of the study were observed as similar to western research. Sex differences were analysed and it was found that dispositional optimism significantly accounted for the relationship between perceived support from parents, peers, and school and psychological well being among adolescent girls. However, for adolescent boys, such a positive disposition did not cause to better adaptation.

Pritchard et al. (2007) designed a longitudinal study to explore what predicts adjustment among 242 undergraduate college students. They analysed that whether self-esteem, coping tactics, perfectionism and extraversion play a negative or positive role on adjustment to college. They collected data before students began classes and before the end of the second semester. Results of the study indicated that optimism was inversely related to both physical and psychological health problems. Optimism and self-esteem predicted better physical and psychological outcomes (i.e., less negative moods). Perfectionism and negative coping tactics was found related to physical health problems and alcohol use like other results in the literature.

The relationship between optimism and suicide ideation was also examined. In two independent studies involving college students, Hirsch and his colleagues studied the relationship between optimism and suicide ideation. In one study, Hirsch, Conner, and Duberstein (2007) examined the relationship between optimism and suicide ideation among 284 college students. As it was expected, optimism was negatively correlated with depression, hopelessness and suicide ideations that were all positively related. Results indicated that students who had higher levels of optimism reported lower levels of suicide ideation, even after controlling for symptoms of depression and hopelessness. They assumed

optimism as a protective factor and suggested that individuals who are at-risk population could be trained to think optimistically for reducing suicide ideation and behaviors.

In another study with 138 college students, Hirsch, Wolford, Lalonde, Brunk, and Morris (2007) examined the relationship between negative life experiences and suicide ideation and attempts and the moderating effect of dispositional optimism on this relationship. Results indicated that negative life events were predictive of suicide ideation and attempts, and optimism moderated their associations. In addition, it was observed that while the number of negative and traumatic experience increase, the benefit from optimism decreases and these causes risk for suicide ideation. Findings showed that individuals with less optimism were at greater risk for suicide ideation and attempts than individuals with moderate and high levels of optimism.

In the literature, how optimism effects worldview of people (Coll & Draves, 2008), marital satisfaction (Story, Berg, Smith, Beveridge, Henry & Pearce, 2007) and romantic relationships (Assad, Donnellan & Conger, 2007) were also studied.

Coll and Draves (2008) examined the relationship between worldview, demographic characteristics, and optimism among university students. 163 university students from two schools completed a self-report survey that included demographic variables, the Worldview Assessment Instrument, and the Revised-Life Orientation Test. Results showed that worldview may in part change as a function of ethnicity. Also past findings of non-significant differences in worldview across gender and age are supported by the results. Moreover, according to results it was proposed that optimism might change across marital status.

Story et al. (2007) examined the relationship among age, marital satisfaction and optimism and whether they are predictors of positive sentiment override in 270 middle-aged and older married couples. In the literature, positive sentiment override was described as perceiving the partner in a more positive manner than is evident by observed behavior. Story et al. (2007) investigated whether there is a relationship between dispositional optimism and positive sentiment override and whether the relationship between positive sentiment override and marital satisfaction stayed the same or not when dispositional optimism was controlled. Findings of the study supported the previous research and indicated that sentiment override occurs more frequently in older couples than middle-aged couples due to differences in marital satisfaction. It was concluded that the characteristics of the marital relationship cause age differences in sentiment override. Therefore, they suggested that how individuals perceive the quality of their relationship influence sentiment override rather than general dispositional optimism.

Assad, Donnellan, and Conger (2007) studied the effect of dispositional optimism on romantic relationships. Assad et al. hypothesized that optimism affects the quality of the romantic relationship and cooperative problem solving has a mediator role between them. Results of the study showed that there was an association between optimism and romantic relationships and cooperative problem solving mediated a substantial amount of this relation between optimism and relationship quality. According to this positive influence of optimism on romantic relation, it was suggested that optimism might help as an enduring resource for romantic unions.

2.2. Variables Associated with Optimism

2.2.1. Parenting Style

Parenting was defined as a series of actions and interactions from the parents to promote the development of children. Parenting is a process of interaction between parents and children, that influenced by cultural and social institutions (Brooks, 2004). Parents have a very important effect on children's behaviours, attitudes and ideas. Researchers carried out many studies to investigate parent's effect on children. They studied on different dimensions of parenting such as parenting style, parenting behaviours, parenting attachment and parenting bonding. In the literature, there are different definitions and measurement instruments to clarify these dimensions of parenting. Some of these definitions are "parent-child relationship", "parent-child interaction style", "parental bonding", and "parenting style".

Yahav (2006) examined the relationship between external and internal symptoms in children and adolescents, and their perceptions of three aspects of the parent-child relationship (parental rejection, overprotective behavior and favouritism). Participants of this study were 159 children between the ages of 10-17 years and divided into five groups. The Achenbach Youth Self-Report Questionnaire was used to differentiate between externalizing, internalizing and control children. Non-symptomatic siblings of internalizing and externalizing children from the same families constituted the two control groups and non-symptomatic children from different families constituted the third control group. Results indicated that externalizing children scored highest on parental overprotection, rejection, and favouritism while internalizing children obtained intermediate scores. Moreover, children in control groups reported lower levels of parental overprotection, rejection, and favouritism. The perception of symptomatic children and their siblings differentiated from each other. Although symptomatic children stated negative parenting practices towards

both themselves and their siblings, siblings reported the opposite views and perceived their parents in a more positive manner.

In another study, DeMinzi (2006) investigated the relationship between parenting and attachment and self-competence, loneliness and depression in 1,019 children aged 8-12 years. Results showed that parent-child relationship styles that perceived by the child and attachment were differentiated constructs. The parent-child interaction style was measured with Argentine Scale of Perception of the Relationships with Parents. Five types of relationship were defined in this scale: acceptance, normal or acceptable control, strict control, pathological control and extreme autonomy. The parent-child interaction style was found positively correlated with the development of secure attachment in children. Moreover, mothers' and fathers' acceptance has the greatest influence on children's scholastic competence. On the other hand, fathers' extreme autonomy has the most negative effect on child scholastic competence. In addition, mothers' and fathers' acceptance protected children from loneliness, but fathers' pathological control caused feelings of loneliness. As a result, this study underlined the importance of parent's acceptance and concluded that parent's acceptance promotes secure attachment and positive outcomes in children and defends them from depression.

Parental bonding between parents and children was another concept related to parenting and was examined to understand effects on children and adolescents. Yu et al. (2007) examined the relationship between perceptions of parenting and personality in three groups that 167 adolescents, 422 adults and 198 personality disorder patients. Parental Bonding Instrument and the Dimensional Assessment of Personality Pathology-Basic Questionnaire were administered to three groups. The PBI assess the quality of attachment and has three dimensions that care, freedom control and autonomy denial. Results indicated that Chinese personality disorder patients perceived less parental care than adolescents and adults, more paternal freedom control than adults, and more paternal autonomy

denial than adolescents. In all three samples, it was found that many of the PBI scales were predictive of Dimensional Assessment of Personality Pathology-Basic Questionnaire scores. In this study, research findings were parallel to other researches in the literature and this study underlined the importance of parental bonding on personality functions across different nations.

Many researchers also conducted lots of studies to investigate impacts of parenting style, which was also examined in the present study. Especially, the relationship between parenting style and performance related tasks such as school performance or school achievement were investigated.

In one study, Dornbusch, Ritter, Leidermen, Roberts, and Fraleigh (1987), using a large and diverse sample of high school students, investigated the relationship between adolescent school performance and parenting styles. Dornbusch et al. (1987) developed a reformation of Baumrind's typology of parenting styles in the context of adolescent school performance. Adolescents from different high schools and ethnicity completed a questionnaire that includes student background characteristics, self-reported grades, perceptions of parental attitudes and behaviors, and family communication patterns. Results indicated that in all ethnic groups, authoritative parenting style was associated with higher grades and authoritarian and permissive styles were associated with lower grades. According to the two sexes, the five age groups, the five types of family structure and the three parental education groups, the same pattern were observed. It was concluded that families who were high in authoritarian or permissive parenting had tendency to have students being less successful in high school, and families who were high in authoritative parenting had children getting higher grades in school.

Spera (2005) reviewed the literature on the relationship among parenting practices, parenting styles and adolescent school achievement. Parenting practices mostly related to school outcomes were parental involvement, parental

monitoring, and parental goals, values and aspirations. Spera's review indicated that parents have a significant effect on the school achievement of their children. It was concluded that parental involvement for children's education and parental monitoring for children's after-school activities enhance children's academic achievement and educational attainment. In addition, research findings showed that authoritative parenting styles were associated with higher levels of adolescent school achievement, however, these results were observed as inconsistent across ethnicity, culture and socioeconomic status.

The relationship between parenting styles and scholastic achievement were also investigated in Middle Eastern. Assadi et al. (2007) conducted a study to examine parenting styles and their relations with sociocultural context and scholastic achievement among 240 Iranian adolescents. For gathering data about sociocultural context of families, four variables were used, which included number of children in family, mothers' education, place of family residence and maternal birthplace. Parental Authority Questionnaire was used to measure maternal parenting styles (authoritative, authoritarian and permissive). Moreover, students' school grades were used for academic outcomes of adolescents. They found that poor traditional families adopt more authoritarians parenting than rich modern families. In addition, findings indicated that authoritative parenting style was positively associated with strong academic achievement; however, authoritarian and permissive parenting was negatively associated. These associations were found independent of sociocultural context.

Another study (Chan & Chan, 2007) was conducted to examine goal orientations, perceived parenting styles, and their relationship in a sample of 285 Hon Kong teacher education students. Students' goal orientation tendencies, whether there is a gender difference about goal orientations, and the relationship between goal orientations and perceived parenting styles, according to Baumrind's typology, were analyzed. Results indicated that students adopted

both learning and performance goals but tended to be more performance goal-oriented and this is more obvious for female than for males. Hong Kong teacher education students perceived their most influential parents to be authoritative rather than authoritarian or permissive. Moreover, it was concluded that perceived parenting styles predicted goal orientations. Research findings showed that authoritative parenting style was positively and significantly related to learning goals whereas authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles were positively and significantly related to performance goals.

The relationship between parenting styles and personality traits like self-reliance, self-esteem, and life skills has also been examined by some researchers. Ang (2006) stated that the beneficial effects of authoritative parenting style were demonstrated for European Americans in many studies. However, for ethnic minorities these effects haven't always been found. For this reason, Ang (2006) examined the effects of parenting styles on Asian adolescents' self-reliance, interpersonal relations, sense of inadequacy and attitude to school, after controlling for the effects of self-esteem. The participants were drawn from Singapore with ethnic identification of Chinese, Malay and Indian. Parental Authority Questionnaire, Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale and Behavior Assessment System for Children were administered to 548 participants. Self-reliance, interpersonal relations, sense of inadequacy and attitude to school were four subscales of Behavior Assessment System for Children. Results showed that perceived fathers' parenting style influenced outcomes more strongly than perceived mothers' parenting styles. Fathers' perceived parenting style was found significantly associated with sense of inadequacy in all adolescents. Findings indicated that authoritative paternal parenting style was significantly associated with adolescents feeling less inadequate about them compared to authoritarian and permissive paternal parenting style. Moreover, fathers' perceived parenting styles was significantly associated with Malay adolescents' self-reliance. Adolescents whose fathers had authoritative parenting styles had higher self-reliance scores than others. In

addition, a significant relation between Malay adolescents' attitude to school and their perception of mothers' parenting style were found in this study. Malay adolescents who have permissive maternal parenting styles had significantly more negative attitudes to school than other authoritarian and authoritative maternal parenting styles.

In one study (Martinez & Garcia, 2008) the relation between parenting styles and internalization of values and self-esteem in a sample of 15-18-year-old Brazilians was analyzed. The classification of adolescents was done in terms of authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful on the basis of their own ratings of their parents on two dimensions: Acceptance/Involvement and Strictness/Imposition. It was obtained that although authoritarian parenting is associated with the lowest, authoritative and indulgent parenting is associated with the highest internalization of self-transcendence and conservation values of teenagers. Moreover, results indicated that adolescents raised in authoritarian and neglectful homes have the lowest scores in self-esteem. On the other hand, adolescents with indulgent parents have equal or higher levels of self-esteem than adolescents with authoritative parents.

Another study was conducted with 660 older adolescents to analyse the relationship between parenting styles and life-skills development. Slicker, Picklesimer, Guzak, and Fuller (2005) used Parenting Style Index which measure two dimensions of parenting (responsiveness and demandingness) and The Life Skill Development Inventory. Interpersonal communication, decision making, health maintenance and identity development were measured as four domains of life skills development. Results of the study showed that parental responsiveness significantly predicts life skill development in all four domains. It was suggested that positive life skill development in older adolescents is related to highly responsive parenting style.

Several studies have been conducted to investigate the relationship between parenting styles and substance use such as drinking and smoking. For example, Patock-Peckham and Morgan-Lopez (2006) studied on college drinking behaviours and the mediational links between parenting styles, impulse control and alcohol-related outcomes among 421 college students. Parental influences on alcohol use and abuse and whether they were mediated through both impulsiveness and drinking control were investigated. Gender was investigated as a potential moderator of the relation between parenting styles and control processes. Self-report questionnaires were administered participants who were volunteer university students. Research findings revealed that the effect of parenting styles on impulsiveness and alcohol-related outcomes depends on the parent-child gender match. It was concluded that a permissive parenting style the same with the child's gender has direct influences on general control processes (level of impulsiveness) and has indirect influences on specific control processes (perceived control over one's drinking) that are specific to alcohol use and abuse. According to Patock-Peckham and Morgan-Lopez (2006), their findings indicated that a permissive parenting style by one's same gender parent can increase impulsiveness, decrease drinking control, and increase alcohol use and abuse.

Adalbjarnardottir and Hafsteinsson (2001) studied with different sample, which were 347 adolescents aged between 14 to 17, and found different results from Patock-Peckham and Morgan-Lopez. They also studied the relationship between parenting style and adolescents substance use. They found that adolescents who perceive their parents as authoritative were more protected against substance use than adolescents who characterize their parents as neglectful.

Another study (Huver, Engels, Breukelen & De Vries, 2007) carried out to investigate parenting style and adolescent smoking cognitions and behaviour. In their work, adolescent smoking behaviour have been successfully predicted

both parenting style and smoking-related cognitions. They collected data among 482 Dutch adolescents in order to investigate if effects of parenting styles, on adolescent lifetime smoking were mediated by cognitions, which are pro-smoking attitude, social norm, self-efficacy, intention and to examine the role of gender in this process. They found that parental support was not significantly associated with smoking behaviour. Attitude and intention, both associated with increased smoking mediated the inverse relation between strict control and smoking. It is reported that there was a relation between psychological control and increased smoking behaviour. It was stated that interventions trying to achieve favourable changes in adolescent smoking related to cognitions and to prevent smoking onset should focus on increasing strict control by the parents. Moreover, reducing levels of psychological control in the child-rearing climate may affect favourably adolescent smoking.

The associations among parenting style, adjustment and optimism were also examined. In one study, Milevsky, Schlechter, Netter, and Keehn (2007) studied the relationships between maternal and paternal parenting styles and psychological adjustment in 272 adolescents. The acceptance/involvement and the strictness/supervision sub-scales of the Authoritative Parenting Measure were used to assess parenting styles. Psychological adjustment was assessed with self-esteem, depression and life satisfaction measures. Results of the study indicated that authoritative parenting was related to higher self-esteem and life-satisfaction and to lower depression. Adolescents who perceived their mothers as authoritative scored higher on self-esteem and life satisfaction and lower on depression than authoritarian, permissive and neglectful parenting styles. Permissive mothering style was found to relate to higher self-esteem than the authoritarian and neglectful styles. For paternal parenting styles, the same pattern was observed. However, although the advantage of authoritative mothering over permissive mothering was found evident for all outcomes, for paternal styles the advantage was found less defined and only evident for depression.

Another study (Jones, Forehand, Brody, & Armistead, 2002) was an attempt to examine whether maternal optimism is related to positive parenting and child adjustment and whether this relation accounted for by maternal depressive symptoms. They addressed these questions in a sample of 141 single - parent, economically challenged, African American families living in an inner-city environment with high crime rates. Jones et al. (2002) suggested that maternal optimism related to positive parenting and the relationship was only partially accounted for by maternal depressive symptoms, however, maternal optimism wasn't directly associated with child psychosocial adjustment. Their findings supported that positive parenting was associated with lower levels of both internalizing and externalizing difficulties. It was underlined that positive parenting was related to both measures of child psychosocial adjustment.

Jackson et al. (2005) examined two longitudinal studies with 356 university and 938 high school students and they hypothesised that the relation between authoritative parenting and adolescents' adjustment is mediated by adolescents' level of dispositional optimism. Results of two studies with both university and high school students revealed that the relations between perceived parental authoritativeness and adjustment were mediated by students' optimism. According to these results, they explained that parental authoritativeness predicts healthy adjustment among adolescents because it has earlier helped to shape adaptive personality characteristic, dispositional optimism.

In another study, Hasan and Power (2002) studied the relation between mother's optimism, mother's self-reported parenting practices (support, structure and control) and their children's optimism, pessimism and depressive symptoms. 81 children and their mothers participated to the study. They found that maternal pessimism was positively correlated with children's pessimism; however, maternal optimism was not associated with the child's level of optimism. Moreover, maternal depressive symptoms negatively correlated with children's

optimism. Their results revealed that while moderate level of parenting control cause higher optimism in children, little autonomy cause less optimism level in children.

Except for these studies, the relationship between optimism and parenting style were also investigated. Baldwin et al. (2007) examined the relationship between perceived parenting style and levels of optimism in 63 late adolescent college students. They found that maternal and paternal parenting styles were significantly correlates. Moreover, they found that authoritative parenting style predicted late adolescents' optimism while the authoritarian parenting style demonstrated little influence on this personality construct.

In conclusion, results of most studies are consistent with each other and underline the positive effects of authoritative parenting style on children and adolescent.

2.2.2. Gender

For assessing the optimism level of males and females, studies were conducted. Boman et al. (2003) assessed the optimism level of high school students and found that both male and female students didn't differ in their levels of optimism. Lai and Cheng (2004) also examined dispositional optimism with an Asian Adolescent Sample from Hon Kong and found no significant difference between gender and level of optimism. Huan et al. (2006) studied the role of optimism together with gender on students' perception of academic stress. They found that there was a significant negative relationship between optimism and academic stress in students. Moreover, they found that gender was not a significant predictor of academic stress and no two-way interactions were found between optimism and gender of the participants.

Except for these studies, Chang (1996) with a sample of 111 Asian Americans and Caucasian Americans examined the optimism and gender differences in different cultures. It was reported that there was no significant difference between men and women on optimism and pessimism for Asian Americans. However, in Caucasian Americans, men were significantly more optimistic than women.

In conclusion, although there are some inconsistencies, results of the studies are generally revealed no significant gender effect on optimism level of people.

2.2.3. Academic Achievement

When people face with an achievement-related task, they start to think about how to perform it. Some people are optimistic and they trust their ability and expect to do work. However, others are hesitant for their ability and fear the worst. People who have confidence in their ability generally achieve better than do those who are pessimistic and doubt their ability (Brown & Marshall, 2001).

To investigate the relationship between optimism and academic achievement, several studies have been conducted. For example, Chemers, Hu, and Garcia (2001) investigated the effect of optimism and academic self-efficacy on freshman academic performance and found that optimism and academic self-efficacy were strongly and directly related to academic performance.

Another study (Et-Anzi, 2005) investigated the relationship between academic achievement and the following variables: anxiety, self-esteem, optimism and pessimism with sample of college students. It is found that there was a positive correlation between academic achievement and both optimism and self-esteem;

but the correlations were negative between academic achievement and both anxiety and pessimism.

The other study comes from Chang and Sanna (2003) and examined the relationship between experience of life hassles, psychological adjustment and optimism among adolescents. They reported that students faced with some hassles such as low GPA or parental divorce was more likely to score low on optimism scale.

There are some other studies, however, that have failed to find a relationship between optimism and academic achievement. For example, Siddique, LaSalle-Ricci, Glass, Arnkoff, and Diaz (2006) reported the interrelationship among worry, optimism, and expectations, and their effects on anxiety, cognition, and academic performance in 184 first-year law students. Final exam scores, oral argument performance, first year GPA and class rank were used for academic performance of law students. Results showed that optimism was negatively related to both dispositional and state anxiety and positively related to self-efficacy. However, no relationship between optimism and academic performance was found.

Although Chemers et al. (2001), Chang and Sanna (2003), and Et Anzi (2005) found similar results and show a positive correlation between optimism and academic achievement, Siddique et al. (2006) noted that there was not significant relationship between optimism and academic performance in first-year law students. As a result, findings of these studies are generally yielded positive relationships between optimism and academic achievement.

2.3. Studies in Turkey

2.3.1. Optimism Studies in Turkey

There are several studies related to optimism in Turkey. Studies on optimism examined the concept in relation with health problems, academic achievement and gender (Aydın & Tezer, 1991), attitudes toward menopause (Tekek, 1994), the performance of rifle and pistol shooters (Tuna, 1997), the comparison of university students' and young workers' optimism levels (Güleri, 1998), coping with earthquake stress (Bacanlı & Ercan, 1999), health locus of control (Akkoyun, 2002), film therapy integrated with cognitive behavioral approach and role reversal technique (Şimşek, 2003), adjustment to illness in asthma patients (Altunbaş, 2005), reported physical illness symptoms of university students (Üstündağ-Budak, & Mocan-Aydın, 2005), personality of university students (Gencoğlu, 2006), nutrition habits (Açıkgöz, 2006), and adjustment to university (Yalım, 2007).

Aydın and Tezer (1991) investigated the relationship among optimism, health problems and academic achievement in a sample of 392 university students. They found a positive relationship between optimism and academic achievement, however, a negative relationship between optimism and health problems was observed.

The relationship between optimism and attitudes of women toward menopause and whether this relationship differentiates according to different age group were analysed in 229 women by Tekek in 1994. Results revealed that optimist women were not agree about the negative effects of menopause and believed the post-menopausal recovery and control of symptoms, while pessimist women did not think in the same manner. In addition, results indicated that the relationship between optimism and attitude toward menopause varied significantly in different age groups.

Tuna (1997) searched the effects of optimism, sport anxiety and certain demographic characteristics on performance of rifle and pistol shooters. Demographic Inventory (DI), Life Orientation Test (LOT) and Multidimensional Sport Anxiety Scale (MSAS) were administered to 51 shooters three times, one day before, one hour before and during the day after the competition. The researcher reported that sex and optimism was the significant predictor of performance during the day after the competition.

Güleri (1998) examined future expectations of 239 university students and 243 young workers, and their levels of optimism and pessimism. Participants who were between 16-24 ages completed a questionnaire and Life Orientation Test (LOT). Results showed that university students were more independent and optimistic towards the future than young workers.

Bacanlı and Ercan (1999) studied on the relationship of optimism and gender to coping with earthquake stress. The purpose of their study was to understand whether college students' coping strategies varied in terms of their gender and level of optimism 18 months later from the August 17th and November 12th earthquakes (the Marmara Earthquakes). Sample of the study was chosen from students who were volunteer college students experienced the earthquake. The Coping Strategy Indicator (Amirkhan (1990) and Life Orientation Test (Scheier & Carver, 1985) were administered to 161 students for gathering data. The findings of the study did not supported the previous research and indicated that students' scores on the three subscales of the CSI (avoidance, problem solving and seeking social support) did not differ according to their level of optimism or their gender.

Akkoyun (2002) studied the relationship between optimism, physical exercise and health locus of control among 300 university students. She found that

optimists had significantly higher scores than pessimists in Internal Health Locus of Control sub-scale.

Şimşek (2003) conducted a study with 36 university students (18 for experimental and 18 for control group) to investigate the effect of film therapy, integrated with cognitive behavioral approach and role reversal technique, on dysfunctional thoughts and optimism. Dysfunctional Attitudes Scale (DAS) and Life Orientation Test (LOT) were administered to both experimental and control group as pre-test and post-test. After pre-test results, the researcher conducted 10 sessions film therapy to experimental group while applying placebo procedure for control group. At the end of the study, post-test results revealed that optimism level of experimental group members significantly increased and dysfunctional thoughts of them significantly decreased in the same group compared to control group.

Altunbaş (2005) examined asthma patients' adjustment to illness, perceived social support, coping strategies and optimism levels and reported a positive relationship between adjustment to illness and optimism.

Üstündağ-Budak and Mocan-Aydın (2005) investigated the role of optimism, health control beliefs and perceived health competence in predicting frequency of reported physical illness symptoms of 345 university students. In addition, gender differences were examined. Life Orientation Test, Multidimensional Health Locus of Control, Perceived Health Competence Scale, and Physical Symptom Checklist were administered to volunteer university students. Findings of the study revealed that optimism, medical help seeking, chance health locus of control, and internal health locus of control predicted the physical symptom scores of the all participants. Moreover, different results for males and females were observed. Research showed that optimism and internal health locus of control predicted the physical symptom scores for males, however, optimism and chance health locus of control predicted physical

symptom scores for females. In addition, like previous studies dispositional optimism was the most significant predictor of physical well being of the whole group.

Gençoğlu (2006) investigated the relationship between the optimism levels and personality of 623 university students. Results showed that students whose optimism levels are high detected higher level of self actualization, emotional determination, family and social relationship, and social norm than students having low optimism level. Moreover, students with high optimism levels had low levels of neurotic, psychotic and antisocial tendencies than students with low optimism levels.

Açıkgöz (2006) examined 170 university students' nutrition habits, their optimism and self-efficacy. She found a significant relationship between self-efficacy scores and nutrition habits whereas she did not reported a significant relationship between optimism and nutrition habits.

Yalım (2007) studied the role of coping, ego-resiliency, optimism and gender on the adjustment of 420 first year college students. The relationship between ways of coping, ego-resiliency, optimism, gender and adjustment of first year students were investigated in a sample of participants from Middle East Technical University in Ankara. The results of the study showed that all the predictor variables (ways of coping, ego resiliency and optimism) were significant predictors of college adjustment. It was found that students who reported high resilience, optimism and fatalistic and helplessness/self blaming coping scores had better adjustment to college. Moreover, results showed that while ego resiliency, problem solving coping, seeking social support coping, fatalistic coping and helplessness/self-blaming coping were significant predictors of male students' college adjustment, ego resiliency, optimism, and seeking social support coping, helplessness/self-blaming coping predicted adjustment of female students.

2.3.2. Parenting Style Studies in Turkey

Many studies have been conducted in Turkey regarding parenting style. Parenting style was studied with adjustment (Bostan, 1993), smoking (Herken, Özkan, Kaya, Turan, & Aşkın, 1997), self-esteem (Ceral & Dağ, 2005; Duru, 1995; Haktanır & Baran, 1998; Tunç, 2002), self-perception (Yılmaz, 2000), social anxiety (Erkan, Güçray & Çam, 2002), identity (Gürmeriç, 2003), locus of control (Alisinanoğlu, 2003), ego identity status (Çakır and Aydın, 2005), shyness (Koydemir, 2006), learned resourcefulness (Türkel & Tezer, 2008), bullying and victimization (Akgün, 2005; Atik, 2006), goal orientations (Akin, 2006), autonomy development (Yılmaz, 2007), self-regulation processes (Şahin, 2007), and career decision-making difficulties (Kesici, 2007).

Bostan (1993) investigated the relationship between adjustment levels and perceived parental attitudes among adolescents 14-16 ages. 338 participants were administered Hacettepe Personality Inventory and Parental Attitude Scale. Results of the study showed that democratic parenting attitude was positively associated with adjustment, while indifferent and authoritarian parenting attitudes were negatively related with adjustment.

Herken et al. (1997) with a sample of 1559 students between 12-21 ages studied to find out whether parents' social and cultural levels affect young people's behavior of using cigarette. Parent attitude scale and a questionnaire including the questions of parental characteristics and parental cigarette using behavior were administered to students. Results displayed that there was no significant relationship between parent job, education, income level and young's cigarette using. However, significant relationship between parents' attitudes and young's cigarette using was found. They reported that the proportions of cigarette using increases while parental attitude scale points are showing tendency to authority side. Herken et al. (1997) stated that parental authority is more effective than

family's social, economic, cultural position in cigarette using behavior of youngs.

Haktanır and Baran (1998) examined the relationship between the adolescents' level of self-esteem and their perceptions about parental attitudes. Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale and Parental Attitudes Inventory were administered to 299 adolescents. The results of the study indicated that there was significant relationship between adolescents' self-esteem and parental attitudes. According to results of the study, Haktanır and Baran (1998) stated that democratic parental attitudes cause high self-esteem, while uninterested and strict attitudes cause lower self-esteem.

Ceral and Dağ (2005) conducted a study to examine self-esteem, depressiveness and general psychological symptom levels of 496 adolescences in terms of perceived parenting style. Results displayed that adolescents who characterize their parents as more democratic or tolerant have higher self-esteem levels and less psychological symptoms than adolescents who characterize their parents either as authoritarian or neglectful.

Yılmaz (2000) studied the relationship of marital adjustment and parent-child relationship with self-perception and academic achievement of children from different age groups. 534 elementary school, high school and college students participated to the study and completed Parenting Style Scale and Self-Perception Profile. Parents of the students also participated to the study and completed Dyadic Adjustment Scale. Results of the study stated that acceptance involvement dimension of parenting style predicted total self-perception and social acceptance and behavioral conduct subscales in high school students. Besides, psychological autonomy dimension of parenting style predicted academic competence and global self-worth subscales and total self-perception in high school students.

Erkan, Güçray and Çam (2002) examined the association between social anxiety, parental attitude and gender among adolescents. Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale and Social Avoidance and Distress Scale and Parents Attitude Inventories were completed by 782 high school students. Erkan et al. (2002) reported that the students who have authoritative parental attitude had lower fear of negative evaluation and social avoidance and distress scores than other students. However, students who have protective-demanding and authoritarian parental attitude had high scores from the Fear of Negative Evaluation and Social Avoidance and Distress Scales.

Gürmeriç (2003) with a sample of 223 female university students investigated the relationship between parenting styles, identity status and disordered eating patterns. Individualism and collectivism scores of samples were also examined. Inconsistent with the literature, the results indicated that maternal warmth scores were positively related with both eating attitude test scores (eating problems) and diffusion scores. In addition, parental warmth scores were positively associated with individualism scores and negatively associated with foreclosure scores.

The relationship between locus of control and perceived mother attitudes among 160 children were analyzed by Alisinanoğlu (2003). She found that while perceived protective mother attitude and locus of control were significantly related to each other, there was no significant relationship between children's locus of control and perceived democratic and authoritarian mother attitudes.

Çakır and Aydın (2005) conducted a study to examine the relationship between perceived parenting styles, gender and ego identity status of 403 adolescents. They used Marcia's (1966) four categories of identity status (diffusion, foreclosure, moratorium and achievement) to assess identity. In addition, for measuring how adolescents perceive their parents, Parenting Attitude Scale

(PAS) was used. In contrast to earlier findings, results of the study indicated that adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritative scored significantly higher on identity foreclosure than adolescents who perceived their parents as neglectful. Adolescents who perceived their parents as permissive scored higher on identity foreclosure than adolescents who perceived their parents as neglectful. The same pattern was observed for permissive parenting styles than neglectful parenting styles. Moreover, a gender difference was noticed in identity achievement in favour of females and in identity foreclosure status in favour of males.

Koydemir (2006) examined the self-presentational predictors of shyness among 497 university students. Socially prescribed perfectionism, perceived social skills and perceived parenting attitudes were proposed to interact with the fear of negative evaluation and self-esteem to predict shyness. Koydemir (2006) found that strictness/supervision dimension of parenting positively predicts fear of negative evaluation and parental psychological autonomy and acceptance/involvement dimensions positively predict self-esteem in university students.

Türkel and Tezer (2008) studied the relationship between perceived parenting styles and learned resourcefulness with a sample of 834 high school students. Parenting Style Inventory and Rosenbaum's Self-Control Schedule were administered. Results indicated significant differences in learned resourcefulness levels of the students in terms of perceived parenting styles. The researchers also found those adolescents who characterise their parents as authoritative and indulgent (permissive) had higher learned resourcefulness level than adolescents who characterise their parents as authoritarian and neglectful.

Atik (2006) investigated prevalence rates of bullying and victimization among 742 middle school students and whether locus of control, self-esteem, parenting

style, loneliness and academic achievement predicts participation in bullying and victimization. Findings indicated that while female students who involved in bullying had lower scores in acceptance/involvement dimension of parenting, male students had lower scores in strictness/supervision dimension of parenting. Moreover, it was concluded that students who were in the victim group had lower acceptance/ involvement scores.

Akın (2006) with a sample of 607 university students investigated achievement goal orientations in terms of perceived parenting styles which are democratic, authoritarian, uninvolved and preserver. It was found that students who perceive their parents as democratic adopted learning goal orientations. Similarly, students who perceive their parents as democratic and authoritarian adopted performance-approach goals, however, students who perceive their parents as uninvolved and authoritarian adopted performance-avoidance goal orientations.

The relationship between perceived parenting styles, autonomy development and academic achievement among early-adolescents were assessed by Yilmazer (2007). Parenting Attitude Scale and Adolescent Autonomy Scale were administered to 1006 students. Significant differences in autonomy development of adolescents in terms of parenting styles were revealed. Finding showed that authoritative parenting style has the most important effect on the behavioral autonomy, emotional autonomy and academic achievement of pubescence.

Şahin (2007) examined the relationship between parenting styles and self-regulation processes (self-discrepancies and self-regulation strategies) and whether they predict shame or guilt tendencies among 300 university students. Results revealed that different self-conscious emotions of shame and guilt were related to different parenting styles and self-discrepancies.

Kesici (2007) conducted a study to find out whether parental attitudes and guidance needs are the important indicator of career decision-making difficulties of 451 high school students. It was found that students' personal/social guidance and career guidance needs are important signs of career decision making difficulties; however no significant relationship between perceived parental attitudes and career decision making difficulties was found.

Parenting style was also studied with other variables which are decision making strategies (Eldeleklioğlu, 1996), assertiveness (Saruhan, 1996; Örgün, 2000), socioeconomic status (Pehlivanoğlu, 1998), intergenerational transmission of attachment styles and mental models (Güngör, 2000), academic achievement (Güroğlu, 2002), affective and behavioral disorders (Sipahioğlu, 2002), autonomy development (Musaagaoglu, 2004), learning strategies and motivational beliefs (Üredi, 2005) individualism-collectivism and religiosity (Taşdemir, 2006) and internalization of values and self-concept (Demirutku, 2007).

In sum, there were many studies about optimism and parenting styles separately with many variables such as health problems, attitudes toward menopause, adjustment, personality, self-esteem, locus of control and goal orientations. However, no research has been found investigating the relationships among optimism, parenting style, gender, and academic achievement together.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

In this chapter, methodological procedures of the study are presented. The first section presents the overall design of the study. In the second section, the selection procedures and demographic information about participants are introduced. The third section explains data collection instruments. The data collection procedure is introduced in the fourth section. The fifth section describes variables of the study. Next, the sixth section explains the data analysis procedure. Finally, the last section presents limitations of the study.

3.1. Overall Design of the Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the optimism level of adolescents and its relation with parenting style, gender, and academic achievement.

Participants were 1366 adolescents (708 male, 645 female and 13 missing cases) from three state high schools in Ümitköy, province of Ankara. A demographic information form (Appendix B), Life Orientation Test (Scheier & Carver, 1985) (Appendix C) and Parental Attitude Scale (PAS; Lamborn et al., 1991) (Appendix D) were administered to participants in a single session. Descriptive statistics, one-way analysis of variance, and two-way analysis of variance were conducted to analyse the data.

3.2. Participants

Convenient sampling method was used as a sample selection procedure. A total of 1366 volunteer high school students (aged 14-18) from Ümitköy Anatolian High School (645 students), Türk Telekom Technical High School (298 students) and 75. Yıl High School (423 students) participated in the study. Six hundred and forty five of the participants were female (47.7%) and seven hundred and eight participants were male (52.3%). The sample consisted of 329 ninth (24.1%), 400 tenth (29.3%), and 637 eleventh (46.6%) grade students.

3.3. Data Collection Instruments

The Demographic Information Form and two self-report instruments, namely Life Orientation Test (Scheier & Carver, 1985) and Parental Attitude Scale (PAS; Lamborn et al., 1991) were used in the present study to collect data.

3.3.1. The Demographic Information Form

The Demographic Information Form (Appendix B) was prepared by researcher to gather information about the participants' gender and GPA as a measure of academic achievement. Moreover, the form also included a brief explanation about the aim of the study.

3.3.2. The Life Orientation Test

The Life Orientation Test (Appendix C) was developed by Scheier and Carver (1985) to measure dispositional optimism. More specifically, LOT has been used to assess (the extent to which individuals expect positive outcomes) generalised outcome expectancies of individuals (e.g., 'In uncertain times, I usually expect the best,' 'Things never work out the way I want them to,' reverse scored). This scale consists of 12 items, 4 of which were worded

positively (1, 4, 5, 11), 4 of which were worded negatively (3, 8, 9, 12) and the remaining items were fillers (2, 6, 7, 10) that were included to disguise the underlying purpose of the test. Respondents use a 5-point scale to rate how much they agree with the content of each item. In the scale, responses ranging from “strongly disagree = 0” to “strongly agree = 4”, and the total optimism score is the sum of responses to the eight items (four are reverse keyed). The possible total score obtained from LOT change from 0 to 32.

Aydin and Tezer (1991) carried out the translation, validity and reliability studies of the Turkish version of LOT. The researchers reported significant correlation between the Beck Depression Inventory scores and LOT scores ($r = .56, p < .001$). The internal reliability of the scale estimated by Cronbach alpha coefficient was .72. The test and retest reliability of the scale was .77 with four weeks intervals. An evidence for the construct validity of the instruments was reported by Üstündağ-Budak (1999) in another study. After administering the inventory to 351 METU students, principal components analysis with varimax rotation was employed to the LOT scores of the participants. Two meaningful factors for positively worded items (1, 4, 5, and 11) and for negatively worded items (3, 8, 9, and 12), that were similar to the structure of the original scale, were yielded.

In the present study, in order to test the construct validity of LOT, exploratory factor analysis was conducted. Two-factor solution was obtained for positively worded items (1, 4, 5, and 11) and for negatively worded items (3, 8, 9, and 12) explaining 36.28% of the total variance.

Table 3.1

Factor Loadings for the Life Orientation Test (LOT) Items

Item No	Factor 1	Factor 2
9	.77	
8	.75	
12	.47	
3	.36	
4		.80
5		.52
11		.49
1		.37

The cronbach alpha coefficient for the positively worded items was .64 and for the negatively worded items was .68.

3.3.3. Parental Attitude Scale (PAS)

Lamborn et al. (1991) developed Parental Attitude Scale (PAS) (Appendix D) to measure three patterns related to perceived parental attitudes. Acceptance /involvement, strictness/supervision, and psychological autonomy were three patterns constructed by Lamborn et al. (1991) based on Baumrind's (1966) framework of different parenting styles. The degree to which individuals perceive their parents as loving, responsive and involved is defined as acceptance /involvement dimension (e.g. 'When I have problems, I am sure that my parents will help me'). In strictness/supervision dimension, parental monitoring and supervision of the children is evaluated. (e.g. 'Does your parent permit you to go out at night during the week?') Also, psychological autonomy

dimension is related to non-coercive and democratic discipline of parents (e.g. 'My father and mother tell me not to argue with the elderly').

Acceptance /involvement and psychological autonomy subscales have 9 items and respondents indicate on 4-point Likert scales the degree to which they agree or disagree with statements. The possible total score obtained from each of the two subscales changes between 9 and 36. Strictness/supervision subscale consists of 8 items. In the first two items of this subscale, respondents indicate their agreement by choosing the alternatives "yes" or "no". If their answer is "yes" then they asked to choose one of the 6 alternatives scored 1 to 6. In the rest of the items, respondents indicate on 3-point Likert scales, ranging from 1 to 3, the degree to which they agree or disagree with statements. The possible lowest score is 8 and highest one is 32 for strictness/supervision subscale.

Items 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15 and 17 represents the acceptance/involvement subscale; items 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16 and 18 represent psychological autonomy subscale; and strictness/supervision subscale of the instrument corresponds to the items from 19 to 26. All items, except 12, are reverse coded in the second subscale.

Four parental attitudes are obtained by not only having total scores on each dimension but also obtained by intersection of acceptance /involvement and strictness strictness/supervision patterns of the instrument. Four parental attitudes can be classified as authoritative, neglectful, authoritarian and permissive parenting style. Parents of the participants whose score above the median point on the patterns of acceptance/involvement and strictness/supervision subscales are called authoritative and whose score under the median point on the patterns of these two subscales are called neglectful. Parents of the participants whose score under the median point on acceptance/involvement but above the median on strictness/supervision pattern are called authoritarian. Finally, if the score is above the median point on acceptance/

involvement but under the median point on strictness/supervision subscales are called permissive. In the present study, four parental attitudes were obtained by intersection of acceptance/ involvement and strictness/supervision patterns of the instrument.

The translation, validity and reliability studies of the Turkish version of the instrument were carried out by Yılmaz (2000). For acceptance/ involvement subscale the test-retest reliability coefficients and Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficients were .82 and .70. For strictness/supervision subscale the test-retest reliability coefficients and Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficients were .88 and .69. For psychological autonomy subscale the test-retest reliability coefficients and Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficients were .76 and .66.

Koydemir (2006) carried out a factor analysis and found 3 factors with Cronbach alpha coefficients of .74 for acceptance/ involvement, .82 for strictness/supervision and .65 for psychological autonomy subscales.

In this study, exploratory factor analysis was performed to obtain construct validity evidence. Results of the maximum likelihood analysis with oblique rotation revealed 6 factors explaining 39.52% of the total variance. However, the items did not load into the factors theoretically meaningful. Since the original PAS has three factors, three-factor was selected. The three-factor solution explained 29.22% of the total variance. Similar to Yılmaz's (2000) study, item 3 loaded on the psychological autonomy factor instead of acceptance/involvement and item 3 was eliminated from further analysis. Factor loadings of three-factor solution for the PAS are presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2

Factor Loadings for the Parental Attitude Scale (PAS) Items

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Item No	Acceptance/ Involvement	Psychological Autonomy	Strictness/Supervision
1	.69		
17	.68		
11	.57		
7	.50		
13	.48		
9	.47		
5	.46		
15	.41		
23		.69	
22		.65	
26		.62	
25		.62	
21		.50	
24		.49	
19		.33	
20		.28	
16			.57
6			.57
8			.47
3			.47
18			.47
14			.46

Table 3.2 continued

10	.41
4	.40
2	.35
12	-.34

In the present study, the internal consistency of the scale was tested by Cronbach alpha. The reliability coefficient for acceptance/involvement subscale was .76; for psychological autonomy subscale was .72; and for strictness/supervision subscale was .65.

3.4. Data Collection Procedure

After taking necessary permission from the Ministry of National Education (*see* Appendix A), researcher collected data from three schools. In Ümitköy Anatolian High School, researcher visited each class and gave brief information about the study. In Türk Telekom Technical High School and 75. Yıl High School the data was collected through the collaboration with school counseling and guidance services.

Volunteered students who are on the 9th, 10th and 11th grade participated to the study in the spring semester of 2008. A set of instruments including the demographic information form, Life Orientation Test (Scheier & Carver, 1985) and Parental Attitude Scale (PAS; Lamborn et al., 1991) were administered in a single session, and administration took approximately 20 minutes. Any identifying information about participants was not asked to ensure confidentiality and anonymity.

3.5. Description of Variables

Optimism: The sum of scores as measured by Life Orientation Scale (LOT).

Parenting Style: The intersection of two-subscale acceptance/ involvement and strictness/supervision were used to assign parents to one of the four parenting styles. The median was found as 26 for acceptance/ involvement dimension, and 24 for strictness/supervision dimension. The group of authoritative parenting style was assigned according to students' scores that were above the median point on the patterns of acceptance/ involvement and strictness/supervision dimension. Students whose scores were under the median point on the patterns of these two dimensions were assumed as the group of neglectful parenting style. Students whose scores were under the median point on the patterns of acceptance/ involvement but above the median on strictness/supervision pattern was assumed as authoritarian parenting style. Finally, the student's score was above the median point on acceptance/ involvement but under the median point on strictness/ supervision dimension were assumed as the group of permissive parenting style.

Gender: A dichotomous variable with categories of (1) female and (2) male.

Academic Achievement: Student's Grade Point Average was used for academic achievement. For the GPA, the median (3.86) and the mean (3.75) scores were close to each other's and the median score was used as the cut off point for the GPA scores of the participants. The participants who have the GPA score below median (3.86) were assumed as low achievers and participants who have the GPA score above median were accepted as high achievers.

3.6. Data Analysis Procedure

Before the analysis procedure, except for gender, missing value analysis was conducted for all variables (optimism, parenting style, and GPA). Because of uncompleted instruments, 89 cases were excluded totally from the analysis and 1366 (708 male, 645 female, and 13 missing cases) out of 1455 cases were left for analyses. Cases with missing data less than 5% of items of inventories were replaced with the mean of the given variable.

The psychological autonomy dimension was seen to be important in defining authoritativeness but less so in differentiating among authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and neglectful families (Lamborn et al., 1991; Carlo, McGinley, Hayes, Batenhorst & Wilkinson, 2007). In the present study, consistent with the greater part of literature in this area, only the two main dimension acceptance/ involvement and strictness/supervision were used to assign parents to one of the four parenting styles.

To examine whether there is a difference in optimism level of male and female adolescents, one-way analysis of variance was conducted. In addition, to investigate whether there is a difference in optimism level of female and male students as a function of perceived parenting style, two-way analysis of variance was employed. Similarly, to examine whether there is a difference in optimism level of high achiever and low achiever students one-way analysis of variance was conducted. Lastly, to investigate the differences between optimism scores of high achiever and low achiever students as a function of four parenting styles, a 2 (high achiever-low achiever) x 4 (authoritative, neglectful, authoritarian and permissive parenting style) ANOVA was conducted.

All the analysis was carried out by using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 11.5 computer program.

3.7. Limitations of the Study

There are some limitations in the present study. First, the study was conducted with students from three public high schools. Therefore, generalizability of this study is limited to this sample and these schools. Second, this was a self-report study based on adolescents' perceptions of their parents' parenting style. Thus, it was not possible to test whether adolescents' perceptions parallel with parents' view about their parenting style.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

In this chapter, the results of the statistical analyses are presented. This chapter includes two main sections. In the first section, the means and standard deviations of the variables are reported. In the second section, the results of the ANOVA are presented according to research questions.

4.1. Descriptive Statistics for the Major Study Variables

Means and standard deviations of the variables included in the study were presented in 4.1.

Table 4.1

Means and Standard Deviations of Optimism Scores of High and Low Achiever Students in terms of Perceived Parenting Style and Gender

		Female (n = 645)		Male (n = 708)		Total (n = 1353)	
Parenting Style	GPA	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Neglectful	Low achiever (n = 261)	17.11	5.64	16.53	4.86	16.64	5.01
	High achiever (n = 177)	16.68	6.01	17.37	4.50	17.08	5.19
	Total (n = 438)	16.85	5.85	16.81	4.76	16.82	5.08
Permissive	Low achiever (n = 178)	19.07	4.07	18.98	4.75	19.00	4.57
	High achiever (n = 172)	19.18	4.83	19.55	4.17	19.36	4.51

Table 4.1 continued

Authoritarian	Total (n = 350)	19.14	4.56	19.20	4.53	19.18	4.54
	Low achiever (n = 99)	16.00	4.61	17.63	5.38	16.77	5.03
	High achiever (n = 114)	17.09	4.69	17.71	5.30	17.26	4.85
Authoritative	Total (n = 213)	16.68	4.67	17.67	5.31	17.04	4.92
	Low achiever (n = 149)	17.37	4.87	18.20	5.03	17.73	4.94
	High achiever (n = 203)	19.03	5.24	19.02	4.57	19.03	5.11
Total	Total (n = 352)	18.47	5.17	18.51	4.86	18.48	5.07
	Low achiever (n = 687)	17.36	4.91	17.58	5.01	17.51	4.97
	High achiever (n = 666)	18.24	5.29	18.37	4.59	18.29	5.02
	Total (n = 1353)	17.92	5.17	17.87	4.87	17.90	5.01

As can be seen in Table 4.1, in low achiever female, the mean score of optimism level for adolescents who perceived their parents as neglectful was 17.11, as permissive 19.07, as authoritarian 16.00 and as authoritative 17.37. For high achiever females, the mean optimism score was 16.68 for adolescents who perceived their parents as neglectful, 19.18 for adolescents who perceived their parents as permissive, 17.09 for adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritarian, and 19.03 for adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritative. In low achiever males, the mean score of optimism level for adolescents who perceived their parents as neglectful was 16.54, as permissive 18.98, as authoritarian 17.64 and as authoritative 18.20. For high achiever males, the mean optimism score was 17.37 for adolescents who perceived their parents as neglectful, 19.55 for adolescents who perceived their parents as permissive, 17.71 adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritarian, and 19.03 for adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritative.

Prior to conducting ANOVA, major assumptions were tested. For testing normality, descriptive statistics, histograms, and normal p-p plots were controlled. Results indicated that normality was not violated. In order to check the assumption of homogeneity of variance tests (Levene's test) for all four ANOVAs demonstrated the equality of variances among the levels of each independent variable. Finally, the scores were assumed to be independent of each other.

4.2. Results of One-Way and Two-Way Analysis of Variances (ANOVA)

In this section, the results of the ANOVA by following the order of research questions are presented.

4.2.1. Optimism Levels and Gender

In order to investigate the differences between optimism level of female and male students, one -way ANOVA was conducted. The summary of ANOVA results is presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2

The Results of ANOVA for the Optimism Scores of Adolescents in terms of Gender

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>
Between Groups	1.10	1	1.10	.04
Within Groups	33836.95	1351	25.05	
Total	33838.05	1352		

In Table 4.2, the ANOVA results indicated that the groups (female and male students) were not significantly different with respect to their optimism scores ($F_{(1, 1352)} = .04, p=.83$).

4.2.2. Optimism Levels and Gender as a Function of Perceived Parenting Style

In order to investigate the differences between optimism level of female and male students as a function of perceived parenting style 2 X 4 ANOVA was conducted. Results are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3

The Results of ANOVA for the Optimism Scores of Adolescents in terms of Gender and Perceived Parenting Style

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>
Gender	19.73	1	19.73	.82
Parenting Style	1180.99	3	393.66	16.36*
Gender *	54.41	3	18.14	.75
Parenting Style				
Error	32354.63	1345	24.05	
Total	468044.00	1353		
Corrected Total	33838.05	1352		

Note. Significance value is $p<.05$

In Table 4.3, the ANOVA results indicated a main effect for parenting style ($F_{(3, 1345)} = 16.36, p<.000$), however, no effect for gender ($F_{(1, 1345)} = .82, p = .36$). The interaction of parenting style and gender was not significant ($F_{(3, 1345)} = .75, p = .52$).

Scheffe test was conducted for post hoc analysis of ANOVA results (with Bonferroni correction method $.05/4 = .0125$). Results revealed a significant difference between neglectful group ($M = 16.85$, $SD = 5.08$) with permissive ($M = 19.23$, $SD = 4.54$); and authoritative group ($M = 18.50$, $SD = 5.01$). There was significant difference between authoritarian ($M = 16.97$, $SD = 4.91$) and permissive group ($M = 19.23$, $SD = 4.54$). Significant differences were also found between adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritative ($M = 18.50$, $SD = 5.01$) and those who perceived their parents as authoritarian ($M = 16.97$, $SD = 4.91$). Differences between neglectful and authoritarian groups and, between permissive and authoritative groups were not found statistically significant.

4.2.3. Optimism Levels and Academic Achievement

For assessing the differences between optimism levels of high and low achiever students, one-way ANOVA was conducted. Table 4.4 presents the results.

Table 4.4

The Results of ANOVA for the Optimism Scores of Adolescents in terms of Academic Achievement

	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>
Between Groups	191.21	1	191.21	7.68*
Within Groups	32522.27	1307	24.88	
Total	32713.49	1308		

Note. Significance value is $p < .05$

In Table 4.4, the ANOVA results indicated a significant effect for academic achievement ($F_{(1, 1308)} = 7.68$, $p < .000$).

4.2.4. Optimism Levels and Academic Achievement as a Function of Perceived Parenting Style

In order to examine the differences between optimism level of high achiever and low achiever students with regard to authoritative, authoritarian, neglectful, permissive parenting style a 2 (high-low academic achievement) X 4 (authoritative, neglectful, authoritarian and permissive parenting style) ANOVA was conducted.

Table 4.5 represents the results of ANOVA that was utilized to investigate the optimism scores of adolescents in terms of academic achievement and perceived parenting style.

Table 4.5

The Results of ANOVA for the Optimism Scores of Adolescents in terms of Academic Achievement and Parenting Style

Source	SS	df	MS	F	η^2
Parenting Style	1229.22	3	409.74	17.07*	.04
Academic Achievement	120.73	1	120.73	5.03*	.00
Parenting Style * Academic Achievement	53.40	3	17.80	.74	.00
Error	31221.46	1301	23.99		
Total	452055.00	1309			
Corrected Total	32713.49	1308			

Note. Significance value is $p < .05$

In Table 4.5, the ANOVA results indicated a main effect for parenting style ($F_{(3, 1301)} = 17.07, p < .000, \eta^2 = .04$) and a main effect for academic achievement ($F_{(1, 1301)} = 5.03, p < .02, \eta^2 = .00$). However, the interaction of academic achievement and parenting style was not significant ($F_{(3, 1301)} = .74, p = .53$).

For post hoc analysis of ANOVA results (with Bonferroni correction method $.05/4 = .0125$), Scheffe test was conducted. Results revealed a significant difference between neglectful group ($M = 16.82$, $SD = 5.08$) with permissive ($M = 19.18$, $SD = 4.54$); and authoritative group ($M = 18.48$, $SD = 5.07$). There was significant difference between authoritarian ($M = 17.04$, $SD = 4.92$) and permissive group ($M = 19.18$, $SD = 4.54$). Significant differences were also found between adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritative ($M = 18.48$, $SD = 5.07$) and those who perceived their parents as authoritarian ($M = 17.04$, $SD = 4.92$). Differences between neglectful and authoritarian groups and, between permissive and authoritative groups were not found statistically significant.

Thus, the results showed that parenting style and academic achievement have an effect on the optimism scores of the adolescents.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the discussion and interpretation of the results, implications of the findings, and recommendations for further research.

5.1. Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the optimism level of adolescents and its relation with parenting style, gender, and academic achievement.

In the present study, the main effect for gender and the gender and parenting style interaction effect was not found significant. This finding was consistent with the previous studies (e.g., Aydın & Tezer, 1991; Boman et al., 2003; Huan et al., 2006) indicating no gender difference on optimism level of students.

Prior research indicates that academic achievement is related to higher levels of optimism (e.g., Aydın & Tezer, 1991; Et-Anzi, 2005). Consistent with this notion, in this study, the main effect of academic achievement on optimism level of adolescents was found significant. In stressful and challenging situations, optimist people expect successful outcomes, make plans and concentrate on their tasks instead of withdrawing mentally (Scheier & Carver, 1987). Moreover, optimists use more adaptive coping strategies (problem-focused coping, elaboration of coping and seeking of social support) than pessimists. These strategies support optimists for doing better than pessimists

(Scheier & Carver, 1986). For the present study, it can be speculated as optimist students concentrate on their tasks and these support their academic achievement.

In this study, it was obtained that the results of the ANOVA revealed significant differences in optimism scores of the adolescents as a function of four parenting styles. In other words, the results of this study showed that the adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritative had a relatively higher level of optimism than those who perceived their parents as authoritarian and neglectful. Results also indicated that the adolescents who characterize their parents as permissive had a relatively higher level of optimism than those who characterize their parents as neglectful and authoritarian. Moreover, any significant difference among optimism level of adolescents of all other types of perceived parenting style was not observed.

Authoritative parenting style are composed of both demanding (behavioral control) and responsive (parental warmth or supportiveness) units (Baumrind, 1991). In other words, authoritative parents direct their child's activities in a rational manner, encourage communication with their children and explain the logic behind their policy (Baumrind, 1966, pp.891). Research findings showed that authoritative parenting style was associated with higher levels of school achievement (Dornbusch et al., 1987; Assadi et al., 2007); higher self-esteem and life-satisfaction and to lower depression (Milevsky, 2007; Jackson et al., 2005); higher psychological competence (Lamborn et al., 1991) and higher self-reliance scores (Ang, 2006). As a result, research findings are consistent with each other and show that adolescents and children who characterize their parents as authoritative show better psychological and social skills than non authoritative ones.

Permissive parenting style are defined as highly responsive (parental warmth or supportiveness), but lowly demanding (behavioral control). In other words,

permissive parents have warmth, supportive and responsive attitude their children, however, they don't control and set limits to them (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). On the other hand, as it was stated in the above paragraph, authoritative parenting style consists of both responsive (parental warmth or supportiveness) and demanding (behavioral control) units. As it is seen, the common property of those perceived parenting style is responsiveness. Since our study showed that adolescents who characterised their parenting style as authoritative or permissive had higher levels of optimism than neglectful and authoritarian parenting style, it can be concluded that there is a relation between the optimism level and the responsiveness. In other words, according to results of the present study, it can be speculated that parents' warmth, acceptance and supportiveness can be more effective on optimism levels of adolescent's than their strict control.

Findings of the present study are consistent with the previous research results. Such as, Jackson et al., (2005) conducted two studies with both university and high school students and they found that authoritative parenting predicted higher self-esteem, lower depression and better adjustment and these relationships were mediated by students' levels of optimism. In Turkish literature, Karadayı (1994) found significant positive relation between the relationship with parents and their disciplinary styles with some personality traits.

The results of the present study can be summarised as follows. Firstly, it can be said that the study indicates significant differences in optimism scores of the adolescents as a function of four parenting styles. Moreover it can be concluded that the adolescents who characterize their parents as authoritative and permissive has a relatively higher level of optimism than those who characterize their parents as neglectful and authoritarian. Also, existence of a relation between the optimism level and the responsiveness is an important consequence of this study. On the other hand, while the main effect of academic

achievement on optimism level of adolescents was found significant, the interaction of academic achievement and parenting style was not found significant. Finally, the main effect of gender was not found significant. We also want to note that findings of the present study are consistent with the previous research results and support them.

5.2. Implications

Results of the present study demonstrated that adolescents' optimism was associated with their academic achievement and parenting style. Adolescent who had higher academic achievement had higher optimism level than adolescents who had lower academic achievement. Besides, the offspring from authoritative and permissive parents had higher optimism levels than from authoritarian and neglectful parents.

According to results of the present study, some implications can be mentioned. Firstly, because high achiever adolescents have higher optimism levels, to support academic achievement of adolescents, Guidance and Counseling Programs should include activities about optimism. Moreover, Guidance and Counseling Services can apply training programs, seminars and group counseling studies to increase optimism levels of adolescents.

Lastly, since parents' warmth and responsive attitudes increase optimism level of adolescents, school counselors can inform parents about parenting style and the link between parenting style and optimism. Besides, counselors and parents might work together to increase optimism level of students.

5.3. Recommendations

Some recommendations for future studies can be given according to findings of the present study.

Firstly, this study can be extended with a more representative and diverse sample to investigate whether the results of this study expose similar results in different samples.

In order to understand the relationship between parenting style and optimism, experimental studies can be done.

The literature reveals inconclusive results regarding the relationship between parents' optimism level and children's optimism level (Hasan & Power, 2002). For Turkish adolescents, this relation could be examined. Besides, after developing and conducting training programs to increase parents' optimism levels, the relationship between parents' and adolescents' optimism level could be examined. Moreover, parents' characteristics that influence their parenting style can also be investigated.

In the present study, the findings are based on adolescents' perception of parenting style rather than parents' report. For the future studies, it might be investigated parents' view of their parenting style and compare it with adolescents' perception, and the relationship among them. Besides, a research could be conducted to examine how adolescents' perceive their mothers' parenting style and fathers' parenting style, correlation among them and the relationship between adolescents' optimism level.

The measurement of optimism level of adolescents is restricted with a self-report instrument (LOT). Therefore, further studies might be conducted by using both observational and self-report data to investigate other factors that may influence the optimism levels.

Based on the results of the present study, training programs related to increasing optimism level could be developed for adolescents. Moreover, for

parents, training programs related to parenting style and its effect on adolescents' optimism could be developed. Lastly, findings of this study may provide useful information for teachers and educators because of the relation between optimism and academic achievement.

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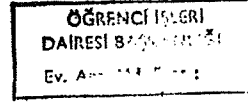
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Yu, R., Wang, Z. Qian, F., Jang, K. L., Livesley, W. J., Paris, J., Shen, M., & Wang, W. (2007). Perceived parenting styles and disordered personality traits in adolescent and adult students and in personality disorder patients. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 35(5), 587-598.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

T.C.
ANKARA VALİLİĞİ
Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü



BÖLÜM : Strateji Geliştirme
SAYI : B.B.08.4.MEM.4.06.00.04-312/28608
KONU : Derya SARI CENK

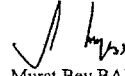
18.04.2008

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİNE (Öğrenci İşleri Dairesi Başkanlığı)

İLGİ : a) Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Öğrenci İşleri Dairesi Başkanlığı'nın
25.03.2008 tarih ve 4374 sayılı yazısı.
b) 16.04.2008 tarih ve 4374 sayılı Valilik Oluru.

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Anabilim Dalı Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Derya SARI CENK'in " İyimserliğin Cinsiyet, Akademik Başarı ve Anne-Baba Tutumları ile İlişkisi" konulu anket uygulama isteği ilgi (b) Valilik Oluru ile uygun görülmüş olup,

Mühürlü anket örneği (İyimserlik Ölçeği 12 madde, Tutum ölçeği 26 madde'den oluşan) ve uygulanacak okul listesi yazımız ekinde gönderilmiş olup, uygulama yapılacak sayıda çoğaltılması ve çalışmanın bitiminde iki örneğinin (CD/ disket) Müdürlüğümüz Strateji Geliştirme Bölümüne gönderilmesi hususunda bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.


Murat Bey BALTA
Vali a.
Milli Eğitim Müdürü

EK: 1- Anket (3 sayfa)
2-Valilik Onayı (1 sayfa)
3-Okul Listesi (1 sayfa)

25.04.08 006514

APPENDIX B

Sevgili Gençler,

Elinizdeki ölçekler lise çağındaki gençlerin iyimserlik tutumlarını ve anne babalarının kendilerine karşı tutumlarını nasıl algıladıklarını araştırmak amacıyla uygulanmaktadır. Elde edilen bilgiler Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü bünyesinde yürütülen bir yüksek lisans tezi için bilimsel amaçlar doğrultusunda kullanılacaktır. Verdiğiniz tüm cevaplar gizli tutulacaktır ve kimseyle paylaşılmayacaktır. **Lütfen formlara adınızı ve soyadınızı yazmayınız.**

İlişikte iki adet ölçek bulunmaktadır. Sizden istenen eksiksiz olarak her soru için size en uygun seçeneği işaretlemenizdir.

Katılımınız için teşekkürler.

Derya Sarı CENK
Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü
Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

Okulunuz:

Cinsiyetiniz: Kız ()..... Erkek ().....

Genel Not ortalamanız (lisede bulunduğunuz döneme kadar olan ortalamanız, **5'lik not sistemine göre**):

APPENDIX C
İYİMSERLİK ÖLÇEĞİ

Aşağıda bulunan her cümlenin karşısında “Kesinlikle katılmıyorum”, “Katılmıyorum”, “Kararsızım”, “Katılıyorum” ve “Kesinlikle katılıyorum” seçenekleri yer almaktadır. Her cümleyi dikkatle okuyunuz ve size uyan seçeneği çarpı (X) koyarak işaretleyiniz.

	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum
1. Ne olacağının önceden kestirilemediği durumlarda hep en iyi sonucu beklerim.					
2. Kolayca gevşeyip rahatlayabilirim.					
3. Bir işimin ters gitme olasılığı varsa mutlaka ters gider.					
4. Her şeyi hep iyi tarafından alırım.					
5. Geleceğim konusunda hep iyimserimdir.					
6. Arkadaşlarımla birlikte olmaktan hoşlanırım.					
7. Yapacak bir şeylerimin olması benim için önemlidir.					
8. İşlerin istediğim gibi yürüyeceğini nerdeyse hiç beklemem.					
9. Hiçbir şey benim istediğim yönde gelişmez.					
10. Moralim öyle kolay kolay bozulmaz.					
11. Her kötü olayda bir iyi yan bulmaya çalışırım.					
12. Başıma iyi şeylerin geleceğine pek bel bağlamam.					

APPENDIX D

ANNE-BABA TUTUM ÖLÇEĞİ

Lütfen aşağıdaki tanımlamaları kendi anne ve babanızı düşünerek dikkatlice okuyunuz. Bu tanımlamaların, ailenizin size karşı olan davranışlarına ne ölçüde benzediğini düşünerek, verilen derecelendirme sistemine göre daire içine alarak belirtiniz.

1 = Tamamen Benziyor 2 = Biraz Benziyor 3 = Benzemiyor 4 = Hiç Benzemiyor

1. Herhangi bir sorunun olduğunda eminim annem ve babam bana yardım ederler.	1	2	3	4
2. Annem ve babam büyüklerle tartışmamam gerektiğini söylerler.	1	2	3	4
3. Annem ve babam yaptığım her şeyin en iyisini yapmam için beni zorlarlar.	1	2	3	4
4. Annem ve babam herhangi bir tartışma sırasında başkalarını kızdırmamak için, susmam gerektiğini söylerler.	1	2	3	4
5. Annem ve babam bazı konularda "sen kendin karar ver" derler.	1	2	3	4
6. Derslerimden ne zaman düşük not alsam, annem ve babam kızar.	1	2	3	4
7. Ders çalışırken anlayamadığım bir şey olduğunda, annem ve babam bana yardım ederler.	1	2	3	4
8. Annem ve babam kendi görüşlerinin doğru olduğunu, bu görüşleri onlarla tartışmamam gerektiğini söylerler.	1	2	3	4
9. Annem ve babam benden bir şey yapmamı istediklerinde, niçin bunu yapmam gerektiğini de açıklarlar.	1	2	3	4
10. Annem ve babamla her tartıştığım da bana "büyüdüğün zaman anlarsın" derler.	1	2	3	4
11. Derslerimden düşük not aldığım da, annem ve babam beni daha çok çalışmam için desteklerler.	1	2	3	4
12. Annem ve babam yapmak istediklerim konusunda kendi kendime karar vermeme izin verirler.	1	2	3	4

13. Annem ve babam arkadaşlarımı tanırlar.	1	2	3	4
14. Annem ve babam istemedikleri bir şey yaptığımda, bana karşı soğuk davranırlar ve küserler.	1	2	3	4
15. Annem ve babam sadece benimle konuşmak için zaman ayırırlar.	1	2	3	4
16. Derslerimden düşük notlar aldığımda, annem ve babam öyle davranırlar ki suçluluk duyar ve utanırım.	1	2	3	4
17. Ailemle birlikte hoşça vakit geçiririz.	1	2	3	4
18. Annemi ve babamı kızdıracak bir şey yaptığımda, onlarla birlikte yapmak istediğim şeyleri yapmama izin vermezler.	1	2	3	4

Aşağıdaki her ifadenin yanında bulunan kutulardan sadece size uygun olanın içine çarpı (X) işareti koyunuz.

19. Genel olarak annen ve baban okul zamanı hafta içinde gece arkadaşlarıyla bir yere gitmene izin verirler mi?

Evet

Hayır

Eğer cevabınız **Evet** ise, aşağıdaki soruyu cevaplayınız.

Hafta içinde en geç saat kaç kadar gece dışarıda kalmanıza izin verilir? (Pazartesi – Cuma arası)?

20 : 00' den önce

22 : 00 – 23 : 00 arası

20 : 00 – 21 : 00 arası

23 : 00 ya da daha geç

21 : 00 – 22 : 00 arası

İstediğim saate kadar

20. Genel olarak annen ve baban hafta sonları gece arkadaşlarıyla bir yere gitmene izin verirler mi?

Evet

Hayır

Eğer cevabınız **Evet** ise, aşağıdaki soruyu cevaplayınız.

Hafta sonları en geç saat kaç kadar gece dışarıda kalmanıza izin verilir?

20 : 00' den önce

22 : 00 – 23 : 00 arası

20 : 00 – 21 : 00 arası

23 : 00 ya da daha geç

21 : 00 – 22 : 00 arası

İstediğim saate kadar

Annen ve baban ařağıdakileri öğrenmek için ne kadar çaba gösterirler?

	Hiç çaba göstermez	Çok az çaba gösterir	Çok çaba gösterir
21. Eğer gece bir yere gittiysen nereye gittiğini			
22. Boş zamanlarında ne yaptığını,			
23. Okuldan çıktıktan sonra ne yaptığını,			

Annen ve babanın ařağıdakiler hakkında ne kadar bilgileri vardır?

	Bilgileri yoktur	Çok az bilgileri vardır	Çok bilgileri vardır
24. Eğer gece bir yere gittiysen nereye gittiğini			
25. Boş zamanlarında ne yaptığını,			
26. Okuldan çıktıktan sonra nereye gittiğini,			