

A. GÜLER-EDWARDS

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FUTURE TIME ORIENTATION,
ADAPTIVE SELF-REGULATION, AND WELL-BEING: SELF-TYPE
AND AGE RELATED DIFFERENCES

AYÇA GÜLER-EDWARDS

METU 2008

JUNE 2008

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FUTURE TIME ORIENTATION,
ADAPTIVE SELF-REGULATION, AND WELL-BEING: SELF-TYPE
AND AGE RELATED DIFFERENCES

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
OF
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

AYÇA GÜLER-EDWARDS

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR
THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN
THE DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

JUNE 2008

Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

Prof. Dr. Sencer Ayata
Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Prof. Dr. Nebi Sümer
Head of Department

This is to certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Prof. Dr. E. Olcay İmamođlu
Supervisor

Examining Committee Members

Prof. Dr. E. Olcay İmamođlu	(METU, PSY)_____
Prof. Dr. Deniz Şahin	(Hacettepe, PSY)_____
Prof. Dr. Bengi Öner-Özkan	(METU, PSY)_____
Prof. Dr. Tülin Gençöz	(METU, PSY)_____
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Sibel Kazak Berument	(METU, PSY)_____

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Name, Last name : Ayça Güler-Edwards

Signature :

ABSTRACT

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FUTURE TIME ORIENTATION, ADAPTIVE SELF-REGULATION, AND WELL-BEING: SELF-TYPE AND AGE RELATED DIFFERENCES

Güler-Edwards, Ayça

Ph.D., Department of Psychology

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. E. Olcay İmamoğlu

June 2008, 114 pages

The aim of the present study was to investigate: (a) self and age related differences in time perspective and future time orientations; (b) age differences in adaptive self-regulation; and (c) the contribution of future and self orientations and adaptive self-regulation to well-being. A questionnaire consisting of measures concerning future outlook and time perspective, adaptive self-regulation, self-construals, goals and subjective well-being variables was administered to 404 adults (191 young, 128 middle-aged, 85 older). Also, short structured interviews about time, future, end of life and age were conducted for descriptive and exploratory purposes with nine individuals, three individuals from each age group. On the basis of the results, it was concluded that, (1) older adults had less open and planful, but more anxious future

outlook than younger adults, and middle-aged adults had a time perspective more like older adults'; (2) there is a difference in the content of the goals reported by each age group, and total number of goals reported by older adults was lower than the number of goals reported by young and middle-aged adults; (3) for all age groups, balanced type (i.e., related-individuated, as defined by the Balanced Integration and Differentiation, BID, model) individuals had the most favourable future outlook, and only balanced-type individuals at young, middle and older ages did not differ from each other in terms of having the most favourable future outlook; (4) balanced type individuals reengaged into other goals more than the unbalanced type individuals when they were faced with an unattainable goal; (5) goal reengagement increased with having more open future time perspective, and the contribution of open future time perspective to goal reengagement was much more for middle-aged and older adults than younger adults; (6) self orientations, future time perspective and goal reengagement contribute to well-being, and contributions of future time perspective and goal reengagement to well-being after the contribution of self orientations were considerable only for young and middle-aged adults; (7) gender was not found to have a significant effect on goal reengagement and well-being, but women had slightly more anxious and fatalistic future attitudes than men.

Keywords: Future Orientations, Self-Construals, Adaptive Self-Regulation, Well-Being, Age Differences

ÖZ

GELECEK ZAMAN YÖNELİMİ, UYUMSAL ÖZ-YÖNETİM VE PSİKOLOJİK İYİ OLUŞ ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ: BENLİK VE YAŞA BAĞLI FARKLILIKLAR

Güler-Edwards, Ayça

Doktora, Psikoloji Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi: Prof. E. Olcay İmamoğlu

Haziran 2008, 114 sayfa

Bu çalışmanın amacı, yaşa ve benlik tiplerine bağlı farklılıklara göre: (a) gelecek zaman yönelimlerini; (b) uyumsal öz-yönetimi; ve (c) psikolojik iyi oluşu araştırmaktır. Gelecek yönelimi ve zaman algısı, uyumsal öz-yönetim, benlik kurguları, hedefler ve psikolojik iyi oluş değişkenleri ile ilgili ölçeklerden oluşan bir anket 404 yetişkine (191 genç, 128 orta ve 85 ileri yaş) uygulanmıştır. Ayrıca, açıklama ve fikir edinme amacıyla her yaş grubundan üçer kişi olmak üzere dokuz yetişkin ile zaman, gelecek, hayatın sonu ve yaş konuları ile ilgili yapılandırılmış kısa mülakatlar yapılmıştır. Bulgulardan hareketle şu sonuçlara varılmıştır: (1) ileri yaştakilerin gençlere göre gelecekte daha az fırsat gördükleri, geleceğe daha az planlı ve daha kaygılı baktıkları, ve orta yaştaki yetişkinlerin geleceğe bakışlarının ileri yaştakilere daha benzer olduğu; (2) her bir yaş grubu tarafından belirtilen hedeflerin nitelik ve nicelik bakımından farklı olduğu, ve ileri

yaştaki yetişkinlerin genç ve orta yaştakilere oranla daha az sayıda hedef belirttikleri; (3) tüm yaş gruplarında, dengeli benlik (Denge Modeli tarafından ilişkili-kendileşmiş olarak tanımlanan) tipindekilerin en olumlu gelecek bakışına sahip olduğu ve sadece bu benlik tipindeki genç, orta ve ileri yaştaki katılımcıların birbirlerinden farklılaşmayarak en olumlu bakışa sahip oldukları; (4) dengeli benlik tipindeki katılımcılar, ulaşamayacakları bir hedefle karşılaştıklarında, dengesiz benlik tipindekilere kıyasla yeni hedeflere bağlanmayı daha başarıyla gerçekleştirdikleri; (5) gelecekte daha çok fırsat olduğu düşünüldüğünde yeni hedeflere bağlanmanın arttığı ve bu yöndeki güçlü inancın yeni hedeflere bağlanmayı gençlere kıyasla orta ve ileri yaştakilerde daha çok arttırdığı; (6) benlik yönelimleri, geleceğe bakış ve yeni hedeflere bağlanmanın psikolojik iyi oluşla ilişkili olduğu; genç ve orta yaştaki yetişkinler için geleceğe bakış ve yeni hedefe bağlanmanın öznel iyiliğe benlik yönelimlerinin katkısına ek olarak kayda değer bir katkıda buldukları; (7) cinsiyetin yeni hedeflere bağlanma ve psikolojik iyi oluşta anlamlı bir katkısı olmadığı, ancak kadınların erkeklere oranla az da olsa geleceğe karşı daha kaygılı ve kaderci tutum taşıdıkları görülmüştür.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Gelecek Yönelimi, Benlik Kurguları, Uyumsal Öz-Yönetim, Psikolojik İyi Oluş, Yaşa Bağlı Farklılıklar.

To the angels in my life,

Fatoş, Celil, and Jonathan

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I have come a long way and I could have never imagined that. I have grown up everyday during this journey and so many people supported me wholeheartedly. I am greatly thankful to each and every one of them.

One person has always been very special and has witnessed my baby steps in the academia. Just from the beginning, she has lightened up my way and taught me a lot of things, not only about being a good academician but also about the life. She is the very reason and source of courage for me to follow my dream of being an academician and so being a life-time student. I am so grateful for being her student and I would like to express my sincere gratitude to Prof. Dr. Olcay İmamoğlu.

I would also like to thank Prof. Dr. Deniz Şahin and Prof. Dr. Bengi Öner-Özkan for their insightful comments during my study and to other members of my dissertation committee, Prof. Dr. Tülin Gençöz and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Sibel Kazak Berument.

I am very thankful to all my professors in Psychology Department for giving me the chance to study in psychology and for their enthusiasm to teach, and to all my friends in Psychology Department for their enourmous support and encouragement. I am especially thankful to Room B-45 (Emre Selçuk, Gül Günaydın, Mehmet Harma, Ahu Öztürk, Selin Salman and their frequent visitor Hilal Şen), Pınar Tosun, and Ahmet Çoymak. They have always welcomed me with big smiles on their faces, listened to me and encouraged me in hard times, and shared everything they have to help me. I have always felt so lucky to have such nice friends.

I am also so grateful to be a member of Business Administration Department, which has always been like a family to me and supported me during the last 10 years. I can never forget their trust to me and their endless support. I am especially thankful to my friends Barbaros Demirci, Sühan Altay, Yeşim Özalp, Banu Cingöz Ulu, Elif Engin, Gizem Keskin, Ufuk Kara, and Mesrur Börü for being there, listening to me, sharing my concerns and helping me all the time.

My experience at Concordia University with Dr. Carsten Wrosch has been a great opportunity for me to develop myself and I am grateful to have the chance to be a member of their lab. I would also like to thank Yasemin Gürcan and Rahşan Siviş Çetinkaya for their friendship during my difficult times; and Doğan Tırtıroğlu, Dominique Dussault, Marie-Judith Jean-Louis, Jamie Baxter, Berrak Kabasakal, and Ersin Aslıtürk for their support and not leaving me alone in Canada.

Finally, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my family. They have made everything possible by giving their endless love and they just made it impossible to describe how much I love them. My journey would be absolutely meaningless without Fatoş, Celil, and Jonathan.

This research is supported by a grant from Middle East Technical University (BAP-07.07.03.00_12) and a fellowship from the Turkish Academy of Sciences (TUBA).

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PLAGIARISM	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
ÖZ	vi
DEDICATION	viii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	ix
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	xi
LIST OF TABLES	xvi
LIST OF FIGURES	xviii
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Time and Future Time in Social Psychology.....	2
1.1.1 What is Time?	2
1.1.2 Time Studies in Psychology.....	3
1.1.3 Future Time Studies in Psychology	4
1.1.4 Correlates of Future Time Orientation.....	4
1.2 Development and Changes of Time Orientation over Life-Span.....	5
1.3 Role of Time Investigated through Change in Life-Span Theories	7
1.4 Adaptive Self-Regulation.....	9
1.5 Self-Construals and Future Time	11
1.5.1 The Balanced Integration and Differentiation (BID) Model.....	12

1.6	Paradox of Well-Being.....	13
1.7	Research Questions and Expectations.....	15
2.	METHOD.....	19
2.1	Participants.....	19
2.2	Scales	20
2.2.1	Future Time Perspective Scale (FTP)	20
2.2.2	The Life Orientation Test (LOT)	21
2.2.3	Attitude Towards the Future Scale (ATFS)	21
2.2.4	Positive Future Expectations Scale (PFES)	22
2.2.5	Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory (ZTPI)	22
2.2.6	Goal Disengagement and Reengagement Scale (Goal D-R).....	23
2.2.7	Brief Cope Scale	23
2.2.8	Balanced Integration and Differentiation Scale (BID).....	24
2.2.9	Scales of Psychological Well-Being (SPWB).....	24
2.2.10	Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS).....	25
2.2.11	Rosenberg’s Self-Esteem Scale (SES).....	25
2.2.12	Positive and Negative Affect Schedule.....	26
2.2.13	Goals.....	26
2.3	Procedure	27
2.4	Interview	27
3.	RESULTS	28
3.1	Analyses Concerning Question 1: Relation between Age and Time Perception.....	28

3.1.1	Intercorrelations among Related Variables	30
3.1.2	Differences between Age Groups in Time Perspective	32
3.1.3	Differences between Age Groups in Future Time Orientation	32
3.2	Analyses Concerning Question 2: Age Differences in Life Goals	34
3.3	Analyses Concerning Question 3: Relation between Self and Future Orientation	35
3.3.1	Differences between the Four Self-Construal Types of the BID Model at Different Ages with respect to Future Orientations.....	36
3.3.2	Differences between the Four Self-Construal Types of the BID Model with respect to Future Orientations of Young Adults.....	40
3.3.3	Differences between the Four Self-Construal Types of the BID Model with respect to Future Orientations of Middle-Aged Adults	41
3.3.4	Differences between the Four Self-Construal Types of the BID Model with respect to Future Orientations of Older Adults	42
3.4	Analyses Concerning Question 4: Relation between Self, Age and Goal Reengagement	44
3.4.1	Differences between the Four Self-Construal Types of the BID Model at Different Ages with respect to Goal Reengagement	44
3.5	Analyses Concerning Question 5: Relation between Goal Reengagement and Age with respect to Future Time Perception	44
3.5.1	Differences in Goal Reengagement between Young, Middle- Aged and Older Adults Having Different Future Time Perspectives	45
3.6	Analyses Concerning Question 6: Relationships between Future Time Perspective, Goal Reengagement, Self Orientations and Well-Being ...	48

3.6.1	Correlations of Well-Being Measures with Future Time Perspective, Goal Reengagement, and Self Orientations..	48
3.6.2	Self Orientations, Age and Gender as Predictors of Future Time Perspective, Goal Reengagement, and General Well-Being	49
3.6.3	Intercorrelations between Future Time Perspectives, Goal Reengagement, and Self Orientations for Different Age Groups	51
3.6.4	Future Time Perspective and Goal Reengagement as Mediators between Self Orientations and Well-Being: Testing a Structural Model.....	53
3.7	Interviews.....	56
3.7.1	Definition of Time.....	56
3.7.2	Past, Present, and Future	57
3.7.3	Mental Age vs. Physical Age	60
3.7.4	Thinking about the End of Life.....	61
4.	DISCUSSION	63
4.1	Age Differences in Time Perception and Future Orientation (Question 1).....	63
4.2	Change of Personal Goals with Age (Question 2)	64
4.3	Relationship of Future Orientation with Self-Construals (Question 3) .	65
4.4	Relationship of Adaptive Self-Regulation with Self-Construals (Question 4).....	66
4.5	Relationship between Adaptive Self-Regulation and Future Time Perspective (Question 5)	67
4.6	Role of Future Time Perspective, Self-Construals, and Self-Regulation in Contribution to Well-Being (Question 6).....	68

4.7	Gender Differences in Time Perspective, Future Orientation, Self-Regulation, and Well-Being (Question 7).....	71
4.8	Limitations and Suggestions	71
4.9	Overview of the Main Contributions and Conclusions.....	73
	REFERENCES.....	75
	APPENDICES	
A.	THE SCALES USED.....	85
B.	PSYCHOMETRIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SCALES USED	97
C.	TÜRKÇE ÖZET	105
D.	VITA	118

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES

Table 2.1	Variables and Related Measurement Instruments.....	21
Table 3.1	Descriptive Information about the Scales Used.....	29
Table 3.2	Intercorrelations between Age and Subscales of Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory.....	31
Table 3.3	Intercorrelations between Age, Future and Self Orientations, and Adaptive Self-Regulation.....	31
Table 3.4	Mean Differences between the Age Groups with respect to Time Perspectives and Future Orientations.....	33
Table 3.5	Percentage of Young, Middle-Aged and Older Adults who reported Goals relating to Different Categories	35
Table 3.6	Mean Differences between Age Groups with respect to Future Orientations	38
Table 3.7	Mean Differences between Self-Construal Types with respect to Future Orientations	38
Table 3.8	Mean Differences between Age Groups with respect to Future Time Perspective for Different Self-Construal Types of BID Model	39
Table 3.9	Mean Differences between the Four Self-Construal Types of the BID Model with respect to Future Time Perspective of Different Age Groups.....	39
Table 3.10	Mean Differences between the Four Self-Construal Types of the BID Model with respect to Future Orientations of Different Age Groups	42
Table 3.11	Mean Differences between Self-Construal Types of BID Model with respect to Goal Reengagement.....	45

Table 3.12 Mean Differences in Goal Reengagement of Each Age Group with Different Future Time Perspective Levels	46
Table 3.13 Mean Differences in Goal Reengagement of Each Age Group within Different Future Time Perspective Levels	47
Table 3.14 Correlations of Well-Being Measures with Future Time Perspective, Goal Reengagement, and Self Orientations	49
Table 3.15 Self Orientations, Age and Gender as Predictors of Future Time Perspective, Goal Reengagement, and Well-Being	50
Table 3.16 Intercorrelations between Future Time Perspective, Goal Reengagement, and Self Orientations for Young Adults.....	52
Table 3.17 Intercorrelations between Future Time Perspective, Goal Reengagement, and Self Orientations for Middle-Aged Adults	52
Table 3.18 Intercorrelations between Future Time Perspective, Goal Reengagement, and Self Orientations for Older Adults	52

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES

Figure 3.1	Mean future time perspective scores of the four self-construal types suggested by the BID Model at different age groups.....	40
Figure 3.2	Mean goal reengagement scores of young, middle-aged and older adults with different future time perspective levels.....	47
Figure 3.3	Latent factor model analysis by AMOS showing the path coefficients for young adults	54
Figure 3.4	Latent factor model analysis by AMOS showing the path coefficients for middle-aged adults	55

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Even though it is very hard to define what “time” is, while being embedded in it, time is an important dimension that our lives are based on. Among very different aspects of it, future time represents a special part of our thinking and behaviours in our lives. Part of this importance comes from the goal-oriented nature of human beings, while other part of it comes from the fact that our lives, in other words, our future is finite. Therefore, our understanding of time and goals are expected to change throughout our life-span.

As will be mentioned more in detail in the subsequent section, life-span theories emphasized the adaptive (e.g. age or situation appropriate) goal management and its contribution to well-being. However, change in the time perspective within life-span, and individual differences within the age groups have not received enough attention, yet. This dissertation intends to contribute to fill these gaps by investigating age and self related differences in: (a) time perspective and future time orientations; (b) goals and adaptive self-regulation; as well as (c) the contribution of future and self orientations and adaptive self-regulation to well-being.

In this chapter, first understanding of time and future time, and nature of goals and self-regulation within life-span perspective are reviewed. Second, adaptive self-regulation and thirdly, a model of self-construals are presented. Finally, the research questions and expectations of the present dissertation are introduced.

1.1. Time and Future Time in Social Psychology

1.1.1. What is Time?

How can we, being embedded in it, conceptualize time? While being a part of it, and experiencing physical and biological effects on us make us familiar to it, it is also difficult to mentally represent time in our minds. Beside this paradox, our inability to affect anything regarding its nature puts us in a position where we are completely powerless. Therefore, how can we translate this awareness of time into something that can be represented and analyzed in studies?

The nature of time necessitates it to be studied by many disciplines like physics, philosophy, biology, sociology and psychology. Actually, discussion about the nature of time goes back to ancient times starting with philosophers like Heraclito, Parmenide, Plato and Aristotle, and continues with the physicians like Newton, Galileo, Prigogine and Einstein. Each of these investigations have gathered around one basic discussion, whether time is an external factor to human mechanism, that is understood and accommodated to by the changes in environmental factors, or whether it exists within the human system and is shaped by the environment. For instance, in ancient times, time was conceptualized as a notion put into sequence by mind with respect to before and after. In physics, this sequential understanding was subject to discussions defending the independency of time from human mind. However, later, especially with the studies of Einstein, time was seen as related to the existence of conscious observer, which is the human mind (Buccheri, Gesu, & Saniga, 2000).

Philosophers like Kant and Heidegger accepted time as a fundamental dimension of human existence and in the way we experience the world. In psychology, although a well organized and comprehensive perspective still does not exist, with an entire chapter on time perception, the central role of time in psychology was indicated by William James at the end of the nineteenth century. Although the role of time was narrowed to the influence of past learned contingencies on current behaviours by the behaviourists, with the effect of Gestalt psychologists, a broad conceptualization of time perspective as a basic process in individual, as well as societal functioning was established again

(Keough, Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999).

1.1.2. Time Studies in Psychology

There is no systematic investigation of time in psychology, even though there is variety of studies about different aspects of it. For instance, some researchers (e.g. Alsaker, Flammer, & Tschanz, 2005; Bittman & Goodin, 2000) studied how people use their time, while some others (e.g. Block, Zakay, & Hancock, 1998; Macar, 2005) studied judgments of time intervals and passage of time. However, these studies still cannot answer the question of how individuals' lives are influenced by time. Another line of studies (e.g. Calster, Lens & Nuttin, 1987; Gjesme 1981, 1983; Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999) focused on the individual perception of time and they have constituted a major portion of studies on time in psychology. According to these studies, not only being able to judge the passage of time, individuals are capable of mentally moving in time as well. Remembering the past, realizing the present and expecting the future are inseparable part of our daily thinking and the way we think in a particular way about time is under the influence of both internal and external factors.

Some researchers argued that regardless of the flexibility of individuals to travel in time, there is a tendency developed to emphasize a specific temporal zone. Getting stuck in any of these zones is associated with problems in psychological and physical functioning (Holman & Silver, 1998). Zimbardo and Boyd (1999) defined time perspective as “the often nonconscious process whereby the continual flows of personal and social experiences are assigned to temporal categories, or time frames, that help to give order, coherence, and meaning to those events” (pp. 1271). They claimed that having a balanced time perspective, being mentally able to switch between temporal zones depending on the situational considerations and personal resources, is the ideal and most adaptive for individuals. Yet, many other researchers investigated particular temporal zones and the future time has received most of the attention mainly for its association with many highly investigated variables. Before reviewing these correlations, it is necessary to look at how future time is defined and examined.

1.1.3. Future Time Studies in Psychology

In general, stable individual tendency to emphasize future is named as future orientation (McGrath & Tschan, 2004); but the construct has been named (e.g. “future time orientation” or “future time perspective”) and defined in many different ways. Many factors have been claimed as affecting future orientation such as personality (Padawer, Jacobs-Lawson, Hershey, & Thomas, 2007), social norms and socio-cultural background (Jones, 1988, Agarwal, Tripathi, & Srivastava, 1983), parenting (Nurmi & Pulliainen, 1991), gender (Schmidt, Lamm, and Trommsdorff, 1978), and chronological age (Gonzalez & Zimbardo, 1985). Researchers could not agree on whether future orientation is a unitary or multidimensional construct. While some researchers viewed future orientation as a general inclination towards goals (Gjesme 1981, 1983; Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999), others discussed it as a multidimensional construct. For instance; according to Trommsdorff (1983) future orientation is the content, duration, or directionality of the subjective experience of future, while it is described in terms of motivation, planning, and evaluation processes by others (e.g., Nurmi, 1989; Calster, Lens & Nuttin, 1987). These various definitions also led the construct to be differently operationalized and measured. Some focused on only the future time, such as the Consideration of Future Consequences scale (Strathman, Gleicher, Boniger, & Edwards, 1994), while other measures focused on general time perspective measure including the future time, such as Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999). Therefore, this scattered nature of research, lack of a comprehensive theory, and lack of a well-known, standard, reliable, and valid measure have been the obstacles for integrating time studies into other areas of psychology studies.

1.1.4. Correlates of Future Time Orientation

Future time orientation has been found to be correlated with various variables. Two major areas related to studies of future time have been health behaviours and educational psychology. In the studies investigating how health behaviours are affected by time perspective, it was generally found that considering future and its consequences

more is related to less risky and unhealthy behaviours such as smoking and drinking less, driving safe, environmental behaviour, having more health check-up, exercising more, and eating healthy (Keough et al., 1999; Mahon & Yarcheski, 1994; Strathman et al., 1994; Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999; Zimbardo, Keough, & Boyd, 1997). In educational psychology area, the general findings indicated that positive attitudes towards future with a perceived instrumentality have a positive impact on students' motivation and interest (Bembenutty & Karabenick, 2004; Calster, Lens, & Nuttin, 1987; Husman & Lens, 1999; Kauffman & Husman, 2004). Not only in predicting educational goals but also for career planning and attitudes, positive future attitude and a sense of control were significant predictors (Lennings, 1994; Marko & Savickas, 1998). Other variables that are found to be positively associated with future orientation are well-being and psychological adjustment (e.g. Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999), conscientiousness (Keough et al., 1999), preference for consistency (e.g. Rappaport, Enrich, & Wilson, 1985), self-esteem, and self-confidence (Nurmi & Pulliainen, 1991), satisfaction with romantic relations (e.g. Öner-Özkan, 2004; Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2003), and interest in the future beyond death (Öner-Özkan, 2007).

1.2. Development and Change of Time Orientation over the Life-Span

Even though there is not plenty of them, some studies investigated the development and change of time orientation over the life-span. These studies indicated that for the very early ages, it is hard to talk about a complete time orientation since it is highly related to cognitive maturation. As indicated in Piaget's studies, cognitive development in relation to the concept of time is completed around the age of 11 (Laor & Granek, 1997). As children grow older, the length of their future orientation extends (Trommsdorff, 1983). In a study with adolescents at the ages of 11 and 15, Nurmi (1989) found that levels of planning, realization and knowledge concerning hopes, control beliefs, and optimism increased with age. Moreover, adolescents' future orientation reflected cultural prototype of expected life-span development. Hence, they expected to finish their education first, then to get a job, to get married, and finally to start saving for their later life.

The start of young adulthood is characterized by evaluating the capabilities, probing and questioning various directions, and giving important decisions such as professional preferences and selecting a partner. All these require planning for future and directing it. Hence, time turns out to be structured, expendable, and directional. These commitments and goals make the efficient use of time very essential (Shmotkin & Eyal, 2003). With the awareness of the social clock, age appropriate behaviour forms, being on time or off time is also among the concerns of young adults (Neugarten, Moore, & Lowe, 1968).

In the middle ages, individuals see themselves as the bridges between generations. They have a clear sense of differentiation from the younger and older generations. By looking at both the past and future, they become more aware that time is moving faster and time is finite. This awareness of limitations makes the time an essential asset to be managed and controlled in order to attain goals (Neugarten, 1968). Changes in appearance, physical well-being, increase in frequency of diseases, and increasing caregiving duties for parents leads to a greater fear of death, and as Bengston, Cuellar, & Raga (as cited in Smothkin & Eyal, 2003) indicated that fear is more intense for middle-aged individuals than younger or older adults. As indicated by Erikson, care for the well-being and the future of the next generation then serves as a coping mechanism and even might create a sense of continuity (Smothkin & Eyal, 2003).

For older adults, however, the explanations and studies on how they orient themselves towards past, present, and future are much more complicated. The slowdown of internal rhythms with the physiological aging is interconnected with the experience of quicker external rhythms. Time seems to pass more quickly (Smothkin & Eyal, 2003). According to Neugarten (1968) value of time determines the subjective speed of it and the scarcity of time left makes it more valuable for older people. Staudinger, Freund, Linden, and Maas (1999) on the other hand, explain it by action-theoretical conceptions. "Thus, time passes too slowly when one wants to reach a goal soon, and too quickly when one does not want to arrive" (p.319).

Contrary to the general assumption that older people are primarily focused on the past, studies (e.g. Baltes & Mayer, 1999; Lennings, 2000) found, with increasing age, temporal foci predominantly became present oriented. Just another contradiction arises

from older adults' orientation to the future. Smothkin (1992) indicated that conception of future is challenged by diminishing time and approaching death, and older adults were found to avoid answering future-oriented items. Similarly, Rappoport, Fossler, Bross and Gilden (1993) argued the finding that older focus on the present rather than the future represents a kind of disguised death-anxiety. On the other hand, the participants, with an age range of 70 to 100, in Berlin Aging Study (Staudinger, Freund, Linden, & Maas, 1999) reported that they don't expect death in near or distant future, and they have plans for the next month and the coming year. Other studies also supported those findings by indicating that plans, hopes for the future self and a future time perspective are maintained in most of the older adults (Staats, Partlo, & Stubbs, 1993). Studies (e.g., Ryff 1991, Ryff & Heidrich, 1997) comparing different age groups showed that hope, future time perspective, and cognitions about the future may change across the life-span and might differ among various cohorts of individuals. The future expectations of the oldest group were found to be consistently lower than the future ratings of the younger groups.

In line with future orientation at different ages, few researchers (e.g. Cameron, Desai, Bahador, & Dremel, 1977-78; Emmons, 1986; Nurmi, 1992; Uçanok, 2001) also studied age differences in personal goals and concerns. These studies indicated that personal goals reflect the major developmental tasks of particular age. For instance; young adults mentioned more education and family related goals, middle-aged adults had goals related to their children and property, and older adults mentioned goals related to health, retirement, leisure activities and the world.

1.3. Role of Time Investigated through Change in Life-Span Theories

In many other studies in psychology, the future time perspective or how it might influence human thoughts, emotions and behaviours have not been directly addressed but discussed by studying the changes that occur as individuals move forward in time, such as personality dynamics, change in goals through the life, and effects of these on well-being.

Even though trait models of personality, such as Five-factor model of McCrae

and Costa (1999), state relatively stable nature of personality and have received a great deal of attention by providing a compelling framework representing individual differences broadly and systematically; this framework is criticized to be extremely general for classification, disregarding the roles of situational, cultural, and historical contexts, and ignoring middle-level units, such as schemata, tasks and strategies. Instead, growth models of personality suggested personality includes time and place related constructs such as coping strategies, skills, and values; and life narratives which give purpose and unity to the self (McAdams, 1992). Actually, as indicated by Staudinger (2005) the distinction between trait and growth models of personality development constitutes the main part of personality and aging reviews. However, investigating the self-regulatory sources of stability and change and taking into account the interactions between biological, sociocultural factors and the developing person are daunting tasks, as well as an emerging area.

On the other hand, dynamic conceptualization of self-concept by theories like “possible selves” (Markus & Nurious, 1986) and “self guides” (Higgins, 1987), have represented the understanding that the individuals are active agents in shaping their lives; goals give meaning to their lives and the self partly consists of the individual’s goals and the organization among them (Carver & Scheier, 1999). In that sense, “future” becomes substantial for being the temporal space where the life is oriented to and at the same time where there is a limit. The restriction in the opportunities lying in the future is especially noticed as individuals move forward in their lives.

As well as the developmental changes coming with passing years, changes in the nature and understanding of future time attracted the life-span studies. Adapting to changing conditions in life by managing goals, and maintaining integrity and continuity of the self have been seen as the primary focus of individuals and the primary sources of subjective well-being. According to life span theorists, individuals need to select among goals and to optimize their choices in line with individual and social changes as they age, and the limited resources, including temporal resources, are among the factors causing that self-regulation. Different perspectives emphasized different aspect of later life self-regulation. While some theories emphasize the active part of attaining goals and coping with the failure, and managing goals according to changing conditions; others

emphasize more the nature of goals and their priorities depending on developmental and temporal reasons. For instance; Baltes (1987), as a leading scholar in life-span studies, indicated that any process of development involves aspects of growth (gain) and decline (loss). Successful development is defined as the process of the simultaneous maximization of gains and minimization of losses over the life course. His theory of Selection, Optimization, and Compensation (SOC) is based on the operation and coordination of selection of goals, optimization of the means to reach these goals, and compensation, which is the use of substitutive means to maintain functioning when previously available means are lost or blocked. On the other hand, Socioemotional Selectivity Theory claims that perceiving future as expansive or limited plays a fundamental role in the selection and pursuit of goals (Carstensen, Isaacowitz, & Charles, 1999). Theory indicates that boundaries on time influence which social motives (knowledge or emotional oriented) are most important. The knowledge path is the attempts to acquire knowledge about the self and the social world, future-oriented, and it is used more in early years of life. Emotional path includes goals to feel good, derive emotional meaning from life, deepen intimacy and maintain the self. Emotional goals are especially important during infancy and early childhood and gain importance again in old age as future-oriented strivings become less relevant (Carstensen, 1998).

Therefore, as indicated by these and similar other life-span theories such as The Model of Assimilative and Accommodative Coping (Brandstädter & Greve, 1994), and Life-span Theory of Control (Schulz & Heckhausen, 1996), goal attainment is important but not possible every time. Losses and failures, or consideration of these, and compensation are also a significant part of the self-regulation process and a successful life management.

1.4. Adaptive Self-Regulation

Even though self-regulation has been defined as “any effort on the part of an agent to alter its own responses” (Heatherton & Baumeister, 1996, p. 91), or as the organization of individual’s cognitive, emotional and behavioural reactions (Muraven, Baumeister & Tice, 1999), self-regulation has been operationalized as a goal-attainment

process, mostly. Not putting sufficient effort or showing ineffective or counterproductive behaviours in reaching goals are labelled as self-regulation failure (Heatherton & Baumeister, 1996). Also, in the studies on subjective well-being (e.g., Diener, 1984; Brunstein, 1993), goal attainment, perceived progress toward goals, and higher level of commitment were found as contributing factors to higher subjective well-being.

On the other hand, some scholars (e.g., Wrosch, Scheier, Carver, & Schulz, 2003; Wrosch & Scheier, 2003; Wrosch, Scheier, Miller, Schulz, & Carver, 2003) objected by saying that this point of view does not reflect the whole picture. They indicated that goals are not always attainable due to several reasons, such as genetic potential, age-graded systems and norms, and limit placed by the time span of the individual life. In that case, disengaging from an unattainable goal, withdrawal of effort and commitment, becomes “an adaptive response when it leads to the taking up of other goals or enhances the probability of achieving remaining goals because it frees up resources for their attainment” (Wrosch, Scheier, Carver et. al, 2003, p.7). For that reason, they indicate that the quality of life is supported by both striving for the goals and being able to disengage from unattainable goals. Besides trying to reach the goals, disengaging from unattainable ones, reengaging into new ones, and striving for them, which are also called as adaptive self-regulation, bring considerable contributions to the quality of life. In their studies with young and old age groups, Wrosch, Scheier, Miller et. al. (2003) found that adaptive self-regulation contributes subjective well-being for both groups but there are different patterns for these two groups. For young adults, reengagement was not a contributor to subjective well-being among students who generally disengage from unattainable goals. However, reengagement into new goals was an important contributor for older adults’ disengagement from unattainable goals. Also, older adults generally reported that it is easier for them to give up unattainable goals and to find new goals to pursue than did young adults. They concluded that people seem to adjust their goal management process as they advance in age, and a person’s future-related opportunities may be considered as an important factor in identifying adaptive personality processes involved in the self-regulation of goals.

Wrosch, Scheier, Carver et. al. also indicated that individuals can differ in their

reactions to unattainable goals and it is important to determine the basis for individual differences in the success people exhibit disengaging from unattainable goals and reengaging into new goals. Among the factors suggested that might affect disengagement and reengagement are how individuals evaluate future opportunities and constraints, possible selves, and being optimistic. Accordingly, adaptive self-regulation was found to be higher for optimists, since they use more problem-focused coping strategies, and is expected to be higher for individuals with representations of positive future evaluations. These researchers also indicated the need for future research examining the nature of self-related variables in adaptive self-regulation.

1.5. Self-Construals and Future Time

The studies so far have indicated that age and developmental stage contribute to individuals' future outlook and their goal regulation. However, these studies also pointed out that the factor of age, on its own, is not capable of explaining all.

In the studies on the nature of time, even though understanding of time is seen as open to situational modifications and contingencies, learned and preferred focus regarding time is claimed to become chronic and function as a personality trait (Zimbardo, Keough and Boyd, 1997). Many measures developed so far also accepted that trait-like nature (e.g., Calster, Lens & Nuttin, 1987; Nurmi, 1989; Strathman, Gleicher, Boniger, & Edwards, 1994; Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999), and individual based understanding of time is widely accepted. Also, the study of Güler (2004) indicated that future outlook differs among the university students according to their self-construals. This study explored Turkish university students' orientations toward the future, and investigated how these orientations differ according to their self-types, as suggested by the Balanced Integration and Differentiation Model (BID) (İmamoğlu, 1995, 1998, 2003). Accordingly, respondents with related-individuated and separated-patterned self-types, proposed by the BID Model to represent the most balanced and unbalanced self-types, respectively, significantly differed from each other in that the former group seemed to have a more favourable outlook toward the future. Therefore, individuals might differ in their future outlook and goal regulations not only according to their age

and developmental stage but also according to their self-types.

1.5.1. Balanced Integration and Differentiation (BID) Model and Proposed Self-Types

İmamoğlu (2003) claims that the tradition of individualism in psychology has two interrelated tacit assumptions: According to “developmental gain” assumption to become more independent from others has been regarded as a developmental gain. “Bipolar dichotomy” assumption, on the other hand, conveys that independence or individuation and relatedness tend to be opposing tendencies; therefore, it also assumes the precondition that individuation inevitably necessitates overcoming one’s bond and ties to others. Different from the self-construal models developed according to that approach, such as “Independence – Interdependence” Model of Markus and Kitayama (1991), the Balanced Integration and Differentiation (BID) Model (İmamoğlu, 1995, 1998, 2003) relies on the assumption that “the natural order involves a balanced system resulting from the interdependent integration of differentiated components” (İmamoğlu, 2003, p. 371). Accordingly, differentiation and integration are both distinct and complementary processes of a balanced order, and they do not represent opposing forces. The model assumes that the balance is a high-order process, and as a part of this process individuals both tend to actualize their unique potentials and be effective, and they tend to be connected to others. These two basic orientations are called as intrapersonal differentiation and interpersonal integration, respectively. The low and high ends of latter orientation are labelled as separatedness and relatedness, respectively. The high end of the former orientation is referred to as individuation (i.e., becoming differentiated as a unique person with intrinsic referents), and the low end is referred to as normative patterning (i.e., becoming patterned in accordance with extrinsic referents).

According to the model, individuals can have low or high scores on differentiation and integration orientations. Therefore, the model suggests four self-types depending on the different combinations of low or high scores on these two orientations. These self-types are separated-individuation, related-patterning (representing the most differentiated and the integrated types, respectively), separated-patterning and related-

individuation (representing the most unbalanced and balanced types, respectively).

Studies conducted to test the model so far have shown that as suggested by the model, individuation and relatedness are not opposing but distinct orientations, and the existence of the suggested four different self-types was supported among Turkish, American, and Canadian samples (Gezici & Güvenç, 2003; İmamoğlu, 1998, 2003, 2006; İmamoğlu & İmamoğlu, 2007; İmamoğlu & Karakitapoğlu-Aygün, 2004, 2006, Kurt, 2002a, 2002b). Moreover, as suggested by the model, relatedness and individuation have been found to be associated with qualitatively different psychological variables. For instance, being related was found to be associated with affect-related variables, such as perceived parental love-acceptance, self and family satisfaction, positive self and other models, secure attachment, positive future expectation, and self-esteem; individuation was found to be associated intrinsic motivational variables, such as the need for cognition, curiosity, tolerance for ambiguity (İmamoğlu, 2003, 2006; İmamoğlu & İmamoğlu, 2007; İmamoğlu, S., 2005). Studies conducted so far also supported the claim that balanced type individuals have optimal psychological functioning (İmamoğlu, 2003, 2006; İmamoğlu & Güler-Edwards, 2007; İmamoğlu & İmamoğlu, 2005, 2007; İmamoğlu S., 2005; Turan, 2007).

1.6. Paradox of Well-Being

Even though it has been studied extensively so far, few theories and studies have focused on well-being across the life-span (Ryff, 1995). However, as people get older, with several physical, psychological, and social changes, their sense of self and capacity to live happily are threatened (Sneed & Whitbourne, 2005). On the other hand, majority of people report having a positive self evaluation of themselves and their lives in later years of life (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999). This phenomenon is referred as the “paradox of well-being” by Mroczek and Kolarz (1998). Different answers were provided for that paradox. Among these, personality or particular characteristics of personality, such as optimism and extraversion, were accepted as one of the strongest and most consistent predictors of subjective well-being (e.g., Diener et al., 1999; Diener & Lucas, 1999; Srivastava, John, Gosling, & Potter, 2003; Wrosch & Scheier, 2003). On

the other hand, against this static personality view, as a major figure in life-span perspective, Erikson indicated that personality development is a life-long process (as cited in Sneed & Whitbourne, 2005). While for Erikson well-being is a developmental accomplishment as a result of the positive resolution of psychological crises (as cited in Sneed & Whitbourne, 2005), for many other life span theories improved goal management and adaptivity has been the key for this developmental accomplishment. According to these scholars (e.g. Baltes, 1987; Brandtstädter & Greve, 1994; Lang & Carstensen, 1999; Schulz & Heckhausen, 1996) high subjective well-being at later years of life was related to better capacity to adaptation, which is developed as people age, and to better regulation of goals through selection and reprioritization of goals.

Not only physical, psychological, and social changes, but also the very fact that human beings have a limited time on earth bring another challenge and constitute part of the “paradox of well-being”. The capacity to contemplate their limited time is a defining characteristic of humans. Psychological encounter with death has attracted studies in psychology. Yet, wide variety of emotional reactions to end of life led to different conceptualizations and operationalizations. Recently, new models considering the multidimensional nature of the concept and integration of different approaches have begun to emerge (Florian & Mikulincer, 1997). In aging literature, as well, many studies tried to measure attitudes of people on death anxiety, fear, threat, and avoidance. Some developmental trends have been observed, but multidimensionality of death attitudes, such as avoidance, acceptance, or meaning, necessitates derivation of careful interpretations out of research (Neimeyer & Werth, 2005).

Regarding the end of life part of the paradox, two theories offer some answers. First is the gerotranscendence theory of Tornstam (1997, 1999). Tornstam suggested that moving into old ages carries many challenges and brings a shift in meta-perspective from a rational and materialistic perspective to a more transcendent one. Individual on that path looks forward into the future and outward beyond the self. That transition may involve a decline in self-centredness and an increase in the amount of time spent in quiet reflection. Death related thoughts are left behind with a possible redefinition of time, space and objects. According to the qualitative interviews with people between 52 and 97 years of age, Tornstam (1999) indicated that people with a high degree of

gerotranscendence have a higher degree of controlled social activity, higher degree of life satisfaction, less dependent on social activities for well-being, and have more active and complex coping patterns.

The second theory is the theory of Terror Management (TMT; Goldenberg, Pyszczynski, Greenberg, & Solomon, 2000; Pyszczynski, Greenberg, & Solomon, 1999; Pyszczynski, Solomon, & Greenberg, 2003). According to theory, abilities of casual analysis, future anticipation, and self-reflection lead to the awareness of one's own ultimate mortality, which might be emotionally manifested in anxiety and terror. This existential terror will inhibit adaptive functioning if it is not buffered (Salzman, 2001). Distinct defensive processes are activated by accessible thoughts of death, which are proximal and distal terror management defenses (Pyszczynski et al., 1999). Proximal defenses are against conscious death-related thoughts, relatively rational, and they are cognitive processes to push death out of conscious, often by seeking distractions. Distal terror management defenses are against nonconscious but accessible thoughts of death and involve maintaining self-esteem and faith in one's cultural worldview. As indicated by Lifton (as cited in, Pyszczynski et al., 2003) immortality provided by the culture can be obtained through five modes of experience: biological (representing the idea that an individual is the continuation of past generations and will continue to live with next generation); creative (providing a creative and lasting contribution to society that will carry on after death); natural (feeling oneself as a part of an eternal natural universe); spiritual and religious attainments (exploring a higher plane of existence); and experiential (intense peak experiences). Individuals' need to hold on to that cultural worldview increase as mortality becomes more salient, which is the mortality salience hypothesis of TMT.

1.7. Research Questions and Expectations

The aim of this dissertation is to investigate self (i.e., self types as defined by Balanced Integration and Differentiation, BID, Model) and age (i.e., young, middle-aged and older adults) related differences in: (a) time perspective and future time orientations; (b) adaptive self-regulation; and (c) the contribution of future and self orientations and

adaptive self-regulation to well-being. In this regard, the basic research questions addressed in the present dissertation are briefly summarized below together with the related expectations.

Question 1. How are time perception and future orientation related to age?

Even though considered to be affected by situational modifications and contingencies, so far time has mostly been accepted and measured as a personality trait (e.g., Calster, Lens & Nuttin, 1987; Nurmi, 1989; Strathman, Gleicher, Boniger, & Edwards, 1994; Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999). However, studies focusing on development and change of time over life-span, as well as life-span studies pointed out the factor of age and indicated that age and developmental stage contribute to individuals' time perception and future outlook (e.g. Neugarten, 1968; Shmotkin & Eyal, 2003; Carstensen, Isaacowitz & Charles, 1999). Therefore, it was expected that (a) individuals at different ages would have different time perspectives; (b) younger adults would have more favourable future outlook compared to other age groups (i.e. middle-aged and older adults).

Question 2. How are the quantity and quality of personal goals affected by age?

In line with the first Question, life-span studies also indicated that age and developmental stage affect goal selection (e.g. Baltes, 1987; Schulz & Heckhausen, 1996; Wrosch, Scheier, Miller, Schulz, & Carver, 2003). In a study conducted in Turkey by Uçanok (2001), young, middle-aged and older adults had different goals depending on their developmental stage. In Uçanok's study, while young adults reported to have more occupational and financial goals, middle-aged adults reported occupational and family related goals, and older adults reported to have goals more in health, leisure and world related areas. Therefore, on the basis of Uçanok's and other previous studies (e.g. Cameron, Desai, Bahador, & Dremel, 1977-78; Emmons, 1986; Nurmi, 1992) on age differences in personal goals and concerns, it was expected that (a) older adults would have less number of goals compared to middle-aged and younger adults; (b) adults' goals and concerns would reflect the developmental tasks of their own age. For instance,

young adults were expected to be more interested in education, occupation and starting a family, middle-aged adults were expected to be after the goals related to their children's lives and occupation, while older adults were expected to be concerned more with health and leisure activities.

Question 3. How do individuals' future orientations differ according to their self-construal types?

As shown by the previous study of İmamoğlu and Güler-Edwards (2007), young adults having different self-construal types also were found to have different future attitudes. In their study, balanced type (related-individuated) individuals had the most favourable future outlook. In line with these findings, it was expected that for all age groups, individuals having different self types would differ in their future outlook and balanced type individuals would have the most favourable future outlook compared to other self type groups. Related to BID Model's assertion that the balanced self-type is associated with optimal psychological functioning, individuals with balanced type were expected to have favourable outlook regardless of their age. In other words, effect of age on future outlook was expected to be minimal for balanced type individuals.

Question 4. How do individuals' self-regulations differ according to their self-construal types and age?

As concluded by the studies of Wrosch, Scheier, Miller et. al. (2003) people seem to adjust their goal management process as they advance in age. Hence, it was expected that older and middle-aged adults have better adaptive self-regulation compared to younger adults. Also, in line with the studies of Wrosch, Scheier, Carver et. al. (2003) indicating the possible role of individual or self related differences in the success people exhibit disengaging from unattainable goals and reengaging into new goals, it was expected that individuals having different self types would differ in their adaptive self-regulation and balanced type individuals would have the most successful goal regulation compared to other self type groups.

Question 5. How do individuals' self-regulations differ according to their future time perspective?

Again, in line with the studies of Wrosch, Scheier, Carver et. al. (2003) suggesting that disengagement and reengagement are affected by how individuals evaluate future opportunities and constraints, possible selves, and being optimistic, it was expected that for all age groups, adults having open or expansive future time perspective would have more adaptive self-regulation.

Question 6. How is well-being affected by future time perspective, self-regulation, and self orientations at different ages?

As claimed by life-span theories, successful goal management and adaptivity might contribute to well-being especially at older ages (e.g., Baltes, 1987; Brandtstädter & Greve, 1994; Lang & Carstensen, 1999; Schulz & Heckhausen, 1996). Also, future orientation and personality have shown to be related to well-being in previous studies (e.g. Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999, Diener et al., 1999; Diehl, Coyle, & Labouvie-Vief, 1996; Srivastava et al., 2003). Therefore, it was expected that all these three variables (i.e. self-regulation, future time perspective, and self orientations) would contribute to well-being and the role of self-orientations were expected to be somewhat stable, while the role of self-regulation and future time perspective was expected to be more susceptible to age factor.

Question 7. Does gender have an effect on time perspective and future orientation, self-regulation and well-being?

Even though gender is not expected to affect any of these variables specifically, it will be considered in some of the further analyses. Effect of gender has not been a major focus in previous life-span, self-regulation, and well-being studies. A consistent finding in previous studies (e.g. Brannon, 1999; İmamoğlu & Güler-Edwards, 2007) regarding the role of gender has been related to anxious future orientations. These studies indicated that women have higher anxiety levels and they are more anxious about their future.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

2.1. Participants

Individuals from different age groups participated in the study. One hundred ninety one participants from young age group (Range: 18-34, Mean: 21.65, SD = 1.73), 128 participants from middle age group (Range: 35-59, Mean: 46.18, SD = 7.84) and 85 older adults (Range: 60-87, Mean: 66.62, SD = 7.12) participated in the study. Studies investigating individuals at different age groups usually categorized people in three different age groups, which are young, middle-aged, and older adults. Although there are not an agreed upon ages on how to divide these groups, in many studies (e.g. Cate & John, 2007; Maxfield, Pyszczynski, Kluck, Cox, Greenberg, Solomon, & Weise, 2007; Ong, Bergman, Bisconti & Wallace, 2006) age range is defined as 18-40 for young adults, 35-65 for middle-age, and over 60 for older adults. Young group participants were Middle East Technical University students. Eighty nine of them were females and 102 of them were males. Middle age and older age group participants were academicians and employees of Middle East Technical University, grandparents or parents of graduate students, employees of other government and private offices (such as Sayıştay, Halkbank, and DSİ), members of vocational associations (such as teacher's club houses) or other social activities in İzmir and Ankara. Sixty eight of middle age group participants were females and 60 of them were males. There were 34 females and 51 males in older adult group.

Most of the young adults were of urban background (93.2 %). Most of middle-aged and older adults reported that they spent most of their time in a big city or metropol

(92.5 %); 57.3 % of them reported they have university or higher level education. Also, 85.3 % of them live with their families, 81.2 % of them are married and 85.8 % of them have one or more children.

Nearly none of young participants (.5 %), 1.6 % of middle-aged participants, and 10.56 % of older adults evaluated their general physical condition as bad, or very bad.

For a more in-depth exploration of time and future perspective of individuals and factors shaping these, structured interviews were conducted. Nine individuals, three individuals from each age group, were interviewed. The interviews were conducted by the author herself at the offices or homes of the respondents, and each interview took approximately 15 minutes.

2.2. Scales

The questionnaire used consisted of demographic questions, a question on subjective evaluation of general physical health, twelve scales, and an open-ended question regarding goals. The questionnaire aimed to measure future outlook, self-types, adaptive self-regulation, subjective well-being, and goals, as it can be seen in Table 2.1. The scales for which only the English-forms were available (i.e. Future Time Perspective Scale, Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory, Goal Disengagement and Reengagement Scale, and Brief Cope Scale) were translated by two bilingual psychologists and checked by another judge through back translation.

2.2.1. Future Time Perspective (FTP) Scale

This scale was developed by Carstensen and Lang (1996) to measure whether people perceive their future as limited or open-ended (see Appendix A.1.1). It consists of 10 Likert-type items. Sample items are “Many opportunities await me in the future,” “I expect that I will set many goals in the future,” and “Most of my life lies ahead of me”. The scale was reported to have an alpha of .92. Carstensen and Lang also used the short version of the scale, which consists of the first four items. In this study, short form of the scale was used for middle-aged and older adults.

Table 2.1 Variables and Related Measurement Instruments

Variable	Instrument
Age	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demographic questions
Future outlook and time perspective	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Future Time Perspective (FTP) Scale • The Life Orientation Test (LOT) • Attitudes Towards Future Scale (ATFS) • The Positive Future Expectations Scale (PFES) • Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory (ZTPI)
Adaptive Self-Regulation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Goal Disengagement and Reengagement Scale (Goal D-R) • Brief COPE
Self-Construals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Balanced Integration and Differentiation (BID) Scale
Subjective Well-Being	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Scales of Psychological Well-Being (SPWB) • Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) • Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale (SES) • Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS)
Goals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Open-ended question

2.2.2. The Life Orientation Test (LOT)

Developed by Scheier and Carver (1985), LOT measures dispositional optimism which is assessed in terms of generalized expectations of the occurrence of good outcomes in one's life (see Appendix A.1.2). It consists of 8 items and 4 filler items measured on Likert-type scale. "In uncertain times, I usually expect the best," and "I'm always optimistic about my future" are the sample items. Cronbach's alpha for the scale was found to be .76 and .79 for the test-retest. The scale was adapted into Turkish by Aydın and Tezer (1991). For the Turkish sample Cronbach's alpha and test-retest values were reported as .72 and .77, respectively.

2.2.3. Attitudes Towards the Future Scale (ATFS)

This scale, developed by Güler (2004), is composed of 15 items and aims to measure attitudes towards the future. Factor analyses indicated that future time attitudes can be grouped under three dimensions, which are positive, anxious, and

planful orientations. The reliability scores were found to be .80, .81 and .79, respectively, and test-retest reliability scores were found to be .76, .71 and .78. For the current study, anxious and planful subscales were used (see Appendix A.1.3). The sample items are “The uncertainty of the future makes me worry,” and “Thinking about the future makes me anxious” for the former, “I make plans about the future,” and “I think I should plan the future from today” for the latter subscale.

2.2.4. Positive Future Expectations Scale (PFES)

İmamoğlu's (2001) five-item scale aims to measure the positive expectations regarding the subjects' personal future (see Appendix A.1.4). Items are like “I am optimistic about my personal future”, and “I believe I will reach my goals at the end”. The Cronbach's alpha of the scale was reported to be .85 (İmamoğlu, 2001) and .92 (İmamoğlu, S., 2005), and .72 (İmamoğlu & Güler-Edwards, 2007) for the test-retest. This scale was excluded from the questionnaires given to middle-aged and older adults to decrease the time demand on participants.

2.2.5. Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory (ZTPI)

The ZTPI (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999) was developed as an individual-differences metric, which assesses fundamental dimensions of the human condition related to time. The scale is composed of 56 items. After the exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses five distinct time perspective factors emerged, which are past-negative, present-hedonistic, future, past-positive, present-fatalistic. The analyses showed acceptable validity, internal, and test-retest reliability.

For the current study, 5 items were selected according to their factor loadings and meanings from each dimension in order to have a short version of the scale. This 25-item scale was included in the questionnaire (see Appendix A.1.5). Past-negative represents a negative and aversive view of the past in general. This factor includes items like “I often think of what I should have done differently in my life,” and “I think about the bad things that have happened to me in the past.” Present-hedonistic reflects a risk-

taking, hedonistic attitude toward time and life. The sample items are “Taking risks keeps my life from becoming boring,” and “I do things impulsively.” The third factor, Future, represents a general future orientation. “I am able to resist temptations when I know there is work to be done” and “I complete projects on time by making steady progress” are sample items for this factor. The fourth factor, Past-positive, reflects a warm, sentimental attitude towards the past. It includes items like “It gives me pleasure to think about the past” and “I enjoy stories about how things used to be in the ‘good old times’.” The last factor, Present-fatalistic, represents a fatalistic, helpless, and hopeless attitude toward the future and life. Items that compose that factor include “My life path is controlled by forces I cannot influence,” and “You can’t really plan for the future because things change so much.”

2.2.6. Goal Disengagement and Reengagement Scale (Goal D-R)

This 10-item scale was developed by Wrosch, Scheier, Miller and et al. (2003) and is composed of two subscales, goal disengagement and goal reengagement, namely (see Appendix A.2.1). Four-item goal disengagement subscale aims to assess the ease with which respondents reduce effort and relinquish commitment toward unattainable goals. Six-item goal reengagement subscale aims to measure reengaging in other new goals if they face constraints on goal pursuit. These ten questions are required to be answered with respect to the following generic item stem: “If I have to stop pursuing an important goal in my life...” The former subscale showed a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.84 and the latter showed a Cronbach’s alpha of 0.86.

2.2.7. Brief COPE Scale

Carver (1997) constructed this measure by modifying the COPE Inventory (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989), which assesses several responses known to be relevant to effective and ineffective coping. The Brief COPE was developed in order to minimize time demands on participants and it is composed of 14 subscales each having two items. These subscales are active coping, planning, positive reframing,

acceptance, humor, religion, using emotional support, using instrumental support, self-distraction, denial, venting, substance use, behavioural disengagement, and self-blame. Carver reported that reliability coefficients of the subscales ranged between .50 and .90. In the current study, 6 of these subscales (active coping, planning, positive reframing, acceptance, self-distraction, denial) were included in the questionnaire depending on the aim of the study and their relation to other scales in the study (see Appendix A.2.2).

2.2.8. Balanced Integration and Differentiation (BID) Scale

This self-construal scale (İmamoğlu, 1998, 2003) has two subscales. The Self-Developmental Orientation subscale consists of 13 items and measures intrapersonal differentiation toward individuation (i.e., relying on one's inner qualities and interests as a developmental frame of reference rather than accommodating oneself to a normative frame of reference) (see Appendix A.3). Sample items are: "It is important for me that I develop my potential and characteristics and be a unique person" and "I feel it is more important for everyone to behave in accordance with societal expectations rather than striving to develop his/her uniqueness" (reverse-scored). The 16-item Interrelational Orientation is concerned with tendencies and preferences for relatedness and connectedness with family and others. Sample items are: "I emotionally feel very close to my family" and "I feel emotionally alienated from my close environment" (reverse-scored). Cronbach's alpha values were reported to vary between 0.74 and 0.82 for the former and between 0.80 and 0.91 for the latter subscales in previous studies (İmamoğlu & Karakitapoğlu-Aygün, 2006). Also, test-retest correlations were found to be .85 and .84 (İmamoğlu & Güler-Edwards, 2007) for the former and the latter subscales, respectively.

2.2.9. Scales of Psychological Well-Being (SPWB)

This self-report instrument is based on six dimensions pointing to different aspects of positive functioning (Ryff, 1989b). It is made up of six scales representing the dimensions of autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life, self-acceptance,

positive relations with others, and personal growth. Each dimensional scale contains 20 items equally split between positive and negative items. Internal consistency coefficients for the six scales range from 0.86 to 0.93 (Ryff, 1989b). Considering the time demands on participants, a short version of the scale, which was adapted and used by İmamoğlu (2004), was used in the study (see Appendix A.4.1). Cronbach's alpha value was reported to be .79. Accordingly, for each dimension only three items were used. Sample items for the scale are "I have confidence in my opinions, even if they are contrary to the general consensus." (autonomy), "In general, I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live." (environmental mastery), "Some people wonder aimlessly through life, but I am not one of them." (purpose in life), "When I look at the story of my life, I am pleased with how things have turned out." (self-acceptance), "Maintaining close relationships has been difficult and frustrating for me (reverse)." (positive relations with others), "For me, life has been a continuous process of learning, changing, and growth." (personal growth).

2.2.10. Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS)

The scale was designed to measure overall judgement of subject's life by Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin (1985) (see Appendix A.4.2). Sample items of this 5-item scale are "In most ways my life is close to my ideal" and "I am satisfied with my life." The Cronbach's alpha was found to be .87 and the two-month test-retest correlation coefficient was .82. The scale was adapted to Turkish by Köker (1991). Reliability studies indicated that test-retest correlation coefficient was .85 and item-total correlation values changed between .71 and .80.

2.2.11. Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale (SES)

Rosenberg's (1965) 10-item scale was designed to measure global self-regard (e.g., "On the whole, I am satisfied with myself") (see Appendix A.4.3). Its average reliability coefficient was greater than 0.80. The scale is adapted to Turkish

culture by Çuhadaroglu (1986) and showed a high level of test-retest reliability (0.89) and criterion-related validity (0.71).

2.2.12. Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS)

PANAS (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) was developed to measure two primary dimensions of mood- Positive and Negative Affect. The scale consists of 20 mood related adjectives (see Appendix A.4.4). Ten-item Positive Affectivity (PA) scale measures positive emotions (e.g., interested, excited, inspired) and 10-item Negative Affectivity (NA) scale measures negative emotions (e.g., distressed, irritable, nervous). The Cronbach's alphas were reported by Watson et. al. to be 0.85 and 0.88 for the PA and NA scales, respectively. Test-retest reliabilities were 0.68 for the PA and 0.71 for the NA scales. Also, a significant negative relation was found between these two scales ($r = -.20, p < .01$). The scale was adapted to Turkish by Gençöz (2000). For the Turkish version of the scale, the Cronbach's alpha of the PA and NA scales were found to be 0.86 and 0.83; and test-retest reliabilities were 0.54 and 0.40, respectively.

2.2.13. Goals

Participants were also asked to write down what their short or long term goals are in order to understand or group different kind of goals, if any, for each age group (see Appendix A.5). The goals reported by the participants were classified into 1 of 13 categories on the basis of their content by two assessors independently. The percentage rate of agreement between the two raters was .91. The categories were chosen considering those used most frequently in earlier studies (e.g., Nurmi 1991, 1992) and pre-analysis of the data. These categories were Profession/Occupation ("To advance my career", "To find a good job"), Property ("To buy a new house/car"), Family/Marriage ("To get married", "To live happily with my family"), Self ("To continue to develop myself", "To use my time better), Education ("To have a master/minor", "To pass all my exams with high grades"), Health ("To take care of my health"), Travel ("To go abroad for a vacation", "To travel to new countries"), Children's Lives ("That my son live a

happy life”, “To prepare a better future for my grandchildren”), Leisure Activities (“To begin some new hobbies”, “To spend more time for my hobbies”), World/Country (“To play an active role in political arena”, “To build a school”), Retirement (“To have comfortable life after retirement”, “To get prepared for my retirement”), Friends/Society (“To see my friends frequently”, “To contribute for a better society”), Others (“To have a happy, peaceful life”, and other uncategorized goals, hopes and plans).

2.3. Procedure

After explaining the general aim of the study, participants were asked to rate the extent to which they agree on each item on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree) for all scales. Young group participants were given the questionnaires in classrooms. Each session lasted around 20 minutes and students received bonus for their participation by signing a separate sheet of consent paper. All middle-aged and older participants were explained the aim of the study individually and were given the questionnaires. Participants were visited again within a few days to collect the questionnaires back.

2.4. Interview

Questions regarding time, future time, limited life-span, and the major life events which affected their views about life, were asked to 9 participants. These questions were “What do you think time is? How do you define time?”, “Which time period do you think about most: past, present, or future?”, “What do you think about the future?”, “What is the age you feel you are?”, and “What do you think and feel about the end of life?”

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

In line with the questions brought up in the Introduction, data have been analyzed and presented. Only the results of the gender related differences are presented in the analyses of other questions. Then, the analyses of interviews are introduced.

Descriptive information regarding the characteristics of the scales used in the current study has been summarized in Table 3.1. More detailed information about scales for different age groups and information about adapted or shortened scales can be seen in Appendix B. All the scales were found to have acceptable Cronbach's alpha coefficients, as can be seen in Table 3.1.

3.1 Analyses Concerning Question 1: Relation between Age and Time Perception

“What is the relationship between age and time perspective, and especially between age and future orientation?” First, related correlations are considered. Then, to explore differences between age groups in time perspective multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted. In order to explore how three age groups differ in future time orientation, four separate analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted on future time perspective, life orientation, anxious and planful attitudes towards the future, as further explained below.

Table 3.1 Descriptive Information about the Scales Used (N = 404)

Measures	Number of Items	Mean	SD	α
Future Time Perspective	10	3.31	.78	.90
Life Orientation Test	8	3.43	.57	.74
Attitudes Towards Future	10			
Anxious Subscale	5	2.57	.82	.82
Planful Subscale	5	3.60	.65	.67
Positive Future Expectations	5*	3.86	.63	.88
Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory	25			.69
Past-Negative	5	3.09	.77	.76
Present-Hedonistic	5	3.23	.67	.70
Future	5	3.66	.59	.66
Past-Positive	5	3.70	.58	.62
Present-Fatalistic	5	2.68	.71	.70
Goal Disengagement-Reengagement	10			.76
Disengagement	4	2.74	.71	.69
Reengagement	6	3.68	.68	.89
Brief COPE	12			.67
Active coping	2	3.95	.65	.75
Planning	2	4.07	.62	.80
Positive reframing	2	3.82	.75	.79
Acceptance	2	3.76	.72	.72
Self-Distraction	2	3.59	.85	.64
Denial	2	2.08	.90	.80
Balanced Integration-Differentiation	29			.82
Self Developmental Orientation Scale (Individuation)	13	3.45	.48	.75
Interrelational Orientation Scale (Relatedness)	16	3.84	.54	.86
Scales of Psychological Well-Being	18	3.73	.37	.75
Satisfaction with Life Scale	5	3.37	.85	.81
Self-Esteem	10	3.96	.59	.85
Positive and Negative Affect Schedule	20			
Positive Affect	10	3.71	.65	.87
Negative Affect	10	1.90	.58	.83

Note: Positive Future Expectations Scale was given only to the young adult group.

3.1.1. Intercorrelations among Related Variables

To explore how age was associated with different time perspectives intercorrelations were calculated as shown in Table 3.2. In order to investigate relation of age with future orientations, self orientations, and adaptive goal regulation, intercorrelations were calculated as shown in Table 3.3. As can be seen in Table 3.2, all the correlations between age and each time perspective were significant ($p < .01$). The strengths of the correlations were weak to moderate, range being from .16 (for age and Past-Positive time perspective) to .30 (for age and Present-Fatalistic time perspective). All time perspectives, except for Present-Hedonistic, related positively with age.

As shown in Table 3.3, age was also found to be significantly correlated with all future orientations except dispositional optimism ($p < .01$). Age had positive but weak correlation with anxious future attitudes, while it had negative and weak correlations with planful attitudes towards future. The correlation between age and future time perspective was negative and moderate. Correlations between age and self orientations indicated a moderate and negative relation between age and individuation, but no relation between age and relatedness. Correlations between age and adaptive self-regulation scales did not indicate a significant relation, but a trend towards a negative and weak relation between age and goal reengagement ($p < .10$).

The strength of correlations between future and self orientations was moderate, range being from .26 (for planful attitudes towards future and individuation) to .35 (for both future time perspective and individuation, and dispositional optimism and relatedness) ($p < .001$). The only exception was the relation between individuation and dispositional optimism ($r = .18$). Also, relations between future and self orientations were all positive, except the relations between anxious future attitudes and self orientations. The strength of correlations between future orientations and goal reengagement was weak to strong, range being from -.16 (for anxious future attitude and goal reengagement) to .35 (for future time perspective and goal reengagement) ($p < .001$). Other than anxious future attitudes, goal reengagement had positive relations with future orientations. In contrast, only one future orientation, planful future attitudes, had a significant relation with goal disengagement ($-.13, p < .05$). There was also a trend

towards a negative and weak relation between anxious future attitudes and goal disengagement ($p < .10$).

Table 3.2 Intercorrelations between Age and Subscales of Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory (N = 404)

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Age	--				
2. Past-Negative	.21 ^{***}	--			
3. Present-Hedonistic	-.19 ^{***}	.02	--		
4. Future	.20 ^{***}	.12 [*]	-.06	--	
5. Past-Positive	.16 ^{**}	.03	.14 ^{**}	.21 ^{***}	--
6. Present-Fatalistic	.30 ^{***}	.24 ^{***}	-.03	-.05	.06

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Table 3.3 Intercorrelations between Age, Future and Self Orientations, and Adaptive Self-Regulation (N = 404)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Age	--							
2. FTP	-.38 ^{***}	--						
3. LOT	.05	.44 ^{***}	--					
4. ATFSANX	.15 ^{**}	-.39 ^{***}	-.47 ^{***}	--				
5. ATFSPLAN	-.20 ^{***}	.39 ^{***}	.32 ^{***}	-.30 ^{***}	--			
6. Relatedness	-.05	.32 ^{***}	.35 ^{***}	-.26 ^{***}	.32 ^{***}	--		
7. Individuation	-.43 ^{***}	.35 ^{***}	.18 ^{***}	-.32 ^{***}	.29 ^{***}	.12 [*]	--	
8. Goal R	-.09 [†]	.35 ^{***}	.26 ^{***}	-.16 ^{***}	.21 ^{***}	.23 ^{***}	.10 [†]	--
9. Goal D	-.06	.03	.08	-.09 [†]	-.13 [*]	.00	-.01	.30 ^{***}

Note: FTP: Future Time Perspective, LOT: Life Orientation Test, ATFSANX: Anxious Attitudes Towards Future, ATFSPLAN: Planful Attitudes Towards Future, Goal R: Goal Reengagement, Goal D: Goal Disengagement

† $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

3.1.2. Differences between Age Groups in Time Perspective

To examine differences in time perspective between age groups, a 2 (gender) X 3 (age group: young, middle-aged, and older adults) MANOVA was conducted using five time perspectives of Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory (i.e., past-negative, present-hedonistic, future, past-positive, and present-fatalistic) as the dependent variables. Using Wilks' criterion, the effect of age group was significant on five types of time perspective score, $F(10, 788) = 10.36, p < .000, \eta^2 = .12$. As can be seen in Table 3.4, univariate analyses indicated that young adults differed significantly from middle-aged adults on all time perspective types except for past-negative perspective and from older adults on all time perspective types. They were the lowest in past-negative, future, past-positive, and present-fatalistic; and the highest in present-hedonistic time perspective. Middle-aged adults differed from older adults only on present-fatalistic time perspective by having lower scores on this time perspective. For all five time perspective scores, middle-aged adults were in between the other two age groups. Older adults were the highest in past-negative, future, past-positive, and present-fatalistic; and the lowest in present-hedonistic time perspective (Table 3.4).

As for gender differences, using Wilks' lambda criterion, the multivariate effect of gender was found to be significant, $F(5, 394) = 4.68, p < .000, \eta^2 = .06$. However, the univariate tests showed that the effect is significant only for future with $F(1, 398) = 6.07, p < .05, MSE = 1.98, \eta^2 = .02$ and for present-fatalistic time perspectives with $F(1, 398) = 6.73, p < .05, MSE = 3.11, \eta^2 = .02$. For both of these time perspectives, female respondents ($M = 3.74, SD = .55$ and $M = 2.75, SD = .70$, respectively) had higher scores than males ($M = 3.58, SD = .62$ and $M = 2.61, SD = .72$, respectively).

3.1.3. Differences between Age Groups in Future Time Orientation

The effects of gender and age groups on future orientations were examined by separate 2 X 3 ANOVAs. As can be seen in Table 3.4, according to the ANOVA on future time perspective, gender effect was not significant, while age groups had a significant effect on future time perspective. Post-hoc analyses indicated that future time

perspective scores of young and middle-aged adults were not different from each other and they had more open future time perspective than older adults. According to the ANOVA on life orientation (dispositional optimism), neither gender nor age groups had significant main effects. On the other hand, ANOVA on anxious future orientation indicated significant main effects both for gender and age groups. Female respondents ($M = 2.66$, $SD = .85$) had higher scores on anxious orientation than male respondents ($M = 2.48$, $SD = .78$) with $F(1, 398) = 4.32$, $p < .05$, $MSE = 2.80$, $\eta^2 = .01$; while middle-aged and older adults had higher scores than young adults, as shown in Table 3.4. According to ANOVA on planful orientation, gender effect was not significant but age groups had a significant effect on this orientation. As for the planful orientations, middle-aged and older adults had lower planful orientation scores than young adults (Table 3.4).

Table 3.4 Mean Differences between the Age Groups with respect to Time Perspectives and Future Orientations (N = 404)

Measures	Young	Middle-aged	Older	F*	p	MSE	η^2
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)				
ZTPI							.12
Past-Negative	2.94 _a (.81)	3.17 _b (.71)	3.29 _b (.71)	8.16	.001	4.65	.04
Present-Hedonistic	3.40 _a (.60)	3.04 _b (.66)	3.13 _b (.76)	13.03	.000	5.54	.06
Future	3.52 _a (.59)	3.76 _b (.51)	3.80 _b (.63)	9.82	.000	3.21	.05
Past-Positive	3.62 _a (.62)	3.70 _{a,b} (.53)	3.87 _b (.54)	5.16	.006	1.72	.03
Present-Fatalistic	2.49 _a (.70)	2.73 _b (.64)	3.01 _c (.73)	18.32	.000	8.47	.08
Future Time Perspective	3.53 _a (.55)	3.37 _a (.80)	2.73 _b (.90)	34.39	.000	17.75	.15
Life Orientation Test	3.41 _a (.53)	3.43 _a (.63)	3.49 _a (.58)	0.43	.652	0.14	.00

Table 3.4 (continued)

Measures	Young	Middle-aged	Older	F*	p	MSE	η^2
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)				
Attitudes Towards Future							
Anxious Subscale	2.42 _a (.78)	2.68 _b (.82)	2.72 _b (.86)	6.02	.003	3.90	.03
Planful Subscale	3.72 _a (.61)	3.54 _b (.62)	3.41 _b (.70)	8.49	.000	3.44	.04
N	191	128	85				

Note: ZTPI: Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory; *df = 2, 398; Means in the same row that do not share a common subscript are significantly different from each other according to Bonferroni at least at the .05 level.

3.2. Analyses Concerning Question 2: Age Differences in Life Goals

In order to investigate age differences in number of goals and goal contents, ANCOVA and ANOVA analyses were conducted. ANCOVA investigating the differences among young, middle-aged, and older adults on total number of goals reported indicated the significant main effect of age after controlling for the effects of education level, gender, and health status, $F(2, 398) = 5.28, p < .01, MSE = 27.64, \eta^2 = .03$. Total number of goals reported by older adults ($M = 2.51, SD = .27$) was significantly lower than the number of goals reported by young and middle-aged adults ($M = 3.51, SD = .17$, and $M = 3.51, SD = .21$, respectively).

In order to analyze age differences in goal contents several one-way ANOVAs were conducted. Table 3.5 contains a summary of these analyses, and the percentage of young, middle-aged, and older adults who mentioned different goal categories. The most frequently mentioned three goal categories were occupation/profession, education, and family (adding up to 67.1 % of the total) for young adults, occupation/profession, children's lives, and self (adding up to 43.3 % of the total) for middle-aged adults, and children's lives, health, and property (adding up to 43.4 % of the total) for older adults. According to analyses, 7 out of 13 comparisons were found to be significant at the .05

level. Young adults mentioned goals related to occupation/profession, family/marriage, and education more frequently than middle-aged and older adults. Middle-aged adults mentioned self and retirement related goals more frequently than the other age groups. They also reported occupation/profession related goals more than older adults. On the other hand, both middle-aged and older adults mentioned about children's lives and health related goals more than young adults.

Table 3.5 Percentage of Young, Middle-aged and Older Adults who reported Goals relating to Different Categories

	Young	Middle- Aged	Older	F*	p**	MSE	η^2
Occupation	37.40 _a	17.40 _b	3.70 _c	60.70	.000	46.63	.23
Property	5.00 _a	8.70 _a	10.60 _a	2.79	.060	.93	.01
Family/Marriage	12.80 _a	5.80 _b	4.20 _b	14.83	.000	4.41	.07
Self	4.80 _a	9.30 _b	4.80 _a	4.63	.010	1.91	.02
Education	16.90 _a	.60 _b	.00 _b	52.84	.000	16.51	.21
Health	1.50 _a	6.20 _b	12.70 _b	14.09	.000	2.10	.07
Travel	6.30 _a	6.80 _a	7.90 _a	.78	n.s.	.17	.00
Children	.20 _a	16.60 _b	20.10 _b	45.10	.000	15.97	.18
Leisure	3.50 _a	5.20 _a	6.30 _a	1.06	n.s.	.22	.01
World/Country	2.70 _a	5.80 _a	9.00 _a	1.82	n.s.	.70	.01
Retirement	.60 _a	6.20 _b	3.70 _a	14.96	.000	1.77	.07
Friends	2.30 _a	3.90 _a	4.20 _a	1.35	n.s.	.19	.01
Others	6.00 _a	7.10 _a	12.70 _a	.68	n.s.	.21	.00

*df = 2, 401; ** p values for the comparisons of age groups are according to number of goals. Means in the same row that do not share a common subscript are significantly different from each other according to Bonferroni at least at the .05 level.

3.3. Analyses Concerning Question 3: Relation between Self and Future Orientations

Regarding the second question, future time orientations of individuals in three age groups were analyzed based on their self-types according to the BID Model. Four self-construal types were formed for each age group by using the medians (3.88 and 3.62, for young; 3.88 and 3.39 for middle-aged; 3.81 and 3.08, for older adults on the

relational and individuational orientations, respectively) of the relational and individuational orientation scores of the Balanced Integration and Differentiation (BID) Scale as cut-off points. Different combinations of being high and low on these orientations lead to four self-types, which are referred to as separated-patterned (low in both), separated-individuated (low related, high individuated), related-patterned (high related, low individuated), and related-individuated (high in both) by İmamoğlu (1998, 2003). To explore future orientation differences of self-types at different age groups, 3 (age group) X 4 (self-type) ANOVAs were conducted. Follow up analyses were conducted to explore self-type and age interactions. Also, as another series of follow up analyses, differences between the self-types with respect to future orientations of each age group, one-way ANOVAs were conducted on future time perspective, life orientation, anxious and planful attitudes towards the future. Since gender was not found to be a significant factor in time perspective and future orientations, it was not included in following analyses.

3.3.1. Differences Between the Four Self-Construal Types of the BID Model at Different Ages with respect to Future Orientations

To explore future orientation differences of self types at different ages, 3 (age group) X 4 (self-type) ANOVAs were conducted on future time perspective, life orientation, anxious and planful attitudes towards future. Results of the ANOVA analysis on future time perspective indicated main effects of age, self type, and interaction to be significant, $F(2, 392) = 39.81, p < .01, MSE = 17.87, \eta^2 = .17$; $F(3, 392) = 20.33, p < .01, MSE = 9.13, \eta^2 = .14$; and $F(6, 392) = 2.48, p < .05, MSE = 1.11, \eta^2 = .04$, respectively. Older adults had lower scores on future time perspective than middle-age and young adults (Table 3.6). Accordingly, as in Table 3.7, related-individuated group had highest future time perspective and significantly differed from all other self-type groups. Related-patterned group had higher scores on future time perspective than separated-patterned. Separated-individuated group did not differ from these two groups. As a follow up analyses of the interaction effect between age and self-type, one-way ANOVAs were conducted on future time perspective (Table 3.8 and 3.9).

Four separate ANOVAs investigating the differences between each self-type at young, middle, and older ages on future time perspective indicated the significant main effect of particular self-construal type at different age groups for all self type groups except the related-individuated group. As shown in Figure 3.1, older members of each self-type group, other than related-individuated group, had significantly lower scores on future time perspective than both young and middle-aged members of that particular self-type group.

According to ANOVA on life orientation (dispositional optimism), only the self type reached significance, $F(3, 392) = 15.73, p < .01, MSE = 4.68, \eta^2 = .11$ (Table 3.7). Related-individuated group had highest score and differed from two separated type groups (i.e., separated-patterned and separated-individuated). Related-patterned group did not differ from separated-individuated and related-individuated, while separated-patterned had the lowest score. ANOVA on anxious future attitudes indicated main effects of age and self type to be significant, $F(2, 392) = 7.40, p < .01, MSE = 4.44, \eta^2 = .04$, and $F(2, 392) = 11.78, p < .01, MSE = 7.07, \eta^2 = .08$, respectively. Accordingly, young adults had the lowest scores and differed from middle-aged and older adults (Table 3.6). On the other hand, related-individuated group had the lowest level of anxiety towards future and differed from all other self-type groups. Related-patterned and separated-individuated groups did not differ from each other and had lower score than separated-patterned group (Table 3.7). According to ANOVA on planful future attitudes, age and self type main effects reached significance, $F(2, 392) = 10.53, p < .01, MSE = 3.68, \eta^2 = .05$, and $F(2, 392) = 20.01, p < .01, MSE = 6.99, \eta^2 = .13$, respectively. Accordingly, young adults had the highest scores and differed from middle-aged and older adults, as in Table 3.6. On the other hand, related-individuated group had the highest planful future attitudes and differed from all other self-type groups. Related-patterned and separated-individuated groups did not differ from each other and had higher score than separated-patterned group (Table 3.7).

Table 3.6 Mean Differences between Age Groups with respect to Future Orientations

	Young	Middle-age	Older	F	p	MSE	η^2
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)				
Future Time Perspective	3.53 _a (.55)	3.37 _a (.80)	2.73 _b (.90)	39.81	.000	17.87	.17
Attitudes Towards Future Anxious Subscale	2.42 _a (.77)	2.68 _b (.82)	2.72 _b (.86)	7.40	.000	4.44	.04
Planful Subscale	3.72 _a (.61)	3.54 _b (.62)	3.41 _b (.70)	10.53	.000	3.68	.05

Note: Self Type 1 = Separated-Patterned; Self Type 2 = Separated-Individuated; Self Type 3 = Related-Patterned; Self Type 4 = Related-Individuated; df = 2, 392. Means in the same row that do not share a common subscript are significantly different from each other according to Bonferroni at least at the .05 level.

Table 3.7 Mean Differences between Self-Construal types with respect to Future Orientations

	Self Types				F	p	MSE	η^2
	1	2	3	4				
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)				
Future Time Perspective	3.08 _a (.72)	3.14 _{a,b} (.77)	3.33 _b (.74)	3.70 _c (.75)	20.13	.000	9.13	.14
Life Orientation Test	3.18 _a (.49)	3.42 _b (.55)	3.52 _{b,c} (.56)	3.66 _c (.58)	15.73	.000	4.68	.11
Attitudes Towards Future Anxious Subscale	2.85 _a (.80)	2.57 _b (.75)	2.57 _b (.80)	2.24 _c (.80)	11.78	.001	7.07	.08
Planful Subscale	3.28 _a (.62)	3.60 _b (.71)	3.66 _b (.55)	3.89 _c (.55)	20.01	.000	6.99	.13

Note: Self Type 1 = Separated-Patterned; Self Type 2 = Separated-Individuated; Self Type 3 = Related-Patterned; Self Type 4 = Related-Individuated; df = 3, 392. Means in the same row that do not share a common subscript are significantly different from each other according to Bonferroni at least at the .05 level.

Table 3.8 Mean Differences between Age Groups with respect to Future Time Perspective for Different Self-Construal Types of BID Model

	Self-type	Young	Middle-Aged	Older	F	p	MSE	η^2
		M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)				
Future Time Perspective	1	3.33 _a (.60)	3.01 _a (.77)	2.47 _b (.56)	12.66 ¹	.000	5.43	.18
	N	57	39	19				
	2	3.50 _a (.51)	3.27 _a (.68)	2.45 _b (.74)	22.87 ²	.000	9.06	.34
	N	42	25	26				
Future Time Perspective	3	3.60 _a (.48)	3.46 _a (.58)	2.60 _b (.90)	18.86 ³	.000	7.37	.30
	N	46	24	21				
Future Time Perspective	4	3.74 _a (.52)	3.74 _a (.87)	3.51 _a (.96)	.71 ⁴	n.s.	.406	.01
	N	46	40	19				

Note: Self Type 1 = Separated-Patterned; Self Type 2 = Separated-Individuated; Self Type 3 = Related-Patterned; Self Type 4 = Related-Individuated; ¹df = 2, 112; ²df = 2, 90; ³df = 2, 88; ⁴df = 2, 102. Means in the same row that do not share a common subscript are significantly different from each other according to Bonferroni at least at the .05 level.

Table 3.9 Mean Differences between the Four Self-Construal Types of BID Model with respect to Future Time Perspective of Different Age Groups

	Self Types				F	p	MSE	η^2
	1	2	3	4				
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)				
Future Time Perspective								
Young	3.33 _a (.60)	3.50 _{a,b} (.51)	3.60 _{a,b} (.48)	3.74 _b (.52)	5.24 ¹	.002	1.49	.08
Middle-age	3.01 _a (.77)	3.27 _{a,b} (.68)	3.46 _{a,b} (.58)	3.74 _b (.87)	6.53 ²	.000	3.73	.14
Older	2.47 _a (.56)	2.45 _a (.74)	2.60 _a (.90)	3.51 _b (.96)	7.93 ³	.000	5.10	.23

Note: Self Type 1 = Separated-Patterned; Self Type 2 = Separated-Individuated; Self Type 3 = Related-Patterned; Self Type 4 = Related-Individuated; 1df = 3, 183; 2df = 3, 120; 3df = 3, 77. Means in the same row that do not share a common subscript are significantly different from each other according to Bonferroni at least at the .05 level.

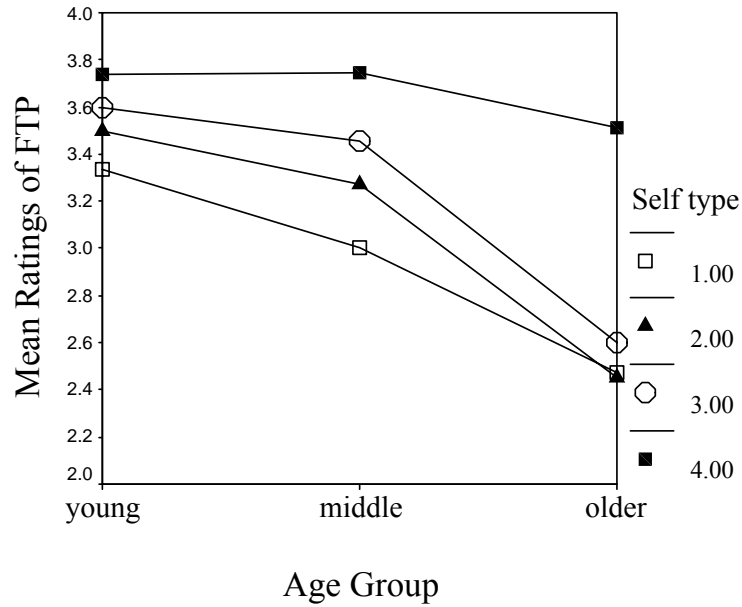


Figure 3.1. Mean future time perspective scores of the four self-construal types suggested by the BID Model at different age groups.

3.3.2. Differences between the Four Self-Construal Types of the BID Model with respect to Future Orientations of Young Adults

According to one-way ANOVA on future time perspective of young adults, as shown in Table 3.9, the significant self-construal type main effect indicated that the separated-patterned group had lowest, and the related-individuated group had the highest scores on future time perspective, while the separated-individuated and related-patterned groups did not differ from each other and had scores in between. As shown in Table 3.10, another one-way ANOVA on life orientation indicated significant main effect of self-construal type. The separated-patterned and related-individuated groups had the lowest and highest scores, respectively, on dispositional optimism, while the two other groups did not differ from each other and they were in between. According to ANOVA on anxious future attitude, main effect self-construal type did not reach significance, but there was a trend ($p = .10$). Accordingly, the separated-patterned group had highest, and the related-individuated group had the lowest scores on anxious future attitude, while the separated-individuated and related-patterned groups had scores in

between. ANOVA on planful future orientation indicated the significant main effect of self-construal type (Table 3.10). The separated-patterned had the lowest planful orientation. According to ANOVA on positive future expectations, self-construal type reached significance. The separated-patterned group had the lowest positive future expectation and differed from the two individuated type groups (i.e., separated-individuated and related-individuated) (Table 3.10).

3.3.3. Differences between the Four Self-Construal Types of the BID Model with respect to Future Orientations of Middle-Aged Adults

The effects of self-construal types on future orientations of middle-aged adults were examined by one-way ANOVAs. As can be seen in Table 3.9, the significant self-construal type main effect indicated that the separated-patterned group had the lowest, and the related-individuated group had the highest future time perspective scores. The other two groups, which did not differ from each other, were in between. As shown in Table 3.10, ANOVA on life orientation test indicated the main effect of self-construal type. The separated-patterned group had the lowest score on life orientation test and differed from the two related-type groups (i.e., related-patterned and related-individuated), while separated-individuated group did not differ from any other group. According to ANOVA on anxious future attitudes, the significant self-construal type main effect indicated that the separated-patterned group had the highest and followed by related-patterned group (Table 3.10). These two patterned type groups differed from the related-individuated group, while separated-individuated group did not differ from any other group. According to ANOVA on planful future attitudes, main effect of self-construal type reached significance. The two separated type groups (i.e., separated-patterned and separated-individuated) had lower scores on planful future attitudes, and they differed from related-individuated group. The related-patterned group was in between and did not differ from any other group (Table 3.10).

3.3.4. Differences between the Four Self-Construal Types of the BID Model with respect to Future Orientations of Older Adults

Four one-way ANOVAs were conducted to examine the effects of self-construal types on future orientations of older adults. As can be seen in Table 3.9, the significant self-construal main effect indicated that the related-individuated group had the highest future time perspective and differed from the other three groups, which did not differ from each other. As shown in Table 3.10, according to ANOVA on life orientation, self-construal type main effect was significant. The separated-patterned group had lowest score and differed from the two related type groups (i.e., related-patterned and related-individuated), which had the highest scores and did not differ from each other. The separated-individuated group did not differ from any other group. ANOVA on anxious attitudes towards future indicated that the main effect of self-construal type was significant. The separated-patterned group had the highest, and the related-individuated group had the lowest scores on anxious future attitudes. The other two groups, which did not differ from each other, were in between (Table 3.10). According to ANOVA on planful attitudes towards future, the self-construal type had a significant main effect. The two separated type groups (i.e., separated-patterned and separated-individuated) had the lowest scores and differed from related-individuated group. Related-patterned group did not differ significantly from other groups (Table 3.10).

Table 3.10 Mean Differences between the Four Self-Construal Types of BID Model with respect to Future Orientations of Different Age Groups

	Self Types				F	p	MSE	η^2
	1	2	3	4				
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)				
Life Orientation Test								
Young	3.24 _a (.48)	3.44 _{a,b} (.56)	3.40 _{a,b} (.48)	3.61 _b (.56)	4.31 ¹	.006	1.15	.07
Middle-age	3.14 _a (.48)	3.36 _{a,b} (.67)	3.56 _b (.57)	3.68 _b (.66)	6.31 ²	.001	2.16	.13
Older	3.08 _a (.52)	3.43 _{a,b} (.39)	3.71 _b (.69)	3.74 _b (.50)	6.53 ³	.001	1.83	.20

Table 3.10 (continued).

		Self Types				F	p	MSE	η^2
		1	2	3	4				
		M	M	M	M				
		(SD)	(SD)	(SD)	(SD)				
Anxious Subscale									
	Young	2.60 _a (.79)	2.36 _a (.74)	2.43 _a (.80)	2.23 _a (.76)	2.11 ¹	.101	1.25	.03
	Middle-age	3.05 _a (.76)	2.70 _{a,b,c} (.70)	2.84 _{a,b} (.69)	2.21 _c (.81)	4.96 ²	.000	4.96	.18
	Older	3.17 _a (.73)	2.80 _{a,b} (.76)	2.56 _{a,b} (.88)	2.35 _b (.91)	3.53 ³	.018	2.38	.12
Planful Subscale									
	Young	3.41 _a (.63)	3.86 _b (.65)	3.84 _b (.46)	3.87 _b (.56)	7.87 ¹	.000	2.67	.11
	Middle-age	3.23 _a (.55)	3.41 _a (.64)	3.58 _{a,b} (.50)	3.91 _b (.56)	10.09 ²	.000	3.22	.20
	Older	3.02 _a (.64)	3.35 _a (.73)	3.38 _{a,b} (.66)	3.90 _b (.51)	5.95 ³	.001	2.50	.18
PFES									
	Young	3.61 _a (.68)	3.95 _b (.56)	3.89 _{a,b} (.58)	4.04 _b (.59)	5.041	.002	1.87	.08
	Young N	57	42	46	46				
	Middle-age N	39	25	24	40				
	Older N	19	26	21	19				

Note: Self Type 1 = Separated-Patterned; Self Type 2 = Separated-Individuated; Self Type 3 = Related-Patterned; Self Type 4 = Related-Individuated; ¹df = 3, 183; ²df = 3, 120; ³df = 3, 77. Means in the same row that do not share a common subscript are significantly different from each other according to Bonferroni at least at the .05 level. Positive Future Expectations Scale was only given to the young adult group.

3.4. Analyses Concerning Question 4: Relation between Self, Age, and Goal Reengagement¹

Regarding the fourth question, 3 (age group) X 4 (self-type) ANOVAs were conducted on goal reengagement to explore relation between age and self-type with respect to goal reengagement.

3.4.1 Differences between the Four Self-Construal Types of the BID Model at Different Ages with respect to Goal Reengagement

To explore goal reengagement differences of self types at different ages, 3 (age group) X 4 (self-type) ANOVAs were conducted. Result of the analysis indicated main effects of age and self type to be significant. However, age and self-type interaction was not significant. Accordingly, older adults ($M = 3.51$, $SD = .73$) had significantly lower scores on goal reengagement compared to middle-aged adults ($M = 3.76$, $SD = .60$), while young adults ($M = 3.67$, $SD = .63$) did not differ from each group, $F(2, 392) = 3.98$, $p < .05$, $MSE = 1.57$, $\eta^2 = .02$. On the other hand, related-patterned and related-individuated group had significantly higher scores than separated-patterned group, while separated-individuated group did not differ from other self-type groups (Table 3.11).

3.5. Analyses Concerning Question 5: Relation between Goal Reengagement and Age With Respect to Future Time Perception

Regarding the fifth question, goal reengagement mean scores of different age groups were analyzed based on future time perspective levels. Future time perspective levels (low, medium, and high) were formed for each age group by using cut points for three equal groups. Differences in goal reengagement of young, middle-aged and older

¹ Goal Disengagement was excluded from the rest of the analyses, since it has a low reliability coefficient for older adults (see Appendix B, Table B.1) and also has no significant correlations (except for the low correlation with playful future attitudes) with the future, self, and age related variables (Table 3.3).

adults having different future time perspectives were examined by ANOVA. Follow up analyses were conducted to explore future time perspective and age interaction.

Table 3.11 Mean Differences between Self-Construal Types of BID Model with respect to Goal Reengagement

	Self Types				F	p	MSE	η^2
	1	2	3	4				
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)				
Goal Reengagement	3.49 _a (.57)	3.57 _{a,b} (.71)	3.82 _b (.53)	3.81 _b (.70)	6.91 ¹	.000	2.72	.05
N	115	93	91	105				

Note: Self Type 1 = Separated-Patterned; Self Type 2 = Separated-Individuated; Self Type 3 = Related-Patterned; Self Type 4 = Related-Individuated; ¹df=3, 392. Means in the same row that do not share a common subscript are significantly different from each other according to Bonferroni at least at the .05 level.

3.5.1. Differences in Goal Reengagement between Young, Middle-aged and Older Adults Having Different Future Time Perspectives

To explore goal reengagement differences of different age groups having different future time perspective levels, 3 (age group) X 3 (future time perspective level: low, medium, high) ANOVAs were conducted on goal reengagement. Results of the ANOVA analysis indicated main effects of age and future time perspective levels to be significant, and a trend for the interaction to be significant, $F(2, 395) = 3.90, p < .05, MSE = 1.46, \eta^2 = .02$; $F(2, 395) = 19.02, p < .001, MSE = 7.13, \eta^2 = .09$; $F(4, 395) = 2.14, p < .10, MSE = .80, \eta^2 = .02$, respectively. Post-hoc analyses indicated that adults with high future time orientation (M = 3.93, SD = .61) differed from the groups with medium (M = 3.61, SD = .64) and low (M = 3.49, SD = .62) future time orientations by having significantly higher goal reengagement scores.

One-way ANOVAs were conducted, as follow up analyses of the trend in interaction effect, to explore differences in goal reengagement of each age group with

different future time perspective levels (Table 3.12, 3.13). Three separate ANOVAs investigating the differences between individuals with low, medium and high level future perspective on goal reengagement within each age group indicated the significant main effect of future time perspective levels for all age groups. However, post-hoc comparisons indicated that only for middle-aged and older adults, goal reengagement scores of the individuals with high future time perspective were significantly higher than the goal reengagement scores of individuals with medium or low future time perspective (Figure 3.2).

Table 3.12 Mean Differences in Goal Reengagement of Each Age Group with Different Future Time Perspective Levels

	FTP			F	p	MSE	η^2
	Low	Medium	High				
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)				
Young	3.53 _a .63	3.69 _{a,b} .63	3.82 _b .58	3.52 ¹	.032	1.34	.04
N	66	70	55				
Middle-aged	3.51 _a .57	3.74 _a .59	4.08 _b .52	7.44 ²	.001	3.40	.15
N	47	42	39				
Older	3.37 _a .68	3.29 _a .61	3.94 _b .75	11.05 ³	.000	3.47	.15
N	26	34	25				

¹df = 2, 188; ²df = 2, 125; ³df = 2, 82; Means in the same row that do not share a common subscript are significantly different from each other according to Bonferroni at least at the .05 level.

Table 3.13 Mean Differences in Goal Reengagement of Each Age Group within Different Future Time Perspective Levels

FTP Level	Young Middle-aged Older			F	p	MSE	η^2
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)				
Low	3.53 _a .63 N 66	3.51 _a .63 N 47	3.37 _a .58 N 26	.65 ¹	.522	.25	.01
Medium	3.69 _a .57 N 70	3.74 _a .59 N 42	3.29 _b .52 N 34	6.05 ²	.003	2.29	.08
High	3.82 _a .68 N 55	4.08 _a .61 N 39	3.94 _a .75 N 25	2.07 ³	.131	.75	.03

¹df = 2, 136; ²df = 2, 143; ³df = 2, 116; Means in the same row that do not share a common subscript are significantly different from each other according to Bonferroni at least at the .05 level.

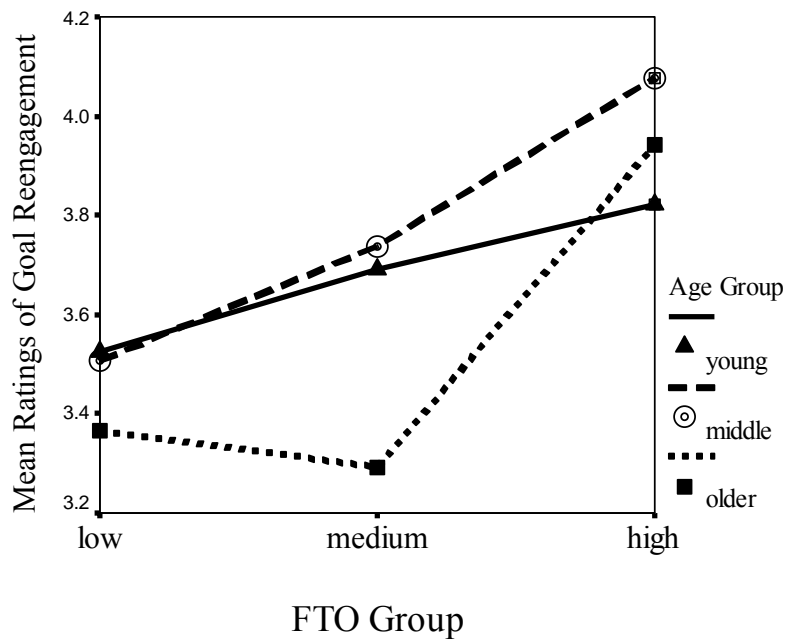


Figure 3.2. Mean goal reengagement scores of young, middle-aged and older adults with different future time perspective levels.

3.6. Analyses Concerning Question 6: Relationships between Future Time Perspective, Goal Reengagement, Self Orientations, Age and Well-being

To explore contribution of future time perspective, self orientations, goal reengagement, and age to well-being different analyses were conducted. First, correlational analyses were conducted to investigate the relation between these variables. Second, series of regression analyses were conducted to explore the contribution of self orientations, goal reengagement and future time perspective, and age to well-being. Finally, contribution of self orientations to well-being through future time perspective and goal reengagement was investigated by testing a model.

3.6.1. Correlations of Well-being Measures with Future Time Perspective, Goal Reengagement, Self Orientations, and Age

In order to investigate relation of well-being with future time perspective, self orientations, and goal regulation, intercorrelations were calculated as shown in Table 3.14. As can be seen in Table 3.14, all the correlations between age and each well-being measure was significant ($p < .05$), except for Satisfaction with Life and Rosenberg's Self-Esteem scales. The strengths of the correlations were weak, range being from $-.12$ (for age and Scales of Psychological Well-Being) to $.22$ (for age and Brief COPE Inventory). All time perspectives, except for Brief COPE Scale, related negatively with age.

Correlations between future time perspective and well-being measures were highly significant ($p < .001$), except for future time perspective and Brief COPE Inventory. The strength of correlation between future time perspective and well-being measures were weak to moderate, range being from $.12$ (for FTP and Brief COPE Inventory) to $.45$ (for FTP and Positive Affect Schedule). Other than the Negative Affect Schedule, all well-being measures were positively correlated to future time perspective.

As for the associations between goal reengagement and well-being measures, the correlations were highly significant ($p < .001$) and positive, except for the negative relation between goal reengagement and Negative Affect Schedule. The strength of

correlations were weak to moderate, range being from -.15 (for reengagement and Negative Affect Schedule) to .31 (for goal reengagement and Scales of Psychological Well-Being).

Relatedness correlated positively with all well-being measures, except for Negative Affect Schedule which was negatively correlated. The correlations were highly significant ($p < .001$) and the strengths of them were weak to strong, range being from .17 (for relatedness and Brief COPE Inventory) to .55 (for relatedness and Scales of Psychological Well-Being). Individuation had significant correlations with all well-being correlations, except for Brief COPE Inventory. The strength of correlations were weak to moderate, range being from -.10 (for individuation and Negative Affect Schedule) to .43 (for individuation and Scales of Psychological Well-Being).

Table 3.14 Correlations of Well-being Measures with Future Time Perspective, Goal Reengagement, and Self Orientations (N = 404)

	COPE	SPWB	SWLS	RSES	PA	NA
Age	.22***	-.12*	-.08 ^t	-.02	-.20***	-.13*
FTP	.12*	.34***	.42***	.35***	.45***	-.25***
Goal R	.25***	.31***	.30***	.25***	.24***	-.15***
Relatedness	.17***	.55***	.44***	.48***	.44***	-.42***
Individuation	-.01	.43***	.15**	.31***	.36***	-.10*

Note: FTP: Future Time Perspective, Goal R: Goal Reengagement, COPE: Brief COPE Inventory, SPWB: Scales of Psychological Well-Being, SWLS: Satisfaction with Life Scale, RSES: Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale, PA: Positive Affect Schedule, NA: Positive Affect Schedule

^t $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

3.6.2. Self Orientations, Age and Gender as Predictors of Future Time Perspective, Goal Reengagement and Well-being

In order to explore the contributions of self orientations, age and gender to future time perspective, goal reengagement and well-being, regression analyses were used. As can be seen in Table 3.15, relatedness, individuation and age (related negatively)

explained 26 % of the variance in future time perspective with a moderate strength. On the other hand, a small amount of variance in goal reengagement, 5 %, was weakly predicted by only relatedness orientation. Among well-being variables, most of the variance (44 %) was explained in psychological well-being by relatedness and individuation, strongly and moderately, respectively. Self-esteem was moderately predicted by relatedness and individuation, and weakly predicted by age with an explained variance of 30 %. Positive affectivity was moderately predicted by relatedness and individuation, and these variables accounted for 29 % of the variance. Twenty-one percent of the variance in negative affectivity was explained moderately by relatedness, and weakly by individuation and age, all negatively related. Subjective well-being was only moderately predicted by relatedness. Only 8 % of coping was moderately explained by age, and weakly explained by relatedness and gender (related negatively).

Table 3.15 Self Orientations, Age and Gender as Predictors of Future Time Perspective, Goal Reengagement, and Well-being

Dependent Variable	Predictors	Adjusted Beta Coefficient	Adjusted R ²	F
FTP	Relatedness	.29***	.26	36.08***
	Individuation	.20***		
	Age	-.29***		
	Gender	-.01		
Goal R	Relatedness	.22***	.05	6.27***
	Individuation	.05		
	Age	-.05		
	Gender	-.04		
COPE	Relatedness	.15**	.08	9.63***
	Individuation	.06		
	Age	.24***		
	Gender	-.11*		
SPWB	Relatedness	.50***	.44	79.34***
	Individuation	.39***		
	Age	.07 ^t		
	Gender	-.07 ^t		

Table 3.15 (continued).

Dependent Variable	Predictors	Adjusted Beta Coefficient	Adjusted R ²	F
SWLS	Relatedness	.42 ^{***}	.20	25.90 ^{***}
	Individuation	.07		
	Age	-.05		
	Gender	-.07		
RSES	Relatedness	.44 ^{***}	.30	44.53 ^{***}
	Individuation	.30 ^{***}		
	Age	.13 ^{**}		
	Gender	-.04		
PA	Relatedness	.40 ^{***}	.29	41.07 ^{***}
	Individuation	.29 ^{***}		
	Age	-.06		
	Gender	.01		
NA	Relatedness	-.40 ^{***}	.21	27.36 ^{***}
	Individuation	-.12 [*]		
	Age	-.19 ^{***}		
	Gender	.09 ^t		

Note: FTP: Future Time Perspective, Goal R: Goal Reengagement, COPE: Brief COPE Inventory, SPWB: Scales of Psychological Well-Being, SWLS: Satisfaction with Life Scale, RSES: Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale, PA: Positive Affect Schedule, NA: Positive Affect Schedule; Gender (1= Female, 2 = Male); df = 4, 399; ^t $p < .10$; ^{*} $p < .05$; ^{**} $p < .01$; ^{***} $p < .001$

3.6.3. Intercorrelations between Future Time Perspective, Goal Reengagement, and Self Orientations for Different Age Groups

In order to explore relation between future time perspective, goal reengagement, and self orientations for different age groups intercorrelations were calculated as shown in Table 3.16, 3.17, and 3.18. Future time perspective was positively correlated with goal reengagement, and self orientations for all age groups ($p < .001$). The strength of correlations was weak for young adults, weak to moderate for middle-aged adults, and moderate for older adults. Goal reengagement was positively and weakly associated to relatedness for young and middle-aged adults. It had no significant association with

individuation. The relation between relatedness and individuation was significant only for middle-aged adults. The strength of the correlation was weak.

Table 3.16 Intercorrelations between Future Time Perspective, Goal Reengagement, and Self Orientations for Young Adults (N = 191)

	1	2	3
1. FTP	--		
2. Goal R	.24 ^{***}	--	
3. Relatedness	.27 ^{***}	.28 ^{***}	--
4. Individuation	.25 ^{***}	.07	.11

Note: FTP: Future Time Perspective, Goal R: Goal Reengagement

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Table 3.17 Intercorrelations between Future Time Perspective, Goal Reengagement, and Self Orientations for Middle-aged Adults (N = 128)

	1	2	3
1. FTP	--		
2. Goal R	.46 ^{***}	--	
3. Relatedness	.42 ^{***}	.24 ^{**}	--
4. Individuation	.21 ^{***}	.16 ^t	.20 ^{**}

Note: FTP: Future Time Perspective, Goal R: Goal Reengagement

^t $p < .10$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Table 3.18 Intercorrelations between Future Time Perspective, Goal Reengagement, and Self Orientations for Older Adults (N = 85)

	1	2	3
1. FTP	--		
2. Goal R	.35 ^{***}	--	
3. Relatedness	.35 ^{***}	.11	--
4. Individuation	.29 ^{**}	-.02	.06

Note: FTP: Future Time Perspective, Goal R: Goal Reengagement

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

3.6.4. Future Time Perspective and Goal Reengagement as Mediators between Self Orientations and Well-being : Testing a Structural Model

In order to test the role of relatedness and individuation, as well as the mediation effects of future time perspective and goal reengagement in predicting well-being, structural model analysis was conducted for the young and middle-aged adult groups (Figure 3.3 and 3.4). In the model, coping, psychological well-being, positive affect, negative affect, self-esteem, and life satisfaction were used as the measured variables (indicators) of the latent variable well-being. The latent variables of future time orientation and goal reengagement were measured by their respective items in the scale. Relatedness (related) and individuation (individ) were observed variables. The AMOS multigroup analyses revealed that the fit for the overall model was acceptable, χ^2 (256, 329) = 389.26, $p < .000$, GFI = .88, AGFI = .84, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .04. As shown in Figure 3.3, for young adults, the model indicated that well-being is predicted by relatedness, individuation, future time perspective, and goal reengagement. Mediation effect of future time orientation and goal reengagement were tested using SOBEL test. Future time orientation partially mediated the relations between relatedness and well-being, and individuation and well-being, test statistics (Sobel Test) = 2.91, $p < .01$ and test statistics (Sobel Test) = 1.97, $p < .05$, respectively. Goal reengagement partially mediated the relation between future time orientation and well-being, test statistics (Sobel Test) = 2.22, $p < .05$. Future time orientation also partially mediated the relations between relatedness and goal reengagement, test statistics (Sobel Test) = 2.79, $p < .01$. On the other hand for middle-aged adults, future time perspective partially mediated the relation between relatedness and well-being, test statistics (Sobel Test) = 2.67, $p < .01$, and fully mediated the relation between relatedness and goal reengagement, test statistics (Sobel Test) = 3.06, $p < .01$. As shown in Figure 3.4, the path coefficients between relatedness and goal reengagement, individuation and future time orientation, and goal reengagement and well-being were not significant for middle-aged adults.

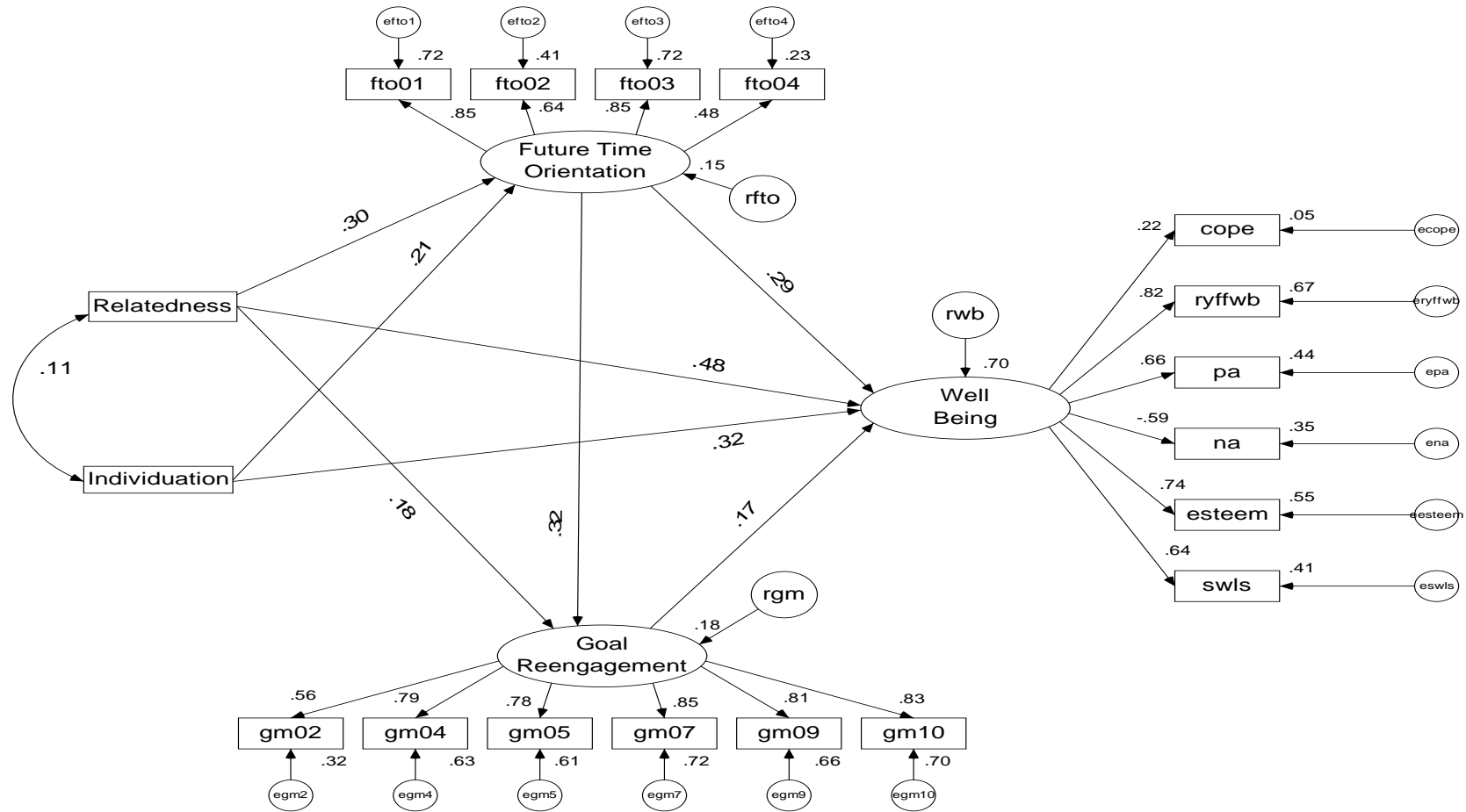


Figure 3.3 Latent factor model analysis by AMOS showing the path coefficients for young adults (*Note*: cope = Brief COPE, ryffwb = Psychological well-being, pa = Positive affect, na = Negative affect, esteem = Self-esteem, swls = Satisfaction with life). All path coefficients are significant.

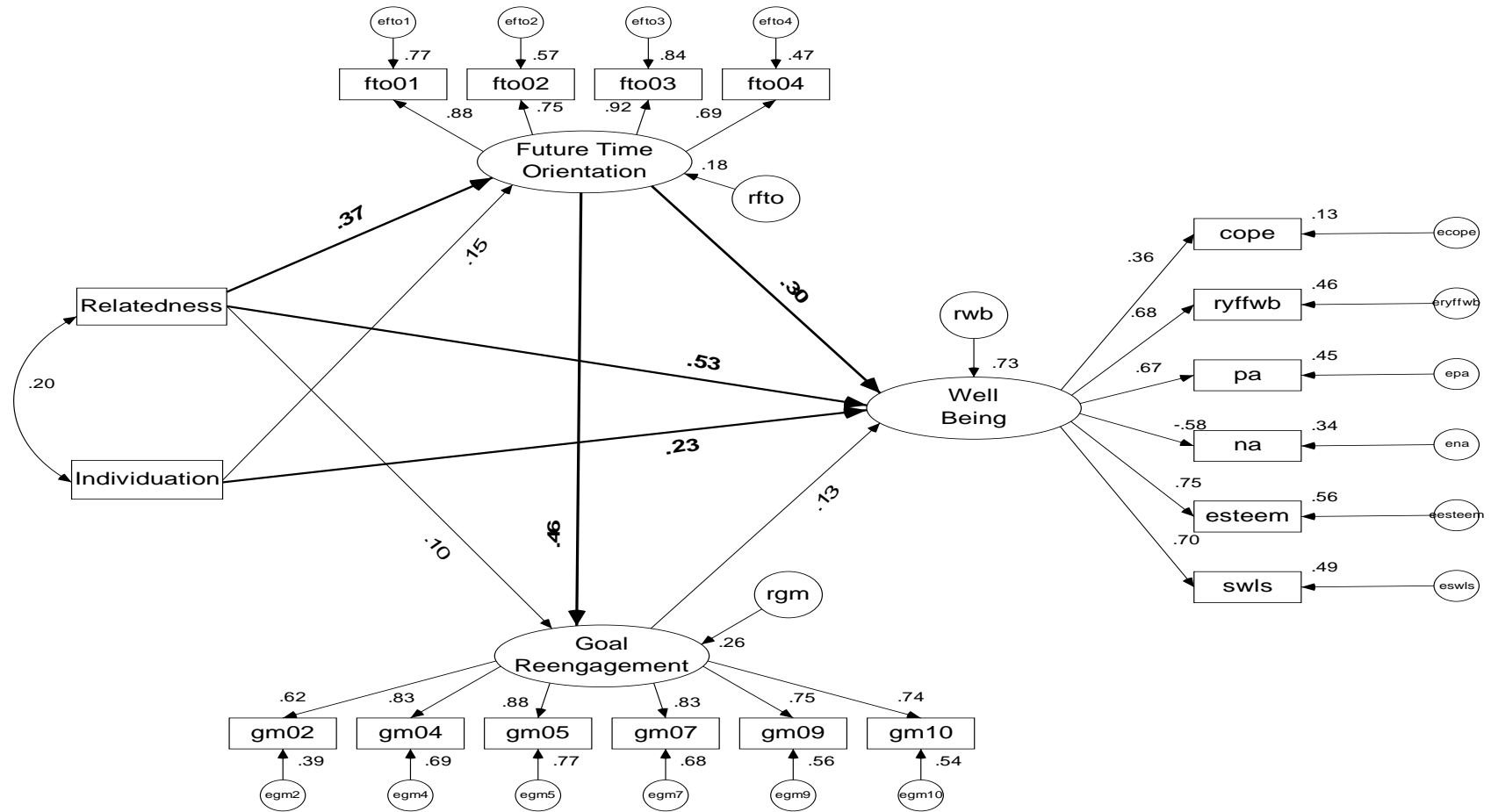


Figure 3.4 Latent factor model analysis by AMOS showing the path coefficients for middle-aged adults (*Note:* cope = Brief COPE, ryffwb = Psychological well-being, pa = Positive affect, na = Negative affect, esteem = Self-esteem, swls = Satisfaction with life). Path coefficients in bold are significant.

3.7. Interviews

Short structured interviews about time, future, end of life and age were conducted for descriptive and exploratory purposes. The interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed verbatim. Respondents' definition of time, preferred temporal focus and future perspective, mental age, and their thoughts about end of life were examined. Similar or repeating patterns and differences within and between the age groups in these categories were investigated and presented in the following section.

3.7.1. Definition of time

When they are asked to define time, the three young adults defined time as something that is fictive, goes by and needs to be caught up, divided into smaller units, extends into future and has no boundaries.

It is a very fictive thing in the world constructed by human being, but we try to catch it continuously. (24, female)
(İnsanoğlunun kendi kurduğu dünyada çok kurgu bir şey ama yakalamaya çalışıyoruz sürekli.)

It is something given by various measures, such as seconds, minutes, years. Everything moves ahead by those little units. (26, male)
(Çeşitli ölçülerle verilmiş birşey, saniyeler, dakikalar, yıllar gibi. Bütün herşey o küçük birimlerle ilerliyor.)

Time is always like something about future; and for some reason, it seems like infinite. (22, female)
(Zaman hep geleceğe dair bir şeymiş gibi ve nedense hep sonsuz [gibi] geliyor.)

For the middle-aged adults, time was something that is both limited and expansive, goes by, and a road extending from birth to death we should carefully walk on.

Time reminds me of something that comes and goes by, it flows. (49, female)
(Zaman deyince gelip geçen bir şey geliyor aklıma, su gibi akıyor.)

I think, time is a road. It might be very long or even very short. It is very important how you walk on that road. It reminds life, birth, everything. (52, female)
(Bence zaman bir yol. Çok uzun da olabilir, çok kısa da olabilir. O yolu nasıl katettiğin çok önemli. Yaşam doğum herşeyi hatırlatıyor zaman insana.)

Time is a road that goes from birth to death and used individually by each of us. It is a road travelled within the life. Bumpy, smooth. (55, male)
(Zaman doğumdan ölüme kadar geçen, bireysel olarak tarafımızdan değerlendirilen yoldur. Yaşam içinde alınan bir yoldur zaman. Engebeli, düz.)

On the other hand, the adults who were 80 and above defined time as “life”. It is a sequence of events between birth and death. It has a boundary and most of it has already been spent.

Time is all our experiences within a life time. Short or long, it depends. If it had passed under difficult conditions, then it is hard times. If you have had a comfortable life, you don't even understand time has been flowing. (82, male)
(Yaşam süresi içinde görüp geçirdiklerimiz zaman. Uzunluğu, kısalığı da yoruma bağlı. Güç koşullar altında geçmişse zor zamandır. Rahat bir yaşam sürdüysen zamanın geçtiğini anlamazsın bile.)

All times are beautiful. All seasons are beautiful, but not for us, not for elders. (86, female)
(Zamanın hepsi güzel. Mevsimlerin hepsi güzel. Ama bizler için değil. Biz yaşlılar için değil.)

Is it the time that goes from sunrise to sunset, or is it the time that passes between birth and death of a human being? Yes, one is so; I know it as the time that passes between birth and death of human being. I think the other as the time included in it [in life time] that is between sunrise and sunset including the night. (83, male)
Güneşin doğup batmasına giden süre midir, yoksa insanın doğumuyla ölümü arasında geçen süre midir zaman?... Evet, birisi öyle, insanın doğumu ile ölümü arasında geçen süre olarak biliyorum birisini. Birisi de işte onun içinde olan güneşin doğumu ile batımı arasındaki geceyi içine alan bir süre olarak düşünüyorum.

3.7.2. Past, Present, and Future

Individuals were asked which time period they generally think about most: past, present, or future. Young adults indicated thinking about past in a positive way and

thinking about future, both in short and long term, to make plans. While thinking about future, they reported to have curiosity and positive feelings, as well as, fear and anxiety. For example, 24, 26 and 22-year old adults said, respectively, that:

I think most about the past, because everything left behind seems more valuable to me. When I think about future, I always have fear. I feel anxious when thinking about the future. (24, female)
(En çok geçmişini düşünüyorum; çünkü geçen her şey bana her zaman daha kıymetli geliyor. Geleceği düşündüğüm zaman hep korkuyorum. Kaygılı düşünüyorum hep geleceği.)

I think, I think about the future and the past equal amount of time, but I think most about the near future, things that are going to happen within a day. I am very planful about the near future, like what I am going to do now. However, when I think about the long term, I usually have a positive attitude. I handle it somehow. (26, male)
(Sanırım gelecekle geçmişini eşit miktarda düşünüyorum, ama en çok kısa geleceği düşünüyorum, bir gün içinde olacaklar. Kısa geleceğe çok planlı yaklaşıyorum, şimdi ne yapacağım şeklinde. Ama uzun geleceği düşündüğüm zaman da genelde herhalde olumlu bakıyorum. Olur bir şekilde yaparız.)

[I think most about] the future. The past has been lived. I know what happened. Today is something I am living anyway, but the future is unknown. It evokes fear, but at the same time it evokes hope. It arouses curiosity. (22, female)
([En çok düşündüğüm zaman dilimi] gelecek. Geçmiş yaşandı. Ne olduğunu biliyorum. Bugün de zaten yaşadığım bir şey, ama gelecek belirsiz. Korku verici ama bir yandan umut verici. Merak uyandırıyor.)

Middle-aged adults stated that they think about present and future, mostly. They want to use their present time effectively, and also make plans and try for a better future for themselves and others.

[I think most about] the future. In order to make plans. Since I will not have the same income after 10 years, I wonder what I can do. How I can do when my daughter starts the school, how I should plan my working life accordingly, so it is always towards future. (49, female)
([En çok düşündüğüm zaman dilimi] gelecek. Plan yapmak için. Bundan 10 sene sonra aynı geliri elde etmeyeceğime göre acaba neler yapabilirim diye düşünüyorum. Kızım okula başlayınca ne şekilde yapabilirim, ona göre iş hayatımı nasıl planlayayım diye düşünüyorum yani sürekli ileriye dönük.)

I dig into past, too. Future also concerns me, but now concerns me more; because this is the time I am experiencing. Past is something that is used. I need to use that. I don't know how much there is in the future. Therefore, this time is more important. (52, female)

(Geçmişi de deşerim. Gelecek de tabii ilgilendiriyor, ama řu zaman beni daha çok ilgilendiriyor, çünkü yaşıadığım zaman bu benim. Geçmiş kullanılmış bir şey. Şunu kullanmam lazım. Gelecekte ne kadar var onu bilmiyorum. O yüzden bu zaman daha önemli.)

Past had already passed. Future is very important. Things you can change are in the future. (55, male)

(Geçmiş zaten geçmiştir. Gelecek çok önemli. Değıştirebileceklerin gelecektedir.)

For older adults, focus on the present time was dominant. They stated that they are occupied with daily hassles, trying to maintain their physical health, children's and grandchildren's lives. They remember good old days, as well as, the hardship of youth.

As getting older, all good days are left behind. Coming days are not known. I guess elder feels little like coming at the end of the road. Not thinking big projects, things to do, things like that. Well, we are occupied with trivial hassles, some sicknesses, and the kids' growing up, education, problems of the kids around. (82, male)

(Yaşlandıkça hep güzel günler geride kalmıştır. İlerideki günler daha belirli olmayan. Biraz da hani yolun sonuna gelmiş, yaklaşmış duygusu içinde oluyor yaşlı herhalde. İlerde büyük projeler, yapılacak işler, şunlar bunların düşünülmediği. İşte ufak tefek rahatsızlıkların, bilmem hastalıklar, etrafındaki çoluk çocuğun erişmesi, yetişmesi, onların okuması, dertleri falan o günlerin içinde haşır neşir olup gidiyoruz.)

I don't miss my past much, at all, because there were hardships. It was not a good period of time. The present is much better. I hope it will be better. I don't expect anything in the future. I think about graveyard as the future, there is nothing else. However, I think about good governing of our kids, welfare of our country. (83, male)

(Geçmişimi hiç aramıyorum çok, çünkü yokluklar, sıkıntılar içindeydi. İyi bir dönem değildi. Şimdi[ki] zaman çok daha iyi. Daha iyi olacağını ümit ediyorum inşallah. Bundan sonra ben ileride bir şey beklemiyorum. İleriyi ben mezarlığı düşünüyorum, başka yok ya. Yalnız çocuklarımızın filan iyi idare edilmesi, memleketimizin iyi olmasını düşünüyorum.)

I don't want youth anymore. When you are young, you will give birth, raise kids, send them to school. Enough already, we are tired. Enough. I care about using the present time well, good or bad. (86, female)

(Gençliği istemem artık. Bir kere genç olduğun zaman, ay çocuk doğurcan, ay çocuk büyütcan, ay onları okutcan, onları... yeter yorulduk ya. Yeter. Ben şimdiki zamanı değerlendirmeye bakıyorum. Ama iyi, ama kötü.)

3.7.3. Mental Age vs. Physical age

When they were asked how old they feel they are, individuals from all age groups stated that they rely on outside clues, such as norms of that particular age group or comparisons with other people around, or their inner energy, unless they have a health condition. Most of the participants also indicated that they feel younger than their physical age.

I feel younger than I am. I feel like 20. I might be even younger, because I think time has not given me the responsibilities of the age of 24. (24, female)

(Şu an olduğumdan küçük hissediyorum. 20 falanım herhalde. Belki de daha küçük olabilirim. Zaman bana 24 yaşın gerektirdiği hiçbir şeyi yükledi henüz de o yüzden sanırım.)

The thing inside me never dies. That excitement, childlike manners, they never leave me. I never say "I am at this age now, enough of this!". Sometimes when we get sick, we became more emotional, but other than that I never felt like that. (52, female)

(O içimdeki şey benim ölmüyor. O heyecan, o çocuksu tavırlar, onlar gitmiyor benim içimden. A ben artık bu yaşıyım, ay tamam falan demiyorum. Hani hastalandığımız zaman bazen duygusal oluyoruz ama onun dışında öyle hiç hissetmedim ben.)

Now, I am 82 years old, but I think I feel younger. It seems as if I have things to do and there is a world in front of me. It will be nice if my age is around 60 or 65. (82, male)

(Gerçi şimdi 82 yaşındayım ama herhalde daha genç hissediyorum. Daha yapılacak işlerim var, daha önümde bir dünya var gibi. Şöyle 60-65 olsa iyi olacak.)

One day I feel like I am 18, one day like a newborn. One day I feel really good. I say doctors cured me well. One day tough I say why they didn't let me die, when I have so much pain. (86, female)

(Bazı gün 18 yaşında, bazı gün yeni doğmuşum gibi hissediyorum. Bazı gün çok iyi hissediyorum kendimi. Doktorlar iyi etmiş diyorum. Bazı günler de aman niye öldürmediler beni diyorum. Öyle ağrıları oluyor ki insanın.)

3.7.4. Thinking about the End of Life

Young adults indicate that even though they know life will end one day, they can easily forget about it and live as it will not happen.

[The end of life] makes me sad and scares me. I think I don't want life to end. I don't do, I have limited time I should fit everything in. I forget quickly that I have a limited time. I am not aware of that when I am living. (24, female)

([Hayatın sonu] üzüyor ve korkutuyor. Hayat bitsin istemem sanırım. Şey yapmıyorum, aman sınırlı zamanım var her şeyi sığdırmalıyım. Bunu çok çabuk unutuyorum sınırlı zaman olduğunu. Yaşarken hiç farkında değilim.)

Middle aged adults stated an awareness of the fact and they take it into account.

One day, it will come, too. (49, female)
(Bir gün gelir, o da gelecektir.)

I am not bothered that life is going to end. There are some things you want to do. Maybe I would feel sad, if I cannot do these by the end of my life. (52, female)

(Hiç hayat sonlanacak diye rahatsız olmuyorum. Biraz insanın içinde yapmak istedikleri olur ya, hayatımın sonunda eğer bunları yapamazsam belki o zaman biraz üzüntü duyarım.)

Older adults, on the other hands, indicated that they live with this fact everyday and they had an either accepting or avoiding attitude. They mentioned that they have been enjoying their time with their kids and grandchildren, trying to be productive and starting their day by appreciating it.

To be honest, you don't want to think much. After this age, the hope of getting better is a low possibility, but living healthy, not hoping much from future just watching peacefully growing up, development, and successes of the kids is enough. (82, male)

(Valla, insan pek düşünmek istemiyor. Bu yaşta sonra daha iyi olur muyuz umudu uzak bir ihtimal, ama sağlıklı yaşamak, ileriden pek umut beklemeden sadece çocuklarım, torunların gelişimini, başarılarını huzurla izlemek yetiyor.)

Well, death is unavoidable. I wait it with sobriety. However, as it is in Islam, you will work as if you will never die, you will pray as if you will not die tomorrow. Therefore, for the rest of my life, too I want to work and be beneficial to people around. (83, male)

(Şimdi ölüm kaçınılmaz. Onu da itidal ile bekliyorum. Ama bizim şeyde de var İslamiyet'te de var ya, hiç ölmeyecek gibi çalışacaksın, yarın ölmeyeceksin gibi ibadet edeceksin. Ben de aşağı yukarı öyle düşünüyorum. O bakımdan ömrümün geri kalan kısımlarında da çalışmak, etrafıma faydalı olmak istiyorum.)

We will go and have comfort there. I am not afraid of death. I am not afraid. Believe me, I am not afraid. What I say myself every night when going to sleep is that how wonderful it is if I sleep and die until the morning. Then I wake up in the morning and say myself "thanks God, I didn't die". I get up again, make myself tea. I eat my breakfast. I open the doors. (86, female)

(Gideceğiz rahat edeceğiz orada. Ölümden korkmuyorum, korkmuyorum. İnan ki korkmuyorum. Ne diyorum her gece yatarken "oh, sabaha kadar bir uyumuş kalmış olsam ne güzel olur". Sabahleyin kalkıyorum, gene ölmemişim diyorum çok şükür. Gene kalkıyorum, var ya çay yapıyorum kendime. Kahvaltımı yapıyorum. Açıyorum kapıları.)

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

Main findings of the study are discussed in this section with regards to the basic questions addressed in the Introduction. Specifically, the main issues considered in the study involved age differences in time perception and future orientation (Question 1), change of personal goals with age (Question 2), relationship of future orientations (Question 3) and self-regulation (Question 4) with self-construals, the nature of relationship between self-regulation and future time perspective (Question 5), role of future time perspective, self-construals, and self-regulation in contribution to well-being (Question 6), and role of gender differences in time perspective, future orientation, self-regulation, and well-being (Question 7). After discussing findings associated with the questions addressed, limitations of the study are considered and suggestions for future research are presented. Finally, an overview of the major contributions is provided.

4.1. Age Differences in Time Perception and Future Orientation (Question 1)

As expected, results indicated that individuals in different age groups differed in their time perspective and future orientations. Older adults differed from young adults by having both more negative, aversive and more positive, sentimental view of past, having less risk taking and hedonistic attitude towards life, being more resistant to temptation and completing things on time, having more fatalistic (i.e., believing to have less control over life) attitude toward the future and life. Young adults had the most risk taking and

hedonistic attitude compared to other age groups. Middle-aged adults were more like older adults, but they did not differ from both groups on positive view of past and they differed from both group by being in the middle on being fatalistic.

In terms of future orientations, older adults saw less opportunity in their futures, and they were less planful but more anxious towards future. Compared to older adults, younger adults had exactly the opposite future orientations and had more favourable future outlook. Middle-aged adults were again closer to older adults, but they saw more opportunities in their future. However, there were no age differences on dispositional optimism, which indicates that there are certain personality aspects of future outlook regarding one's life and it is independent from the effect of age.

Structured interviews also indicated that time is defined as expansive, moving fast and extends into future and has no boundaries at younger ages. Therefore, the high risk taking attitude of young adults and their open future perspective might be as results of this understanding of time. An awareness of time and efficient use of it come into consideration for middle-aged adults. Whereas future represented more of an exploration for younger adults, it was something to be prepared for middle-aged adults. On the other hand, older adults stated that there is not much in the future for them and future means end of life. They preferred to focus more on the present, instead. They define time as life and with boundaries. Hence, believing to have less time left and to approach to the unknown end might have caused them to be more anxious and less planful towards the future.

All these findings indicate the effect of age on time perception and future time perspective as suggested by many studies focusing on development and change of time perspective over life-span, as well as life-span studies pointing out the factor of age and developmental stage on individuals' time perception and future outlook (e.g. Neugarten, 1968; Shmotkin & Eyal, 2003; Carstensen, Isaacowitz & Charles, 1999).

4.2. Change of Personal Goals with Age (Question 2)

As expected, age differences were found in personal goals and concerns. Older adults had lower number of goals than middle-aged and young adults, which is also

parallel with their perception of less opportunity lying in the future and having less planful attitudes towards future. Middle-aged adults, on the other hand, did not differ from young adults on the number of goals they want to pursue. However, content of the goals and concerns clearly varied from one age group to the other. As expected, young adults were more interested with occupation/profession, education, and family related goals, middle-aged adults were after occupation/profession, children's lives, and self related goals, and older adults were concerned mostly with children's lives, health, and property related goals. Findings of the study regarding the nature of individual goals at different age groups are in congruent with the findings of another similar study (Uçanok, 2001) conducted in Turkey. Our findings showed that young adults, compared to other adult groups, had much more occupation/profession, as in Uçanok's study, and education related goals. Also, family related goals, which is starting a new family for young, and supporting and protecting the family for middle-age and older adults, were found to be important for all age groups and as Uçanok indicates this might be a characteristic of Turkish society. On the other hand, as in Uçanok's study, decrease in the profession/occupation related goals in older ages and increase in the health, leisure and world related goals were also supported by the findings of previous studies (e.g., Cameron, Desai, Bahador, & Dremel, 1977-78; Emmons, 1986; Nurmi, 1992). Therefore, quantity and quality of individuals' goals were found to be affected by the age and so the developmental stage they are in. Hence, many theories on life-span indicate the importance of goal modification and adaptation, as well as distinct nature of these at different ages (e.g. Brandtstädter & Greve, 1994; Schulz & Heckhausen, 1996).

4.3. Relationship of Future Orientation with Self-Construals (Question 3)

Previous studies supported the claim that related-individuated (or balanced) type individuals have optimal psychological functioning, especially in comparison to separated-patterned (unbalanced) type individuals (e.g. İmamoğlu, 2003, 2006; İmamoğlu & Güler-Edwards, 2007; İmamoğlu & İmamoğlu, 2005, 2007). Results of this study also indicated that balanced type individuals at all age groups were the only ones seeing the most opportunity in their future, being the most planful and optimistic, and

the least anxious about their future. On the other hand, unbalanced type individuals at all age groups saw the least opportunity in their future; they had the least planful and optimistic, and the most anxious attitude towards their future. Only for younger adults though, unbalanced type individuals did not differ from balanced type individuals on anxious future attitudes. However, the former group had higher scores on this dimension than the latter group, and there was a trend in the expected direction.

The findings also indicated that the unfavourable effect of age on future time perspective was not true for balanced type individuals. While there was an unfavourable effect of age on future time perspective for middle-aged and older adults for every other self-construal type individuals, balanced type individuals at young, middle and older ages did not differ from each other and had the most favourable future outlook. Therefore, this supports the claim of the BID Model regarding the optimal functioning of the balanced type individuals. Here, it is by protecting the individual from the negative effect of increasing age and following change in future outlook.

4.4. Relationship of Adaptive Self-Regulation with Self-Construals (Question 4)

Results indicated that balanced type individuals reengaged into other goals more than the unbalanced type individuals when faced with an unattainable goal. This finding once again supports the optimal functioning of the balanced type individuals.

On the other hand, goal disengagement part of the self-regulation had no correlations with future, self, and age related variables and also had a low reliability for older adults. There might be several reasons for this. First, the wording of this subscale might have become difficult to read and comprehend, especially for older adults. For instance, items like “If I have to stop pursuing an important goal in my life, I find it difficult to stop trying to achieve the goal” or “If I have to stop pursuing an important goal in my life, it’s easy for me to reduce my effort towards the goal” might have been confusing. Second, disengaging from an unattainable goal might have been assumed to be implicitly included in reengaging into another goal, rather than seeing these as two distinct actions.

4.5. Relationship between Adaptive Self-Regulation and Future Time Perspective (Question 5)

In line with the studies of Wrosch, Scheier, Carver et. al. suggesting that disengagement and reengagement are affected from how individuals evaluate future, it was expected that for all age groups, adults having open or expansive future time perspective have more adaptive self-regulation. Confirming this expectation, results showed that adults thinking that there are many opportunities in their future reengage into more goals when they are faced with an unattainable goal than adults with lower future time perspectives.

Also, middle-aged adults reported reengaging into new goals more than older adults. Younger adults did not differ from these two groups. Actually, higher reengagement of middle-aged adults into new goals when faced with unattainable goals is in line with their description of time in interviews. Being aware of the limits of time and trying to use it efficiently, especially when they still have the resources available, such as physical, social and monetary resources, might cause middle-aged adults to regulate their goals more adaptively.

In addition, even though goal reengagement is increased with having more open future time perspective, the contribution of having the highest level of future time perspective to goal reengagement was found to be much more for middle-aged and older adults than younger adults. In other words, marginal value of having the highest level of future time perspective was bigger for middle-aged and older adults. This might be explained by the longer length of future time young adults perceive to have. This perception may not cause future time perspective to be a critical factor for young adults. On the other hand, as indicated previously, middle-aged adults perceive time as precious and try to use it effectively. For older adults, the future is perceived to be even more limited. Therefore, thinking to have many opportunities in their future makes a difference for these two groups and so, with a high level of future time perspective they might be more eager for finding new goals when they cannot attain one.

4.6. Role of Future Time Perspective, Self-Construals, and Adaptive Self-Regulation in Contribution to Well-being (Question 6)

Correlational studies indicated that age had marginally significant and weak correlations with well-being measures. The only well-being variables affected weakly by age were coping, positive and negative affectivity. Coping increased, while positive and negative affectivity were reported less with increasing age. As noted in the introduction, age on its own has not been a major factor in determining well-being (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999). Thus, as expected, well-being seems to be associated with factors other than age.

Correlational studies also showed that seeing future with many opportunities is moderately or strongly related to well-being measures, except its weak relation to coping. Goal reengagement, as well, moderately related to all well-being measures, except its weak association to negative affectivity. As for the relation between self orientations and well-being, relatedness had strong associations with all well-being measures, except its weak relation to coping. Individuation was found to be weakly or moderately associated with all well-being measures but coping. As indicated in the introduction, previous studies claimed the contribution of positive future expectations, adaptive self-regulation to well-being (e.g. Wrosch & Scheier, 2003; Wrosch, Scheier, Carver et. al, 2003) and having related-individuated (or balanced) self-type to optimal psychological functioning (e.g., İmamoğlu, 2003, 2006; İmamoğlu & S. İmamoğlu, 2005, 2007). As expected, these factors were found to be associated with well-being in the present study as well.

In addition, for each age group results of the intercorrelations between future time perspective, goal reengagement, and self orientations indicated that future time perspective is moderately or strongly correlated to goal reengagement and self orientations. Also, goal reengagement was moderately related to relatedness, except for older adults.

To test the relation of these variables among themselves regarding their contribution to well-being, a model was tested. The results showed an acceptable fit for only young and middle-aged adults. One reason for the lack of fit for older adults might

be the small sample size of older adults. According to the model fit, for young adults, the contribution of self orientations (relatedness and individuation) to well-being was partially mediated by future time perspective, the contribution of future time perspective to well-being was partially mediated by goal reengagement, and the contribution of relatedness orientation to goal reengagement was partially mediated by future time perspective. In other words, part of the contribution of feeling connected to others and developing with intrinsic reference to well-being appears to be by seeing many opportunities and things to do in the future. Also, part of the role of having an expansive future on well-being is by reengaging into new goals when faced with difficulty. For middle-aged adults, the role of relatedness orientation on well-being was partially mediated by future time perspective, and the role of relatedness orientation on goal reengagement was fully mediated. Hence, part of the contribution of feeling connected to others to well-being is facilitated by having an expansive future perspective. Besides, the role of relatedness on goal reengagement has been through future time perspective.

For the two age groups, the model indicated more stable nature of self orientations in contribution to well-being compared to more age related variables of future time perspective and goal reengagement. On the other hand, the role of individuatedness on future time perspective was not significant and its role on well-being was weaker for middle-aged adults. Negative and strong association between individuation and age might be the reason for the decreased role of individuation on those. Also, the role of goal reengagement on well-being was not significant for middle-aged adults, even though the role of future time perspective was stronger on goal reengagement. The explanation for this might be such that middle-aged adults are aware of the value of time and try to use it efficiently, so this might be causing them to use more adaptive self-regulation. However, middle-aged adults do not have as much as resources (i.e. physical, social and time) as young adults have. Therefore, even though they are reengaging into new goals when faced with difficulties, they may not necessarily be obtaining them as easily.

Consequently, as expected, self orientations, future time perspective and adaptive self regulation contributed to well-being. However, contrary to the expectations role of adaptive self-regulation on well-being was not found to be critical at older ages. There

might be several reasons for this result. First, there might be sociocultural differences between the present Turkish sample and North American samples of the previous studies especially regarding the goal regulation at older ages (e.g. Wrosch & Scheier, 2003; Wrosch, Scheier, Carver et. al, 2003). As indicated by previous studies (e.g. Gould, 1999; Weisz, Rothbaum, & Blackburn, 1984) the concept of adaptivity and coping might represent separate understandings in different societies. For instance, study of Seginer, Trommsdorff and Essau (1993) indicated that in the face of a difficulty, individuals from more collectivistic cultures prefer emotional coping instead of active coping compared to individuals from more individualistic cultures. On the other hand, considering the economical and life standart differences, actively regulating goals may not be an option for Turkish elders. Second, in their study Wrosch, Scheier, Miller et. al. (2003) used a different set of subjective well-being measures focusing on perceived stress, intrusive thoughts, purpose in life, and self-mastery, while our set of measure was more diverse and included general satisfaction with life, affectivity, coping, and esteem. If the contribution of goal reengagement to well-being is more on a specific aspect of well-being, our findings may not be representative.

Finally, there might also be other aspects of adaptivity in older ages contributing to well-being. As indicated in the introduction, goal management and adaptivity is one of the explanations provided for “paradox of well-being”. Other explanations for the paradox come from gerotranscendence theory (Tornstam, 1997, 1999) and Terror Management Theory (TMT; Goldenberg et al., 2000; Pyszczynski et al., 1999; Pyszczynski et al., 2003). As will be remembered, gerotranscendence theory claims that moving into old ages is a transition and this transition process includes a shift from a rational and materialistic perspective to a more transcendent one. This transition may also involve a decline in self-centredness. Considering the claims of gerotranscendence theory, it can be said that self-regulation may not be the only adaptive process used by older adults. On the other hand, TMT suggests that nonconscious but accessible thoughts of death are defend against by maintaining self-esteem and faith in one’s cultural worldview. Immortality is provided by culture in terms of biological, creative, natural, spiritual and religious, and experiential attainments. For instance in the interviews, while mentioning about future and end of life respondents expressed their good wishes for

children's and grandchildren's lives, and for the situation of the country, their wishes to continue to work and be useful, their beliefs of life after death. These thoughts might be representing immortality provided by the culture in terms of the biological, creative, spiritual and religious attainments according to the TMT (Pyszczynski et al., 2003). Therefore, as suggested by these two different theories thinking about the future and the end of life might be much more complicated processes and might involve other mechanisms.

4.7 Gender Differences in Time Perspective, Future Orientation, Adaptive Self-Regulation, and Well-being (Question 7)

As indicated in the Introduction, there was no gender difference expectation except for anxious future attitudes. Although effects were weak for gender differences, the results confirmed our expectation indicating that women were more anxious towards their future. Results also showed that women were more fatalistic regarding their future and they resist temptations more and they are more persistent in completing future projects compared to men. Previous studies also reported higher levels of anxiety and more anxious future attitudes for women (e.g. Brannon, 1999; İmamoğlu & Güler-Edwards, 2007), as well as, believing more in external control than internal control for less powerful groups, such as women, low socio-economic groups, and minority groups (e.g. Lachman, 1986; Lachman & Burack, 1993).

Regarding the effect of gender differences on self-regulation and well-being, the findings did not indicate any specific effect, which is in congruence with our expectations.

4.8 Limitations and Suggestions

Before providing an overview of the major contributions, some limitations of the present study should be addressed. First of all, to study age differences and developmental trends cross-sectional analyses were used for some part of the study. Cross-sectional analyses make it harder to generalize findings and to conclude that the

findings totally reflect age differences. There might be other factors such as cohort differences playing a role in age group differences. Therefore, these should be kept in mind while considering the findings of the study. On the other hand, taking into account the difficulties of longitudinal study, cross-sectional studies can be evaluated as important on their own and for designing future longitudinal studies to study developmental trends across the life-span.

Within the limitations of this dissertation, only particular aspects of future outlook, such as seeing future as expansive, being anxious or planful about future have been considered. Although findings indicated that having a favourable future outlook on these aspects contributes to well-being and self-regulation, especially for older adults, it may be particularly interesting to examine further the perception of future and time. As indicated in Introduction, some scholars (e.g., İmamoğlu, 2006; Tornstam 1997, 1999) suggest that while moving to old ages, there might be a shift from a rational and materialistic perspective to a more transcendent one. Individual on that path looks forward into the future and outward beyond the self. That transition may involve a decline in self-centredness and death related thoughts are left behind with a possible redefinition of time, space and objects. Therefore, in future studies more in-depth interviews might be conducted in order to understand future and time perspective of older adults, as well as its relation with death related thoughts and feelings.

Finally, within the limitations of this dissertation, only adaptive aspects of self-regulation (i.e. being able to disengage and reengage into a new goal when there is an unattainable goal) have been investigated. Many life-span theories (e.g. Brandtstädter & Greve, 1994; Schulz & Heckhausen, 1996) have indicated that gradual shrinking of physical, social, and temporal resources is likely to undermine a sense of control for elderly. Therefore, instead of attempts to change external environment in line with individual goals, internal processes (i.e. secondary control) are used more in later adulthood (Heckhausen & Schulz, 1998). As a result, despite the fact that adaptive self-regulation has been found to be used by older adults as much or even more than younger adults (e.g. Güler & Wrosch, 2006; Wrosch, Scheier, Miller et. al.) in the North American samples, it may not be used at the same level by Turkish older adults due to socioeconomical and cultural differences. Consequently, consideration of other aspects

of self-regulation, such as secondary control, might provide a better picture about the role of self-regulation in well-being for Turkish older adults.

4.9 Overview of the Main Contributions and Conclusions

In spite of the limitations noted above, the present study has some important strengths. An original contribution of the present research involves bringing and integrating time and life-span perspective into social psychology studies. As noted in the Introduction, there is no systematic investigation of time in psychology, although there is variety of studies about different aspects of it. Even though temporal factors affect personality, motivation, moods and emotion, decision processes, stress and coping processes, and the construction of the self (McGrath & Tschan, 2004); integration of time to the studies in social psychology has also not been completely investigated. On the other hand, the area of life-span development with its main focus on the “constancy and change in human behaviour throughout the life course” (Baltes, 1987, p.611) relies on the effects of temporal factors, mostly the age factor, in human life. Therefore, the studies on how individuals perceive time, especially the future, at different stages of their lives, the role of these perceptions on individuals and on their lives, and how individuals react and adapt to the fact of limited time, especially in the later years of life, constitute a promising area and a fruitful merger of life-span development and social psychology. In this regard, we believe that our study constitutes an important start for following studies in this promising area.

In addition, not only focusing on the change in time perspective within the life-span but also investigating individual differences within the age groups contributed to our understanding of self-construals and supported one of the basic claims of the BID Model. While life-span studies focus on age differences and ignore individual differences within the age groups, with this study we showed that regardless of their age balanced type individuals were not affected by the unfavourable effect of age on future outlook and goal reengagement. As demonstrated by İmamoğlu (2003, 2006), related-individuated (or balanced) type individuals had optimal psychological functioning and as this study indicates it is valid for all age groups.

Another contribution of the study is taking middle-aged individuals into account while investigating age related differences. Middle-aged adults were relatively ignored in life-span and self-regulation studies. However, the findings indicated that by being aware of the precious nature of time while having enough of it, middle-aged adults appear to be the most adaptive group in terms of self-regulation. As young adults, this group has high number of goals and favourable future outlook. On the other hand, as older adults, thinking that many opportunities wait in the future contributes to their goal regulation highly. In that sense, we believe this dissertation points out the importance of studying middle-age population, as well as young and older adults, in life-span and self-regulation studies.

Finally, besides showing that future outlook is not only related to age but also to self-construals, current study also contributed by indicating the possibility and increased value of having favourable future outlook in middle and older ages for better self-regulation. Considering the positive relation between future outlook and well-being for all age groups, the role and meaning of the future time in every stage of our lives necessitates further research for a better understanding of our adaptation and lifetime journey.

REFERENCES

- Agarwal, A., Tripathi, K. K., Srivastava, M. (1983). Social roots and psychological implications of time perspective. *International Journal of Psychology, 18*, 367-380.
- Alsaker, F. D., Flammer, A., & Tschanz, U. (2005). Time use in Adolescence. In A. Perret-Clermont (Ed.), *Thinking time: A multidisciplinary perspective on time*. (1st ed., pp. 98-109). Göttingen: Hogrefe and Huber Publishers.
- Aydın, G., & Tezer, E. (1991). İyimserlik, sağlık sorunları ve akademik başarı ilişkisi [The relationships among optimism, physical health problems, and academic achievement]. *Psikoloji Dergisi, 7*, 2-9.
- Baltes, P. B. (1987). Theoretical propositions of life-span developmental psychology: On the dynamics between growth and decline. *Developmental Psychology, 23*, 611-626.
- Baltes, P. B., & Mayer, K. U. (Eds.). (1999). *The Berlin Aging Study: Aging from 70 to 100*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Bembenutty, H., & Karabenick, S. A. (2004). Inherent association between academic delay of gratification, future time perspective, and self-regulated learning. *Educational Psychological Review, 16*, 35-57.
- Bitman, M., & Goodin, R. E. (2000). An equivalence scale for time. *Social Indicators Research, 52*, 291-311.
- Block, R. A., Zakay, D., & Hancock, P. A. (1998). Human aging and duration judgments: A meta-analytic review. *Psychology and Aging, 13*, 584-596.
- Brandtstädter, J., & Greve, W. (1994). The aging self: Stabilizing and protective processes. *Developmental Review, 14*, 52-80.
- Brannon, L. (1999). *Gender psychological perspectives*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

- Brunstein, J. C. (1993). Personal goals and subjective well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 65, 1061-1070.
- Buccheri, R., Gesu, V. D. & Saniga, M. (2000). *Studies on the structure of time: From physics to psycho(patho)logy*. New York: Kluwer Academic/Plenum Publishers.
- Calster, K. V., Lens, W., & Nuttin, J. R. (1987). Affective attitude toward the personal future: Impact on motivation in high school boys. *American Journal of Psychology*, 100, 1-13.
- Cameron, P., Desai, K. G., Bahador, D., & Dremel, G. (1977-78). Temporality across the life span. *International Journal of Aging and Human Development*, 8, 229-259.
- Carstensen, L. L. (1998). A life span approach to social motivation. In J. Heckhausen, & C. S. Dweck (Eds.), *Motivation and self-regulation across the life span* (pp.341-364). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Carstensen, L. L., Isaacowitz, D. M., & Charles, S. T. (1999). Taking time seriously: A theory of socioemotional selectivity. *American Psychologist*, 54, 165-181.
- Carstensen, L. L., & Lang, F. R. (1996). *Future Orientation Scale*. Unpublished manuscript, Stanford University.
- Carver, C. S. (1997). You want to measure coping but your protocol's too long: Consider the Brief COPE. *International Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, 4 (1), 92-101.
- Carver, C. S., & Scheier, M. F. (1999). Themes and issues in the self-regulation of behaviour. In R.S. Wyer (Ed.), *Perspectives on behavioural self-regulation* (pp.1-106). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Carver, C. S., Scheier, M. F., & Weintraub, J. K. (1989). Assessing coping strategies: A theoretically based approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 56 (2), 267-283.
- Cate, R. A., & Oliver, J. P. (2007). Testing models of the structure and development of future time perspective: Maintaining a focus on opportunities in middle age. *Psychology and Aging*, 22 (1), 186-201.
- Çuhadaroğlu, F. (1986). *Adolesanlarda benlik saygısı*. Unpublished M. S. Thesis, Hacettepe University.

- Diehl, M., Coyle, N., & Labouvie-Vief, G. (1996). Age and sex differences in strategies of coping and defense across the life span. *Psychology and Aging, 11*, 127-139
- Diener, E. (1984). Subjective well-being. *Psychological Bulletin, 95*, 542-575.
- Diener, E., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. (1985). The satisfaction with life scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 49*, 71-75.
- Diener, E., Suh, E. M., Lucas, R. E., & Smith, H. L. (1999). Subjective well-being: Three decades of progress. *Psychological Bulletin, 125*, 276-302.
- Emmons, R. A. (1986). Personal strivings: An approach to personality and subjective well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*, 1058-1068.
- Florian, V. & Mikulincer, M. (1997). Fear of death and the judgement of social transgressions: A multidimensional test of terror management theory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 73* (2), 369-380.
- Gençöz, T. (2000). Pozitif ve Negatif Duygu Ölçeği: Geçerlik ve güvenilirlik çalışması. *Türk Psikoloji Dergisi, 15* (46), 19-26.
- Gezici, M., & Güvenç, G. (2003). Çalışan kadınların ve ev kadınlarının benlik algısı ve benlik kurgusu açısından karşılaştırılması, *Türk Psikoloji Dergisi, 18*, 1-17.
- Gjesme, T. (1981). Is there any future in achievement motivation? *Motivation and Emotion, 2*, 115-138.
- Gjesme, T. (1983). On the concept of future time orientation: Considerations of some functions' and measurements' implications. *International Journal of Psychology, 18*, 443-461.
- Goldenberg, J. L., Pyszczynski, T., Greenberg, J., & Solomon, S. (2000). Fleeing the body: A terror management perspective on the problem of human corporeality. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 4*, 200-218.
- Gonzales, A., & Zimbardo, P. G. (1985, March). Time in perspective. *Psychology Today, 21-26*.
- Gould, S. J. (1999). A critique of Heckhausen and Schulz's (1995) life-span theory of control from a cross-cultural perspective. *Psychological Review, 106*(3), 597-604.
- Güler, A. (2004). *Relationship between self-construals and future time orientations*. Unpublished M. S. Thesis, Middle East Technical University.

- Güler, A. & Wrosch, C. (2006, March). *Future time perceptions and goal adjustment capacities in young adulthood and old age*. Poster session presented at the 28th annual meeting of the Société Québécoise pour la recherche en psychologie, Montréal, Canada.
- Heatherton, T. F. & Baumeister, R. F. (1996). Self-regulation failure: Past, present, and future. *Psychological Inquiry*, 7(1), 90-98.
- Higgins, E. T. (1987). Self-discrepancy: A theory relating self and affect. *Psychological Review*, 94, 319-340.
- Holman, E. A. & Silver, R. C. (1998). Getting “stuck” in the past: Temporal orientation and coping with trauma. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74, 1146-1163.
- Husman, J. & Lens, W. (1999). The role of the future in student motivation. *Educational Psychologist*, 34, 113-125.
- İmamoğlu, E. O. (1995). Değişim sürecinde aile: Evlilik ilişkileri, bireysel gelişim ve demokratik değerler. *1994 Aile Kurultayı* (s. 35-51). Ankara, Türkiye: Aile Araştırma Kurumu.
- İmamoğlu, E. O. (1998). Individualism and collectivism in a model and scale of balanced differentiation and integration. *The Journal of Psychology*, 132, 95-105.
- İmamoğlu, E. O. (2001). *Need for cognition versus recognition: Self and family related correlates*. Unpublished manuscript, Middle East Technical University, Ankara.
- İmamoğlu, E. O. (2003). Individuation and relatedness: Not opposing but distinct and complementary. *Genetic, Social, and General Psychology Monographs*, 129, 367-402.
- İmamoğlu, E. O. (2004). *Self related correlates of well-being*. Unpublished data.
- İmamoğlu, E. O. (2006). Dengeli yetişme ortamı ve benlik modeli: 1970’lerden 2000’lere bir araştırma öyküsü. *14. Ulusal Psikoloji Kongresi*, Ankara, Eylül.
- İmamoğlu, E. O. & İmamoğlu, S. (2005). *The related and individuated self-way to hedonic and eudaimonic well-being*. In preparation.
- İmamoğlu, E. O. & İmamoğlu, S. (2007). Relationship between attachment security and self-construal orientations. *Journal of Psychology: Interdisciplinary and Applied*, 141, 539-558.

- İmamoğlu, E. O., & Güler-Edwards, A. (2007). Geleceğe ilişkin yönelimlerde benlik tipine bağlı farklılıklar. *Türk Psikoloji Dergisi*, 22 (60), 115-132.
- İmamoğlu, E. O., & Karakitapoğlu-Aygün, Z. (2004). Self-construals and values in different cultural and socioeconomic contexts. *Genetic, Social, and General Psychology Monographs*, 130, 277-306.
- İmamoğlu, E. O., & Karakitapoğlu-Aygün, Z. (2006). Actual, ideal, and expected relatedness with parents across and within cultures. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 36, 721- 745.
- İmamoğlu, E. O., & Karakitapoğlu-Aygün, Z. (2007). Relatedness of identities and emotional closeness with parents across and within cultures. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 10, 145- 161.
- İmamoğlu, S. (2005). Secure exploration: Conceptualization, types, and relationships with secure attachment, self-construals and other self-related variables. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Middle East Technical University.
- Jones, J. M. (1988). Cultural differences in temporal perspectives: Instrumental and expressive behaviours in time. In J. E. McGrath (Ed.), *The social psychology of time: New perspectives* (pp. 21-38). Newbury, CA: Sage.
- Kauffman, D. F., & Husman, J. (2004). Effects of time perspective on student motivation: Introduction to a special issue. *Educational Psychology Review*, 16, 1-7.
- Keough, K. A., Zimbardo, P. G., & Boyd, J. N. (1999). Who's smoking, drinking, and using drugs? Time perspective as a predictor of substance use. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 21, 149-164.
- Köker, S. (1991). *Normal ve sorunlu ergenlerin yaşam doyumu düzeyinin karşılaştırılması*. Unpublished M. S. Thesis, Ankara University.
- Kurt, A. (2000a). A comparison of three self-construal conceptualizations with respect to issues of culture and gender. *Annual Convention of the Society for Personality and Social Psychology*, Savannah, GA, Şubat.
- Kurt, A. (2000b). Cross-cultural comparison of Canadian and Turkish university students with respect to self-construal. *Annual Convention of Canadian Psychological Association*, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada, Haziran.
- Lachman, M. E. (1986). Locus of control in aging research: A case for multidimensional and domain-specific assessments. *Psychology and Aging*, 1, 34-40.

- Lachman, M. E., & Burack, O. R. (1993). Planning and control processes across the life course: An overview. *International Journal of Behavioral Development, 16*, 131-145.
- Laor, I., & Granek, M. (1997). Working through the experience of time in time-limited therapy. *American Journal of Psychotherapy, 51*, 580-592.
- Lennings, C. J. (1994). An investigation of the effects of agency and time perspective variables on career maturity. *The Journal of Psychology, 128*, 243-253.
- Lennings, C. J. (2000). Optimism, Satisfaction and Time Perspective in the Elderly. *The International Journal of Aging and Human Development, 51*, 167-181.
- Macar, F. (2005). Time passing, attention, and internal timers. In A. Perret-Clermont (Ed.), *Thinking time: A multidisciplinary perspective on time*. (1st ed., pp.15-21). Göttingen: Hogrefe and Huber Publishers.
- Mahon, N. E., & Yarcheski, T. J. (1994). Future time perspective and positive health practices in adolescents. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 79*, 395-398.
- Marko, K. W., & Savickas, M. L. (1998). Effectiveness of a career time perspective intervention. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 52*, 106-119.
- Markus, H. R., & Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and the self: Implications for cognition, emotion and motivation. *Psychological Review, 98*, 224-253.
- Markus, H., & Nurius, P. (1986). Possible selves. *American Psychologist, 41*(9), 954-969.
- Maxfield, M., Pyszczynski, T., Kluck, B., Cox, C. R., Greenberg, J., Solomon, S., Weise, D. (2007). Age-related differences in responses to thoughts of one's own death: Mortality salience and judgements of moral transgressions. *Psychology and Aging, 22*(2), 341-353.
- McAdams, D. P. (1992). The five-factor model in personality: A critical appraisal. *Journal of Personality, 69*, 329-361.
- McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T. Jr. (1999). A five-factor theory of personality. In L. A. Pervin, & O. P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* (2nd ed., pp.139-153). New York: Guildford Press.
- McGrath, J. E., & Tschann, F. (2004). *Temporal matters in social psychology*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

- Mroczek, D. K., & Kolarz, C. M. (1998). The effect of age on positive and negative affect: A developmental perspective on happiness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75, 1333-1349.
- Muraven, M., Baumeister, R. F., & Tice, D. M. (1999). Longitudinal improvement of self-regulation through practice: Building self-control strength through repeated exercise. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 139(4), 446-458.
- Neimeyer, R. A., & Werth, J. L. (2005). The psychology of death. In M. L. Johnson, V. L. Bengston, P. G. Coleman, & T. B. L. Kirkwood (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of age and ageing* (pp.387-393). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Neugarten, B. L., Moore, J. W., & Lowe, J. C. (1968). Age norms, age constraints, and adult socialization. In B. L. Neugarten (Ed.), *Middle age and aging: A reader in social psychology* (pp. 22-28). Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Neugarten, B. L. (1968). The awareness of middle age. In B. L. Neugarten (Ed.), *Middle age and aging: A readers in social psychology* (pp. 22-28). Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Nurmi, J. E. (1989). Development of orientation to the future during early adolescence: A four-year longitudinal study and two cross-sectional comparisons. *International Journal of Psychology*, 24, 195-214.
- Nurmi, J. E. (1991). How do adolescents see their future? A review of the development of future orientation and planning. *Developmental Review*, 11, 1-59.
- Nurmi, J. E. (1992). Age differences in adult life goals, concerns, and their temporal extension: A life course approach to future-oriented motivation. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 15 (4), 487-508.
- Nurmi, J. E., & Pullianien, H. (1991). The changing parent-child relationship, self-esteem, and intelligence as determinants of orientation to the future during early adolescence. *Journal of Adolescence*, 14, 35-51.
- Ong, A., Bergeman, C. S., Bisconti, T. L., & Wallace, K. A. (2006). The contours of resilience and the complexity of emotions in later life. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 91, 730-749.
- Öner-Özkan, B. (2004). Future time orientation in romantic relationships and the minding theory of relating. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 32 (8), 797-804.
- Öner-Özkan, B. (2007). Future time orientation and religion. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 35(1), 51-62.

- Padawer, E. A., Jacobs-Lawson, J. M., Hershey, D. A., & Thomas, D. G. (2007). Demographic indicators as predictors of future time perspective. *Current Psychology, 26*, 102-108.
- Pyszczynski, T., Greenberg, J., & Solomon, S. (1999). A dual-process model of defense against conscious and unconscious death-related thoughts: An extension of terror management theory. *Psychological Review, 106*, 835- 845.
- Pyszczynski, T., Solomon, S., & Greenberg, J. (2003). *In the wake of 9/11: The psychology of terror*. APA, Washington, DC.
- Rappaport, H., Enrich, K., & Wilson, A. (1985). Relation between ego identity and temporal perspective. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 48*, 1609-1620.
- Rappaport, H., Fossler, R. J., Bross, L.S., & Gilden, D. (1993). Future time, death anxiety, and life purpose among older adults. *Death Studies, 17*, 369-379.
- Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the Adolescent Self-Image*. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press.
- Ryff, C. D. (1989b). Happiness is everything, or is it? Explorations on the meaning of psychological well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 57*, 1069-1081.
- Ryff, C. D. (1991). Possible selves in adulthood and old age: A tale of shifting horizons. *Psychology and Aging, 6*, 286-295.
- Ryff, C. D. (1995). Psychological well-being in adult life. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 4*(4), 99-104.
- Ryff, C. D., & Heidrich, S. M. (1997). Experience and well-being: Explorations on domains of life and how they matter. *International Journal of Behavioural Development, 20*, 193-206.
- Sakallı-Uğurlu N. (2003). How do romantic relationship satisfaction, gender stereotypes and gender relate to future time orientation in romantic relationships? *Journal of Psychology, 137*(3), 294-304.
- Scheier, M. F., & Carver, C. S. (1985). Optimism, coping and health: Assessment and implication of generalized outcome expectancies. *Health Psychology, 4*, 219-247.
- Schmidt, R. W., Lamm, H., & Trommsdorff, G. (1978). Social class and sex as determinants of future orientation (time perspective) in adults. *European Journal Social Psychology, 8*, 71-90.

- Schulz, R., & Heckhausen, J. (1996). A life span model of successful aging. *American Psychologist, 51*, 702-714.
- Seginer, R., Trommsdorff, G., & Essau, C. (1993). Adolescent control beliefs: Cross-cultural variations of primary and secondary control orientations. *International Journal of Behavioral Development, 16*, 243-260.
- Smothkin, D. (1992). The apprehensive respondent: Failing to rate future life satisfaction in older adults. *Psychology and Aging, 7*, 484-486.
- Smothtkin, D., & Eyal, N. (2003). Psychological time in later life: Implications for counseling. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 81*, 259-273.
- Sneed, J. R., & Whitbourne, S. K. (2005). Models of aging self. *Journal of Social Issues, 61*, 375-388.
- Srivastava, S., John, O. P., Gosling, S. D., & Potter, J. (2003). Development of personality in early and middle adulthood: Set like plaster or persistent change? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 84*, 1041-1053.
- Staats, S., Partlo, C., & Stubbs, K. (1993). Future time perspective, response rates, and older persons: Another chapter in the story. *Psychology and Aging, 8*, 440-442.
- Strathman, A., Gleicher, F., Boninger, D. S., & Edwards, C. S. (1994). The consideration of future consequences: Weighing immediate and distant outcomes of behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 66*, 742-752.
- Staudinger, U. M. (2005). Personality and aging. In M. L. Johnson, V. L. Bengston, P. G. Coleman, & T. B. L. Kirkwood (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of age and ageing* (pp.237-244). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Staudinger, U. M, Freund, A. M., Linden, M., & Maas, I. (1999). Self, personality, and life regulation: Facets of psychological resilience in old age. In P. Baltes & K. U. Mayer (Eds.), *The Berlin aging study* (pp.302-328). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Tornstam, L. (1997). Gerotranscendence: The contemplative dimension of aging. *Journal of Aging Studies, 12*, 143-155.
- Tornstam, L. (1999). Transcendence in later life. *Generations, 23*, 10-15.
- Trommsdorff, G. (1983). Future orientation and socialization. *International Journal of Psychology, 18*, 381-406.

- Turan, G. (2007). *Relationship between materialism and self-construals*. Unpublished M. S. Thesis, Middle East Technical University.
- Uçanok, Z. (2001). Gelişimsel Düzenleme Modeli çerçevesinde genç yetişkin, orta yaş ve yaşlılıkta kontrol stratejilerinin incelenmesi [Developmental regulation across adulthood: An investigation of control strategies in young adulthood, middle age and old age]. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Hacettepe University.
- Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: the PANAS Scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54, 1063-1070.
- Weisz, J. R., Rothbaum, F. M., & Balckburn, T. C. (1984). Standing out and standing in. The psychology of control in America and Japan. *American Psychologist*, 39(9), 955-969.
- Wrosch, C., & Scheier, M. F. (2003). Personality and quality of life: The importance of optimism and goal adjustment. *Quality of Life Research*, 12 (1), 59-72.
- Wrosch, C., Scheier, M. F., Carver, C. S., & Schulz, R. (2003). The importance of goal disengagement in adaptive self-regulation: When giving up is beneficial. *Self and Identity*, 2, 1-20.
- Wrosch, C., Scheier, M. F., Miller, G.E., Schulz, R., & Carver, C. S. (2003). Adaptive self-regulation of unattainable goals: Goal disengagement, goal reengagement, and subjective well-being. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 29 (12), 1494-1508.
- Zimbardo, P. G. & Boyd, J. N. (1999). Putting time in perspective: A valid, reliable individual-differences metric. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 77, 1271-1288.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: THE SCALES USED

A.1 Future Outlook and Time Perspective Questionnaire:

A.1.1 Future Time Perspective (FTP) Scale

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatle okuyunuz ve ne derece katılıp katılmadığınızı en iyi yansıtan sayıyı işaretleyiniz.

	1	2	3	4	5
	Hiç katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne katılıyorum, ne katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
01.	Gelecekte beni bekleyen birçok fırsat var.				
02.	Gelecekte birçok yeni hedefler koymayı umuyorum.				
03.	Geleceğim olanaklarla dolu.				
04.	Önümde daha uzun bir hayat var.				
05.	Geleceğim bana sonsuzmuş gibi geliyor.				
06.	Gelecekte istediğim herşeyi yapabilirim.				
07.	Yeni planlar yapmak için hayatımda daha çok zaman var.				
08.	Zamanın azalmakta olduğunu hissediyorum.				
09.	Geleceğimde sadece sınırlı imkanlar var.				

10.	Yaşım ilerledikçe, zamanın kısıtlı olduğu hissine kapılıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
-----	--	---	---	---	---	---

A.1.2. Life Orientation Test (LOT)

1.	Ne olacağının önceden kestirilemediği durumlarda hep en iyi sonucu beklerim.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Bir işimin ters gitme olasılığı varsa mutlaka ters gider.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Herşeyi hep iyi tarafından alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Geleceğim konusunda hep iyimserimdir.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	İşlerin istediğim gibi yürüyeceğini neredeyse hiç beklemem.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Hiçbir şey benim istediğim gibi gitmez.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Her kötü olayda iyi bir yön bulmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Başıma iyi şeylerin geleceğine pek bel bağlamam.	1	2	3	4	5

A.1.3 Attitudes Towards Future Scale (ATFS)

1.	Geleceğe dair planlar yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Geleceği düşünmekten korkarım.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Uzun vadeli planlar yapmam.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Hayatın bana ne getireceğini bilmemek beni huzursuz ediyor.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Geleceği bugünden planlamam gerektiğini düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

6.	Bugünü, geleceği daha güzel hale getirecek şekilde yaşıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Gelecek hakkında düşünmek yersiz.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Geleceğin bilinmezliği beni kaygılandırıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Geleceği düşünmek beni rahatsız etmez.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Geleceği düşünmek bana kaygı veriyor.	1	2	3	4	5

A.1.4 The Positive Future Expectations Scale (PFES)

01.	Kişisel geleceğim konusunda oldukça iyimserim.	1	2	3	4	5
02.	Eninde sonunda hedeflerime ulaşacağıma inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
03.	Gelecekte yapmak istediklerimi gerçekleştirebilmek konusunda iyimserim.	1	2	3	4	5
04.	Kişisel geleceğim konusunda kötümserim.	1	2	3	4	5
05.	Bazı güçlükler olsa da geleceğe iyimser bakıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

A.1.5 Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory (ZTPI)

1.	Kader, hayatımdaki birçok şeyi belirler.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Sık sık, hayatımda neyi farklı yapmalıydım diye düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Geçmişim hakkında düşünmek bana zevk verir.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Birşeyi başarmak istediğimde hedefler koyar ve bu hedeflere ulaştıracak belli yolları dikkate alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Düşünüp tartınca, geçmişimde kötü şeylere kıyasla,	1	2	3	4	5

	hatırlanacak iyi şeyler daha çok.					
6.	Yarının işlerini bitirmek ve gerekli diğer işleri yapmak, bu gecenin eğlencesinden önce gelir.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Herşey olacağına vardığı için, benim ne yaptığımın gerçekte bir önemi yok.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	“Eski güzel zamanlarda” yaşamın nasıl olduğundan bahseden hikayelerden hoşlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Acı veren geçmiş deneyimler zihnimde durmadan canlanır.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Mümkün olduğunca dolu dolu ve günümü gün ederek yaşamaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Geçmiş zamanın mutlu anıları zihnimde hemen beliriverir.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Anlık dürtülerle karar veririm.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Hayatıma heyecan katmak benim için önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Çocukluğumu olumlu duygularla hatırlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Riskler almak hayatımı sıkıcı olmaktan kurtarır.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Gençliğimin tatsız görüntülerini unutmak benim için zordur.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Herşey o kadar çok değişiyor ki, tam anlamıyla geleceğe dair plan yapamazsınız.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Hayatımın rotası etkileyemeyeceğim güçler tarafından kontrol ediliyor.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Gelecek için kaygılanmak anlamsız geliyor; çünkü nasılsa bu konuda yapabileceğim hiçbir şey yok.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Düzenli bir ilerleme ile projelerimi zamanında tamamlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Hayatıma heyecan katmak için riskler alırım.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Yapılması gereken bir iş olduğunu bildiğim zaman, beni işten alıkoyabilecek cezbedici şeylere karşı direnebilirim.	1	2	3	4	5

23.	Geçmişte başıma gelen kötü şeyler hakkında düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	İlerlememe katkıları olacaksa, ilgi çekici olmayan, zor görevlerde çalışmaya devam ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Yaşamımda kaçırdığım güzel şeyleri düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5

A.2 Adaptive Self-regulation Questionnaire:

A.2.1 Goal Disengagement and Reengagement Scale

Lütfen aşağıdaki 10 soruyu şu duruma göre yanıtlayınız:

“Yaşamımda önemli bir hedefin peşinden gitmeyi bırakmak zorunda kalırsam...”

1.	hedefe yönelik çabalarımı azaltmak benim için kolaydır.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	peşine düşülecek anlamlı başka hedeflerim olduğuna kendimi inandırırım.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	hedefe uzun süre bağlı kalırım; ondan vazgeçemem.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	başka yeni hedefler üzerinde çalışmaya başlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	peşine düşülecek başka yeni hedefler düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	hedefe ulaşmak için çaba sarfetmeyi bırakmak bana zor gelir.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	anlamlı başka hedefler ararım.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	hedefi düşünmeyi bırakıp ondan vazgeçmek benim için kolaydır.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	kendime üzerinde durulacak başka yeni hedeflerim olduğunu söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	anlamlı başka hedeflere yönelik çaba sarfederim.	1	2	3	4	5

A.2.2 Brief COPE Scale

Lütfen aşağıdaki soruları **stresli bir olay yaşadığınızda genellikle ne yaptığınızı ve ne hissettiğinizi** düşünerek yanıtlayınız.

1.	Çabalarımı içinde bulunduğum durumla ilgili birşeyler yapmaya yoğunlaştırırım.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Durumu iyileştirmeye çalışmak için harekete geçerim.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Ne yapılır diye bir strateji geliştirmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Nasıl bir yol izlemeli diye iyice düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Duruma farklı bir açıdan bakmaya, daha olumlu görünmesini sağlamaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Olan bitenin olumlu bir yanını görmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Olayın meydana geldiği gerçeğini kabul ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Onunla yaşamayı öğrenirim.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Dikkatimi dağıtmak için kendimi çalışmaya veya başka işlere yöneltirim.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Durumu daha az düşünmek için birşeyler yaparım, mesela sinemaya giderim, televizyon izlerim, okurum, hayallere dalarım, uyurum veya alışverişe çıkarım.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Kendime “Bu gerçek değil” derim.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Bu olayın gerçekleştiğine inanmayı reddederim.	1	2	3	4	5

A.3 Balanced Integration-Differentiation (BID) Scale

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatle okuyunuz ve ne derece katılıp katılmadığınızı en iyi yansıtan sayıyı işaretleyiniz.

1.	Kendi kendime kaldığımda yapacak ilginç şeyler bulabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
----	---	---	---	---	---	---

2.	Kendimi aileme hep yakın hissedeceğime inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	İnsanlarla ilişki kurmakta güçlük çekiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Kendi isteklerimi yapabilmek için kendime mutlaka zaman ve imkan tanımaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Kendimi duygusal olarak toplumun dışında kalmış gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Kendimi duygusal olarak aileme çok yakın hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Farklı olmaktansa, toplumla düşünsel olarak kaynaşmış olmayı tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Kendimi yakın çevremden duygusal olarak kopmuş hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Kendimi insanlardan olabildiğince soyutlayıp, kendi isteklerimi gerçekleştirmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Hayatta gerçekleştirmek istediğim şeyler için çalışırken, ailemin sevgi ve desteğini hep yanımda hissettim.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Kendimi yalnız hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Ailemle duygusal bağlarımın zayıf olduğunu hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Ailemle aramdaki duygusal bağların hayatta yapmak istediğim şeyler için bana güç verdiğini düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Kendimi diğer insanlardan kopuk hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Toplumsal değerleri sorgulamak yerine benimsemeyi tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Kendimi sosyal çevreme duygusal olarak yakın hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Kendimi ilginç buluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	İnsanın kendini kendi istediği gibi değil, toplumda geçerli olacak şekilde geliştirmesinin önemli	1	2	3	4	5

	olduğunu düşünüyorum.					
19.	İnsan geliştikçe, ailesinden duygusal olarak uzaklaşır.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	İnsanın en önemli amacı sahip olduğu potansiyeli hakkıyla geliştirmek olmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	İnsanın kendi özelliklerini geliştirip ortaya çıkarabilmesi gerekir.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Kişinin kendine değil, topluma uygun hareket etmesi, uzun vadede kendi yararına olur.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	İnsanın yapmak istediklerini yapabilmesi için, ailesiyle olan duygusal bağlarını en aza indirmesi gerekir.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Çevremdekilerin onayladığı bir insan olmak benim için önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Zamanımızda insanlar arasında güçlü duygusal bağların olması, kendileri için destekleyici değil, engelleyici olur.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	Sahip olduğum potansiyeli ve özellikleri geliştirip kendime özgü bir birey olmak benim için çok önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	Çevreme ters gelse bile, kendime özgü bir amaç için yaşayabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	Herkesin kendi özelliklerini geliştirmeye uğraşması yerine toplumsal beklentilere uygun davranmaya çalışmasının daha doğru olduğu kanısındayım.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	Toplumlar geliştikçe, insanlararası duygusal bağların zayıflaması doğaldır.	1	2	3	4	5

A.4 Subjective Well-being Questionnaire:

A.4.1 Scales of Psychological Well-being (SPWB)

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatle okuyunuz ve ne derece katılıp katılmadığınızı en iyi yansıtan sayıyı işaretleyiniz.

1.	Güçlü fikirleri olan insanların etkisi altında kalırım.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	İnsanların genel kabullerine uymasa bile kendi düşüncelerime güvenirim.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Kendimi başkalarının önemli gördüğü değerlere göre değil, kendi önemli gördüklerime göre yargılarımla.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Genel olarak yaşamımda duruma hakimimdir.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Günlük yaşamın gerekleri çoğu zaman beni zorlar.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Gündelik yaşamın çeşitli sorumluluklarıyla genellikle oldukça iyi baş ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Hayatı gün be gün yaşar, aslında geleceği düşünmem.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Bazı insanlar yaşamda amaçsızca dolanırlar ama ben onlardan değilim.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Bazen hayatta yapılması gereken her şeyi yapmışım gibi hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Yaşam öyküme baktığımda, olayların gelişme şeklinden memnuniyet duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Kişiliğimin çoğu yönünü beğenirim.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Birçok bakımdan, hayatta başarabildiklerimi hayal kırıcı bulurum.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Yakın ilişkileri sürdürmek benim için zor olagelmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	İnsanlar benim verici, vaktini diğerleriyle paylaşmaktan kaçınmayan biri olduğumu	1	2	3	4	5

	söyleyeceklerdir.					
15.	İnsanlarla sıcak ve güvene dayalı çok ilişkim olmadı.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Bence insanın kendiyile ve dünyayla ilgili görüşlerini sorgulamasına yol açacak yeni yaşantıları olması önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Benim için hayat sürekli bir öğrenme, değişme ve gelişme süreci olagelmıştır.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Hayatımda büyük değişiklikler veya gelişmeler kaydetmeye çalışmaktan çoktan vazgeçtim.	1	2	3	4	5

A.4.2 Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS)

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatle okuyunuz ve ne derece katılıp katılmadığınızı en iyi yansıtan sayıyı işaretleyiniz.

1.	Yaşamım birçok yönüyle ideallerime yakın.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Yaşam koşullarım çok iyi.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Yaşamımdan hoşnutum.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Şu ana kadar istediğim şeyleri elde edebildim.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Yeniden dünyaya gelseydim yaşamımda hemen hemen hiçbir şeyi değiştirmezdim.	1	2	3	4	5

A.4.3 Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale (SES)

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri dikkatle okuyunuz ve ne derece katılıp katılmadığınızı en iyi yansıtan sayıyı işaretleyiniz.

1.	Kendimi en az diğer insanlar kadar değerli buluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Bazı olumlu özelliklerim olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

3.	Genelde kendimi başarısız bir kişi olarak görme eğilimindeyim.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Ben de diğer insanların birçoğunun yapabildiği kadar bir şeyler yapabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Kendimde gurur duyacak fazla bir şey bulamıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Kendime karşı olumlu bir tutum içindeyim.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Genel olarak kendimden memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Kendime karşı daha fazla saygı duyabilmeyi isterdim.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Bazen kesinlikle kendimin bir işe yaramadığını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Bazen kendimin hiç de yeterli bir insan olmadığını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

A.4.4 Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS)

Aşağıda farklı duygusal durumları niteleyen sözcükler bulunmaktadır. **Kendinizi genel olarak nasıl hissettiğinizi** düşünerek size en uygun cevabı işaretleyiniz.

	Çok Az	Biraz	Orta Düzeyde	Oldukça Fazla	Çok Fazla
1. Hevesli	1	2	3	4	5
2. Sıkıntılı	1	2	3	4	5
3. Heyecan dolu	1	2	3	4	5
4. Morali bozuk	1	2	3	4	5
5. Güçlü	1	2	3	4	5
6. Suçlu	1	2	3	4	5
7. Ürkek	1	2	3	4	5
8. Düşmanca	1	2	3	4	5
9. Şevkli	1	2	3	4	5
10. Gururlu	1	2	3	4	5

11. Huzursuz-tetikte	1	2	3	4	5
12. Canlı	1	2	3	4	5
13. Kendinden utanan	1	2	3	4	5
14. İstekli	1	2	3	4	5
15. Gergin	1	2	3	4	5
16. Kararlı	1	2	3	4	5
17. İlgili	1	2	3	4	5
18. Sınırlı	1	2	3	4	5
19. Aktif	1	2	3	4	5
20. Korkmuş	1	2	3	4	5

A.5 Goals

Bu kısımda, şimdi ya da gelecekte elde etmek istediğiniz ve ulaşmaya çalıştığımız hedeflerinizi yazmanızı rica ediyoruz.

Lütfen hedeflerinizi (kısa veya uzun vadeli amaç, plan ve projelerinizi) her bir satıra bir tane olmak üzere aşağıdaki listeye yazınız. Listeye dilediğiniz kadar hedef yazabilirsiniz.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____

APPENDIX B:
PSYCHOMETRIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SCALES USED

Table B.1. Descriptive Information about the Scales Used (N = 404)

Measures	Number of Items	Mean			SD			α		
		Y	M	O	Y	M	O	M	O	
FTP	10	3.53	3.37	2.73	.55	.80	.90	.81	.88	.85
LOT	8	3.41	3.43	3.49	.53	.63	.58	.75	.77	.73
ATFS	10									
Anxious Subscale	5	2.42	2.68	2.72	.78	.82	.86	.82	.82	.81
Planful Subscale	5	3.72	3.54	3.41	.61	.62	.70	.68	.64	.69
PFES	5	3.86			.63			.88		
ZTPI	25							.66	.63	.74
Past-Negative	5	2.94	3.17	3.29	.81	.71	.71	.79	.75	.66
Present- Hedonistic	5	3.40	3.04	3.13	.60	.66	.76	.65	.70	.71
Future	5	3.52	3.76	3.80	.60	.51	.63	.65	.56	.75
Past-Positive	5	3.62	3.70	3.86	.62	.53	.54	.64	.57	.62
Present-Fatalistic	5	2.49	2.73	3.01	.70	.64	.73	.71	.64	.66
Goal D-R	10							.84	.86	.64
Disengagement	4	2.75	2.80	2.62	.73	.74	.61	.74	.76	.38
Reengagement	6	3.67	3.76	3.51	.62	.60	.73	.87	.90	.86
Brief COPE	12							.61	.70	.70
Active coping	2	3.95	3.97	3.95	.63	.67	.65	.83	.72	.65
Planning	2	4.04	4.13	4.05	.65	.61	.59	.84	.71	.80
Positive reframing	2	3.71	3.84	4.03	.79	.71	.63	.81	.73	.81
Acceptance	2	3.73	3.80	3.76	.73	.67	.76	.72	.69	.76
Self-Distraction	2	3.52	3.67	3.64	.84	.81	.91	.63	.64	.69
Denial	2	1.82	2.16	2.53	.83	.86	.91	.88	.74	.66
BID	29							.81	.84	.80
Individuation	13	3.64	3.37	3.16	.45	.44	.44	.85	.72	.67
Relatedness	16	3.85	3.87	3.82	.55	.52	.54	.74	.88	.87
SPWB	18							.78	.75	.67
SWLS	5	3.43	3.23	3.32	.64	.72	.74	.78	.85	.83
Self-Esteem	10	3.95	4.00	3.94	.66	.55	.46	.88	.83	.78
PANAS	20									
Positive Affect	10	3.82	3.66	3.52	.58	.65	.67	.85	.90	.87
Negative Affect	10	2.00	1.78	1.84	.62	.52	.51	.86	.81	.75

Note: Y: Young adults, M: Middle-aged adults, O: Older adults; FTP: Future Time Perspective, LOT: Life Orientation Test, ATFS: Attitudes Towards Future Scale, PFES: Positive Future Expectations Scale Goal D-R: Goal Disengagement and Reengagement, ZTPI: Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory, BID: Balanced Integration and Differentiation Scale, SPWB: Scales of Psychological Well-Being, SWLS: Satisfaction with Life Scale, PANAS: Positive and Negative Affect Schedule. PFES was excluded from the questionnaires given to middle-aged and older adults.

Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory (ZTPI). Data from 25 items of ZTPI were subjected to a principal component factor analysis using varimax rotation for each age group. For all age groups, the analyses confirmed the five-factor solution, which have been named as Past-Negative, Present-Hedonistic, Future, Past-Positive, and Present-Fatalistic. Each factor consisted of 5 items and this factor solution explained 52.09 %, 49.32 %, and 52.40 % of the variance for young, middle-aged and older group, respectively.

As shown in Table B.2, for the young and middle-aged adults, the first factor, Past-Negative, is concerned with a generally negative and aversive view of the past, which explained 12.28 % for the former and 15.40 % of the variance for the latter group. Cronbach's alpha for this factor were .79 and .75, respectively.

The second factor, Present-Fatalistic, reveals a fatalistic, hopeless, and helpless attitude toward the future and life. 10.89 % and 11.20 % of the variance was explained by this factor for young and middle-aged groups. Cronbach's alpha for this factor were .71 and .66, respectively.

Present-Hedonistic, the third factor, reflects a hedonistic and risk-taking attitude toward time and life. It explained 10.16 % and 9.91 % of the variance for the two age groups and had an alpha coefficient of .65 and .69, respectively.

The fourth factor, Future, reflects a general future orientations and a striving for future goals and rewards. This factor explained 9.45 % and 6.49 % of the variance for each age groups and Cronbach's alpha for this factor were .65 and .60, respectively.

Past-Positive factor, the fifth factor, represents a warm and sentimental attitude toward the past. This factor explained 9.31 % and 6.24 % of the variance for the two age groups and had an alpha coefficient of .64 and .68 for young, middle-aged and older group, respectively.

Table B.2. Results of the Factor Analysis of the Data from Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory

Items	Loading		
Factor-1 Past-Negative			
Y: (eigenvalue = 3.07; explained variance = 12.28%; $\alpha = .79$)			
M: (eigenvalue = 3.87; explained variance = 15.48 %; $\alpha = .75$)			
O: (eigenvalue = 1.55 ; explained variance = 6.18 %; $\alpha = .66$)			
	Y	M	O
Geçmişte başıma gelen kötü şeyler hakkında düşünürüm.	.77	.63	.50
Yaşamımda kaçırdığım güzel şeyleri düşünürüm.	.76	.61	.63
Acı veren geçmiş deneyimler zihnimde durmadan canlanır.	.72	.75	.48
Gençliğimin tatsız görüntülerini unutmak benim için zordur.	.68	.72	.33
Sık sık, hayatımda neyi farklı yapmalıydım diye düşünürüm.	.67	.61	.60
Factor-2 Present-Fatalistic			
Y: (eigenvalue = 2.72 ; explained variance = 10.89 %; $\alpha = .71$)			
M: (eigenvalue = 2.80 ; explained variance = 11.20 %; $\alpha = .66$)			
O: (eigenvalue = 3.06; explained variance = 12.24 %; $\alpha = .66$)			
	Y	M	O
Herşey olacağına vardığı için, benim ne yaptığının gerçekte bir önemi yok.	.80	.74	.68
Hayatımın rotası etkileyemeyeceğim güçler tarafından kontrol ediliyor.	.80	.63	.53
Gelecek için kaygılanmak anlamsız geliyor; çünkü nasılsa bu konuda yapabileceğim hiçbir şey yok.	.66	.44	.67
Kader, hayatımdaki birçok şeyi belirler.	.61	.69	.49
Herşey o kadar çok değişiyor ki, tam anlamıyla geleceğe dair plan yapamazsınız.	.47	.52	.68
Factor-3 Present-Hedonistic			
Y: (eigenvalue = 2.54 ; explained variance = 10.16 %; $\alpha = .65$)			
M: (eigenvalue = 2.48 ; explained variance = 9.91%; $\alpha = .69$)			
O: (eigenvalue = 2.61; explained variance = 10.44 %; $\alpha = .71$)			
	Y	M	O
Hayatıma heyecan katmak için riskler alırım.	.85	.85	.79
Riskler almak hayatımı sıkıcı olmaktan kurtarır.	.78	.78	.69
Hayatıma heyecan katmak benim için önemlidir.	.73	.62	.67
Mümkün olduğunca dolu ve günümü gün ederek yaşamaya çalışırım.	.41	.43	.51
Anlık dürtülerle karar veririm.	.35	.51	.57

Table B.2. (Continued)

Items	Loading		
Factor-4 Future			
Y: (eigenvalue = 2.36; explained variance = 9.45 %; α = .65)			
M: (eigenvalue = 1.62; explained variance = 6.49 %; α = .60)			
O: (eigenvalue = 3.80; explained variance = 15.20 %; α = .75)			
	Y	M	O
Yapılması gereken bir iş olduğunu bildiğim zaman, beni işten alıkoyabilecek cezbedici şeylere karşı direnebilirim.	.75	.65	.59
Birşeyi başarmak istediğimde hedefler koyar ve bu hedeflere ulaştıracak belli yolları dikkate alırım.	.72	.59	.66
Düzenli bir ilerleme ile projelerimi zamanında tamamlarım.	.70	.47	.69
Yarının işlerini bitirmek ve gerekli diğer işleri yapmak, bu gecenin eğlencesinden önce gelir.	.57	.34	.73
İlerlememe katkıları olacaksa, ilgi çekici olmayan, zor görevlerde çalışmaya devam ederim.	.37	.63	.70
Factor-5 Past-Positive			
Y: (eigenvalue = 2.33; explained variance = 9.31 %; α = .64)			
M: (eigenvalue = 1.56; explained variance = 6.24 %; α = .68)			
O: (eigenvalue = 2.08; explained variance = 8.34 %; α = .62)			
	Y	M	O
Geçmişim hakkında düşünmek bana zevk verir.	.72	.68	.48
Geçmiş zamanın mutlu anıları zihnimde hemen beliriverir.	.66	.69	.75
Düşünüp tartınca, geçmişimde kötü şeylere kıyasla, hatırlanacak iyi şeyler daha çok.	.63	.35	.58
Çocukluğumu olumlu duygularla hatırlarım.	.56	.52	.54
“Eski güzel zamanlarda” yaşamın nasıl olduğundan bahseden hikayelerden hoşlanırım.	.55	.54	.42

Note: Y: Young adults, M: Middle-aged adults, O: Older adults

For the older adults, as shown in Table B.2, five-factor solution explained 52.40 % of the variance. The first factor, Future, explained 15.20 % of the variance and had an alpha coefficient of .75. Present-Fatalistic, the second factor, explained 12.24 % of the variance and Cronbach's alpha for this factor was .66. 10.44 % of the variance was explained by Present-Hedonistic factor with a Cronbach's alpha of .71. The fourth factor, Past-Positive, explained 8.34 % of the variance. The alpha coefficient for this factor was .62. The last factor, Past-Negative, explained 6.18 % of the variance and had an alpha coefficient of .66.

Goal Disengagement and Reengagement Scale (Goal D-R). Data from the ten items of this scale were subjected to principal component analysis with varimax rotation. This analysis yielded two factors that explained 62.88 %, 64.19 %, and 50.90 % of the variance for young, middle-aged and older group, respectively (see Table B.3). The first factor, goal reengagement, measured the extent to which individuals generally engage in other new goals if they face constraints on goal pursuits. It explained 44.96 %, 47.81%, and 36.65 % of the variance and had an alpha coefficient of .87, .90 and .86 for young, middle-aged and older group, respectively.

The second factor, goal disengagement, explained 17.92 %, 16.39 %, and 14.25 % of the variance in groups of young, middle-aged, and older adults, respectively. This factor measured the ease to reduce effort and relinquish commitment toward unattainable goals. Cronbach's alpha for this factor were .74, .75, and .38, respectively.

Table B.3. Results of the Factor Analysis of the Data from Goal Disengagement and Reengagement Scale

Items	Loading		
	Y	M	O
Factor-1 Goal Reengagement			
Y: (eigenvalue = 4.50; explained variance = 44.96%; α = .87)			
M: (eigenvalue = 4.78; explained variance = 47.81%; α = .90)			
O: (eigenvalue = 3.67; explained variance = 36.65%; α = .86)			
anamlı başka hedeflere yönelik çaba sarfederim.	.86	.80	.82
anamlı başka hedefler ararım.	.86	.86	.78
peşine düşülecek yeni hedefler düşünürüm.	.84	.87	.86
kendime üzerinde durulacak başka yeni hedeflerim olduğunu söylerim.	.82	.76	.84
başka yeni hedefler üzerinde çalışmaya başlarım.	.80	.83	.77
peşine düşülecek anlamlı başka hedeflerim olduğuna kendimi inandırırım.	.61	.62	.53
Factor-2 Goal Disengagement			
Y: (eigenvalue = 1.79; explained variance = 17.92%; α = .74)			
M: (eigenvalue = 3.67; explained variance = 36.65%; α = .86)			
O: (eigenvalue = 1.43; explained variance = 14.25%; α = .38)			
hedefi düşünmeyi bırakıp ondan vazgeçmek benim için kolaydır.	.78	.74	.75
hedefe ulaşmak için çaba sarfetmeyi bırakmak bana zor gelir.	.76	.71	.41
hedefe yönelik çabalarımı azaltmak benim için kolaydır.	.72	.76	.58
hedefe uzun süre bağlı kalırım; ondan vazgeçmem.	.70	.76	.53

Note: Y: Young adults, M: Middle-aged adults, O: Older adults

Brief COPE Scale. Data from 12 items of Brief COPE Scale were subjected to a principal component factor analysis using varimax rotation for each age group. Except for middle-aged group, the analyses confirmed the six-factor solution, which have been named as Planning, Active Coping, Positive Reframing, Acceptance, Self-Distraction, and Denial. Each factor consisted of 2 items and this factor solution explained 84.39 % and 82.68 % of the variance for young and older group, respectively.

As shown in Table B.4, for young adults, the first factor was Denial, which explained 31.02 % of the variance and had an alpha coefficient of .88. The second factor, Active Coping, accounted for 14.63 % of the variance and the Cronbach's alpha was .83. Positive Reframing, the third factor, explained 13.60 % of the variance and had an alpha coefficient of .81. The fourth factor was Planning. It explained 9.64 % of the variance with an alpha coefficient of .84. Acceptance, the fifth factor, accounted for 8.77

% of the variance and had an alpha coefficient of .72. The sixth factor, Self-Distraction, explained 6.74 % of the variance with an alpha coefficient of .63.

Table B.4. Results of the Factor Analysis of the Data from Brief COPE Scale for Young and Older Adults

Items	Loading	
	Y	O
Factor-1 Denial		
Y: (eigenvalue = 3.72; explained variance = 31.02 %; α = .88)		
O: (eigenvalue = .81; explained variance = 6.75 %; α = .66)		
Kendime "Bu gerçek değil" derim.	.93	.93
Bu olayın gerçekleştiğine inanmayı reddederim.	.93	.74
Factor-2 Active Coping		
Y: (eigenvalue = 1.76 ; explained variance = 14.63%; α = .83)		
O: (eigenvalue = .67 ; explained variance = 5.59%; α = .65)		
Çabalarımı içinde bulunduğum durumla ilgili birşeyler yapmaya yoğunlaştırırım.	.89	.80
Durumu iyileştirmeye çalışmak için harekete geçerim.	.85	.28
Factor-3 Positive Reframing		
Y: (eigenvalue = 1.63 ; explained variance = 13.60 %; α = .81)		
O: (eigenvalue = 1.72 ; explained variance = 14.33 %; α = .81)		
Olan bitenin olumlu bir yanını görmeye çalışırım.	.92	.86
Duruma farklı bir açıdan bakmaya, daha olumlu görünmesini sağlamaya çalışırım.	.83	.89
Factor-4 Planning		
Y: (eigenvalue =1.16 ; explained variance = 9.64%; α = .84)		
O: (eigenvalue = 3.72; explained variance = 30.96 %; α = .80)		
Nasıl bir yol izlenmeli diye iyice düşünürüm.	.92	.80
Ne yapılır diye bir strateji geliştirmeye çalışırım.	.88	.88
Factor-5 Acceptance		
Y: (eigenvalue = 1.05; explained variance = 8.77 %; α = .72)		
O: (eigenvalue = 1.65; explained variance = 13.73 %; α = .76)		
Onunla yaşamayı öğrenirim. (item 08)	.91	.86
Olayın meydana geldiği gerçeğini kabul ederim. (item 07)	.82	.77

Table B.4. (Continued)

Factor-6 Self-Distracton	Loading	
Y: (eigenvalue = .81; explained variance = 6.74 %; α = .63)		
O: (eigenvalue = 1.36; explained variance = 11.32 %; α = .69)	Y	O
Durumu daha az düşünmek için birşeyler yaparım, mesela sinemaya giderim, televizyon izlerim, okurum, hayallere dalarım, uyurum veya alışveriş çıkarım.	.88	.84
Dikkatimi dağıtmak için kendimi çalışmaya veya başka işlere yöneltirim.	.82	.88

Note: Y: Young adults, O: Older adults

For older adults, as shown in Table B.4, the first factor was Planning and it accounted for 30.96 % of the variance with an alpha coefficient of .80. Positive Reframing, the second factor, explained 14.33 % of the variance and had a Cronbach's alpha of .81. The third factor, Acceptance, explained 13.73 % of the variance with an alpha coefficient of .76. Self-Distracton, the fourth factor, accounted for 11.32 % of the variance and had a Cronbach's alpha of .69. Denial and Coping, the fifth and sixth factors, explained 6.75 % and 5.59 % of the variance and had alpha coefficients of .66 and .65, respectively.

APPENDIX C: TÜRKÇE ÖZET

Zaman, doğası gereği fizikten felsefeye birçok farklı alan tarafından ele alınmıştır. Psikolojide zaman kavramına dair farklı çalışmalar olsa da kavramın tutarlı ve sistemli bir şekilde ele alındığını söylemek güçtür. Bu çalışmaların önemli bir kısmı bireyin zamanı nasıl algıladığı ile ilgilidir. Özellikle, bireylerin zamanı geçmiş, şimdi ve gelecek diye dilimlere ayırıp, günlük yaşamları içinde bu zaman dilimleri üzerinde düşünebilmeleri ve böylece bireysel ve sosyal deneyimlerine bir düzen, uyum ve anlam verebilmelerinin önemi vurgulanmıştır (Zimbardo ve Boyd, 1999). Bu zaman dilimleri içinde de gelecek zaman en çok araştırılan zaman dilimi olmuştur. Araştırmacılar gelecek zamanı farklı şekillerde tanımlamış ve dolayısıyla farklı şekillerde ölçmüşlerdir. Gelecek zaman yöneliminin kişilik (Padawer ve ark., 2007), normlar, sosyoekonomik düzey (Jones, 1988) ve yaş (Gonzalez & Zimbardo, 1985) gibi faktörlerden etkilendiğini, sağlıklı yaşam ve davranış (örn., Keough ve ark., 1999; Mahon ve Yarcheski, 1994), motivasyon (örn., Bembenuddy ve Karabenick, 2004), psikolojik iyi oluş ve uyum (örn., Zimbardo ve Boyd, 1999), özgüven ve öz-saygı (örn., Nurmi ve Pulliainen, 1991) gibi birçok farklı değişkenle ilişkili olduğunu belirtmişlerdir.

Gelecek zaman yöneliminin yanısıra kimi araştırmacılar da zaman yöneliminin gelişimini ve bu yönelimin yaşam boyunca süregelen değişimini incelemişlerdir. Bu araştırmacılar, zamana dair bilişsel gelişmenin 11 yaş civarında tamamlandığını (Laor ve Granek, 1997), takip eden yıllarda planlama, gerçekleştirme, umut etme, iyimserlik ve kontrol etmenin arttığını ve ergenlikle birlikte gelecek yöneliminin yaşın gereği olan (eğitim, iş ve evlilik gibi) kültürel prototipleri yansıttığını belirtmişlerdir (Nurmi, 1989). Gençler için zaman planlanmış, harcanabilen ve ilerleyen bir kavram iken, orta yaşlarda zamanın çabuk ilerlediği ve sınırlı olduğunun, hedeflere ulaşmak için dikkatle kullanılması gerektiğinin farkına varıldığını söylemişlerdir. İleri yaşlardaki zaman

yönelimine dair çalışma bulguları ise daha karmaşıktır. İleri yaştaki bireylerin daha çok geçmişi düşündüğüne dair genel kanının aksine, çalışmalar artan yaşla birlikte kişilerin şimdiki zamana yoğunlaştığını (örn., Baltes ve Mayer, 1999; Lennings, 2000) ve gelecekle ilgili düşünmekten sakındıklarını belirtmişlerdir (Rappoport, Fossler, Bross ve Gilden, 1993). Öte yandan, başka bir grup çalışma (örn., Staudinger, Freund, Linden, ve Maas, 1999; Staats, Partlo, ve Stubbs, 1993) ise birçok ileri yaştaki yetişkinin geleceğe dair plan ve umutlarının hala devam ettiğini bulmuştur. Kişisel hedefler ve kaygılardaki yaş farklılıklarına ilişkin az sayıdaki çalışma ise bireylerin gelişimsel dönemlerine uygun hedeflerden bahsettiklerini göstermiştir. Örneğin, gençlerin eğitim ve aile, orta yaştakilerin çocuk ve mülk, ileri yaştakilerin ise sağlık, emeklilik ve boş zaman aktivitelerinden bahsetmeleri gibi (örn., Cameron, Desai, Bahador, ve Dremel, 1977-78; Emmons, 1986; Nurmi, 1992; Uçanok, 2001)

Zaman, Değişim, Yaşam Boyu Gelişim ve Öz-Yönetim

Doğrudan gelecek yönelimi ve bunun insanın duygu, düşünce ve davranışlarını nasıl etkilediğiyle ilgili çalışmalar yanında, birçok çalışma da bireyin yaşam içinde yol alırken yaşadığı değişimleri araştırarak dolaylı olarak gelecek yönelimini incelemişlerdir. Kişilik ve benlik gibi konuları içeren bu çalışmaların en önemli kısmını da yaşam boyu gelişim çalışmaları oluşturmaktadır. Bu çalışmalar, değişen yaşam koşullarına göre bireyin hedeflerini yönetmesinin ve içsel bütünlüğünü korumasının kişinin başlıca amacı olduğunu ve bu etkin öz-yönetimin de psikolojik iyi oluşa önemli katkıda bulunduğunu savunurlar (örn., Brandtstädter ve Greve, 1994; Carstensen, Isaacowitz, ve Charles, 1999; Schulz ve Heckhausen, 1996). Yine bu çalışmalara göre kişiyi öz-yönetime iten başlıca sebepler yaşlandıkça ortaya çıkan bireysel ve sosyal değişimler, ve kısıtlı kaynaklardır ki bunların arasında zaman da yer alır (Carstensen, Isaacowitz, ve Charles, 1999; Wrosch, Scheier, Miller, Schulz, ve Carver, 2003). Farklı yaşam boyu gelişim teorileri öz-yönetimin farklı yönlerini vurgulamışlardır. Örneğin, Baltes'in (1987) Seçicilik, Eniyileme ve Telafi (Selectivity, Optimization, and Compensation) Modeli hedeflerin seçimi, hedefe ulaşmak için en iyi yolun seçimi ve bu hedefe ulaşmada bir engel olduğunda telafi edilmesi üzerine kurulmuşken,

Sosyoduygusal Seçicilik (Socioemotional Selectivity, Carstensen, Isaacowitz, ve Charles, 1999) teorisi bireyin, geleceği fırsat ve olanaklara açık veya kapalı olarak görmesinin hedef seçimi ve hedefleri gerçekleştirme çabasında önemli bir rol oynadığını vurgular. Genel olarak, bu teorilerin hepsi de hedef seçimi ve hedefleri gerçekleştirmenin önemli olduğunu ancak bunun her koşulda ve yaşta mümkün olmadığını bu nedenle öz-yönetimin kişinin yaşamında önemli bir yer tuttuğunu belirtmektedirler. Diğer taraftan, yaşam boyu gelişim alanı dışında öz-yönetim, literatürde daha çok hedefe ulaşma olarak kavramsallaştırılmış ve herhangi bir güçlük ve engel durumundaki öz-yönetim mekanizmalarına değinilmemiştir. Bazı araştırmacılar (Örn., Wrosch, Scheier, Carver, ve Schulz, 2003; Wrosch ve Scheier, 2003; Wrosch, Scheier, Miller, Schulz, ve Carver, 2003) bu anlayışı eleştirerek, hedeflere ulaşmaya çalışmak kadar ulaşılamayacak bir hedeften yeni bir hedef seçme veya kalan hedefler için çaba harcama amacıyla vazgeçmenin de psikolojik iyi oluşa katkıda bulunacağını belirtmişler ve bunu da uyumsal öz-yönetim olarak tanımlamışlardır. Genç ve ileri yaştakilerle olan çalışmalarında, ileri yaştaki yetişkinler gençlere göre ulaşılamayan hedeften vazgeçme ve yeni bir hedef seçmenin daha kolay olduğunu ve bunun öznel iyiliğe katkısı olduğunu belirtmişlerdir.

Benlik ve Gelecek

Daha önceki çalışmalar her ne kadar yaş ve gelişimsel evrenin katkılarını belirtse de, bunların gelecek yönelimi ve hedef yönetimine ilişkin herşeyi açıklayamadığını da ortaya koymuşlardır. Öteyandan, bireylerin zaman kavramının durumsal değişiklikler ve koşulların etkisine açık olarak tanımlanmakla birlikte bireysel farklılıkların önemi de oldukça kabul görmüştür. Örneğin, İmamoğlu ve Güler-Edwards (2007) çalışmalarında üniversite öğrencilerinin gelecek yönelimlerinin benlik kurgularına göre farklılaştığını bulmuşlardır. Denge Modeli'nce psikolojik işlevler bakımından en olumlu benlik tipi olarak önerilen ilişkili-kendileşmiş (dengeli) benlik tipindeki gençlerin psikolojik işlevler bakımından en olumsuz benlik tipi olarak önerilen kopuk-kalıplaşmış (dengesiz) benlik tipindekilere göre geleceğe yönelimlerinde anlamlı farklılıklar gözlenmiştir.

Bu çalışmada da yeralan Denge Modeli, dengenin doğal bir üst-düzey süreç olduğunu ve bireylerin sahip oldukları özü ortaya çıkaracak şekilde *kişisel ayrışma/ayırדתme* ve *kişilerarası bütünleşme* yönelimlerinin de bu sürecin birer parçası olduğunu varsayar (İmamoğlu, 2003). Modele göre bu yönelimler birbirlerini tamamlayıcı ancak birbirlerinden farklı olan benlik sistemi alt-süreçleridir. Model, kişinin kişisel ayrışma ve kişilerarası bütünleşme boyutlarından yüksek ya da düşük puan almalarına göre dört farklı benlik tipini önerir. Bunlar kopuk-kalıplaşma, kopuk-kendileşme, ilişkili-kalıplaşma ve ilişkili-kendileşme'dir. Her iki yönelimde de yüksek olan bireyler dengeli benlik tipini (ilişkili-kendileşme), her iki yönelimde de düşük olan bireyler ise dengesiz benlik tipini (kopuk-kalıplaşma) oluşturmaktadır. Şu ana kadar yapılan çalışmalar (örn., İmamoğlu, 2003, 2006; İmamoğlu ve Güler-Edwards, 2007; İmamoğlu ve İmamoğlu, 2005, 2007; İmamoğlu S., 2005; Turan, 2007) dengeli benlik tipinin psikolojik işlevler bakımından optimal olduğunu desteklemiştir.

Psikolojik İyi Oluş Paradoksu

Psikolojik iyi oluş şimdiye kadar çok çalışılmış bir konu olsa da, az sayıda çalışma bu kavramın ömür boyu gelişim içindeki yerini incelemiştir (Ryff, 1995). Bireyler yaşlandıkça ortaya çıkan fiziksel, psikolojik ve sosyal değişikliklerle birlikte benlik algıları ve mutlu yaşama kapasiteleri tehdit altındadır (Sneed & Whitbourne, 2005). Öte yandan, çalışmaların büyük bir kısmında ileri yaştaki bireylerin kendileri ve yaşamları hakkında olumlu değerlendirmeler yaptıkları belirtilmiştir (Diener, Suh, Lucas, ve Smith, 1999). Bu durum Mroczek ve Kolarz (1998) tarafından "psikolojik iyi oluş paradoksu" olarak adlandırılmış ve bu duruma ilişkin farklı açıklamalar getirilmiştir. Bunlar arasında kişilik veya belli kişilik özellikleri (örn., iyimserlik ve dışadönüklük) psikolojik iyi oluşta önemli bir etken olarak görülürken (örn., Diener ve ark., 1999; Diener ve Lucas, 1999; Srivastava, John, Gosling, ve Potter, 2003; Wrosch ve Scheier, 2003), yaşam boyu gelişimciler değişen koşullara uyum sağlamanın ve daha iyi bir hedef yönetiminin katkısını vurgulamışlardır (örn., Baltes, 1987; Brandtstädter ve Greve, 1994; Lang ve Carstensen, 1999; Schulz ve Heckhausen, 1996). Yaşlanma ile gelen sosyal, psikolojik ve fiziksel değişimlerin yanısıra insan ömrünün sınırlılığı da

paradoksun bir diğerk yönünü oluşturur. Buna ilişkin açıklama getiren iki teoriden ilki olan Yaşlılığı Aşma (Gerotranscendence) Teorisine (Tornstam, 1997, 1999) göre, yaşlanmak birçok mücadelenin yanında aynı zamanda rasyonel ve materyalist bir bakıştan daha aşkın bir bakışa geçmektir. Böylelikle ölüme dair düşünceler geride bırakılırken, zaman, mekan ve nesnelere yeniden tanımlanır. Dehşet Yönetimi Teorisine (Terror Management Theory, Goldenberg, Pyszczynski, Greenberg, ve Solomon, 2000; Pyszczynski, Greenberg, ve Solomon, 1999; Pyszczynski, Solomon, ve Greenberg, 2003) göre ise bireyin ölümlülüğünün farkında olması duygusal anlamda varoluşsal bir kaygı ve dehşete sebep olur ve uyumsuz işleyişi engelleyebilir. Ulaşılabilir ölüm düşünceleri farklı savunma mekanizmalarını harekete geçirir. Bilinç düzeyindeki ölüme ilişkin düşüncelerin dikkati başka bir şeye yöneltme ile uzaklaştırılması yakın dehşet yönetimi savunması (proximal terror management defense) olarak adlandırılırken, kişinin öz-saygısının korunması ve kültürel inanışlara bağlılığı ile bilinçaltında olup da ulaşılabilen ölüme ilişkin düşüncelerin uzaklaştırılmasına uzak dehşet yönetimi savunması (distal terror management defense) adı verilir. Özellikle kültüre bağlı kazanılan ölümsüzlük beş farklı şekilde elde edilir. Bunlar, biyolojik (bir önceki neslin devamı olma ve bir sonraki nesilde yaşamaya devam etme fikri), yaratıcılık (topluma ölümden sonrada katkıda bulunmaya devam edecek bir katkıda bulunma), doğal (sonsuz bir evrenin parçası hissetme), tinsel ve dinsel kazanımlar (üst düzey bir varoluşu araştırma), ve deneysel (aşırı uç nokta deneyimler)'dir. Kültürel inanışlara bağlılık ölüm düşüncesinin getirdiği kaygı ve dehşeti azaltarak psikolojik iyiliğe katkıda bulunabilir ve böylece psikolojik iyi oluş paradoksunun bir başka boyutunu oluşturabilir.

Çalışmanın Temel Soruları

Bu çalışmada yöneltilen temel sorular şunlardır:

Soru 1. Zaman algısı ve gelecek yönelimi yaşla nasıl ilgilidir?

Zaman kavramının durumsal değişikliklerden etkilendiği belirtilse de, şu ana kadar olan çalışmalarda genel olarak kişilik özelliği olarak kabul edilmiş ve ölçülmüştür

(örn., Calster, Lens ve Nuttin, 1987; Nurmi, 1989; Strathman, Gleicher, Boniger, ve Edwards, 1994; Zimbardo ve Boyd, 1999). Öte yandan, ömür boyu gelişim çalışmaları ise zaman kavramının yaşa ve gelişimsel döneme bağlı olarak geliştiği ve değiştiğini belirtmişlerdir (örn., Neugarten, 1968; Shmotkin ve Eyal, 2003; Carstensen, Isaacowitz ve Charles, 1999). Tüm bunlara dayanarak: (a) farklı yaşlardaki bireylerin farklı zaman algılarının olması; ve (b) genç yetişkinlerin, orta ve ileri yaştaki yetişkinlere kıyasla geleceğe daha olumlu bakmaları beklenmektedir.

Soru 2. Kişisel hedeflerin niteliği ve niceliği yaş faktöründen nasıl etkilenir?

İlk araştırma sorusu ile bağlantılı olarak ömür boyu gelişim çalışmaları, hedef seçiminin de yaşa ve gelişimsel döneme bağlı olarak değiştiğini belirtmişlerdir (örn., Baltes, 1987; Schulz ve Heckhausen, 1996; Wrosch, Scheier, Miller, Schulz, ve Carver, 2003). Kişisel hedef ve kaygılardaki yaş farklılıklarını araştıran diğer çalışmalar da gençlerin meslek ve finansal, orta yaştaki yetişkinlerin meslek ve aileye ilişkin, ileri yaştaki bireylerin ise sağlık ve boş zamana ilişkin hedeflerden daha çok bahsettiklerini belirtmişlerdir (örn., Cameron, Desai, Bahador, ve Dremel, 1977-78; Emmons, 1986; Nurmi, 1992; Uçanok, 2001). Buna göre: (a) ileri yaştaki yetişkinlerin genç ve orta yaştakilere oranla daha az sayıda hedef belirtmeleri; ve (b) yetişkinlerin kişisel hedef ve kaygılarının yaşa bağlı gelişimsel görevlerini yansıtması beklenmektedir.

Soru 3. Kişilerin gelecek yönelimleri benlik tiplerine göre nasıl farklılaşır?

İmamoğlu ve Güler-Edwards'ın (2007) çalışmaları farklı benlik tipindeki gençlerin farklı gelecek tutumlarına sahip olduklarını ve dengeli benlik tipindekilerin en olumlu gelecek bakışına sahip olduklarını göstermiştir. Bu çalışmaya paralel olarak (a) tüm yaş gruplarında, farklı benlik tipindeki katılımcıların farklı gelecek bakışına sahip olmaları ve dengeli benlik tipindeki katılımcıların en olumlu gelecek bakışına sahip olmaları; (b) ayrıca, Denge Modeli'nin dengeli benlik tipinin psikolojik işlevler bakımından optimal olduğu savına dayanarak, yaşın geleceğe bakış üzerindeki olumsuz etkisinin dengeli benlik tipindeki katılımcılar için en az düzeyde olması beklenmektedir.

Soru 4. Kişilerin öz-yönetimleri benlik tiplerine ve yaşa göre nasıl farklılaşır?

Wrosch, Scheier, Miller ve arkadaşları (2003) çalışmalarında yaş ilerledikçe kişilerin hedeflerini daha iyi yönettiklerini bulmuşlardır. Buna göre orta ve ileri yaştaki yetişkinlerin gençlere kıyasla öz-yönetimde daha etkin olmaları beklenmektedir. Ayrıca, Wrosch, Scheier, Carver ve arkadaşları (2003) bireysel farklılıkların da hedef yönetiminde rol oynayabileceğini belirtmişlerdir. Buna bağlı olarak, farklı benlik tipindeki bireylerin uyumsal öz-yönetimde farklılaşmaları ve dengeli benlik tipindeki katılımcıların diğer benlik tipindekilere kıyasla en başarılı hedef yönetimine sahip olmaları beklenmektedir.

Soru 5. Kişilerin öz-yönetimleri gelecek zaman algısına göre nasıl farklılaşır?

Wrosch, Scheier, Carver ve arkadaşlarının (2003) çalışmaları ayrıca bireylerin gelecekteki fırsat ve kısıtlılıkları nasıl değerlendirdikleri ve iyimser olmalarının hedef yönetimini etkilediğini öne sürmüşlerdir. Buna dayanarak, tüm yaş gruplarında geleceği açık gören bireylerin uyumsal öz-yönetimde daha başarılı olmaları beklenmektedir.

Soru 6. Psikolojik iyi oluş gelecek zaman algısı, öz-yönetim ve benlik yönelimlerinden farklı yaşlarda nasıl etkilenir?

Ömür boyu gelişim çalışmaları tarafından öne sürüldüğü gibi başarılı hedef yönetimi psikolojik iyi oluşa katkıda bulunur ve bu katkı ileri yaşlarda daha fazladır (örn., Baltes, 1987; Brandtstädter ve Greve, 1994; Lang ve Carstensen, 1999; Schulz ve Heckhausen, 1996). Daha önceki çalışmalar ayrıca gelecek yönelimi ve kişiliğin psikolojik iyi oluşa katkısı olduğunu da göstermiştir (örn., Zimbardo ve Boyd, 1999, Diener ve ark., 1999; Diehl, Coyle, ve Labouvie-Vief, 1996; Srivastava ve ark., 2003). Buna göre öz-yönetim, gelecek zamana bakış ve benlik yönelimlerinin psikolojik iyi oluşa katkıda bulunması; benlik yönelimlerinin katkılarının yaştan bağımsız, ancak öz-yönetim ve geleceğe bakışın sağladığı katkıların yaşa göre değişmesi beklenmektedir.

Soru 7. Zaman algısı, gelecek yönelimi, öz-yönetim ve psikolojik iyi oluş ile ilgili değişkenler açısından cinsiyet farklılıkları var mıdır?

Cinsiyet faktörünün bu değişkenlere önemli bir etkide bulunması beklenmemesine rağmen, analizlerde cinsiyetin rolü incelenecektir. Daha önceki man algısı, gelecek yönelimi, öz-yönetim ve psikolojik iyi oluş çalışmalarında cinsiyet kritik bir rol oynamamıştır. Önceki çalışmalarda cinsiyete ilişkin tutarlı bir bulgu kadınların kaygı düzeylerinin daha yüksek olması ve geleceğe daha kaygılı bakmalarındır (örn., Brannon, 1999; İmamoğlu ve Güler-Edwards, 2007).

Örnekleme ve Kullanılan Ölçekler

Gelecek yönelimi ve zaman algısı, uyumsal öz-yönetim, benlik kurguları, hedefler ve psikolojik iyi oluş değişkenleri ile ilgili ölçeklerden oluşan bir anket 404 yetişkine (191 genç, 128 orta ve 85 ileri yaş) uygulanmıştır. Ayrıca, açıklama ve fikir edinme amacıyla her yaş grubundan üçer kişi olmak üzere dokuz yetişkin ile zaman, gelecek, hayatın sonu ve yaş konuları ile ilgili yapılandırılmış kısa mülakatlar yapılmıştır. Çalışmada uygulanan ölçekler: Gelecek Zaman Algısı Ölçeği (Future Time Perspective Scale, Carstensen ve Lang, 1996); Yaşam Yönelimi Testi (Life Orientation Test, Scheier ve Carver, 1985); Geleceğe Yönelik Tutum Ölçeği (Attitudes Towards the Future Scale, Güler, 2004); Olumlu Gelecek Beklentisi Ölçeği (Positive Future Expectations Scale, İmamoğlu, 2001); Zimbardo Zaman Algısı Envanteri (Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory, Zimbardo ve Boyd, 1999); Hedeften Vazgeçme ve Yeni Hedefe Yönelme Ölçeği (Goal Disengagement and Reengagement Scale, Wrosch, Scheier, Miller, Schulz, ve Carver, 2003); Başetme Ölçeği (kısa form, Brief COPE Scale, Carver, 1997); Dengeli Bütünleşme-Ayrışma (Denge) Ölçeği (Balanced Integration and Differentiation Scale, İmamoğlu, 1998, 2003); Psikolojik İyi Oluş Ölçeği (Scales of Psychological Well-Being, Ryff, 1989b); Yaşam Doyumu Ölçeği (Satisfaction with Life Scale, Diener, Emmons, Larsen, ve Griffin, 1985); Rosenberg Öz-Saygı Ölçeği (Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale, Rosenberg, 1965); Pozitif ve Negatif

Duygu Ölçeği (Positive and Negative Affect Schedule, Watson, Clark, ve Tellegen, 1988).

Temel Bulgular

Bulgulardan hareketle şu sonuçlara varılmıştır:

Zaman Algısı ve Gelecek Yönelimindeki Yaş Farklılıkları (Soru 1)

Beklenildiği gibi sonuçlar farklı yaş gruplarındaki bireylerin zaman algısı ve geleceğe bakışta farklılaştıklarını göstermiştir. İleri yaştaki bireylerin gençlere kıyasla geçmişe hem daha olumsuz, hem de daha olumlu baktıkları, daha az risk aldıkları, işleri zamanında bitirmeye daha çok önem verdikleri, ve hayat üzerinde daha az kontrole sahip olduklarını hissettikleri bulunmuştur. Gençlerin ise diğer yaş gruplarına kıyasla daha fazla risk aldıkları, orta yaştakilerin ise zaman algısında ileri yaştakilere daha benzer oldukları bulunmuştur. Geleceğe bakışta ise, ileri yaştaki bireylerin gelecekte daha az fırsata sahip olduklarını düşündükleri, geleceğe karşı daha kaygılı ancak daha az planlı oldukları bulunmuştur. Bulgular, gençlerin geleceğe bakışlarının ileri yaştakilerin tam tersi olduğunu, ve orta yaştaki bireylerin yine ileri yaştakilere daha yakın bir gelecek bakışına sahip olduklarını göstermiştir. Orta yaştaki bireyler ileri yaştakilere göre gelecekte onları daha çok fırsat beklediğini düşünerek farklılaşmışlardır.

Yapılandırılmış mülakatlar ayrıca zamanın gençler tarafından genişleyen, geleceğe doğru hızla akan, ve sınırları olmayan; orta yaştakiler tarafından değerli ve etkin kullanılması gereken; ileri yaştakilere göre ise yaşamı temsil eden ve sınırları olan bir kavram olarak tanımlandığını göstermiştir.

Kişisel Hedeflerin Yaşa Göre Değişimi (Soru 2)

Yine beklenildiği gibi bulgular her bir yaş grubu tarafından belirtilen hedeflerin nitelik ve nicelik bakımından farklı olduğu, ve ileri yaştaki yetişkinlerin genç ve orta yaştakilere oranla daha az sayıda hedef belirttiklerini göstermiştir. Orta yaştaki

yetişkinler ise belirttikleri hedef sayısında gençlerden farklılaşmamışlardır. Gençler daha çok meslek, eğitim ve aile kurmaya yönelik hedeflerden; orta yaştakiler meslek, çocukların hayatı ve kişisel hedeflerden; ileri yaştakiler ise çocukların hayatı, sağlık ve mal/mülk ile ilgili hedeflerden bahsetmişlerdir.

Gelecek Yönelimi ile Benlik Kurguları Arasındaki İlişki (Soru 3)

Daha önce bahsedildiği gibi, bulgular Denge Modeli'nin savları ile tutarlı olarak tüm yaş gruplarında, dengeli benlik (Denge Modeli tarafından ilişkili-kendileşmiş olarak tanımlanan) tipindekilerin en olumlu gelecek bakışına sahip olduğunu göstermiştir. Dengeli benlik tipindeki katılımcılar gelecekte kendilerini birçok fırsatın beklediğine inandıklarını belirtmiş ve geleceğe karşı en az kaygılı ve en çok planlı tutumu göstermişlerdir. Bunun tam tersi olarak, dengesiz benlik tipindeki (Denge Modeli tarafından kopuk-kalıplaşmış olarak tanımlanan) katılımcılar ise gelecekte en az sayıda fırsat görüp, geleceğe karşı en kaygılı ve en az planlı tutumu göstermişlerdir. Bulgular ayrıca, sadece dengeli benlik tipindeki genç, orta ve ileri yaştaki katılımcıların birbirlerinden farklılaşmayarak en olumlu bakışa sahip olduklarını işaret etmiştir. Diğer bir deyişle, yaşın gelecek zamana bakış üzerindeki olumsuz etkisi diğer tüm benlik tipindeki katılımcıları etkilerken, dengeli benlik tipindeki katılımcıları etkilememiştir.

Uyumsal Öz-Yönetim ile Benlik Kurguları Arasındaki İlişki (Soru 4)

Bulgular, yine Denge Modeli'ni destekler biçimde, dengeli benlik tipindeki katılımcıların dengesiz benlik tipindekilere kıyasla, ulaşamayacakları bir hedefle karşılaştıklarında, dengesiz benlik tipindekilere kıyasla yeni hedeflere bağlanmayı daha başarıyla gerçekleştirdiklerini göstermiştir.

Uyumsal Öz-Yönetim ile Geleceğe Bakış Arasındaki İlişki (Soru 5)

Bulgular gelecekte daha çok fırsat olduğu düşünüldüğünde yeni hedeflere bağlanmanın arttığını göstermiştir. Ayrıca, orta yaştaki yetişkinler ileri yaştaki

yetişkinlere kıyasla ulaşamayacakları bir hedefle karşılaştıklarında yeni hedefe daha çok yönelmişlerdir. Gençler ise bu iki gruptan farklılaşmamışlardır. Öte yandan, bir başka bulgu ise gelecekte daha çok fırsat olduğu yönündeki güçlü inancın yeni hedeflere bağlanmayı gençlere kıyasla orta ve ileri yaştakilerde daha çok arttırdığını işaret etmiştir. Bir başka deyişle, ilerleyen yaşa rağmen gelecekte fırsatlar olduğunu düşünmek orta ve ileri yaştakiler için daha etkin bir hedef yönetimini ortaya çıkarmıştır.

Gelecek Zamana Bakış, Benlik Kurguları ve Uyumsal Öz-Yönetimin Psikolojik İyi Oluşa Katkıları (Soru 6)

Gelecek zamana bakış, benlik kurguları ve uyumsal öz-yönetimin hem birbirleri ile, hem de psikolojik iyi oluş ile ilişki oldukları bulunmuştur. Beklenildiği gibi benlik yönelimlerinin psikolojik iyi oluşa katkısı daha güçlü ve yaştan bağımsız iken, geleceğe bakış ve uyumsal öz-yönetimin katkısı yaşa bağlı değişkenlik göstermiş ve ileri yaştaki bireyler için geleceğe bakış ve uyumsal öz-yönetimin katkıları anlamlı bulunmamıştır. Genç yaştaki bireyler için geleceğe bakış benlik yönelimlerinin psikolojik iyi oluşa etkisinde, uyumsal öz-yönetim ise geleceğe bakışın psikolojik iyi oluşa etkisinde aracı olmuşlardır. Orta yaştaki bireyler için ise ilişkili benlik yöneliminin psikolojik iyi oluşa ve uyumsal öz-yönetime etkisinde geleceğe bakış aracı olmuştur.

Zaman Algısı, Gelecek Yönelimi, Uyumsal Öz-Yönetim ve Psikolojik İyi Oluş üzerindeki Cinsiyet Etkisi (Soru 7)

Cinsiyetin yeni hedeflere bağlanma ve psikolojik iyi oluşta anlamlı bir katkısının olmadığı bulunmuştur. Ancak, daha önceki çalışmalarla tutarlı olarak kadınların erkeklere oranla az da olsa geleceğe karşı daha kaygılı ve kaderci tutum taşıdıkları görülmüştür.

Çalışmanın Başlıca Katkıları

Bu çalışmanın en önemli katkılarından biri, zaman ve yaşam boyu gelişim ile ilgili çalışmaları sosyal psikoloji çalışmalarıyla ilişkilendirmesidir. Çalışmanın başında da belirtildiği gibi, zamanın farklı yönleriyle ilgili birçok çalışma olsa da kavram henüz sistemli bir şekilde incelenmemiştir. Kişilik, motivasyon, karar mekanizmaları, stres ve başa çıkma gibi konular üzerinde etkisi olduğu belirtilse de, sosyal psikolojide zaman kavramının yeri tam olarak araştırılmamıştır. Öte yandan, yaşam boyu gelişim, zamanın ve daha çok da yaşın insan yaşamı üzerindeki etkilerini inceleyen bir alandır. O nedenle bireyin zamanı ve özellikle de geleceği yaşamın farklı dönemlerinde nasıl algıladığı, bunun kişi üzerindeki etkisi, ve kişinin, özellikle de yaşamın son dönemlerinde, hayatın sınırlı olması gerçeğine olan tepkisi ve uyumu gibi konular yaşam boyu gelişim ve sosyal psikoloji alanlarının kesişim noktası olan ve gelecek vaadeden araştırma konularıdır.

Çalışmanın bir diğer katkısı da sadece gelecek zaman algısındaki yaşa bağlı farklılıkları değil, aynı yaş grubu içindeki gelecek zaman algısındaki bireysel farklılıkları da incelemesidir. Yaşam boyu gelişim çalışmalarında bireysel farklılıklar ihmal edilirken, bu çalışmada benlik tipine bağlı olarak kişilerin geleceğe yönelimlerinin farklılaştığı bulunmuştur. Ayrıca bu çalışma, Denge Modeli'nce öne sürülen, ilişkili-kendileşmiş (dengeli) benlik tipinin en iyi psikolojik işleyişe sahip olduğu savının (İmamoğlu, 2003, 2006) farklı yaş grupları için de geçerli olduğunu göstermiştir.

Ayrıca, yaşa bağlı farklılıkları incelerken, genelde yaşam boyu ve öz-yönetim çalışmalarında ihmal edilen bir grup olan, orta yaş yetişkinler de çalışmaya dahil edilmiştir. Bu çalışmada, orta yaştaki yetişkinlerin hala birşeyler yapabilmek için yeterli zamanları varken, zamanın ne kadar değerli olduğunun farkında oldukları ve diğer yaş gruplarına (genç ve ileri yaş) kıyasla öz-yönetimde daha başarılı oldukları görülmüştür. Orta yaştaki bireyler, genç gruptakiler gibi yüksek sayıda hedefe ve olumlu gelecek bakışına sahipken, gelecekte daha çok fırsat olduğunu düşündüklerinde yeni hedeflere bağlanmalarındaki artış ileri yaştakiler gibi fazladır. Buna göre çalışmamız, yaşam boyu ve öz-yönetim çalışmalarında orta yaş yetişkinlerin de çalışılmasının önemli katkılar sağlayabileceğine işaret etmektedir.

Son olarak da, alıřmamız gelecek yneliminin yařa ve benlik kurgusuna baėlı olarak deėiřtiėini ortaya koymakla birlikte olumlu gelecek yneliminin orta ve ileri yařlarda daha da deėer kazandıėını da gstermiřtir. Gelecek ynelimi ve psikolojik iyi oluř arasındaki olumlu iliřkiyi de gz nnde tutarak, yařam yolculuėumuzu ve deėiřen kořullara gsterdiėimiz uyumu daha iyi anlayabilmek iin yařamımızın her dneminde gelecek zamanın rol ve anlamının yeni alıřmalarla arařtırılması gerekmektedir.

VITA

Ayça Güler-Edwards was born in İzmir, on November 7, 1979. She received her B.S. degree in Business Administration from the Department of Business Administration and her minor degree in Psychology from the Department of Psychology at Middle East Technical University, Ankara in 2002, and her M.A. degree in Social Psychology from the Department of Psychology at Middle East Technical University, Ankara in 2004.

During the years 2002-2007 she worked as a research assistant at the Department of Business Administration at Middle East Technical University. With the fellowship of Turkish Academy of Sciences, between August 2005 and May 2006 she has been to “Centre for Research in Human Development” at Concordia University, Montreal, Canada as a visitor researcher under the supervision of Dr. Carsten Wrosch. She has been working towards her Ph.D. degree in Social Psychology at Middle East Technical University since September 2004. Her main interest areas include future time perspective, psychological adaptation and life-span development.

