

RISK INVOLVEMENT IN EMERGING ADULthood: THE ROLE OF PERSONAL
AUTHORITY, INTERGENERATIONAL INTIMACY AND FAMILY
TRIANGULATION

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ABSTRACT

RISK INVOLVEMENT IN EMERGING ADULTHOOD: THE ROLE OF PERSONAL AUTHORITY, INTERGENERATIONAL INTIMACY AND FAMILY TRIANGULATION

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The purpose of the present study was to examine the role of intergenerational mother and father intimacy, triangulation and personal authority in predicting emerging adult risk-taking behaviors after controlling for gender, age, GPA, number of siblings, father and mother educational levels. Participants were between the ages of 18-26, and mainly from two universities in Ankara. Convenience sampling method was used and sample composed of 535 participants (429 female, 106 male). Modified Risk Involvement and Perception Scale (M-RIPS), Personal Authority in Family System (PAFSQ-VC) and a demographic data form which was developed by the researcher were used to collect data. The PAFSQ-VC was adapted into Turkish by the researcher. Two separate multiple hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to evaluate the low and high risk-taking behaviors of emerging adults. Results of the study indicated that demographic variables were more significant variables than family-of-origin variables to predict risk-taking behaviors in emerging adulthood. The results indicated that younger males with low academic achievement, with one or no sibling had high level of personal authority and

low level of father intimacy were more likely to involve in low risk taking behaviors. Furthermore, findings revealed that older males whose fathers graduated from secondary and/or high school and had high level of personal authority were more likely to involve in high risk taking behaviors.

Keywords: Risk-involvement, personal authority, intergenerational intimacy, family triangulation, emerging adults.

ÖZ

BELİREN YETİŞKİNLİKTE RİSK ALMA DAVRANIŞLARI: KİŞİSEL OTORİTE, KUŞAKLARASI YAKINLIK VE AİLE ÜÇGENLEŞMESİNİN ROLÜ

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Bu araştırmanın amacı, cinsiyet, yaş, akademik ortalama, kardeş sayısı, anne-baba eğitim düzeyi gibi demografik değişkenler kontrol edildikten sonra kişisel otorite, kuşaklararası yakınlık ve aile üçgenleşmesi değişkenlerinin beliren yetişkinlikte risk alma davranışlarını ne ölçüde yordadığını incelemektir. Katılımcılar ağırlıklı olarak Ankara'da bulunan iki devlet üniversitesinden, 18-26 yaşları arasındaki beliren yetişkinlerden oluşmaktadır. Kolayda örnekleme yöntemi kullanılan çalışmada örneklem 535 katılımcıdan (429 kadın, 106 erkek) oluşmuştur. Risk Alma Davranışını Gösterme Sıklığı Ölçeği, Aile Sisteminde Kişisel Otorite Ölçeği ve araştırmacı tarafından hazırlanan kişisel bilgi formu veri toplama aracı olarak kullanılmıştır. Aile Sisteminde Kişisel Otorite Ölçeği, araştırmacı tarafından Türkçe'ye uyarlanmıştır. Değişkenlerin beliren yetişkinlikte düşük ve yüksek düzey risk alma davranışlarını ne ölçüde yordadığını inceleyebilmek için toplanan veriye iki farklı aşamalı çoklu regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Bulgular, demografik değişkenlerin, köken aileye ilişkin değişkenlere göre beliren yetişkinlikte risk alma davranışlarını daha anlamlı düzeyde yordadığını göstermiştir. Bulgular, düşük akademik başarıya sahip, babasıyla mesafeli bir yakınlığı olan, bir ya da hiç kardeşi olmayan, kişisel otorite düzeyi yüksek ve daha genç erkeklerin

daha fazla düşük düzey risk alma davranışları sergilediğini göstermiştir. Ayrıca, bulgular, babası orta okul ya da lise mezunu olan, kişisel otorite düzeyi yüksek ve yaşça daha büyük erkeklerin daha fazla yüksek düzey risk alma davranışları sergilediğini göstermiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Risk alma, kişisel otorite, kuşaklararası yakınlık, aile üçgenleşmesi, beliren yetişkinlik

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

“Personal individuality is an illusion.”

- Harry Stack Sullivan

“There is no way to peace. Peace is the way.”

- Thich Nhat Hanh

1.1 Background to the Study

As a life stage, young adulthood appears with a diversity of characteristics. In comparison to other stages of life-span such as adolescence, infancy and late adulthood; making a worldwide and stage-based definition for young adulthood is a complicated attempt. In another saying, a consensus ad idem on characteristics of the stage does not seem so simple. Jessor, Donovan and Costa (1991) emphasized the knowledge gap about this stage. Although critical decisions of partnering, marriage, childbearing, advanced learning, having a profession or career are generally accomplished in this stage with significant influences on the rest of life course; the stage remains a puzzle with its characteristics and developmental tasks.

Despite the indication of a ‘knowledge gap’ for the young adulthood period, Arnett (2000, 2004) named the period as ‘emerging adulthood’ that refers to the same period with young adulthood. He defined the period as a transitional stage between adolescence and

adulthood including the ages of 18 and 25. Arnett (2000, 2004) hallmarked the stage with five main characteristics:

Identity exploration refers to a period of lacuna regarding to self-exploration and searching for chances in their life domains; more specifically in areas of work and love. During the period, emerging adults have more personal authority and individuation compared with the years as they were adolescents. However, they have not yet represented a typical adult-life characteristics. According to Arnett (2000, 2004) processes of identity formation and self-exploration maintain its importance during the period of emerging adulthood, and probably provide best opportunity for self-exploration.

Age of instability refers to a state of flux in future plans. In this period, emerging adults have plans such as going a college, attending a major and when they recognize that plan is not appropriate one, they change and revise their plan into a new one. Plans change and revise ingenuously as a result of their self-exploration to purify for a better future plan.

Self-focused age refers to a healthy, natural and transitional period. During the period, emerging adults gain some skills of constructing their daily lives, future plans and self-competence by focusing on themselves.

Age of feeling in-between refers to a feeling of caught in the middle, between adolescence and emerging adulthood. They have difficulty in responding such questions; ‘Do you feel that you have reached adulthood?’ with a definite answer of ‘yes’ or ‘no’. Just about criterions of taking responsibility for self, financial and personal autonomy are related to become an adult and are acquired step-by-step, a situation of feeling in-between is also expected for this period.

Age of possibilities refers to a hopeful and high future expectations during the period. Emerging adults set their hopes on higher expectations which seemed-possible to them in the not too distance future.

Among so many characteristics of the stage, risk-involvement is one of the salient research interests to be considered. Despite the fact that significant developmental changes take place during the period, a variety of risk-involvement behaviors with negative long term consequences can be even life threatening (Reynolds, Magidson, Mayes & Lejuez, 2010).

Studies on risk-involvement and reckless behaviors focus on mostly developmental period of adolescence. However, pervasiveness of many risk involvement frequencies are higher than adolescence during the period of emerging adulthood (Arnett, 1999). For instance, in an examination of indicators in health-related domains, young adults represented higher rates of risk and worse outcomes (Park, Scott, Adams, Brindis, & Irwin, 2014). Pervasiveness of most risk involvement behaviors commonly higher in twenties (Arnett, 1998). Fromme, Corbin and Kruse, (2008) indicated the continuity of risk-taking behaviors during the transition period from high school to college. Participants reported higher risk-taking frequencies of multiple sex partners, alcohol and marijuana in emerging adulthood compared with adolescence. However, participants reported lower risk-taking frequencies of driving after drinking, property crimes and aggression.

It can be considered that the period of emerging adulthood holds the most frequent risk involvement frequencies among life-span stages. Because, in addition to adolescence, emerging adulthood risk involvement frequencies seem higher than adulthood as well. For instance, Blinn-Pike, Worthy, Jonkman and Smith (2008) compared emerging adults and adults regarding to risk-involvement and found that emerging adults represent more frequent risk behaviors of alcohol consumption, smoking and gambling than adults.

In the literature, researchers indicate that definitions or social norms of risky behaviors may vary by contextual factors. For instance, Smith, Molina and Pelham (2002) indicated that alcohol use during the period of adolescence might be more significant than period of emerging adulthood depending upon an argument that alcohol use a typical characteristic of emerging adults. In addition, reasons of higher risk-involvement frequencies also vary in the stage and cannot be explained with only identity exploration process. For instance, feeling of more personal freedom compared to adolescence and having less social responsibility compared to adulthood are also significant arguments (Arnett, 1999). In addition, as Ravert and Gomez-Scott (2014) in their study indicated that most salient reason and motivation for risk-involvement is respectively personal growth, achievement and satisfaction in young adulthood.

A comparison study regarding to problem behavior involvement emphasizes continuity of risk taking behaviors in adolescence and adulthood. Jessor, Donovan and Costa (1991) in their longitudinal study concluded that a tendency to have higher problem behavior involvement during the adolescence predicts to have higher problem behavior involvement during the young adulthood. Nonetheless, results also indicated that problem behavior involvement during the adolescence did not impair other life outcomes such as job prestige, family, self-esteem, life satisfaction in the period of young adulthood. It is obvious from the findings that, direction of developmental change in regard to social settings represents a state of flux. Thus, a psychosocial contextual framework should be considered for a clear understanding of risk involvement in young adulthood. Problem-Behavior Theory (PBT), in this point, appears as one of the major explanations of contextual framework in problem behavior involvement. Problem behavior perspective emphasizes deviant behaviors from cultural norms, social definitions of risk, formal adult authority and social control response to risk involvement (Jessor & Jessor 1977).

In another definition of risk involvement, Moore and Gullone (1996) emphasized a balance between possible negative consequences of engagement in a risky behavior and perceived positive consequences of that engagement. According to the definition positive outcomes compensate for possibility of negative outcomes by perceiving the behavior to be less risky. The definition also comprises a basis for socially acceptable risky behaviors (e.g., involving in extreme sports). From the decision-making approach, Irwin (1990) determined the risk-taking as a preference and a volitive behavior; emphasized that outcomes of involvement is uncertainty with predictable negative consequences.

In the light of definitions that emphasize the balance between negative and positive consequences of risk involvement; Millstein and Igra (1995) indicated that not all risky behaviors are naturally bad. A disposition to risk-taking may even be essential by need of identity exploration process in young adulthood. In a similar perspective, Siegel, Cousins, Rubovits, Parsons, Lavery and Crowley (1994) preferred to categorize the risk-involvement behaviors in two levels as high risky behaviors (e.g. taking drugs, crack, cocaine) and low risky behaviors (e.g. walking alone during night).

As an example of high risky behaviors, Arnett (2005) pointed out that drug use represents highest involvement frequencies during the period of emerging adulthood. A remarkable amount of research on risk-involvement during the emerging adulthood period also focus on the outcomes related to substance abuse of alcohol, marijuana, cannabis, smoking, and heavy drinking. Young adults whose proneness is high in using one type of substance are predisposed to involve in using other types of substance as well. For instance, Cohn, et al. (2015) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between current marijuana and alcohol use and tobacco products such as cigarette among 1609 young adults. Results revealed that marijuana and alcohol use may increase the use of tobacco products.

In addition to topics of substance abuse, a remarkable research also focus on sexual risk-involvement issues such as early exposure of pornography, beliefs about fertility, sexual compulsivity, oral and coital sexual risk-taking, HIV infection, unprotected sex and condom use. For instance, Parsons, Halkitis, Bimbi and Borkowski (2000) found that in the college students sample (N = 704, aged 17-25), participants reported high sexual risk taking behaviors. Worse, nearly half of the participants did not use condom in their last sexual intercourses.

In another risk-involvement behavior, Winters, Stinchfield, Botzet and Anderson (2002) found that existence of problem gambling in adolescence is a significant predictor of gambling behavior in emerging adulthood. Males were more hanged by gambling and reported more likely comorbidity of illicit drug use, smoking, more than a glass of alcohol daily use and more externalizing behaviors (Hayatbakhsh, Clavarino, Williams, Bor, & Najman, 2012).

In terms of delinquency, criminal behaviors top out at shortly before ending the period of emerging adulthood (Arnett, 1995). Studies on peer influences related to risk-involvement emphasizes the misconceptions and social comparisons. For instance, the greater part of university students suppose that campus life is a non-restrictive environment for alcohol use and rates of alcohol consumption among college students are far more than real life (Borsari & Carey, 2001; Perkins, 2002).

Studies on risk-involvement related to period of emerging adulthood represent a great variation by global variables. Nevertheless, almost all of the studies emphasize the importance of psychosocial contextual and environmental factors. For instance, Bonem, Ellsworth and Gonzalez (2015) argued that relationship of age and risky behaviors is contradictive. Because risk perceptions and involvements depending on age vary by domains. Older adults reported less risk-involvement due to perception of higher risk on

health and safety domains in comparison to young adults. On the other hand, adults reported similar risk-involvement rates in social domains. Researchers discussed on the question of ‘what constitutes a risky-involvement?’ Although individuals know the presence of risks in some domains, they still keep on involving risky behaviors because of benefits. In that reason, research on risk-involvement need to foreground distinction positions of lifespan and life-domains; in other words contextual perspectives.

In a salient review of contextual framework, Arnett (1995) pointed out the importance of cultural environment for risk-involvement studies. For this purpose, seven domains of socialization were highlighted to investigate: community, school, media, legal system, peers, cultural belief system and family. Arnett (1995) also pointed out the importance of broad and narrow socialization, and role of families as one of the most significant domains of socialization. His arguments of that prevalence and perceptions of risk involvement rely on boundaries, which is regulated by socialization environments and cultures. For instance, in broad socialized cultures, boundaries of reckless behaviors are not so rigid to be defined. Broad socialized societies provide flexible environmental climate and adolescents with a tendency of reckless behavior find an opportunity of self-expression. For that reason, broad socialized societies represent more variation of reckless behaviors. Nevertheless, narrow socialized societies do not provide a flexible environment for reckless behaviors.

Contemporary visions on the life-span stages and domains indicate remarkable points of holistic, constructivist and interactionist perspectives as well. These visions underline the reciprocal, dynamic and an inseparable interaction of environment (or called as ‘context’) and individuals (Magnusson & Stattin 1998). This notion indicates that individuals are not considered passive elements or just ‘products’ of their environment, but much more. They also have the capacity to build their environment by using abilities of self-regulation, self-organization and self-reflection (Bandura, 1986, 1997). This interaction might provide a

better understanding of contextual factors related to risk-taking behaviors by considering them within a precise context. In a similar way, Bronfenbrenner (1979) introduced the “microsystems” as a part of a systemic model, which describe an ecological environment that all individuals are in a direct contact with family, peers, school, neighborhood, relatives and emphasizes the importance of a particular environment on individual characteristics.

Families with their systemic structure within parents and sibling subsystems are probably one of the most important parts of environmental context for young adults. It is a *sine qua non*, during the transition period from adolescence to adulthood, that families must take into account of adolescents’ demands on more autonomy and individual competence while protecting intimacy and stable connections to prevent them from problematic or deviant behaviors such as self-harm or psychological adjustment problems (Peterson, Bush & Supple, 1999). This complex process of negotiation on to what extent individuality can be tolerated with harmonizing intimacy and affinity is named as ‘differentiation’ (Anderson & Sabatelli, 1990; Bowen, 1985).

In this vein of contextual and systemic perspective, in addition to Jessor’s (1991) Problem Behavior Theory (PBT), Bowen’s (1978) Intergenerational Family Systems Theory and Williamson’s (1991) Personal Authority in Family System (PAFS) construct represent a similar touch on the importance of the relationship between ‘context’ and ‘differentiation of self’ to explain risk-taking behaviors.

‘Differentiation’ is an explanatory concept of Bowen’s theory. Bowen described that differentiation is a process to be managed and refers that differentiated self can maintain the balance between individuality and intimacy or togetherness with (significant) others (Kerr & Bowen, 1988). Kerr and Bowen (1988) are also stated that ‘differentiation’ and

‘individuality’ should not be used interchangeably, because these terms do not explain exactly the same experiences.

Within a family context, high level self-differentiated people can manage the relationships with others especially during the stressful times with a capacity of cooperativeness, cohesiveness and altruism. Self-differentiated people assume full responsibility of personal choices, act in an autonomous way without being emotionally and cognitively impaired by significant others. In situations of lack of self-differentiation several symptom developments may appear within family systems. As a sign of poor self-differentiation ‘interlocking triangles’ can represent a better understanding of self-differentiation. Individuals in a triangulated relationship prefer to act by taking a side with a significant other regarding to an intense feeling of attachments. Triangulations very often produce a ‘scapegoat’ or ‘odd man out’, which might be a painful process for individuals to handle (Kerr & Bowen, 1988).

In a synthesis of the self-differentiation and intergenerational intimacy by referring to personal authority; Williamson (1991) defined the process as a task of leaving emotionally or psychologically parental home rather than leaving physically. Process needs relational and behavioral abilities for renegotiation of family politics such as intergenerational intimidation and triangulation within family system. The aim of the personal authority process is differentiation of self, while reconstructing intimacy with parents, peers and significant others in a voluntarily and an autonomous way.

Empirical evidence on investigation of Bowen’s and Williamson’s concepts regarding risk involvement mainly focused on substance abuse and sexual risk taking behaviors. Results lay emphasis on importance of intergenerational relationship patterns. For instance Searight, Manley, Binder, Krohn, Rogers, and Russo (1991) in their comparative study, found that families with a drug addict adolescent represent problems of keeping the

balance between individuality and emotional togetherness. Grand (1995) compared the intimacy scores of children of alcoholic parents and children of non-alcoholic parents. Results indicated that children of alcoholic parents reported unsatisfied intergenerational intimacy scores in comparison to children of non-alcoholic parents. Tuttle, Landau, Stanton, King and Frodi (2004) also investigated the relationship between intergenerational family relationships and sexual risk taking behaviors among young women population. Results demonstrated a significant negative relationship between sexual risk taking and intergenerational individuality.

As mentioned before, risk-taking is one of the important characteristics to be considered for the period of emerging adulthood. In broad and narrow socialization cultures, definitions and tolerance for deviant behaviors differ greatly (Arnett, 1995), and family is a great part of this socialization process. Instead of remarking the problematic behavior, a systemic approach-based researchers prefer to focus on the function that risk-involvement behaviors play in family. In this vein, since the literature on family of origin variables indicates the importance of intergenerational family relationship patterns' significant role to predict and understand the risk-related behaviors of offspring, these variables were examined in the present study.

Empirical evidence on risk taking behaviors ensures that gender, academic achievement (i.e., grade point average-GPA), and age are consistent predictors of risk-related behaviors in emerging adulthood. Among these variables, gender is the robust predictor variable, and studies demonstrated that males are more prone to involve in risk-related behaviors (Byrnes, Miller & Schafer, 1999). Furthermore, studies regarding the association between academic achievement and risk taking behaviors revealed that academic achievement and risk taking behaviors are negatively correlated. In other words, as academic achievement increases probability of involvement in risky behaviors decreases (Foster, 2015; Knight, 2015). Similarly, academic achievement has been cited as one of the protective factors of

school dropout, delinquency, and substance abuse (Brook, Cohen, & Kasen, 1998). Moreover, literature on risk taking and age mostly focus on comparison of adolescents' and young adults' risk involvement behaviors. Majority of the studies revealed that increase in age links to decrease in risk-involvement (Jessor, Turbin, & Costa, 1997; Ravert, & Gomez-Scott, 2014; Wells, Kelly, Golub, Grov, & Parsons, 2010).

Consequently, the vast majority of research on risk taking behaviors has been conducted in Western societies. In Turkey, risk-taking behaviors of youth has recently become a popular research subject. The review of Turkish literature demonstrates that limited number of studies have been conducted on risk taking behaviors of late adolescents and young adults. Furthermore, in majority of the studies, researchers mostly focused on health related risk taking behaviors of adolescents (e.g., Aktürk, Dağdeviren, & Dalkılıç, 2002; Geçkil & Dündar, 2011; Karakaş, 2006; Öksüz & Malhan, 2005). Additionally, demographic, environmental and personality variables have been studied in relation to risk-related behaviors of adolescents and young adults (e.g., Atak, 2011; Bayar & Sayıl, 2005; Özmen & Sümer, 2011). However, there is no study that examine family of origin variables along with demographics in order to understand risk involvement behaviors of emerging adults.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The aim of the current study was to investigate the role of particular demographic variables and intergenerational family system characteristics of Turkish emerging adults. More specifically, the role of gender, age, GPA, number of siblings, parental educational level, personal authority, intergenerational mother and father intimacy and family triangulation in predicting the low and high risk involvement frequencies of Turkish emerging adults was examined.

1.3 Research Questions

The research questions of the current study can be identified as represented:

1. How well do family triangulation, personal authority, intergenerational father and mother intimacy predict overall low risk involvement frequencies of Turkish emerging adults after controlling for gender, age, GPA, number of siblings, father and mother educational levels?
2. How well do family triangulation, personal authority, intergenerational father and mother intimacy predict overall high risk involvement frequencies of Turkish emerging adults after controlling for gender, age, GPA, number of siblings, father and mother educational levels?

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study was one of the first attempts to examine the predictive value of family-of-origin variables on risk-taking behaviors of Turkish emerging adults. As previously introduced, in Arnett's (1995) theory, characteristics of broad socialization provide more flexibility for expressions of personality-traits such as risk-taking behaviors. In this theory, cultural context and social norms play an important role in explaining the risk-related behaviors. However, family is one of the main domains of this socialization process by transmitting the cultural values through generations. In other words, as an important socialization domain, family related variables can make significant contributions in understanding risk-related behaviors.

However, among so many family related variables, the present study specifically focused on family-of-origin variables. Because, adolescents' risk-taking behaviors in some cases may function as a buffer in preventing familial or marital conflicts to become apparent,

and hold the family together and maintain the homeostatic functioning. When the adolescents' problem behaviors disappear, familial or marital conflicts may become more visible (Robin & Foster, 1989). For this reason, focusing on a family system through relationship patterns may provide a better understanding of the functions of risk-involvement behaviors in family.

Family-of-origin variables reflect western view of independence-related construct. However, it was assumed that family-of-origin variables can also represent a significant construct to explain psychological well-being in collectivist societies (Chung & Gale, 2006; Kim, Prouty, Smith, Ko, Wetchler & Oh 2014).

As most of the family-of-origin variables have never been studied in Turkey, findings of the present study can represent that whether these constructs significantly explain risk-taking behaviors of Turkish emerging adults. Because, Turkey exhibits both of the characteristics of independence and totally interdependence cultures, which is a different model from the individualistic and collectivistic social norms (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2007). In other words, a match of family-of-origin constructs and a new model of family socialization through risk-taking behaviors may reveal significant findings. In addition, Jessor (1991) pointed out that problem behavior may function for adolescents and young adults as a manner of achieving autonomy via differentiation of themselves from their parents. The present study also examined the risk taking behaviors of Turkish emerging adults through personal authority, which refers to an autonomous self. Thus, findings of the present study may provide again a better understanding on the relationship between personal authority or autonomy and risk-taking behaviors in Turkish cultural context.

The present study was also aimed to adapt the Personal Authority in Family System Questionnaire (PAFSQ-VC; Bray & Harvey, 1992) into Turkish. PAFSQ-VC is an instrument that was developed on the base of family-of-origin variables. This measure can

be useful for family counselors in Turkey to assess the constructs of intergenerational and peer intimacy, individuation, intimidation, triangulation and personal authority of young adults. Along with PAFSQ-VC, the psychometric properties of the Modified Risk Involvement and Perception Scale (M-RIPS; Özmen, 2006), which was adapted into Turkish in an adolescent sample, were re-tested in an emerging adult sample in the current study. Hence, the two-factor structure (low and high risk involvement) of the scale might also be useful tool for counselors to obtain information about risk involvement behaviors of emerging adults.

1.5 Definition of Terms

Risk Involvement is an engagement on several types of risky behaviors and refers to a significant deviation from the social norms of the dominant culture (Jessor & Jessor, 1977). Low risk behaviors such as “cheating”, “hitchhiking” or “driving without a seatbelt” which might be (self) destructive and have long-term negative consequences. On the other hand, high risk behaviors such as “taking cocaine”, “smoke hash” or “having sex without using condom” might be much more seriously (self) destructive and have long-term negative consequences.

Intergenerational Intimacy is a peer-typed, voluntary or chosen closeness with parents (Williamson 1982a; 1983; as cited in Williamson, 1991). However, romantic and sexual intimacy topics are exceptions, as these topics are related to peer intimacy. Intergenerational intimacy includes having the knowledge of parents’ personal and private experiences and see each of them as individuals (Bray & Harvey, 1992).

Personal Authority is a syntheses of self-differentiation and intimacy. The term refers to an ability of maintaining an intimate, individuated and peer-type connections with parents and significant others. In order to achieve this ability, individuals have to experience a (r)

evolution in family politics by terminating the intergenerational hierarchical boundaries (Williamson 1982a; 1983; as cited in Williamson, 1991).

Family Triangulation indicates a relationship pattern among three people. The presence of triangulation also indicates a lack of self-differentiation within a family system. In a dyad relationship, two-person includes a third person to reduce the tension in their relationship through 'scapegoating' or 'odd man out' of the third person (Bray & Harvey, 1992; Kerr & Bowen, 1988).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, there are six sections. In the first section, four risk-involvement perspectives; which are problem behavior theory (PBT), developmental, decision-making, and personality-trait approaches are summarized. Second section covers two major examples of intergenerational family system theory: Bowen's intergenerational family systems theory and Williamson's personal authority in family system approach. In the third section, demographic variables of the study related to risk involvement are considered in the light of literature. In fourth, fifth and sixth sections, the concepts of the family triangulation, personal authority and intergenerational intimacy are also discussed and represented related to risk-involvement literature. In the final section, research on risk involvement in Turkey is presented.

2.1 Theories of Risk-taking

In this section, a summary of the major perspectives on risk taking and involvement is presented. These approaches are problem behavior theory (PBT), developmental, decision-making and personality-trait view.

2.1.1 Problem Behavior Theory

One of the distinctive theories on risk-involvement research is Problem Behavior Theory (PBT; Jessor & Jessor, 1977). In the definition of problem behavior, as indicated before, 'cultural norms' and a 'deviance' from social definitions (Jessor & Jessor 1977) are conceptualized.

PBT has several characteristics of environmental, developmental and cognitive aspects. For instance, from the cognitive aspects, risk involvement is viewed a set of perceptions, and values of adolescents about their environment and themselves (Alexander, Kim, Ensminger, Johnson, Smith, & Dolan, 1990). From the developmental aspect, risk-taking behaviors can be purposive, goal directed and functional as a part of developmental characteristics. Jessor, et al. (1991) also assumes that involvement in risky behaviors may be developed due to the environmental factors such as social context and socio-demographic structure. Another significant emphasis of PBT is on ‘proneness’ and individuals with risk involvement act in a particular manner of proneness. According to Jessor, et al. (1991) an indication for the probability of a problem behavior occurrence is called ‘proneness’.

Jessor et al., (1991) have claimed that in order to decide about a behavior as a problem behavior or not, an interaction between three major systems should be considered. These systems are ‘personality’, ‘perceived environment’, and ‘behavior’. In other words, these three major systems have an explanatory and an influential effect on the formation of a particular problem behavior. Besides, proneness is symbolized as a balance point between the psychological factors within systems that trigger the occurrence of a problem behavior and function as a protector against occurrence of a problem behavior.

Personality system is incorporated by three subsystem structures and each of them consist of several social-psychological variables; personal belief structure (social criticism, alienation, self-esteem and internal-external locus of control), personal control structure (attitudinal intolerance of deviance, religiosity and moral attitude) and motivational structure (achievement, independence, expectation for success and independence). Proneness in *personality system structure* is conceptualized with a decrease in self-esteem, success, religiosity and an increase in independence and tolerance for deviance.

Perceived environment system is incorporated by two constructs; distant structure (parental and friend controls, influence of friends and parents, perceived stress) and close structures (approval of problem behavior by friends, friends models for religiosity and problem behavior). Proneness in *perceived environment system* is conceptualized with less involvement in distal structure and higher involvement in proximal structure.

In the last part, *behavior system* refers to deviant behaviors from social and cultural norms are incorporated by two subsystems and each of them consists social behavior variables: problem behavior structure (alcohol use, substance use, smoking, general deviant behaviors), and conventional behavior structure (church attendance, health behavior). Proneness in the *behavior system* is conceptualized with less involvement in conventional behavior and more frequently involvement in problem behavior structure (Jessor et al., 1991).

In conclusion, problem behavior theory assumes that problem behaviors of delinquency, sexual risk behaviors, drug use, driving risk behaviors and many other risky behaviors are result of interactions between young adults and surrounding environment. According to the theory, young adults that engage in a type of risky behaviors are also more prone to exhibit other type of risky behaviors.

2.1.2 Developmental Approach

A large-body of research studies and approaches attempt to find out the main reasons of the engagement regarding to risk-related behaviors in emerging adulthood. In this vein, developmental view of risk-taking emphasizes a contextual framework. For instance, alcohol consumption in adolescence can be regarded as a more risk-related behavior than in emerging adulthood. In other words, because the developmental and contextual changes come into play, an inappropriate behavior of alcohol consumption for adolescence may become normative and a typical characteristic period of emerging adulthood. Smith,

Molina and Pelham (2002) suggest that alcohol consumption may be more significant to study as a risk factor in adolescence. In sum, from the developmental perspective risk-related behaviors cannot be considered without one's developmental context (Lerner & Tubman, 1991).

In developmental view, risk-related behaviors are considered as adaptive, typical and normative for a healthy psychological development (Baumrind, 1991). In a similar vein, Millstein and Igra (1995) do not prefer to label the all kinds of risky behaviors as 'bad'. Instead, they suggest that some of the risk-related behaviors may serve a very essential purpose of identity exploration as a developmental task. Baumrind (1991) consider these developmental tasks as autonomy and exploration.

Furthermore, Baumrind (1991) investigated the several family patterns as causal factor of adolescent's developmental competence and substance use engagement, and found that authoritarian families produced more significant results on protecting adolescent from substance use and supporting their developmental competence. Results also suggested that developmental and contextual factors should be considered under the same roof in risk involvement studies.

2.1.3 Decision Making Approach

Decision making perspective attempts to understand underlying factors of risk-related behaviors by focusing on cognitive processes. Contrary to other approaches, the most salient feature of this approach is concentrating on the reasons of risk-related behaviors. In decision making based studies, underlying cognitive processes that prompt individuals to involve in risky behavior take a predominant place (Shapiro, Siegel, Scovill, & Hays, 1998).

A remarkable integration of contextual perspective and decision making progress is explained within a systemic framework by Costanzo (1991). He assumed a two-dimensional social cognition system; the generative system and conservative system. The former one, indicate an emotional distance between the situational decision and the individual. Hence, this distance provides an evaluation of the decision situation by considering pros and cons. However, this system appears with the first time experiences or situations that never been encountered before. The latter one is conservative system and oppositely indicate an emotional closeness. In this system, decisions are made with a less consideration of costs and benefits but emotion-based and in a primitive manner. Most of risk-related situations and behaviors of adolescents take place within the conservative system (Costanzo, 1991).

The concepts of risk perception and perceived risk benefits related to decision making processes have been examined by a large body of the study. Results of those studies indicated that there was a significant negative relationship between risk perception and risk-related behaviors and a significant positive relationship with perceived benefits (Ben-Zur & Reshef-Kfir, 2003; Essau, 2004; Horvath & Zuckerman, 1992; Koçak, 2010; Parsons, Siegel, & Cousins, 1997). However, decision making approach considers only cognitive processes and may miss the remark on one's emotional motivations to involve in risky behaviors (Siegel et al., 1994).

In sum, despite the criticism that cognitive approach ignores the emotional motivations in risk involvement, studies which based on cognitive theories make significant contributions to risk-related literature by focusing on decision-making and underlying assumptions of decision making process of individuals.

2.1.4 Personality-Trait Approach

Personality-trait approach with its emphasis on the individual differences of personality characteristics is a distinguished approach to understand risk-related behaviors. Personality-traits; such as sensation-seeking and impulsivity are considered as specific characteristic of an individual in risk-involvement. Zuckerman (1994) emphasizes the relationship of sensation-seeking and risk-related behaviors and defines the term of sensation-seeking as “a trait defined by the seeking of varied, novel, complex, and intense sensations and experiences, and the willingness to take physical, social, legal, and financial risks for the sake of such experience.” (p.27)

A bulk of risk-related studies have highlighted the two major personality-traits -sensation-seeking and impulsivity - to be examined. However, there are studies suggest that personality-traits like impulsivity are complicated constructs and no personality-trait can explain impulsive and risky behavior by itself (Senhua, & Hengyi, 2013; Sihua, Korczykowski).

A similar suggestion is also made by Essau (2004) that conducting a study with a single personality-trait is not appropriate to reach extensive results with regards to individual differences so that he proposed the use of five-factor personality-trait model of Goldberg (1993). The model includes five main factors and each factor integrate with several traits as well: openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism and agreeableness.

In sum, majority of the studies based on personality-trait approach with regards to risk-involvement focus on personality variables of impulsivity, and sensation-seeking. Among several personality traits; impulsivity and sensation-seeking are far away the sharpest variables to be considered. On the other hand, because these traits represent complex structures, multifactorial studies of personality may produce more comprehensive results.

2.2 Theories of Intergenerational Family Systems

In this section, the major perspectives and constructs on intergenerational family systems are briefly represented. These are; Bowen's intergenerational family systems theory and Williamson's personal authority in family systems construct.

2.2.1 Bowen's Intergenerational Family Systems Theory (BIFST)

Bowen's Family Systems Theory (Bowen, 1978) is a well-known construct by therapists and researchers to explain family of origin issues. The family is considered as an emotional unit and therapists concentrate on the intergenerational interactions that were developed within family systems in order to deactivate the tension or anxiety. However, this tension emerged on the perceptions of overmuch closeness or distance among family members. In the situations of relationship dilemmas, if family members do not hold an ability to resist the emotional demands of significant others through their own acts and thoughts, a chronic anxiety and emotional reactivity become permanent with several symptoms. Thus, Bowenian therapy mostly focuses on increasing the self-differentiation levels of family members.

In this vein, despite the fact that theory consists of eight main concepts, self-differentiation is the skeleton for the Bowenian theory. The concept of self-differentiation refers to individuality and togetherness as biological life forces to become and sustain independent and dependent identities. Individuals are involved in both of these life forces through social groups, peers, significant others and families by struggling to maintain a dynamic equilibrium between these life forces. Therefore, an investment of life energy is expended by everyone on this equilibrium by reflecting this struggle in the domains of emotions, thoughts and actions. However, when the periods of anxiety and pressure come to play, a visible imbalance appears within a relationship system. Thus, differentiation of

self refers to that people differ greatly from each other regarding to what extent they invest or bound up their life energies in a relationship (Kerr & Bowen, 1988).

In practice, Bowen (1985) points out two dimensions of self-differentiation. Intrapsychic dimension emphasizes an ability of individual's awareness of difference on thoughts and feelings. Interpersonal dimension also emphasizes an ability of maintaining intimacy with significant others, while protecting personal autonomy with an 'I' position. On the other hand, a lack of self-differentiation fusion, triangulation and emotional cut-off are concerned within the family system. However, self-differentiated individuals at a high level are usually aware of their thoughts and feelings. Thus, in a time of crisis within family they do not stay under the influence of others' thoughts, feelings or discourses.

In this point, theory contextualizes the concept of the 'differentiation of self' from another significant concept called 'triangulation' because in the absence of differentiation of self, triangles mostly emerge. The term triangulation within a family system refers to a coalition-typed relationship form of three-persons. Crisis, anxiety or tension between two-people is expanded to the third-person (mostly least-differentiated family members, friends or relatives) to keep the relationship system stable. However; in triangles, crisis, anxiety or tension are mostly left unsettled. Children are often triangulated in a marital conflict of dyads within family system. The attempt to reduce the tension in a dyadic relationship by settling may cause an increase in children's level of anxiety and may result in developmentally internalized or externalized problems (Kerr & Bowen, 1988). Hence, the stress within the family system is encumbered onto other members and how these members handle this tension is the focus of Bowenian approach.

In an attempt to provide an empirical support for Bowen's concepts of self-differentiation, triangulation and fusion, Charles (2001) reviewed eight studies conducted on this topic in the last decade. The author claimed that results of those studies provided an empirical

support for the concepts of the theory. In addition, Miller, Anderson and Keala (2004) also reviewed the conducted studies in the past 15 years to examine the validity of Bowen's theory. They investigated the studies on the concepts of differentiation of self, triangulation, intergenerational transmission and sibling position. The authors asserted that there is a robust empirical evidence for the concept of self-differentiation in relation to anxiety, psychological adjustment and marital satisfaction.

In conclusion, Bowen's theory seems to provide a base to examine family of origin variables in the current study. The emotional unit view of family enables us to notice family members' attitudes, behaviors and interactions with each other within the family system. It was argued that high risk-involvements in adolescence are symptomatic results of unsettled relationship difficulties within a family system (Gilbert, 1999). More specifically, Bowen (1985) foregrounds the lack of self-differentiation within family system to explain high-risk involvements in adolescence. Furthermore, in spite of the fact that self-differentiation reflects western view of independence-related construct, the term can also represent a significant construct to explain psychological well-being in collectivist societies (Chung & Gale, 2006).

2.2.2 Personal Authority in Family Systems (PAFS)

As an extension of Bowen's self-differentiation concept; the construct of PAFS was developed by Williamson (1991) who put an excessive emphasis on the effort to build autonomy without giving up the family bond. Williamson (1991) argues that parents provide a stable environment, guiding, carrying and permanent security for their children. As children grown up they are expected to leave the demands of protection and supply from the parents. On the other hand, if parents keep on behaving as 'parents', grown up children also keep on behaving as 'children' in a continuum of intergenerational patterns of interactions. In order to break this continuum on behalf of achieving personal authority, building a psychological peer hood with parents and significant others are needed.

Concept of *personal authority* in PAFS indicates a set of abilities as Williamson (1991) summarized: (1) An ability to recognize, control or direct one's own opinion, belief or feeling without being prejudiced by social pressures and expectations of others including family members, parents, peers and significant others; (2) An ability to recognize and criticize one's own personal processes and responses related to own choices. However, performing and behaving on one's own good judgement is a *sine qua non*. (3) An ability to take the responsibility for one's own decisions and preferences related to experiences in life-cycle; (4) An ability of making conscious and voluntary choices to initiate, forgo or decline within a relationship while building psychological boundaries to the self, and (5) An ability of being in an equal and as *peers*- relationship with everyone else, without no matter who they are, including parents.

Similarly, *individuation* also indicates a set of abilities to act or function autonomously without being impaired from emotional demands and thoughts of significant others. Individuation refers to an opposite feeling of overwhelmed responsibility for significant others and being progressively differentiated from their relational context (Kerr & Bowen, 1988) such as nuclear family and family of origin contexts (Bray, 2004). In contrast with individuation; *emotional fusion* refers to a lack of autonomous functioning by interactions with significant others. Thus; fusion indicates a higher emotional reactivity level and a sense of responsibility for others or an irresponsibility act for self (Kerr & Bowen, 1988). On the other hand, *triangulation* (as previously defined) and fusion are not the same but reflect similar processes as both indicate a lack of differentiation (Bray, 2004).

Intimacy holds two main characteristics of 'voluntary closeness' and 'distinct boundaries to the self' (Williamson 1991). In case of closeness which is not voluntary and boundaries in relationships are not clear, fusion or isolation in a continuum appears as opposite sides of intimacy (Bray, 2004).

According to Williamson (1991) concept of *intergenerational intimidation* refers to hierarchical power boundaries between generations were rooted in the childhood dependency on the parents. Thus, the achievement of the personal authority requires the termination of intergenerational hierarchical boundaries and politics within a family system. Most of the individuals feel a need of personal authority during the adolescence and young adulthood. However, it is expected that individuals predominantly achieve the process through their ages from 30 to 45 (Bray, 2004).

As shown in Figure 1, constructs of PAFS generally are explained with opposite pole in a continuum line. For instance; in the first line, concepts of personal authority and emotional fusion are located in opposite polars of the continuum.

In the second line, concepts of personal authority and intimidation are also located at the ends of the continuum within two polar opposites. A presence of intergenerational intimidation points out a power hierarchy structure in a family system that indicates a lack of individuation and personal authority. In a general overview of the continuum line; a lack of personal authority, intergenerational intimacy and individuation reflect the presence of emotional fusion, intergenerational intimidation, triangulation and isolation.


Personal Authority		Emotional Fusion Intergenerational Intimidation Intergenerational Triangulation
Individuation		Emotional Fusion Intergenerational Intimidation Intergenerational Triangulation
Intergenerational Intimacy		Emotional Fusion Isolation

Figure 2.1. PAFS constructs in opposite poles of a continuum line

In sum, among several concepts of PAFS construct, two concepts of -personal authority and intergenerational intimacy- have been highly emphasized. However, as Bray (2004) argued, other constructs of PAFS (i.e. intergenerational triangulation, emotional fusion, intimidation and individuation) are also essential to gain certain abilities that provide a base for personal authority.

2.3 Research on Risk-Involvement and Demographic Variables

Regarding risk-involvement, with a few exceptions, majority of the studies investigated the demographic variables of gender and age. Moreover, sufficient empirical evidence has demonstrated that risk involvement and these two demographic variables are related. For instance, results of the studies on risky behaviors mostly indicated that male participants reported higher risk involvement than females. Likewise, an extensive meta-analysis of 150 studies related to gender differences in risk-involvement was conducted by Byrnes, Miller and Schafer (1999), and authors also reported that in general, men are more likely to involve in risky behaviors than women.

In an experimental study Charness and Gneezy (2012) aimed to explore the gender differences by using 15 sets of experiments with one underlying investment game. 186 participants were tournament bridge players and results revealed that women avoided risk-taking more than men. In a sample of 17-88 age ranged participants Turner and McClure (2003) studied the effects of age and gender with a sample of 689 participants on risk taking behaviors related to car accidents. Findings pointed out that males and in 17-29 of age group participants were at higher risk for car accidents.

Hayatbakhsh et al, (2012) conducted a study to examine relationship between demographic characteristics of 3512 young adults' gambling, substance use and mental health. Age range of the participants was between 18 and 24. According to results, males were significantly at higher risk of developing a gambling problem.

Although Grasmick, Hagan, Blackwell and Arneklev (1996) studied with adult sample, their results could be significant for the results of current study that males who were raised in a patriarchal family were more likely to get involved in risky behaviors than females. However, there was no such gender difference observed in less patriarchal families.

Wells, Kelly, Golub, Grov and Parsons (2010) investigated the association between sexual behaviors and alcohol consumption of 308 young adults at night clubs. Results revealed that young male adults reported more binge drinking and involved in sexual intercourse under its influence.

Research on risk-involvement and age mostly concentrates on adolescence and emerging adulthood period. To illustrate, Ravert and Gomez-Scott (2014) conducted a study to explore 233 emerging adults' personal philosophy on risk-involvement. Participants' ages ranged from 18 to 26. Results indicated that younger participants reported higher risk endorsement. From the problem behavior framework Jessor, Turbin and Costa (1997) also

pointed out a linear decline in risky driving behavior of young adult drivers as they studied the developmental change in risky driving from the ages 18 to 25. As indicated above, gender and age are robust variables to predict risk-related behaviors. Furthermore, being a male and young adult also seems robust evidences for risk-related studies. However, Gullone and Moore (2000) conducted a study to examine the relationship between risk taking and personality among adolescents. 459 participants were 11-18 years old, and data were gathered by Adolescent Risk Questionnaire (ARQ) Results indicated that older adolescents reported higher risk involvement frequencies.

In the literature, academic achievement has been cited as one of the significant predictors of risk-involvement. However, majority of the studies investigated the relationship between academic achievement and risk involvement in adolescent samples. For instance, Brook, Cohen and Kasen (1998) conducted a study with 452 adolescents to investigate the predictive power of school-related factors on later deviance. Researchers conducted two-separate sequential measurement of conduct problems and school factors within 2 years interval. Results of the study demonstrated that academic achievement was one of the distinctive preventive factors of school dropout, delinquency, use of alcohol and teenage pregnancy.

Knight (2014) also found out similar results in his study regarding the relationship between academic achievement and substance abuse. Results yielded that adolescents with high academic achievement reported a very rarely or never use of substance. Nevertheless, adolescents with low academic achievement reported a current or ever use of substance. Though limited, one of the studies with emerging adults produced similar results. Foster (2014) studied the relationship between sexual risk taking behaviors, academic achievement and transmitted diseases. The data were gathered by The National College Health Assessment-II. Results revealed that college students with high academic achievement reported less sexual risk involvement in comparison to college students with low academic achievement.

Empirical evidence related to parental education levels were not so in a large body of research. Ayvaşık and Sümer (2010) conducted a study with 781 Turkish college students to understand the individuality variables of illicit drug use. According to results one of the significant variables of the study to predict illicit drug use with a positive relationship was parental education level and especially mother's education level.

Karakaş (2006) also revealed a similar finding in her study with 854 adolescents that higher maternal education level predicted the alcohol use. Yet, there was no significant relationship between parental education level and smoking-behavior of adolescents. Findings of Öksüz and Malhan (2005) with 650 Turkish university students in investigation of socioeconomic factors and health-related risk behaviors indicated that there was a relationship between paternal education levels and young adult's increase of alcohol use. In addition, there were some others studies that only maternal education level was included to the analysis and found a significant positive relationship with risk-involvement (Uludağlı & Sayıl, 2009). Although maternal education level appears a more significant predictor than father education level, empirical evidence in literature seem inconsistent and therefore both levels of parental education level should be included into the risk-related studies.

Last demographic variable of the current study is number of siblings and related empirical evidence is so limited in the literature. Ayvaşık and Sümer (2010) examined also the number of siblings in addition to other variables and findings revealed that adolescents with less siblings appeared more at-risk involvement than adolescents with more siblings.

Finally, Aras, Günay, Özan and Orçın (2007) conducted a study with 861 Turkish adolescents to understand the role of environmental factors related to delinquency behaviors. The data were gathered by using Delinquent Behavior Scale. Findings revealed that adolescents who reported low academic achievement, high father education level and

fewer siblings reported higher delinquent behaviors as well. Males reported higher rates of risky and delinquent behaviors than females.

In sum, risky behavior-related literature ascertains that gender, age and academic achievement (i.e. grade point average-GPA) are most predictive, consistent and salient variables. More specifically, males are more prone to be involved in risky behaviors than females in both adolescence and emerging adulthood. However, in terms of age and academic achievement, a negative correlation appears; as age increases risk-involvement tends to decrease. Similarly, as academic achievement increases, probability of involvement in risky behaviors decreases. On the other hand, empirical evidence related to parental educational level and number of siblings is so limited and inconsistent that it needs further attention.

2.4 Research on Risk Involvement and Family Triangulation

Family Triangulation is an important characteristics to be considered in the intergenerational family relational interactions. In the literature, family triangulation concept has been studied over the last decades and the terms such as family emotional alliances (Kissee, Murphy, Bonner, & Murley, 2000), coalitions (Grusky, Bonacich, & Webster, 1995) family triads (Szabó, Dubas, & Aken, 2014), boundary violations (Perrin, 2012; Taffel, 1996) and being ‘caught in the middle’ (Nebus, 1998) have been used interchangeably. However, the link between triangulation and the risk taking behaviors of emerging adults has not been clearly documented yet.

Family triangulation have mostly been studied in relation to externalizing and internalizing problem behaviors of adolescence (Amato & Afifi, 2006; Franck, & Buehler, 2007; Grych, Raynor, & Fosco, 2004; Miller, Benson, & Galbraith, 2001); family stress and marital quality (Whitehead, 2009), adolescents’ general health (Fleming & Anderson, 1986; O-Yang & Wu, 2012), and romantic relationship avoidance (Devaux, 2004). For

instance; Etkin, Koss, Davies (2013) emphasized the role of triangulation and maternal and paternal warmth on externalizing problems among adolescents. They gathered the data from 361 families by using Children's Perceptions of Interparental Conflict scale, Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire and Child Behavior Checklist. Results indicated the significance of family context and the role of family triangulation in adolescence period. Furthermore, a bulk of studies demonstrated that children in a triangulation process exhibit internalizing symptoms of low self-esteem, anxiety, self-harm, depression and substance misuse (Davies, Harold, Goeke-Morey, & Cummings, 2002).

The cumulative research on triangulation indicated that children in triangulation process generally use two forms of strategies. One of them is keeping away from parents' fighting and debate by running away from home, staying outside the home as much as possible or emotional cut-off. Another strategy is divulging of externalizing problem behaviors to intervene in the parents' relationship mostly by becoming aggressive and getting into trouble. As a result of the process, child's troubled behaviors attract attention rather than marital conflict of parents (Dallos & Vetere, 2012). Thus, in the light of research evidence, it is not so hard to predict that children in triangulation processes may engage in risky behaviors.

In one of the most precise studies to understand the relationship between the triangulation process and risky behaviors, Pinheiro et al., (2006) investigated the effect of family triangulation process on cocaine addiction in Brazil. They compared 67 families with a cocaine addicted son and 67 families without an addicted member. They gathered data by using Personal Authority in the Family System Questionnaire and results yielded that families with a cocaine addicted son presented more family triangulation structure than the control sample.

Maladaptive eating behaviors can be defined as a risky behavior related to health as well. Eme and Danielak (1995) compared the perceptions of 22 families with maladaptive eating behaviors and 88 families without maladaptive eating behaviors. They gathered data by using nine subscales of Parent-Adolescent Relationship Questionnaire (PARQ) including triangulation subscale. The results revealed that families with maladaptive eating behaviors reported more triangulation involvement than families without maladaptive eating behaviors.

The investigation of the relationship between family triangulation and the substance abuse has an important place in the literature. West, Hosie and Zarski (1987) conducted a preliminary study on substance use and family dynamics of 35 families with a 13-25 aged offspring abuser. They gathered the data by using Kvebaek Family Sculpture Technique (KFST). The scale provided information about the triangulation, distance and closeness among family members. Study indicated interesting findings, for instance; a desire for a closer relationship than present was reported by the family members. However, most of the families also reported a desire for triangulation and hierarchical reversal between parents and children. In the end of the study, authors suggested that study topic can be extended by using other scales in the family therapy such as Personal Authority in Family System Questionnaire (PAFS).

In addition, Goldman (1993) conducted an experimental study to investigate intergenerational family functioning in relation to substance use. The researcher compared differences of twenty-five families with a substance abuser member who received a drug treatment program. On the other hand, control group was formed with twenty-five families with no substance abuser member and no one received any treatment program. The data were gathered by using PAFS from the participants between the ages of 18 to 32. Findings revealed that participants in treatment group reported lower scores of intimacy with their

parents, lower individuation and higher scores of emotional fusion and triangulation than control group.

In literature, contrary findings are barely encountered. O-Yang and Wu (2012) developed a casual model to explain the adolescent's general health by each parent's self-differentiation levels. Self-differentiation was chosen as mediator role and family triangulation was chosen as moderator variable. They gathered the data by using Differentiation of Self Inventory (DSI), The Family Triangulation Inventory (FTI) and The General Health Questionnaire. Fathers, mothers and children completed the scales separately. Results indicated a positive effect of parent's self-differentiation on adolescent's self-differentiation and adolescent's self-differentiation on adolescent's general health. However, the moderator effect of family triangulation was not supported in the study. The results of the study should be interpreted carefully because the context of that study, which is conducted in an eastern culture of China is different from western culture.

In brief, the current body of research which focuses on the relationship between family triangulation and risk-related behaviors are so limited; however, indicates a predictive relationship. As previously indicated, a lack of personal authority, self-differentiation and individuation may reflect the presence of triangulation within a family system. For that reason, risk-taking literature related to above mentioned variables of family-of-origin –in the next topic- can also be taken into consideration, when the relationship between family triangulation and risk-related behaviors is examined.

2.5 Research on Risk Involvement and Personal Authority and Intergenerational Intimacy

Personal Authority is defined by Williamson (1991) as an ability to be in charge of one's feelings, thoughts, decisions and actions which refers to characteristics of an autonomous self. In addition, it is a synthesis of self-differentiation and intergenerational intimacy concepts (Williamson, 1982a as cited in Williamson, 1991). Individuation is also one of the salient concepts of PAFS construct (Bray, 2004).

As previously indicated, Kerr and Bowen (1988) oppose the use of 'individuation' and 'self-differentiation' interchangeably; individuation refers to self-differentiation characteristics as well. By the congruence among the concepts specified above into consideration, to widen the literature review, studies on differentiation of self, individuation, and autonomy related to risky behaviors are included in the literature review. In the literature, concepts of personal authority, individuation and intimacy have been studied concomitantly. Therefore, literature review on these concepts is presented under the same topic related to risk involvement.

Risk-involvement studies related to concepts of personal authority, intimacy, self-differentiation and autonomy are mostly clustered on the topics of substance use. For instance; Martyn, Loveland-Cherry, Villarruel, Cabriaes, Ronis, Eakin and Yan (2009) conducted a study to emphasize the effect of emotional family intimacy on risk-taking behaviors of alcohol use among Mexican adolescents. They gathered the data from 829 adolescents aged between 14-17 years, and results indicated a strong relationship between family intimacy and alcohol use. As a result, authors suggested that alcohol use prevention programs should focus on family intimacy and parent-adolescent communication with adolescents.

In another study, Grand (1995) tested the hypothesis of parental alcohol use and intergenerational intimacy, sensation seeking and peer intimacy with 282 college students. Data were gathered by PAFS, Sensation Seeking Test, Michigan Alcoholism Screening Test, Drug Abuse Screening Test and Children of Alcoholics Screening Test. One of the findings related to intergenerational intimacy revealed that offspring with alcoholic parents indicated less intimacy and satisfaction scores. In the light of analysis, the researcher suggested that offsprings with alcoholic parents are more at risk of drug and alcohol abuse in a college sample.

Searight, et al. (1991) compared the Family-of-Origin scale scores of a clinical and a non-clinical sample of 40 adolescents (substance abuser) in terms of perceived autonomy and intimacy. Results indicated a significant difference between the groups, which clarified that families of substance abusers' have difficulty in retaining the balance between emotional connectedness (i.e. intergenerational intimacy) and individuality.

Furthermore, Machamer and Gruber (1998) investigated the relationship of emotional connectedness and risk-taking behaviors in a sample of 600 adolescents. Data were gathered by an anonymous self-report questionnaire. Findings revealed that a report of weakness in emotional connectedness predicted the increase in risk involvement of getting and consuming alcohol and drug in school settings.

Risk-involvement studies related to the concepts of personal authority, intimacy, self-differentiation and autonomy are also clustered intensely on the topic of sexual risk-related behaviors. For instance; Tuttle, Landau, Stanton, King and Frodi (2004) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between intergenerational family process and sexual risk behavior of adolescents. The data were gathered from 42 female sample aged 16 to 25 years and their extended families by interviewing for intergenerational transmission process. Individuation was measured by Individuation Subscale of Personal Authority in

the Family System Questionnaire. Results indicated that females who perceived their attachment with older generations in a stronger and more flexible way were more prone to be individuated and present less risky sexual behaviors compared with non-individuated females.

Turner, Irwin, Tschann and Millstein (1993) also conducted a study to investigate the relationship between family processes and initiative health-related risky behaviors in early adolescence. They gathered the data from 189 middle school students. Results indicated that adolescents who are supported by parents to be more autonomous reported lower sexual intercourse initiation. However, emotionally detached adolescents from parents reported higher substance use and received less cohesion and acceptance from their families.

In another study, Riley (2012) conducted a study to explore the role of parental autonomy on 310 late adolescents' sexual risk behavior and adolescents' motivation of autonomy. Results indicated a significant contribution of parents to late adolescent's motivation of autonomy and keeping away from risky sexual behaviors.

In the next study, Knauth, Skowron, & Escobar (2006) investigated the role of self-differentiation, chronic anxiety and social problem solving on sexual risk-taking behaviors, drug use and academic engagement of adolescents. They gathered the data from 161 high school students aged 14 to 19 years by using Differentiation of Self Inventory, Sexual Behavior Questionnaire, and Social Problem Solving for Adolescents, Drug Involvement Scale for Adolescents and the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory. Results indicated that differentiation of self was the strongest predictor for less health related risk-taking behaviors.

Miller, Benson and Galbraith (2001) reviewed a synthesis of the two-decade studies on family issues and pregnancy risk for adolescents. The researchers suggested that most of the studies consistently indicate the effect of emotional connectedness and closeness with several parental attitudes on decreasing pregnancy risk in adolescence.

Peer influence is one of the environmental factors that are related to risk-taking behaviors during the adolescence and young adulthood (Reynolds et al, 2010), and peer influence susceptibility is also linked to risk involvement of substance and alcohol consumption among youth (Abbey, Jacques, Hayman, & Sobeck, 2006).

Chan and Chan (2013) examined the relationship of adolescents' sensitivity to peer pressure and their emotional autonomy as a mediator variable. Data were gathered by 550 Hong Kong secondary school students by using Susceptibility to Peer Pressure (SPP), and Emotional Autonomy from Parents (EAP) instruments. Results yielded that emotional autonomy of adolescents mediated the relationship of susceptibility to peer pressure and maternal warmth.

Although the literature mostly presents consistent empirical evidence for intergenerational family concepts, there are also some studies with contrary findings. For instance; the concept of emotional cut-off that refers to lack of self-differentiation was examined in an exploratory study by comparing clinical (receiving a treatment program) and non-clinical samples of 168 women substance users with regard to emotional cut-off with individual, psychological, familial and marital variables (Bell, 2000). One of the instruments of the study was Health style Questionnaire which includes risk-taking behaviors of cigarette smoking, alcohol and drug use as well. Results pointed out that the clinical sample reported higher emotional cut-off. There was also a significant positive relationship between substance use characteristics and emotional cut-off with several variables. In

addition, there was a significantly negative relationship between emotional cut-off and substance use rejection.

Houdek (2013) conducted a further analysis on the data that was obtained in Toledo Adolescent Relationship Study from 1316 adolescents. The researcher explored the relationship between fusion, which refers to lack of personal authority and sexual risk-taking behaviors of adolescents. Findings revealed unforeseen results that indicate a negative but significant correlation between the fusion and sexual risk taking of adolescents.

In another study, McFarland (1997) conducted an experimental study to investigate the role of a family treatment on differentiation of self, personal authority and health risk behaviors of fifty adolescents mothers aged between 14 and 18. The experimental group of adolescent mothers received an eight-week treatment. Data were gathered by using Personal Authority in Family System Questionnaire (PAFS-C), High School Health Risk Inventory (HSHRI), and Level of Differentiation of Self Scale (LDSS). Results failed to support the hypothesis that a significant difference exists between post-test scores of experimental and control groups.

Molina (2000) compared groups of 108 adults who were raised by alcoholic parents and non-alcoholic parents on intimacy and attachment to significant relationships. Data were gathered by using Children of Alcoholics Screening Test (CAST), PAFS-Q, Miller Social Intimacy Scale, Adult Attachment Scale, and Personal History Questionnaire. The hypothesis regarding differences between groups was not supported and no difference was found between groups on intergenerational intimacy. The researcher suggested that possible mediator variables should be included in the future studies to interpret the results more definitely. Moreover, the author claimed that contrary findings should be explained

by the limitations of the study (lack of time or instrument) rather than applicability of the concepts.

As an opposite characteristic of intimacy, intergenerational conflict is also a salient predictor for risky and problem behaviors. For this purpose, Lee (2004) examined the relationship of intergenerational conflict with two-facet; acculturative and indigenous conflict as a part of developmental process and problem behaviors among adolescents. The data were gathered by Intergenerational Conflict Development Scale (ICD) and The Behavioral Problem Scale (BPS). Findings indicated that there was a significant correlation between problem behaviors of adolescents and both-facet of intergenerational conflict.

Kennison and Ponce-Garcia (2012) conducted a study to explore whether a positive and close relationship with parents during childhood affect the current risk-involvement in young adulthood. The data were obtained from 473 young adults by using questions from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention State and Youth Risk Behavior Survey (YRBS). Results confirmed the hypothesis that positive and close relationships with parents during childhood was associated with less likely risk involvement in young adulthood.

In this section, a literature review of personal authority, self-differentiation, individuation and intergenerational intimacy variables related to risk-involvement were presented concomitantly. The current body of research which focuses on the relationship between family of origin variables and risk-related behaviors indicate a predictive, consistent and salient relationship. However, a considerable amount of the studies investigated the role of family-of-origin variables on substance abuse and sexual risk taking behaviors of adolescents and young adults. These studies were mainly experimental and compared the pretest and posttest results of clinical and non-clinical samples. On the other hand, there

are also contrary findings in the literature indicated that family-of-origin variables were not predictive. Researchers concluded that statistically non-significant results were mostly due to the limitations of the studies.

2.6 Research on Risk Involvement in Turkey

Risk-taking behaviors of adolescents and emerging adults has become an increasingly concerned subject in Turkish literature. However, studies conducted on specific types of risk-taking behaviors are limited in number in comparison to studies in western cultures. Turkish researchers preferred to address the issue under an umbrella term which is 'risk-taking behaviors' and attempted to explain predictors of risk taking behaviors of early and late adolescents by using variety of personality, familial, and demographic variables. On the other hand, none of the empirical studies on risk-taking behaviors indicate the role of family-of-origin variables.

Most frequently, conducted studies were related to health risk-taking behaviors among adolescents and young adults. For instance; Öksüz and Malhan (2005) indicated the importance of socioeconomic factors with regard to health-related risk taking. The data were gathered by using Health Risk Behaviors Questionnaire from 650 university students. The researchers underlined the result of low socioeconomic level that predicts the health risk behaviors among university students. However, alcohol use was only related to high socioeconomic level.

In another study, Yorulmaz, Aktürk, Dağdeviren and Dalkılıç (2002) studied smoking as a kind of risk-taking behavior among adolescents. They examined the role of school success, socioeconomic status, nutrition, and self-esteem on smoking behaviors of adolescents. They collected data from 883 middle and high school students by using a self-report questionnaire. Results demonstrated that gender and age were important

variables that predict smoking behaviors. Additionally, male adolescents exhibited more frequent smoking behaviors than female adolescents.

Güngör, Rathfisch, Beji, Yarar and Karamanoğlu (2013) examined university students' health risk behaviors of sexual productivity and beliefs of fertility. They obtained data from 1030 undergraduate students. Results of the study showed that Turkish adolescents had no sufficient knowledge of reproductive health which may affect their risk-taking behaviors.

Demographic variables gender and age are also significant predictors for risk-related behaviors in related literature in Turkey. Bayar and Sayıl (2005) investigated the gender and age in relation to risk-taking behaviors of 280 Turkish adolescents aged 12 to 21. Data were gathered by self-report risk-taking scale and results emphasized that risk-taking behaviors of adolescents depend on age and gender and male adolescents are engaged in more risk-taking behaviors than female adolescents. Gender is again a strong predictive variable of risk-related behaviors. This result is consistent with the international literature. Almost all of the studies indicate that males report higher risk involvement frequencies than females.

There are also very specific risk-related studies in the literature such as self-mutilation rates among Turkish culture (Aktepe, 2011; Serim, Taş, & Güvenir, 2009) and internet or online risk taking behaviors. Odacı (2013) investigated the role of risk-taking behavior and academic self-efficacy on problematic internet use of university students. Data were obtained from 556 university students by using the Problematic Internet Use Scale, The Adolescent Risk-Taking Questionnaire, The Academic Self-Efficacy Scale, and Personal Information Form. Results revealed that self-efficacy and risk taking behaviors significantly predicted problematic internet use behaviors. In terms of gender, male adolescents exhibited more problematic internet use behaviors than female adolescents.

Studies with regard to self-esteem, identity status and developments have also been increasing as well. For instance, Morsümbül (2013) conducted a study to predict the effect of adolescents' identity status and gender on risk-taking behaviors. Data were obtained by using the EOM-EIS (Extended Version of Objective Measure of Ego Identity) and the Risk Taking Scale (RTS) from 315 college students. Results indicated that identity status (achievement, foreclosure, moratorium, diffusion) and gender are important variables to predict risk-taking behaviors of adolescents'.

In another study, Ayvaşık and Sümer (2010) explored the individual differences as predictors of illicit drug use. Data were obtained from 781 university students by using a survey. Gender and age were again found as important variables to predict the risk-taking behaviors. Male students were more prone to be addicted to drug abuse in earlier ages than female students; however, gender differences seemed to disappear during late adolescence. Results also emphasized that there were significant relationships among smoking, alcohol use frequency, mother's educational level, sensation seeking, risk taking tendency and drug use among university students.

Geçkil and Dündar (2011) examined self-esteem variable in predicting Turkish adolescents' health risk behaviors. They gathered the data from 1361 adolescents by using Health Risk Behaviors Scale and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. The researchers found significant relationships among variables age, grade, gender, self-esteem, school performance and health risk behaviors.

Variables with regard to family and peers are also significant topics to understand risk-related behaviors. For instance, Esen Kiran (2005) examined the relationships among peer pressure, age, achievement and risk taking behaviors of adolescents aged 15-18. The participants were 684 high school students. Peer Pressure Scale and Risk Taking Behavior Scale were used to obtain data. Results demonstrated that all of the variables in that study

significantly predicted the risk-taking behaviors of adolescents. More successful students according to their academic grades represented less risk-taking behaviors and adolescents with more peer pressure were engaged in more risk-taking behaviors. In addition, late adolescents demonstrated less risk-taking behaviors.

In another study, Uludağlı and Sayıl (2009) investigated the role of parents, peers, age and gender on aggressive behaviors of 429 high school and university students by using risk taking scale, adolescent family process measure, parental management of peers inventory, friendship qualities scale, aggressive and prosocial behavior questionnaire and aggression scale. In accordance with other studies, male adolescents demonstrated higher frequency of risk-taking behaviors compared to female adolescents on all grade levels. Another remarkable finding indicated that there was a negative relationship between positive parental management strategies, peer management strategies and risk-taking behaviors of adolescents.

In terms of personality-trait variables, Özmen and Sümer (2011) studied the relationships between risk-taking behaviors, sensation-seeking, locus of control, age and gender. Data were gathered from 867 high school students by using The Risk Involvement Questionnaire, Arnett Inventory of Sensation-Seeking, Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale and Rotter Internal–External Locus of Control Scale. They found that gender, locus of control, sensation seeking and age were variables that predict risk-taking behaviors. Male adolescents, older adolescents, high sensation seekers and adolescents with external locus of control were involved in risk-taking behaviors more frequently.

Karaman (2013) conducted a study that was based on problem behavior theory. The author investigated the effects of personality characteristics (stress, depression, self-esteem, and alienation) and environment (conditions of living environment, relationships with parents, and attitudes of friends) on problem behaviors associated with risk-taking. The data were

gathered from 2834 adolescents aged 15 – 18 in Ankara, Sivas and Muğla by using personal data form and the adolescent health and development questionnaire. Results emphasized that risk factors were positively associated with problem behaviors. They also found a positive correlation between risk-taking and probability of exhibiting problem behaviors.

Finally, Atak (2011) explored the predictors of smoking in emerging adulthood and examined the relationships between smoking, life satisfaction and subjective well-being. Data were gathered from 222 emerging adults by using Ego Identity Status, Multi-Measure Agentic Personality Scale, Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, Satisfaction with Life Scale and Positive and Negative Affect Scale. Results revealed significant negative relationships between smoking and interpersonal achievement identity status, individuation, self-identification and self-esteem. Emerging adults with smoker parents reported higher smoking frequencies. Hence, the results of the study seem relevant to current study in terms of drawing attention to personal authority (i.e. interpersonal achievement identity status), family of origin and intergenerational family transmission notions.

As indicated previously, Turkish literature on risk-involvement has mostly focused on demographic, environmental and personality variables to explain risk-related behaviors of adolescents and young adults. More specifically, demographic variables gender and age are the strongest variables to predict the risk-taking behaviors in Turkey, which is consistent with the intergenerational literature as well. In other words, males and younger emerging adults are more likely to get involved in risky behaviors. Environmental variables (i.e. relationships with parents, parental control, attitudes of friends and peer pressure) and personality-trait variables (i.e. sensation-seeking, self-esteem, locus of control, identity status) also indicate consistent results. In Turkey, a considerable amount

of the studies focus on substance abuse (i.e. drug use, alcohol and smoking) and sexual risk taking behaviors of adolescents and young adults.

2.7 Summary of the Literature Review

In general, theories of risk-taking suggest that several variables such as personality-trait, decision-making, environmental and developmental aspects are significant predictors of risk-taking behaviors. In addition, some of the demographic variables such as gender and age are also significant predictors.

Literature on the relationship between risk-taking and family-of-origin variables is limited and still growing. However, it seems that family-of-origin variables play an important role in explaining risk-related behaviors of adolescents and young adults. These variables have a potential to affect family members' experiences of risk-involvement. Despite the fact that there are few contrary findings, in general, higher levels of intergenerational triangulation predict the risk-taking behaviors positively. But higher level of personal authority, intergenerational intimacy and self-differentiation predict the risk-taking behaviors negatively. On the other hand, as Arnett (1995) argued that broad socialization cultures provide more flexibility for risk-taking behaviors, higher level of personal autonomy may lead to an increase in frequencies of risk-related behaviors as well. Therefore, in this present study the role of family-of-origin variables was emphasized after controlling for demographic variables.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This chapter gives an introduction of the study in details. First of all, research design, sampling procedure and demographic characteristics of the study were discussed. In addition, relevant information was presented through data collection instruments, data collection procedure, and description of variables and data analyses. Finally, limitations of the study were presented briefly.

3.1 Research Design

The purpose of the study was to investigate the role of particular demographic variables and intergenerational family system characteristics of Turkish emerging adults on risk-taking behaviors. More specifically, the role of gender, age, GPA, number of siblings, parental educational level, personal authority, intergenerational intimacy and family triangulation in predicting the low and high risk involvement frequencies of Turkish emerging adults was examined. Thus, design of the study was correlational. Correlational research design is one of the quantitative research methods that provides to analyze a relationship between two or more than two variables and to see the degree of relationships among these variables without manipulating them (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012).

In the current study, criterion variable was risk involvement scores with two levels; high-risk involvement frequencies and low-risk involvement frequencies. Predictor variables of the study were gender, age, GPA, number of siblings, parents' educational levels, family triangulation scores, personal authority scores and intergenerational intimacy scores with two levels; father and mother intimacy scores.

Demographic data were gathered by using Personal Information Form. Personal authority, intergenerational intimacy and family triangulation scores were gathered by using subscales of intergenerational mother and father intimacy, triangulation and personal authority of Personal Authority in Family System (PAFS-College Version; Bray & Harvey, 1992). In addition, low and high level risk involvement scores were gathered by using Risk Involvement subscale of Modified Risk Involvement and Perception Scale (M-RIPS; Siegel et al., 1994). Data were collected by two ways: paper-pencil survey and online survey. Instruments were filled out by 575 emerging adults aged between 18 and 26 years. Descriptive statistics and two-separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses for low risk and high risk involvement were conducted to analyze the data.

3.2 Sampling Procedure and Participants

The target population of the study was Turkish emerging adults between the ages of 18-26 in Ankara. Arnett (2000, 2004) claims that emerging adulthood period covers the ages between 18 and 25. However, Atak and Çok (2010) argued that the same period for Turkish population contains the ages between 19 and 26. Accordingly, in this study, age range was limited to 18-26 years.

Since the target population of the study emerging adults, accessible population mostly was undergraduate and graduate students enrolled in the state universities in Ankara. Based on the age criterion (18-26 years), the participants were recruited from two state universities in Ankara by using convenience sampling procedure. Majority of the paper-pencil survey participants were from education faculties of those universities. However, due to lack of enough time for paper-pencil survey in other universities, online data collection was also used as a collateral data collection method. In addition, since the sampling was based on the age criterion, researcher was aimed to reach non-student emerging adults. Online survey was prepared by using google documents for surveys and announced via social media groups, which are related to emerging adults and college students in Ankara. On

the other hand, since the participation criterion was based on age, online participants were not asked to respond to questions regarding their university enrollments. Online data and paper-pencil survey data were compared according to participants' risk related behavior (i.e. having sex, smoke hash) responses, and no differences were observed. Participants of the online data collection were asked to respond to the additional question "the city where they live", in the personal information form. The total 575 emerging adults were recruited in this study. Of the participants 286 were included in the study by online data collection. After data cleaning process completed, forty participants were excluded from the study due to missing variables. Finally, 535 participants constituted the sample of the main study.

3.2.1 Demographic Characteristic of the Participants

As seen in Table 3.1, of the 535 participants, the majority were female. 429 participants (80.2%) were female and 106 (19.8%) of them were male. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 26 with a mean of 21.10 years ($SD = 2.27$). Considerable majority of age variable accumulated within 19 ($n = 111$; 20.7%) and 20 ($n = 116$; 21.7%) years.

When the participants' mother educational levels examined, considerable majority of them were primary school graduates ($n = 188$; 35.1%). On the other hand, few of them were illiterate ($n = 19$; 3.6%) or literate ($n = 21$; 3.9%) with formal educational experiences. Similarly, when the participants' father educational levels examined, considerable majority of them were undergraduates and graduates ($n = 172$; 32.1%). On the other hand, few of them were illiterate ($n = 4$; 0.7%) or literate ($n = 5$; 0.9%).

When the participants were grouped according to grade point average (GPA), considerable majority of scores accumulated within 3.00 – 4.00 ($n = 374$; 69.9%). On the other hand, few participants' scores accumulated within 1.00 – 1.99 group ($n = 13$; 2.4%). In terms of

number of siblings, majority of the participants had one sibling ($n = 235$; 43.9%). Only 9% ($n = 48$) of the participants had no sibling.

Table 3.1

Demographic Characteristics of the Study Participants (N = 535)

Variables		<i>n</i>	%
Gender	Female	429	80.2
	Male	106	19.8
Age	18	42	7.9
	19	111	20.7
	20	116	21.7
	21	77	14.4
	22	56	10.5
	23	39	7.3
	24	30	5.6
	25	29	5.4
GPA	26	35	6.5
	1.00-1.99	13	2.4
	2.00-2.99	148	27.7
	3.00-4.00	374	69.9
	Illiterate	19	3.6
	Literate	21	3.9
Mother	Primary School	188	35.1
Educational Level	Secondary School	68	12.7
	High School	138	25.8
	Undergraduate/Graduate	101	18.9

Table 3.1. (continued)

Variables		<i>n</i>	%
	Illiterate	4	0.7
	Literate	5	0.9
Father Educational Level	Primary School	132	24.7
	Secondary School	64	12
	High School	158	29.5
	Undergraduate/Graduate	172	32.1
Number of siblings	No sibling	48	9
	1	235	43.9
	2	147	27.5
	3 and more sibling	105	19.6

3.3 Data Collection Instruments

In order to obtain data, three instruments were used: Modified Risk Involvement Scale (M-RIPS; Siegel et al., 1994), Personal Authority in Family System Questionnaire-Young Adult Version (PAFSQ-VC; Bray & Harvey, 1992) and Personal Information Form. In the next section, the psychometric characteristics of the instruments were represented in detail.

3.3.1 Modified Risk Involvement and Perception Scale (M-RIPS)

The scale was developed by Siegel et al. (1994). M-RIPS contains 18 items in each four subscales to quantify the frequency of risk-taking involvement, intentions on behaviors, perceived risk and perceived benefit (See Appendix A). Parsons, Siegel, and Cousin (1997) revised the scale and eliminated one of the items (driving car) from the RIPS's subscales. Thus, in the revised measure, each subscale consists of 17 items.

The original scale has a 9-point Likert type gives a maximum score of 153 and a minimum score of 17. Higher scores on the subscales indicate a high risk and frequent risk-involvement. In the current study, only the involvement subscale of M-RIPS that was adapted into Turkish by Özmen (2006) was used to measure the participants' risk-taking behaviors.

Items in involvement subscale with 17 items aim to measure the frequency of risk-taking behaviors in the last three months. In involvement subscale items ranged from “never” to “daily”. In the original study, Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for involvement subscale was .72 and test-retest reliability coefficients for involvement was .86 (Parsons, Siegal, & Cousin 1997; Siegel et al., 1994). During the adaptation process of Turkish M-RIPS Involvement subscale, Özmen (2006) modified the scale by combining two different versions of RIPS with 17 items and 15 items, and examined the psychometric properties with a sample of high school students. The author found two-factor solution with 23-items that explained the 39.73% of the total variance. Two-factor solution represented low risk involvement and high risk involvement. Modified risk-involvement subscale in Turkish adolescent sample demonstrated an acceptable internal consistency. Cronbach Alpha coefficients was .86 for overall, .86 for low-risk involvement and .79 for high-risk involvement. Koçak (2010) also examined the psychometric properties of the M-RIPS involvement subscale with university students and found acceptable Cronbach Alpha coefficient of .83. for total scale.

In the current study, to explore factor structure of the Turkish version of M-RIPS-Involvement subscale, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted with the main sample data. Before conducting exploratory factor analysis (EFA), assumptions of metric variables, correlations above .30, Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO), Barlett's Test of Sphericity (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010) were examined. It is better to have a sample size

with 10:1 ratio (Hair, et al. 2010). Since the sample size was 535 participants in the main study and the scale consists of 32 items, sample size was within the 10:1 ratio.

In terms of metric variables, risk-involvement is a continuous variable and the scores obtained from the 9-point scale. Barlett's Test of Sphericity result represented the difference between the correlation matrix and identity matrix, was significant with the value of ($\chi^2 (105) = 3174.46, p < .05$). KMO value was .79 and supported the sample adequacy. Assumption of above .30 correlations was controlled. Results indicated that there were no correlated items with the values below .30 and above .90. However, assumption of absence of outliers were not examined because of risk involvement subscale's openness to outliers. Outliers were expected with items such like "Having sex", "Having sex without using condom", "drunk driving", "Smoking marijuana", "Taking cocaine" etc. Assumption of multivariate normality was examined through Mardia's test and results indicated a significant result, $p < .005$ and multivariate normality was violated.

For that reason, principal axis factoring with oblique rotation was conducted. According to EFA results, nine factors had eigenvalues greater than one, and accounted for 60, 3% of the variance. Examination of the scree plot demonstrated a substantial break after two factors, which accounted for 28.6% of the variance. After examination of pattern matrices, 15 items were found to have poor or dual factor loadings $< .35$ and these items were deleted. As can be seen in Table 3.2, the most appropriate solution suggested a 17-item with two-factor model. The total variance explained by the two factors was 40.45%. Factor loadings ranged from .36 to .71. Cronbach alpha coefficient was found .79 for low-risk involvement, .73 for high-risk involvement and .81 for the total.

In the current study, low-risk involvement items were consistent with the Özmen's study. However, items of high-risk involvement factor were not consistent with Özmen's study. For instance, item1 "Having sex" and item14 "having sex without using condom", item

25“Car racing” did not load on either factors in Özmen’s study. For the current study, these items loaded on high-risk involvement factor. In addition, item5 “Taking speed”, item7 “Driving a car” and item8 “Smoking” loaded on the low-risk involvement in Özmen’s study. On the contrary, these items loaded on the high-risk involvement factor in the present study.

Several explanations for the different structure of the high-risk involvement subscale can be claimed. For instance, during the college years, emerging adults reach to the age of legal majority and leave the adolescence behind. Additionally, with the change of their living context, emerging adults gain more opportunity to reach sexual activities, substance use, driving car etc. more easily. As a result of easy access, frequency of involvement may increase and low-risk involvement may become high-risk involvement in their life. This solution also appears to be consistent with the Problem Behavior Theory as well.

Furthermore, risk-involvement behaviors may signify a variance from adolescence to late adolescence. For both period, sexual relationship behaviors include risk. However, while having sexual relationship during the adolescence is considered as intolerable, in the emerging adulthood, it can be considered as quite tolerable regarding to social norms (Parsons et al., 1997). Similarly, items were also indicating a campus living conditions and academic situations such as item30 “hitchhiking”, item29 “accepting ride with a stranger”, item27 “incomplete homework”, item9 “walking alone at night”, item 24 “truancy”, which can be considered as relatively appropriate risk-taking behaviors for the campus context and age group of emerging adulthood.

Table 3.2

Factor Loadings for the Risk Involvement Subscale of M-RIPS (N=535)

	Factor Loading	Item N.
High-Risk Behaviors		
Having sex	.67	1
Having sex without condom	.66	14
Taking speed	.59	5
Driving after drinking	.57	15
Driving a car	.56	7
Car race	.45	25
Smoking marijuana	.40	13
Smoke hash	.39	19
Smoking	.37	8
Riding with a drunk driver	.36	10
Low-Risk Behaviors		
Hitchhiking	.71	30
Accepting ride with a stranger	.69	29
Truancy	.67	24
Incomplete homework	.64	27
Cheating	.57	23
Walking alone at night	.42	9
Driving/riding without a seatbelt	.36	17

3.3.2. Personal Information Form

Personal Information Form, which was developed by the researcher, includes demographic variables of the current study such as gender, age, educational levels of parents and number of siblings (see Appendix C).

3.3.3. Personal Authority in Family System Questionnaire-Young Adult Version (PAFSQ-VC)

PAFSQ-VC is one of the most frequently used instruments for assessing the intergenerational family transmission process of young adult population. PAFS-QVC was developed by Bray and Harvey (1992), consists of 84 items rated on a 5-point Likert scale, from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree), and 2-point self-report scale “I have” and “I have not” that indicate the involvement of previous items on personal authority subscale.

Psychometric characteristics of the PAFSQ-VC were documented by Bray and Harvey (1992) and studies indicated a good reliability scores. Internal consistency alpha coefficients ranged from .76 to .92 for a non-clinical sample, and ranged from .75 to .92 for a clinical sample. In addition, the researchers computed test-retest reliability scores for the scales with 2-months interval and reported correlations ranged from .58 to .80. For the concurrent validity analyses Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale and two scales from the Differential Personality Questionnaire were used and as expected, scales correlated with relevant subscales of PAFSQ-VC. Bray and Harvey (1992) also conducted Confirmatory Factor Analysis to test the structure of PAFSQ-VC by comparing goodness of fit indices within first-order models and reported that seven factors solution model remains the best fitting model.

Based on the analyses, items were grouped into the following seven no overlapping scales: *Intergenerational Intimacy* (ININT-23 items); subscale focuses on relationships with parents based on intimacy and satisfaction with parents. Subscale contains separate items for fathers and mothers to assess intergenerational intimacy. Higher scores indicate more intergenerational intimacy. Sample item for the subscale might be given as the following: “I usually help my parents understand me by telling them how I think, feel, and believe” (Item 17).

Intergenerational Individuation (INFUS-8 items); Individuation and fusion are opposite terms. Subscale measures the degree of tendency of a person between these opposite terms based on intergenerational relationships with parents. Higher scores indicate more individuation levels. Sample item for the subscale might be given as the following: “I sometimes wonder how much my parents really love me.” (Intergenerational Individuation” (item 18).

Intergenerational intimidation (INTIM-8 items); subscale focuses on another intergenerational relationship issue with parents based on parental expectations and demands, and ability/inability of a person to handle/to be assertive against these expectations and demands. Higher scores indicates less intimidation levels. Sample item for the subscale might be given as the following: “I feel I must modify my behavior to meet my: mother's expectations concerning my school/work” (Item 9).

Intergenerational Triangulation (INTRI-8 items); triangulation indicates inappropriate coalitions in family system, more intergenerational triangulation mirrors more fusion. Subscale assesses a person’s degree of family triangulation to be involved. Higher scores indicates less family triangulation levels. Sample item for the subscale might be given as the following: “How often do you feel compelled to take sides when your parents disagree?” (Item 59).

Personal Authority (PerAut-18 items); measures the degree of intimate interaction with parents while maintaining a position of individuation and indicates a peer-type relationship with parents. Higher scores in this subscale indicate more personal authority, and more personal authority reflects more individuation, more intimacy, less intimidation and less triangulation. Sample item for the subscale might be given as the following: “How comfortable are you talking to your mother and father about the following: specific mistakes or wrong decisions which he/she made in the past and would like to do again differently (e.g., marriage, marriage partner, occupation, etc.)?” (Item 69).

Peer Intimacy (PINT-11 items); subscale focuses on relationships with peers or significant others based on intimacy, trust, self-disclosure, and satisfaction. Higher scores indicate more intimacy with peers or significant others. Sample item for the subscale might be given as the following: “My significant other and I frequently talk together about the significant events in our lives “(item 44).

Peer Individuation (PIND – 8 items); subscale measures the degree of tendency of a person between the opposite terms of individuation and fusion, based on relationships with peers or significant others. Higher scores indicate more individuation levels. Sample item for the subscale might be given as the following: “I am usually able to disagree with my significant other without losing my temper” (item 51). The scale was adapted to Turkish language by the researcher of the current study. (See Appendix B).

3.3.3.1 Translation and Adaptation of the Personal Authority in Family System Questionnaire-Young Adult Version (PAFSQ-VC)

In the current study, 84 item questionnaire was translated to Turkish language by three experts from Guidance and Psychological Counseling field with adequate knowledge in both English and Turkish. The three translations were compared and for each items the one that best reflects the original meaning was chosen by the researcher and his supervisor.

Then, the final translated version was back translated to English by another expert with adequate knowledge in both English and Turkish. In the next step, English version and original scale were examined to be identical or not. After the examination of each item, inconsistency or disparity were not observed between translations. In the final step, an expert in the field of Turkish Language Teaching was asked to examine the Turkish translation of items in terms of grammar and fluency. No changes were requested. Then the Turkish version of PAFSQ-VC was finalized for pilot study.

3.3.3.2. Pilot Study for Personal Authority in Family System Questionnaire-Young Adult Version (PAFSQ-VC)

The researcher collected another data set for the pilot study from 952 emerging adults in fall semester in the academic year of 2014-2015. Of the 952 participants, 396 were included into the study by online survey. After the data collection and data cleaning process completed, thirty-two participants were excluded from the study due to missing data. As seen in Table 3.3, participants were 676 females (73.5%) and 244 (26.5%) males. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 26 with a mean of 21.94 years ($SD = 2.19$). This data was not merged with the data from the main study. Data for the pilot study was used for first and second run of factor analysis for PAFSQ-VC. The data were splitted into two for exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses by selecting random sample of cases in SPSS 22.

Table 3.3

Demographic Characteristics of the Pilot Study Participants (N = 920)

Variables		<i>n</i>	%
Gender	Female	676	73.5
	Male	244	26.5
Age	18	46	5
	19	80	8.7
	20	129	14
	21	159	17.3
	22	157	17.1
	23	128	13.9
	24	80	8.7
	25	58	6.3
	26	83	9.0

In the subsequent sections, results of the pilot study for PAFSQ-VC were presented in detail. Firstly, construct validity of the PAFSQ-VC was examined by conducting series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) and exploratory factor analysis (EFA). In order to assess internal consistency, the Cronbach alpha coefficients were computed for each subscale and for each paired and separated items factor analyses. As evidence for convergent validity correlational analyses were carried out with PAFSQ-VC subscales and Differentiation of Self Inventory (DSI-R), Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS), Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) and Marlowe-Crown Social Desirability Scale (MCSDS).

3.3.3.2.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for PAFSQ-VC

In the first step, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to test original seven-factor structure of PAFSQ-VC for the current study. As a part of structural equation modeling (SEM), CFA provides an opportunity to see the relationships between latent and

observed variables; in another words, to see whether or not proposed model fits the data. For the study, CFA was conducted through Analysis of Moment Structures AMOS 18.

As prior to conduct CFA; assumptions of sample size, normality, absence of outliers, missing data were evaluated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). For the sample size it is better to have a sample size with 10:1 ratio. However, to have a sample size with 5:1 ratio is also appropriate for the analyses (Hair, et al. 2010). The pilot data set for the analysis was 458, so sample size assumption was met. After data collection, rather than using imputation methods, missing items were excluded from the sample. Absence of outliers were checked by the standardized items scores and values greater than 3.29 were evaluated as outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), and sixteen sample were excluded from the data.

For the univariate normality assumption Skewness and Kurtosis values Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests, histograms and Q-Q plots were controlled. Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests were found to be significant, the fact remains that these values are very sensitive to sample size. Skewness and kurtosis values were controlled within the boundaries of -3 and 3. In addition, the absolute value of skewness and kurtosis results for each item was not greater than 2.08. After all, histograms and Q-Q plots did not represent a serious deviance from a normal distribution.

After assumption checking, first run of analysis was performed with Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation and direct oblimin rotation method. Results indicated that chi-square statistics were significant. However, this test is sensitive to sample size (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Afterwards, model fit indices of Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) and Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) were controlled. Values greater than .95 represent good model fit, while values .90 and greater represent a moderate model fit for NFI, GFI, AGFI and CFI indices (Hu & Bentler, 1999). In addition, values less than

.05 represent a good model fit, while values between .05 and .08 represent a medium model fit for RMSEA index (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). First run analysis of CFA results indicated a poor and an unacceptable model fit with GFI value of .75, AGFI value of .73, CFI value of .81, NFI value of .72 and RMSEA value of .06.

3.3.2.2.2. Exploratory Factor Analysis for PAFS-QVC

As the 84 item PAFSQ-VC did not fit the data were obtained from Turkish emerging adults' sample, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted to explore the factor structure of PAFS-QVC. As indicated previously, PAFSQ-VC consists of eighty-four items in practice. However, Bray and Harvey (1992) in their studies examined the factor structure of the questionnaire with fifty-five items rather than eighty-four items. They preferred to pair off mother-father items within the subscales of Intergenerational Intimacy, Intergenerational Triangulation and Intergenerational Intimidation. Furthermore, they preferred to pair off "have discussed and have not discussed" items within the subscale of personal authority. Finally, they paired off significant other and self-items within the subscale of peer individuation.

PAFSQ-Version C (for young adults) was developed based on PAFSQ-Version A and B (for adults) theoretically, with similar factor structure and some of the items within intergenerational intimacy, intergenerational triangulation, intergenerational intimidation, personal authority and peer individuation subscales were paired as well. Brossart, Lawson and Kieffer (2003) studied the factor structure of Personal Authority in Family System (PAFSQ) Version A and B, in item level rather than paired items within the subscales. They mentioned that if participants see the items in a separate manner, these items load probably on different factors. Similarly, if participants see the items in a similar manner these items load probably on same factor. They assume that item pairs do not allow to see the items whether the items load on same factor or not. Separated items and paired items in total scores represent same results, however in terms of factor analysis separated and

paired items may represent different results. Therefore, in this current study, factor structure of PAFS-QVC was investigated in two ways. First EFA was conducted with paired items and second EFA was conducted with separated items. The pilot data set for the EFA's included 460 participants.

Exploratory Factor Analysis of the PAFS-QVC with Paired Items

Before conducting Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), assumptions of EFA were controlled. Assumptions of EFA are multivariate normality, metric variables, correlations above .30, absence of outliers, Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) and Barlett's Test of Sphericity (Hair et al. 2010). In terms of absence of outliers, items were standardized and values greater than 3.29 were evaluated as outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), and sixteen participants' data were excluded from the data of paired items.

For the univariate normality assumption Skewness and Kurtosis values Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests, histograms and Q-Q plots were controlled. Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests were found to be significant, the fact remains that these values are very sensitive to sample size. Skewness and kurtosis values were controlled within the boundaries of -3 and 3. In addition, the absolute value of skewness and kurtosis results for each item was not greater than 1.41. After all, histograms and Q-Q plots did not represent a serious deviance from a normal distribution. For the next step of normality assumption, multivariate normality was controlled by using Mardia's Test in SPSS. Analysis of Mardia's for PAFSQ-VC indicated a significant result ($b2p = 3389.70$, $p < .001$) and multivariate normality was violated.

In terms of metric variables, personal authority, intergenerational intimacy, intergenerational triangulation, peer intimacy, peer individuation, intergenerational intimidation and individuation variables are continuous and the scores obtained from the 5-point and 2-point scales. Barlett's Test of Sphericity result represented the difference

between the correlation matrix and identity matrix, was significant with the value of ($\chi^2(903) = 10607.32, p < .05$). KMO value was .89 and supported the sample adequacy. Finally, assumption of above .30 correlations was controlled, and results indicated that there were no correlated items with the values below .30 and above .90.

After controlling assumptions, first run of EFA was conducted with paired items (55 items) of PAFSQ-VC. Because the Mardia's Test for PAFSQ-VC indicated a significant result and multivariate normality was violated, Principal Axis Factoring with oblique rotation was conducted. Twelve factors had eigenvalues greater than one, and accounted for 63, 1% of the variance. Examination of the scree plot demonstrated a substantial break after five factors, which accounted for 47.62% of the variance.

Analysis repeated with five-factor solution and pattern matrix was examined. 12 items were found to have poor or dual factor loadings $<.35$ and these items were deleted. It was noticed that of those items were belonged to peer individuation and intergenerational individuation subscales. Moreover, those subscales included different items as compared to the original version of PAFSQ-VC. Remaining items loaded on their respective factors consistent with the theory. An item from peer individuation subscale (items 51+52) loaded to peer intimacy subscale with .60. In addition, an item from intergenerational individuation subscale (item 41) loaded to intergenerational intimacy with .49.

As a result, most of the items for two dimensions of individuation (intergenerational and peer) of PAFS-QVC did not load on their respective factors in the current study. In addition, two of the items from these subscales loaded strongly onto two intimacy subscales.

As shown in the Table 3.4. the most appropriate solution suggested a 43-item five-factor model. The total variance explained by the five factors was 54.4%. Factor loadings ranged from .38 to .88.

Table 3.4

Factor Loadings for the Personal Authority in Family System Questionnaire-Version C with Paired Items (N = 442)

Item number	Factor loadings
Peer Intimacy	
Item45	.88
Item50	.87
Item47	.87
Item46	.86
Item48	.84
Item49	.81
Item44	.80
Item4	.80
Item43	.78
Item1	.77
Item51+52	.60
Item42	.49
Intergenerational Intimacy	
Item2+3	.78
Item5+6	.77
Item33+34	.74
Item35+36	.74
Item19+20	.71

Table 3.4 (continued)

Item number	Factor loadings
Intergenerational Intimacy	
Item25+26	.70
Item7+8	.68
Item38+40	.67
Item27+28	.62
Item22+23	.59
Item31+32	.56
Item41	.49
Item17	.45
Personal Authority	
Item73	.59
Item73	.59
Item68	.57
Item71	.57
Item69	.55
Item70	.54
Item76to84	.50
Item74	.45
Item67	.38
Intergenerational Triangulation	
Item60	.80
Item59	.72
Item63	.51
Item61+62	.48

Table 3.4 (continued)

Item number	Factor loadings
Intergenerational Triangulation	
Item64	.47
Intergenerational Intimidation	
Item15+16	.78
Item13+14	.73
Item11+12	.66
Item 9+10	.60
Eigenvalues	23.33
Factor 1 (Peer Intimacy)	20.05
Factor 2 (Itgl Intimacy)	15
Factor 3 (Personal Authority)	8.18
Factor 4 (Itgl Triangulation)	6.96
Factor 5 (Itgl Intimidation)	4.22
% of variance	54.41

Exploratory Factor Analysis of the PAFS-QVC with Separated Items

Second run of EFA was conducted with separated items format of PAFSQ-VC. Before conducting exploratory factor analysis (EFA), assumptions of EFA were recontrolled with separated items. In terms of absence of outliers, items were standardized and values greater than 3.29 were evaluated as outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), and twenty-seven participant's data were excluded from the analysis. For the univariate normality assumption Skewness and Kurtosis values Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests, histograms and Q-Q plots were controlled. Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests were found to be significant, the fact remains that these values are very sensitive to sample size. Skewness and kurtosis values were controlled within the boundaries of -3 and 3. In

addition, the absolute value of skewness and kurtosis results for each item was not greater than 1.97. After all, histograms and Q-Q plots did not represent a serious deviance from a normal distribution.

For the next step of normality assumption, multivariate normality was controlled by using Mardia's Test in SPSS. Analysis of Mardia's for PAFSQ-VC indicated a significant result ($b_2p = 3398.32$, $p < .001$) and multivariate normality was violated. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity result represented the difference between the correlation matrix and identity matrix, was significant with the value of ($\chi^2 (1891) = 17320.30$, $p < .05$). KMO value was .84 and supported the sample adequacy. Finally, assumption of above .30 correlations was controlled. And results indicated that there were no correlated items with the values below .30 and above .90. After controlling assumptions, second run of EFA was conducted with separated items (i.e. 84 items) format of PAFSQ-VC. Because the Mardia's Test for PAFSQ-VC indicated a significant result and multivariate normality was violated, principal axis factoring with oblique rotation was conducted. Twenty factors had eigenvalues greater than one, and accounted for 67, 8% of the variance.

Examination of the scree plot demonstrated a substantial break after 8 factors, which accounted for 47.78% of the variance, was not theoretically significant. Therefore, analysis repeated with seven and six-factor solution and pattern matrix was examined. Most appropriate solution suggested a 62-item with six-factor solution, which accounted for 43.16% of the variance. 22 items were found to have poor or dual factor loadings $< .35$ and these items were deleted. Factor loadings ranged from .35 to .88. It was observed that most of the deleted items were belonged to peer individuation, intergenerational individuation, personal authority and intergenerational triangulation subscales.

Subscales of peer and intergenerational individuation did not appear again in the second run of EFA with separated items. Remaining items loaded on their respective factors

consistent with the theory. Items 51 and 52 from peer individuation subscale loaded to peer intimacy subscale with .60 and .55. In addition, item 41 from intergenerational individuation subscale interestingly loaded to father intimacy subscale with .46. Item 41 “My present day problems would be fewer or less severe if my parents had acted or behaved differently” concerns closely attitudes of parents. However, participants would be perceived the item closely to attitudes of father in regard to be an authoritarian role of father over mother and children within Turkish family system. Table 3.5, presents the factor loadings of PAFSQ-VC with separated items.

Table 3.5

*Factor Loadings for the Personal Authority in Family System Questionnaire-
Version C with Separated Items*

Item number	Factor loadings
Peer Intimacy	
Item45	.88
Item50	.88
Item47	.87
Item46	.85
Item48	.83
Item4	.81
Item49	.81
Item44	.79
Item43	.79
Item1	.77
Item52	.60
Item51	.55

Table 3.5 (continued)

Item number	Factor loadings
Peer Intimacy	
Item42	.50
Father Intimacy	
Item3	.88
Item6	.87
Item36	.76
Item20	.75
Item38	.74
Item8	.72
Item34	.71
Item26	.65
Item23	.64
Item32	.59
Item28	.56
Item41	.46
Mother Intimacy	
Item33	.75
Item25	.71
Item35	.69
Item2	.66
Item5	.65
Item19	.64
Item7	.63
Item27	.62
Item22	.60

Table 3.5 (continued)

Item number	Factor loadings
Mother Intimacy	
Item31	.57
Item40	.54
Personal Authority	
Item78	.56
Item77	.53
Item71	.52
Item80	.51
Item76	.51
Item72	.51
Item81	.51
Item69	.50
Item82	.49
Item68	.47
Item70	.40
Item67	.37
Item79	.35
Intergenerational Triangulation	
Item62	.65
Item61	.61
Item60	.59
Item59	.59
Intergenerational Intimidation	
Item15	.77
Item16	.74

Table 3.5 (continued)

Item number	Factor loadings
Intergenerational Intimidation	
Item11	.72
Item13	.71
Item12	.70
Item14	.66
Item9	.63
Item10	.63
Eigenvalues	32.29
Factor 1 (Peer Intimacy)	15.49
Factor 2 (Father Intimacy)	12.07
Factor 3 (Mother Intimacy)	8.33
Factor 4 (Personal Authority)	6.51
Factor 5 (Itgl Triangulation)	6.01
Factor 6 (Itgl Intimidation)	3.72
% of variance	52.13

3.3.2.2.3 Reliability Evidence

For the internal consistencies of the subscales of PAFSQ-VC, coefficients were calculated for each paired and separated item analysis. As can be seen in Table 3.6 Cronbach's alpha results demonstrated adequate to strong alphas for the subscales of PAFSQ-VC, particularly for separated item analysis.

Table 3.6

Cronbach Alpha Values of PAFS-QVC with Paired and Separated Items

Factors	<i>Paired items</i>	<i>Separated items</i>
Peer intimacy	.95	.95
ITGL intimacy	.90	-
ITGL mother intimacy	-	.89
ITGL father intimacy	-	.92
Personal authority	.77	.78
ITGL triangulation	.76	.77
ITGL intimidation	.80	.89

3.3.2.2.4 Convergent Validity Evidence

To provide additional evidence for the validity of the PAFSQ-VC, correlational analyses were conducted to test the associations between each separated items subscales of PAFSQ-VC and Differentiation of Self Inventory (DSI), Marlow-Crown Social Desirability Scale (MCSD), Beck Depression Scale and Satisfaction with Life Scale (SLS).

In the following two sections, firstly the instruments that used to obtain further validity evidence for PAFSQ-VC were briefly described. Then, in the second section, results of the correlational analyses were presented.

Pilot Study Data Collection Instruments

The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS): The scale was developed by Diener, Emmons, Larsen and Griffin (1985) and adapted into Turkish by Şimşek (2011). The internal consistency of the Turkish version of the scale was .87 and was .75 for parallel test

reliability with the original SWLS (Diener et al., 1985). Scale consists of 5-items rated on a 7-point Likert type scale, from 1 (completely dissatisfaction) to 7 (completely satisfaction). Higher scores indicate more satisfaction with life.

The scale was utilized with the aim of measuring concurrent validity of PAFS-QVC by investigating the correlation between SWLS and the subscales of PAFSQ-VC. It was supposed that SWLS scores correlated negatively with ITGL triangulation and ITGL intimidation scores, and correlated positively with ITGL father and mother intimacy, peer intimacy and personal authority scores.

Differentiation of Self Inventory – Revised (DSI-R): The scale was developed by Skowron and Schmitt (2003) and adapted into Turkish by Işık and Bulduk (2013). The 20 item with four-factor model supported better data fit in Turkish adult sample rather than original 46 item, four-factor model. For DSI-R, the reported Cronbach Alpha was .81 and test-retest reliability was .75. Scale consists of 20-items rated on a 6-point Likert type scale, from 1 (not at all true of me) to 6 (very true of me) with four subscales of Emotional Reactivity, “I” position, Emotional Cutoff and Fusion with Others. Higher scores indicate more differentiation of self.

DSI-R utilized with the aim of measuring concurrent validity of PAFS-QVC by investigating the correlation between DSI-R and subscales of PAFSQ-VC. Negative correlations between the total scores of DSI-R and ITGL triangulation and ITGL intimidation, and positive correlation with ITGL father and mother intimacy, peer intimacy and personal authority were expected.

Beck Depression Inventory (BDI): The scale was developed with the aim of digitizing the intensity of depression symptoms in an objective way (Beck, 1961). BDI was adapted into Turkish by Hisli (1989). Reliability and validity studies were also conducted by Tegin

(1987), and Aydın and Demir (1989). BDI is a self-report scale with 21 item rated on a 4-point Likert scale depending on intensity of depression symptoms. Scores ranged from 0 to 63. Higher scores indicate higher levels of depression.

BDI was utilized with the aim of obtaining concurrent validity evidence for PAFSQ-VC by investigating the correlation between total scores of BDI with subscale scores of PAFSQ-VC. It was expected that the correlation between total scores of BDI with ITGL triangulation and ITGL intimidation would be positive, the correlations between total scores of BDI with ITGL father and mother intimacy, peer intimacy and personal authority scores would be negative.

Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MCSDS): MCSDS was developed to measure social desirability by Marlowe Crowne (1960, 1964 as cited in Ural & Özbirecikli, 2006). A short form of the scale (with seven items) was adapted into Turkish by Ural and Özbirecikli (2006). 7-items rated on a 6-point Likert type scale, from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). The Cronbach alpha reported for the MCDS was .78.

MCSDS was utilized with the aim of obtaining discriminant validity evidence for PAFSQ-VC by investigating the correlation between the total scores of MCSDS with subscale scores of PAFSQ-VC. It was expected that no significant correlation exist between scores of MCSDS scores and subscale scores of PAFSQ-VC.

Results of Correlation Analyses

As expected, personal authority ($r = .21, p < .01$), father intimacy ($r = .15, p < .01$), mother intimacy ($r = .10, p < .05$) and peer intimacy ($r = .20, p < .01$) subscale scores associated positively with DSI-R total score, and associated negatively with ITGL intimidation ($r = -.23, p < .01$) and ITGL triangulation ($r = -.22, p < .01$) subscale scores.

Secondly, peer Intimacy ($r = .17, p < .01$), father intimacy ($r = .33, p < .01$) and mother intimacy ($r = .24, p < .01$) subscale scores associated positively with SWLS, and associated negatively with ITGL Triangulation ($r = -.25, p < .01$) subscale score, as expected. However, Personal Authority ($r = .03$) and ITGL Intimidation ($r = .08$) scores did not produce a significant correlation with SWLS total score.

In addition, peer Intimacy ($r = -.20, p < .01$), father intimacy ($r = -.18, p < .01$) subscale scores associated negatively with Beck Depression Inventory, and associated positively with ITGL Triangulation ($r = .24, p < .01$) and ITGL Intimidation ($r = .19, p < .01$) subscale scores, as expected. However, personal authority ($r = .04$) and mother intimacy ($r = -.07$) total scores did not produce a significant correlation with Beck Depression Inventory total score.

Finally, peer Intimacy ($r = .16, p < .01$), father intimacy ($r = .11, p < .05$) and mother intimacy ($r = .15, p < .01$) subscale scores associated positively, and ITGL Triangulation ($r = -.26, p < .01$), ITGL Intimidation ($r = -.15, p < .01$) subscale scores associated negatively with total MCSD scores. That is, these low correlations with the subscales indicate that PAFSQ-VC is relatively free from social desirability. Additionally, MCSD total score did not significantly associate with Personal Authority ($r = .01$).

3.3.2.3 Validity and Reliability Evidence for the Turkish PAFSQ-VC with the Main Study Sample

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted with the main study sample to test and compare five-factor structure of PAFSQ-VC with paired items, and six-factor structure of PAFSQ-VC with separated items (See Appendix D) for the current study through Analysis of Moment Structures AMOS 18.

As prior step before conducting CFA; assumptions of sample size, normality, absence of outliers, missing data were evaluated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). For the sample size is assumption, it is better to have a sample size with 10:1 ratio. However, a sample size with 5:1 ratio is also considered appropriate for the analyses (Hair et al. 2010). Thus, sample size assumption was met. After data collection, rather than using imputation methods, data with missing items were excluded from the sample. To check for outliers, items were standardized and values greater than 3.29 were evaluated as outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Thirty-seven sample were excluded from the data of paired items and forty-six sample were excluded from the data of separated items.

For the univariate normality assumption Skewness and Kurtosis values Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests, histograms and Q-Q plots was controlled. Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests were found to be significant. However, these values are very sensitive to sample size. Skewness and kurtosis values were controlled within the boundaries of -3 and 3. In addition, the absolute value of skewness and kurtosis results for each item was not greater than 1.49 for the paired items sample, and 1.99 for the separated items sample. After all, histograms and Q-Q plots did not represent a serious deviance from a normal distribution.

After CFA assumption checking, item parceling method was applied. Item parceling method is widely acclaimed by the structured equation modeling (SEM) practitioners to provide better normality parameters and goodness-of-fit indices in confirmatory factor analysis (Bandalos, 2002; Nasser & Takahashi, 2003).

For the present study, each parcel has two to five items. According to mean values of items, parcels were formed. For intergenerational intimacy factor, there were three parcels named intimacyP1, intimacyP2 and intimacyP3. For intergenerational intimidation factor, there were two parcels named intimP1 and intimP2. For intergenerational triangulation

factor, there were two parcels too, named triangP1 and triangP2. For peer intimacy factor, there were three parcels named peerP1, peerP2 and peerP3. For father intimacy factor, there were three parcels fatherP1, fatherP2 and fatherP3. For mother intimacy factor, there were three parcels motherP1, motherP2 and motherP3. Finally, for personal authority factor, there were three parcels named paP1, paP2 and paP3.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis of PAFSQ-VC with paired items was performed with Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation and direct oblimin rotation method. Results indicated that chi-square statistics was significant ($\chi^2=128.82$, $p=.00$) for paired items data. However, this test is sensitive to sample size (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). CFA results indicated a good and acceptable model fit with GFI value of .96, AGFI value of .94, CFI value of .98, NFI value of .97 and RMSEA value of .05 for paired items data. Table 3.7 presents the standardized estimates of the PAFSQ-VC with paired items.

Table 3.7

CFA Results regarding Factor Loadings of PAFSQ-VC with Paired Items (N=498)

Dimension	Item	Standardized estimates
Peer Intimacy	peerP1	.91
	peerP2	.93
	peerP3	.96
ITGL	intimacyP1	.92
Intimacy	intimacyP2	.87
	intimacyP3	.85
Personal	paP1	.62
Authority	paP2	.66
	paP3	.88
ITGL	triangP1	.93
Triangulation	triangP2	.63
ITGL	intimP1	.86
Intimidation	intimP2	.75

Confirmatory Factor Analysis of PAFSQ-VC with separated items was also performed with Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation and direct oblimin rotation method. Results indicated that chi-square statistics was significant ($\chi^2=186.56$, $p=.00$). However, this test is sensitive to sample size (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Results demonstrated that a good and acceptable model fit with GFI value of .96, AGFI value of .94, CFI value of .98, NFI value of .97 and RMSEA value of .05 for separated items data. Table 3.8 presents the standardized estimates of the PAFSQ-VC with separated items.

Table 3.8

CFA Results regarding Factor Loadings of PAFSQ-VC with Separated Items (N= 489)

Dimension	Item	Standardized estimates
Peer Intimacy	peerP1	.96
	peerP2	.94
	peerP3	.92
Mother Intimacy	motherP1	.87
	motherP2	.88
	motherP3	.79
Father Intimacy	fatherP1	.95
	fatherP2	.86
	fatherP3	.87
Personal Authority	paP1	.57
	paP2	.78
	paP3	.91
ITGL	triangP1	.90
Triangulation	triangP2	.89
ITGL	intimP1	.94
Intimidation	intimP2	.79

3.3.2.4 Reliability Evidence

Internal consistency coefficients of the Turkish PAFSQ-VC were also calculated for the main study. As can be seen in Table 3.9, Cronbach's alpha values were adequate to strong for the subscales within paired and separated items data. Alpha values were also close to the original PAFSQ-VC values.

Table 3.9 *Cronbach Alpha Values of Items for PAFS-QVC Within Main Study*

Factors	Cronbach's Alpha Values		
	Author	Researcher	
		Paired items	Separated items
Peer intimacy	.89	.95	.95
Intimacy	.92	.90	-
Mother intimacy	-	-	..88
Father intimacy	-	-	.92
Personal authority	.80	.76	.79
Triangulation	.75	.75	.80
Intimidation	.87	.78	.88
Intergenerational individuation	.73	-	-
Peer Individuation	.76	-	-

Nevertheless, as it can be seen in Table 3.9, separated item form of PAFSQ-VC represented better Cronbach Alpha coefficients. Furthermore, as aforementioned by Brossart et al. (2003) rather than using ITGL intimacy in one dimension, separate ITGL mother and ITGL father dimensions may be more informative and provide an opportunity to see the different results. Hence, in the main study separated items subscale scores of personal authority, ITGL triangulation, and mother and father intimacy dimensions on risk-taking behaviors were computed and used for further analysis.

3.4 Data Collection Procedure

In the first step, researcher applied to Middle East Technical University (METU) and Ankara University Human Subjects Ethics Committees for the permission to conduct the study. After getting the permissions, researcher collected the data via in class survey administration from several faculties of METU and Ankara University during the spring semester of 2014-2015. Participants were informed in terms of purpose and significance of the study before collecting the data. Participants whose parents were not alive were asked to respond to related items by considering as they could remember the memories with them. If participants did not have a romantic relationship currently, they were asked to respond to the related items by trying to remember the times with ex-girlfriend or ex-boyfriend or significant other.

3.5 Description of Variables

Risk-taking involvement: indicates the risk-taking behaviors frequency by using the total scores on the low-risk involvement and high-risk involvement subscales of Turkish M-RIPS. Total scores of low and high risk involvement were also criterion variables of the study.

Personal authority: refers to the sum of scores as measured by Personal Authority subscale of PAFSQ-VC.

Intergenerational intimacy: refers to the sum of scores as measured by Intergenerational Intimacy subscale of PAFSQ-VC.

Intergenerational mother intimacy: refers to the sum of scores as measured by Intergenerational Mother Intimacy subscale of PAFSQ-VC.

Intergenerational father intimacy: refers to the sum of scores as measured by Intergenerational Father Intimacy subscale of PAFSQ-VC.

Intergenerational family triangulation: refers to the sum of scores as measured by Intergenerational Triangulation subscale of PAFSQ-VC.

Gender: indicates sexes of the participant in a dichotomous way with the categories of female (0) and male (1).

Age: indicates age of the participants and continuous variable.

Number of Siblings: total number of siblings that participants have. For the hierarchical regression analyses, this variable was dummy coded. Category of “no sibling” was chosen for the reference category. One sibling, two siblings and more than three sibling’s categories were created as dummy variables.

Parents Educational Levels: indicate mothers’ and fathers’ graduation levels with categories of illiterate, literate, primary, secondary, high school and undergraduate/graduate. Before dummy coding, with the purpose of representing primary, secondary and tertiary education levels, six categories were reduced into three categories as primary school education, secondary-high school education and undergraduate-graduate educations. For father educational level, category of primary school education; and for mother educational level, category of undergraduate/graduate was chosen as the reference category.

Grade Point Average (GPA): is a continuous variable and indicates an abbreviation of grade point average that ranges between 0.00 and 4.00

3.6 Data Analyses

In order to analyze the main data of the present study, several procedures were followed. In the first step, data screening process was completed. Then assumption testing was performed. In the second step, descriptive statistics regarding criterion and predictor variables were carried out to summarize the data of the current study. In the final step, in order to examine the role of family triangulation, personal authority, intergenerational father and mother intimacy on risk involvement of Turkish emerging adults after controlling for demographic variables (gender, age, GPA, number of siblings and parental educational levels), two separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted through SPSS 22. In addition, alpha level of .05 was set as criterion for statistical significance of analyses in the study.

3.7 Limitations of the Study

Convenient sampling method was one of the limitations of this study in terms of generalizability of the results to all Turkish emerging adults. Another limitation of the study was that instruments were grounded on the participants' self-reports and results might not reflect participants' actual personal attitudes, behaviors or characteristics.

Next, since the sampling was not randomized, female participants' ratio (80.2%) was higher than male (19.8%) participants'. One of the possible reasons of this unbalanced gender distribution might be male participants' reluctance to participate in survey studies. Finally, intergenerational family triangulation scores were obtained only from the participants, all of whom were child member of their family. However, as Bowen (1985) described the interlocking triangles in families, parents could be an important source to assess nuclear family triangulation.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the main analyses of the study. In the first section, the preliminary analyses and examination of multiple hierarchical regression analysis assumptions were presented. In the second section, descriptive statistics of predictor and criterion variables were represented. Third section displays the bivariate correlations of the predictor and criterion variables. In the final section, hierarchical multiple regression analyses results were reported.

4.1. Preliminary Analyses of the Study

Data were examined in terms of missing data and false data entering by controlling frequencies, minimum and maximum values of the variables. Scores and frequencies were determined whether or not they are within the range of possible scores. Missing values were determined and cases which include missing data more than 10% were excluded. In this study, forty cases were deleted.

4.1.1. Assumption Check of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

Before conducting the regression analyses on low-risk and high-risk involvement; assumptions of homoscedasticity, multivariate outliers, normality of residuals, independence of errors, type of variable linearity and absence of multicollinearity (Field, 2009) were examined.

First of all, *type of variables* need to be a categorical with two levels or a continuous variable. For this reason, demographic variables of parents' education and number of siblings were dummy coded. Other predictor and criterion variables of personal authority, ITGL triangulation, ITGL father intimacy, ITGL mother intimacy, high-risk involvement, low-risk involvement, age and GPA are continuous and quantitative variables.

Normality of residuals assumption examined by controlling histogram and normal P-P plot of regression standardized residual. Figure 1 shows an almost normal distribution and do not indicate a serious deviation from the normality for the criterion variable of low-risk involvement.

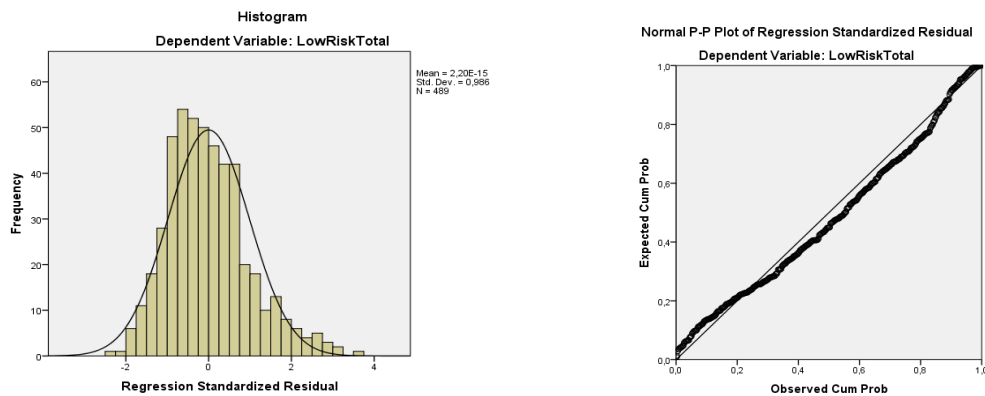


Figure 4.1. The histogram of standardized residuals and the normal probability Plot for low- risk involvement

Figure 2 shows a positively skewed distribution and did not indicate a serious deviation from the normality for the criterion variable of high-risk involvement. However, as previously indicated, high-risk involvement subscale is open for outliers and non-normality due to contents of highly risk-related behaviors (i.e. Having sex, having sex without using condom, drunk driving, smoking marijuana, smoking hash, taking cocaine).

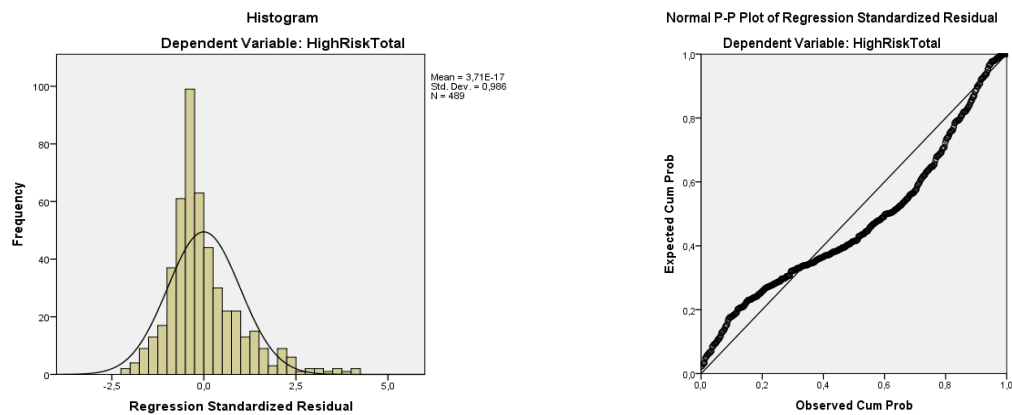


Figure 4.2. The histogram of standardized residuals and the normal probability Plot for high-risk involvement

For the *homoscedasticity assumption*, scatter plots of regression standardized predicted values were examined. Figure 3, for low-risk involvement did not indicate a systemic pattern or huge difference in terms of spreading of scatter plots. However, scatterplots for high-risk involvement indicate a horizontal spread of the residuals represent a line on the lower-left of the chart. On the other hand, Berry and Feldman (1985), Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) assume that a slight heteroscedasticity represent particle effect on significance of analysis.

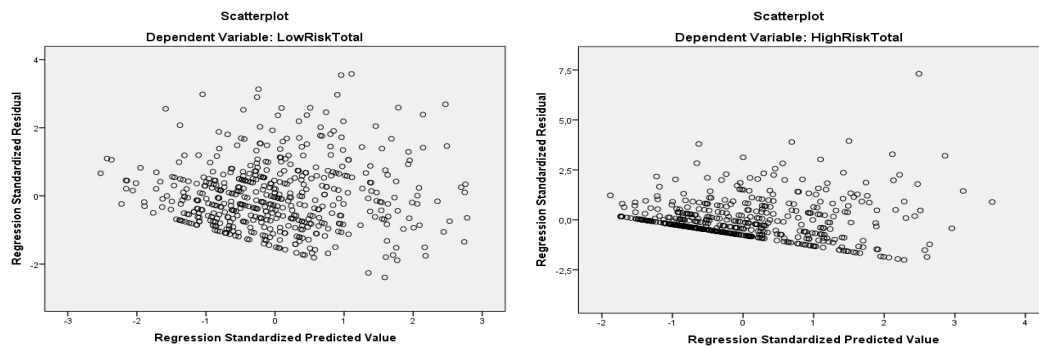


Figure 4.3. The scatterplots of regression standardized predicted values for low-risk and high-risk involvement

In the next step, *assumption of independence of errors* was examined. Tabachnik and Fidell (2013) pointed out that value of Durbin-Watson coefficient test should be between 1.50 and 2.50. In the current study, analysis for low-risk involvement produced value of 2.00 and analysis for high-risk involvement produced 1.98 value of Durbin-Watson.

For the absence of multicollinearity assumption correlations of predictor variables, variance influence factor (VIF) and tolerance values were examined. Field (2009) suggested that correlations of predictor variables should be less than .90. Menard (2002) specified that the VIF value must be less than 4 and tolerance value must be more than .20. For the current study, among predictor variables, correlations were not higher than .32 and VIF values were not higher than 3.60 for low-risk and high-risk involvement analyses. Tolerance values were detected and all of the values were higher than .20.

Finally, to examine *assumption of influential observations*, Mahalanobis distance, Cook's distance, Centered leverage statistics were used. According to Field (2009) Cook's distance and standardized DFBETA Intercept values should not be higher than 1. Both of the analysis for low-risk and high-risk involvement produced values < 1 . According to Stevens (2009) Centered Leverage value estimated by using a formulation of $3(k+1)/n$ (k

indicates number of predictors, n indicates number of participants). For the current study, Leverage statistic value and Mahalanobis Distance test was calculated for both of low-risk and high risk involvement. Despite existence of outliers in these tests, Highest Cook's distance and standardized DFBETA Intercept values were confirmed for the assumption of multivariate outliers.

4.2. Descriptive Statistics of the Variables

Since the percentages and frequencies for age, gender, fathers' and mothers' educational levels and number of sibling variables represented in the method part of the study, means and standard deviations of the quantitative variables were presented in Table 4.1. with the potential and actual range.

Table 4.1
Means and Standard Deviations of the Quantitative Predictor and Criterion Variables (N = 489)

Descriptive Statistics	M	SD	Potential Range	Actual Range
Criterion Variables				
Low-Risk Involvement	12.25	9.24	0-56	0-46
High-Risk Involvement	4.63	6.49	0-80	0-34
Predictor Variables				
Intergenerational Father Intimacy	44.51	9.27	12-60	14-60
Intergenerational Mother Intimacy	46.52	5.93	11-55	28-55
Personal Authority	35.32	5.92	14-70	16-49
Intergenerational Triangulation	8.54	3.41	4-20	4-18
Grade Point Average	3.09	.45	0-4	1.08-4

At first glance, descriptive statistics indicated that the participants reported low levels of low-risk involvement ($M = 12.25$, $SD = 9.24$) and low levels of high-risk involvement ($M = 4.63$, $SD = 6.49$). Among the predictor variables, participants reported high levels of ITGL father intimacy ($M = 44.51$, $SD = 9.27$), ITGL mother intimacy ($M = 46.52$, $SD = 5.93$) and GPA ($M = 3.09$, $SD = .45$). However, participants reported moderate levels of personal authority ($M = 35.32$, $SD = 5.92$) and ITGL triangulation ($M = 8.54$, $SD = 3.41$) when compared with the potential range scores.

4.3 Bivariate Correlations of quantitative predictor and criterion variables

In table 4.2. Pearson Product Correlation Coefficients between quantitative criterion and predictor variables were represented. Criterion variable of Low-risk involvement was significantly and negatively correlated with ITGL father intimacy variable ($r = -.09$, $p < .05$), GPA ($r = -.32$, $p < .01$) and age ($r = -.20$, $p < .01$).

Another criterion variable of high-risk involvement was significantly and positively correlated with personal authority ($r = .13$, $p < .01$) and age ($r = .27$, $p < .01$). The highest correlation among predictor variables was between ITGL mother and father scores ($r = .44$, $p < .01$). On the other hand, lowest correlation was between ITGL mother intimacy and age ($r = -.10$, $p < .05$) and GPA ($r = .10$, $p < .05$).

Table 4.2

Bivariate Correlations between Predictor and Criterion Variables (N=489)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Personal Authority	-							
2. Father Intimacy	.15**	-						
3. Mother Intimacy	.22**	.44**	-					
4. Triangulation	-.13**	-.17**	-.08	-				
5. High-risk Involvement	.13**	.06	-.01	-.03	-			
6. Low-risk Involvement	.06	-.09*	-.02	-.09	.29**	-		
7. Grade Point Average	.11*	.16**	.10*	.06	-.07	-.32**	-	
8. Age	.03	-.11*	-.10*	.03	.27**	-.20**	-.01	-

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

4.4 Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses

For the current study, two separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses were performed with the scores of low-risk and high-risk involvement. Analysis were performed to examine how well personal authority, ITGL triangulation, ITGL mother intimacy, ITGL father intimacy predicted the low-risk and high-risk involvement scores after controlling demographic variables of the study; gender, age, GPA, father and mother educational levels and number of siblings.

Research question 1: How well do family triangulation, personal authority, intergenerational father and mother intimacy predict overall low risk involvement frequencies of Turkish emerging adults after controlling for gender, age, GPA, number of siblings, father and mother educational levels?

According to Table 4.3, 22.9% of the variance in low-risk involvement was significantly explained by model 1; including gender, age, GPA, fathers' and mothers' educational levels and number of siblings with significant results ($R^2 = .229$, $F_{inc(14.193)} = p < .01$).

In the second step, variables of personal authority, ITGL triangulation, ITGL father intimacy and ITGL mother intimacy scores were added to model. Model 2 explained 24.8% of the variance in low-risk involvement significantly ($R^2 = .248$, $F_{inc(3.075)} = p < .05$). However, R^2 change between two models demonstrated a slight increase with 0.20% of the variance.

In model 1, GPA ($\beta = -.29$, $p < .01$), gender ($\beta = .22$, $p < .01$), age ($\beta = -.20$, $p < .01$), three and more than three siblings ($\beta = -.28$, $p < .01$) and two siblings ($\beta = -.19$, $p < .01$) were significant predictors. However, variables related to parents' educational levels and one sibling did not emerge as significant predictors. In model 1, variables of GPA (7.9%), gender (4.8%) and age (4%) explained the variance significantly and were strongest predictors of low risk-taking behaviors.

In model 2 ITGL father intimacy ($\beta = -.12$, $p < .01$) and personal authority ($\beta = .09$, $p < .05$) emerged as significant predictors. However, variables of ITGL triangulation and ITGL mother intimacy did not emerge as significant predictors. In model 2, variables of GPA (6.9%), gender (5.3%) and age (4.5%) explained the variance significantly and were again strongest predictors of low risk-taking behaviors.

In model 1, except gender all of the significant predictors predicted the criterion variable negatively which means that as GPA, age and number of siblings scores increase, low-risk involvement frequency decreases. Gender predicted the criterion variable positively which means that males have more low-risk involvement frequencies than females.

In model 2, significant predictor of ITGL father intimacy predicted the criterion variable negatively which means that as ITGL father intimacy scores increase, low-risk involvement frequency decreases. Personal authority predicted the criterion variable positively. In other words, as personal authority scores increase, low-risk involvement frequencies increase too.

Table 4.3

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Low-Risk Involvement (N = 489)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2	<i>Adjusted R</i> ²
Model 1				.229**	.229	.213
Gender	5.194	.948	.223**			
Age	-.831	.167	-.203**			
GPA	-5.793	.829	-.285**			
Primary school (mother)	-.032	1.046	-.002			
High school (mother)	-.349	1.040	-.019			
High school (father)	.907	.922	.048			
Undergraduate graduate (father)	.639	.965	.032			
One sibling	-2.439	1.415	-.131			
Two siblings	-3.974	1.477	-.194**			
Three and more than three siblings	-6.531	1.545	-.281**			
Model 2				.248*	.020	.226
Personal authority	.134	.066	.086**			
Intergenerational triangulation	-.143	.112	-.053			
Intergenerational father intimacy	-.122	.046	-.122**			
Intergenerational mother intimacy	.018	.071	.012			

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .001$

Research question 2: How well do family triangulation, personal authority, intergenerational father and mother intimacy predict overall high risk involvement frequencies of Turkish emerging adults after controlling for gender, age, GPA, number of siblings and mothers' and fathers' educational levels?

As shown in Table 4.4, 20.5% of the variance in high-risk involvement was significantly explained by model 1, including gender, age, GPA, mothers' and fathers' educational levels and number of siblings ($R^2 = .205$, $F_{inc(12.316)} = p < .01$).

In the second step, variables of personal authority, ITGL triangulation, ITGL father intimacy and ITGL mother intimacy scores were added to model. Model 2 explained 22.8% of the variance in high-risk involvement ($R^2 = .228$, $F_{inc(3.604)} = p < .01$). However, $R^{2\text{ change}}$ between two models indicated a slight increase with 0.23% of the variance.

In model 1, gender ($\beta = .33$, $p < .01$), age ($\beta = .28$, $p < .01$), father educational level of secondary/high school ($\beta = .15$, $p < .01$) and undergraduate/graduate ($\beta = .10$, $p < .01$), three and more than three siblings ($\beta = -.14$, $p < .05$) emerged as significant predictors. However, variables related to mother educational level, one and two siblings, and GPA were not significant predictors. In model 1, variables of gender (10.5%), and age (7.6%) explained the variance significantly and were strongest predictors of high risk-taking behaviors.

In model 2, only personal authority ($\beta = .12$, $p < .01$) emerged as a significant predictor. However, variables of ITGL triangulation, ITGL mother and ITGL father intimacy scores did not significantly predict the high risk involvement. In model 2, variables of gender (10.6%), and age (7.5%) explained the variance significantly and were again strongest predictors of high risk-taking behaviors.

In model 1, the significant predictor of three and more siblings predicted the criterion variable negatively which means that as number of sibling increases, high-risk involvement frequencies decrease. Gender, age and father's education level predicted the criterion variable positively which means that males have more high-risk involvement frequencies than females; as age and father's educational level increase, high-risk involvement frequencies also increase.

In model 2, significant predictor of personal authority predicted the criterion variable positively which means that as personal authority scores increase, high-risk involvement frequencies increase too.

Table 4.4

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting High-Risk Involvement (N = 489)

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2	Adjusted <i>R</i> ²
Model 1				.205**	.205	.188
Gender	5.372	.676	.329**			
Age	.803	.119	.279**			
GPA	-.212	.591	-.015			
primary school (mother)	.799	.746	.060			
Secondary/high school (mother)	.204	.742	.016			
High school (father)	2.008	.658	.152*			
Undergraduate/graduate (father)	1.424	.688	.103*			
One sibling	-.763	1.010	-.058			
Two siblings	-1.427	1.054	-.099			
Three and more than three siblings	-2.215	1.102	-.136*			
Model 2				.228*	.023	.206
Personal authority	.128	.047	.117*			
Intergenerational triangulation	-.136	.080	-.071			
Intergenerational father intimacy	.038	.033	.054			
Intergenerational mother intimacy	-.026	.050	-.024			

* $p < .01$, ** $p < .001$

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the conclusions, and implications for practices of the current study and also recommendations for future studies.

5.1 Conclusions

The main goal of the study was to investigate the role of intergenerational intimacy, personal authority, family triangulation, gender, age, grade point average (GPA), number of siblings, and parental education levels in risk-involvement of Turkish emerging adults. Specifically, how well these variables predict overall low and high risk-involvement frequencies of Turkish emerging adults was examined.

With respect to first research question that explores the role of personal authority, intergenerational triangulation, father, and mother intimacy to predict overall low risk involvement frequencies of Turkish emerging adults after controlling for gender, age, GPA, number of siblings, father and mother educational levels, hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted.

Results revealed that gender, age, GPA, number of siblings, personal authority and intergenerational father intimacy were the most predictive variables of low level risk-involvement frequencies of Turkish emerging adults. All variables in total accounted for the 24.8% of the variance of low level risk-involvement frequencies.

Grade point average (GPA) and gender appeared to be most significant predictors of risk-involvement frequencies among Turkish emerging adults. However, parental education level, intergenerational mother intimacy and family triangulation variables did not significantly contribute to Turkish emerging adults' low risk-involvement frequencies. In other words, findings revealed that younger male with low academic achievement, who had one or no sibling, high level of personal authority, and low level of father intimacy were more likely to involve in low risky behaviors.

In addition, with respect to second research question that explores the role of personal authority, intergenerational triangulation, father and mother intimacy to predict overall high risk involvement frequencies of Turkish emerging adults after controlling for gender, age, GPA, number of siblings, father and mother educational levels, hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted.

All variables in total accounted for the 22.8% of the variance of high level risk-involvement. Gender and age appeared to be the most significant predictors of risk-involvement frequencies among Turkish emerging adults. However, number of sibling, GPA, intergenerational mother and father intimacy, and family triangulation variables did not significantly contribute to Turkish emerging adults' risk-involvement frequencies. In other words, findings revealed that older males whose fathers graduated from secondary and/or high school and had high level of personal authority, were more likely to involve in high risky behaviors. These findings are mostly consistent with the literature of adolescent and emerging adulthood risk involvement research.

Grade point average (GPA) was the strongest predictor of low risk-involvement frequencies. GPA was accounted for approximately 6.9% of the variance of risk-involvement of emerging adults. In another words, as GPA scores increased, risk-involvement scores decreased. Emerging adults with low academic achievement were

more likely to involve risk-related behaviors. These results are consistent with the literature of risk-related research. Majority of the studies indicated that there is a significant negative relationship between academic achievement and risk-involvement (Brook, Cohen, & Kasen, 1998; Foster, 2014; Kıran, 2005; Knight, 2014; Odacı, 2013).

However, GPA was not a significant predictor for high risk-involvement frequencies. One possible explanation is that a considerable amount of the questions in low risk-involvement subscale of M-RIPS contained academically risk-related behaviors and no question related to academic achievement was placed in high risk-involvement subscale. Another possible explanation is that, as Bayar and Sayıl (2005) claimed Turkish adolescents are more likely to involve in low-risk taking behaviors (rebellious type) than high-risk taking behaviors (criminal and delinquent types).

Variable of number of sibling accounted for approximately 3.6% of the variance of low risk-taking behaviors. In other words, participants with one sibling or no sibling reported higher involvement in low risk-related behaviors than participants with two and more than two siblings. However, in risk-related research literature, there is no sufficient information or studies regarding the link between number of siblings and risk involvement, which makes the issue hard to discuss. For instance, some studies with Turkish samples indicated that children with four and more than four siblings exhibit more delinquent behaviors (Bal, 2004; Kulaksızoğlu, 2000). On the other hand; some studies demonstrated a negative correlation that as number of siblings increase, involvement in risk-taking behaviors decreases (Aras, Günat, Özan & Orçın, 2007; Karakaş, 2006).

Karakaş (2006) explained the negative relation between risk taking and parental education levels as when parents have higher education levels, they tend to have less children. Karakaş (2006) also indicated a negative correlation between SES and number of siblings. Additionally, in the literature, most of the findings emphasized a positive relationship

between high SES, parental educational levels, and risk-taking behaviors (Aras, et al., 2007; Ögel, Çorapçioğlu, Sır, Tamara, Tot, Doğan & Liman, 2004; Yılmaz, 2000). Unfortunately, in the present study, socioeconomic status of the participants' families was not examined.

Gender in current study was one of the strongest predictors of low and high risk-involvement. The variable accounted for approximately 5.3% of the variance of low risk-involvement frequencies and 10.6% of the variance of high risk-involvement frequencies. In the literature gender was also reported as one of the most significant predictors. More specifically, being male was reported to be a main characteristic of risk-involvement (Arnett, 1995; Bayar & Sayıl, 2005; Charness & Gneezy, 2012; Grasmick, Hagan, Blackwell, & Arneklev, 1996; Miller & Schafer, 1999; Turner & McClure, 2003; Yorulmaz, Akturk, Dagdeviren, & Dalkilic, 2002).

Similarly, personal authority was the second variable of the study following gender, which significantly predicted the risk-involvement scores in both levels (low and high risk involvement). However, results reported a very low account of variance that only 0.7% of the low risk-involvement and 1.2% of the high risk-involvement was explained. In another words, participants who reported high levels of personal authority, also reported low and high risk-involvement.

Discussing the results of gender along with personal authority can be a good idea to lay the ground for more significant explanation. Because an explanation for gender differences and concept of personal authority related to risk-involvement can be embedded in the discussion of family socialization process.

For instance, Arnett (1995) proposed that in a cultural context of broad socialization characteristics; more individualism, independence and self-expression are provided for

individuals. Thus, individuals get a more chance to express their personality-trait characteristics such as risk-related behaviors and sensation-seeking. On the contrary, cultural context of narrow socialization characteristics requires more obedience and conformity from individuals and does not provide broadness for individuals to express their personality-trait characteristics.

Gender differences are also were evident in cultural context picture; socialization process of females reflect more narrow socialization characteristics than male, while same process for male reflect more broad socialization characteristics. Similarly, Grasmick et al., (1996) proposed that male grown children in a patriarchal family exhibit more risk-related behaviors than females. However, there is no such gender difference in families that have less patriarchal characteristics.

In this vein, Turkish cultural context with its modernization process seems to exhibit both narrow and broad socialization characteristics. Kağıtçıbaşı (2007) proposed a new family socialization model of being *emotionally (or psychological) interdependent*. This new model is a synthesis of independence and totally interdependence models and indicates that as importance of material interdependencies and traditional hierarchies' decreases importance of emotional independence stays as an important structure of the family. A very outstanding point of this new model is that personal autonomy of the individuals is not perceived as a threat to intergenerational hierarchy. Family members can maintain both emotional closeness and their personal autonomy in a dynamic equilibrium.

In addition, İmamoğlu (1987) conceptualized the child socialization process for Turkish society as *agency interdependence* with the combination of relatedness and independence. These suggestions of family socialization models by Kağıtçıbaşı (2007) and İmamoğlu (1987, 1988) appear to be congruent with Williamson's (1991) personal authority

construct, which demands a dynamic equilibrium of intergenerational intimacy and self-differentiation concurrently.

As a result, all the constructs entailed above, drive forward the personal authority characteristics in family socialization process. Moreover, these characteristics are correspond to Arnett's (1995) broad socialization, which is defined as being more tolerant, and individuals can express their personality-trait characteristics of risk-related behaviors more easily. Thus, considering the cultural context of Turkish society it seems reasonable to expect a positive relationship between risk-related behaviors and personal authority.

Furthermore, with regard to gender, Kağıtçıbaşı (2000) indicated that having a boy is more preferred than having a girl for interdependent Turkish families due to social and economic structures of families. In that reason, being a male in Turkish society may provide more chance for autonomy and broad expression of their personality-trait characteristics such as involvement in risk-related behaviors.

In sum, culturally high expectations and social pressures on males to be a more challenger, successful and assertive one, which may also refer to perceived personal autonomy, may associate with being more involved in risk-related behaviors. In addition, the participants of the current study were college students between the ages of 18 and 26. Thus, they can be considered in transition between adolescence and adulthood. During this period, majority of the college students leave their home for higher education or work and take a new turn in their life. Therefore, due to decrease in parental monitoring, more personal freedom, less social responsibility (Arnett, 1999), less regulated and permissive cultural socialization context (Özmen & Sümer, 2011) may lead higher risk involvement frequencies.

Age was one of the strongest predictors of low level risk-involvement frequencies that accounted for approximately 4% of the variance in emerging adults. In other words, as age increases, low risk-involvement decreases. This result is consistent with the literature that younger emerging adults are more likely to involve in risk-related behaviors than older emerging adults (Jessor, Turbin, & Costa, 1997; Ravert & Gomez-Scott, 2014).

However, age was also one of the strongest predictor of high level risk involvement which accounted for approximately 7.5 % of the variance. In another words, as age increases, high level of risk involvement increases as well. Findings related to association between personal authority and high-risk involvement might be helpful to speculate about the link between age and high risk involvement of emerging adults. Individuals mostly achieve the process of personal authority after the age of 30, and majority of them completed the process between the ages of 35 and 45 (Bray & Harvey, 1992). Hence, high-risk involvement might be one of the requirements of achieving more personal authority with increasing age.

Intergenerational intimacy had two dimensions; mother and father intimacy. However, only father intimacy predicted the low risk-involvement frequencies of participants with a very low account, approximately 1.1 % of the variance. In other words, participants with less intergenerational father intimacy involved in more risk-taking behaviors.

In the light of the results, which indicated that male participants with low level of father intimacy involved in more low level of risk-taking behaviors, a father-son relationship should be considered. This relationship is a significant topic of literature with regard to family context in risk involvement. In an evaluation of substance abuse prevention through several theories, for instance, Snell, Radosevich and Feit (2014) claimed that the role of father is one of the significant protective factors of risky behaviors. They emphasized the importance of family socialization process because adolescents' decision-

making preferences might be influenced by the involvement of fathers in their children's life. Thus, the authors suggested that father-son relationship should be considered and integrated in substance abuse prevention programs to produce long-term positive consequences. Furthermore, an explanation of non-significant results for intergenerational mother and father intimacy with regard to high level of risk-involvement may stem from another variable of the study.

As a type of family triangulation; interlocking triangles (Kerr & Bowen, 1988) are worth-stressing topic for the present study since the results of the present study indicated an emotional distance between sons and fathers, which may refer to a father-son conflict. On the other hand, results did not reflect a similar emotional distance pattern between sons and mothers.

As an example of 'interlocking triangle', a marital conflict in dyads might be moved from the focus of couples' conflict to a father-son relationship, rather than parent-child relationship. Thus, a confrontation of most important father authority figure of Turkish families, and his son who exhibits more risk-related behaviors may not be so surprising. Consequently, an emotionally distant relationship between father and son within an invisible triangulation (mother-father and son) may result, an increase in risk-involvement frequencies. On the other hand, mother and son, due to more intense feeling of attachments can exhibit a coalition within this triangulation. In the present study, this intense feeling of attachment between mother and son can be perceived as intimacy rather than a triangulation. As previously indicated, a lack of personal authority may emerge from the triangles within the family system. However, with the increase in personal authority along with age, the weak predictive power of the perceived intergenerational intimacy may become totally non-significant with regard to high-risk taking behaviors.

Parental educational level also had two dimensions in the current study: mother and father education levels. Again, only father educational level predicted the high risk-involvement frequencies of the participants with a very low account (approximately 1.1% of the variance). This means that participants whose fathers graduated from secondary and high school were more likely to involve in high risk-taking behaviors than participants whose fathers had undergraduate and graduate degree.

In the literature there is a discrepancy in risk-related studies by considering the parental education level. Majority of the studies with Turkish samples highlighted the role of maternal educational level in predicting risky behaviors in adolescence and young adulthood (Ayvaşık & Sümer, 2010; Karakaş, 2006, Uludağlı & Sayıl, 2009). However, some other studies demonstrated that both maternal and paternal educational levels are important in predicting risky behaviors (e.g., Oksuz & Malhan, 2005).

Since the literature presents inconsistent findings regarding both maternal and paternal educational levels, it becomes difficult to compare the findings of the current study that only secondary and high school father educational level predicted the high risk involvement. Although it was not one of the purposes of the current study to understand the role of parental attitudes and parenting styles toward risk-involvement of their children, these variables might be potential mediators that need further attention in future studies.

Contrary to expectation, intergenerational family triangulation did not appear as one of the significant variables of the current study. In the literature, studies reported the significant influence of family triangulation on externalizing and internalizing behavioral problems of adolescents (Amato & Afifi, 2006; Franck, & Buehler, 2007; Grych, Raynor & Fosco, 2004; Miller, Benson & Galbraith, 2001).

In that reason, there should be several explanations of insignificant results for the family triangulation variable to be considered. Bowen (1985) described few basic natures of triangulations in family systems. For instance, if a child left the family home by reason of a college education or a marriage, the child would leave the triangle as well. In the light of theoretical ground, because the least-differentiated member of family is involved in a triangulation, staying out of the pattern even may be beneficial for the child with a higher sense of personal authority. By taken into consideration that sample of the current study that mostly consists of college students who left their home, they may either physically or emotionally or both have a feeling of less triangulation. In addition, according to Kerr and Bowen (1988) emotional detachment from the twosome in a triangulation provides an opportunity for detriangulation, which might be resulted in a feeling of less triangulation. Moreover, since the instrument of PAFSQ-VC requests an evaluation on current relationship of intergenerational triangulation, this might be resulted in failure to capture previous family triangulation experiences of the participants.

As previously indicated, lack of personal authority may cause the triangles within a family system to emerge (Kerr & Bowen, 1988). Despite the very low variances, personal authority was a significant predictor of both levels of risk-involvement in the current study. Thus, a significant presence of personal authority among the participants may also indicate lack of triangles in their family of origins.

Finally, a non-clinical nature of the current study can be another possible explanation of statistically insignificant results of family triangulation. Because Bowen (1985) developed his concepts of triangulation and self-differentiation as a result of consistent observations with hospitalized patients with several psychological disorders such as schizophrenia. Thus, the form or level of family triangulation in the current sample may be different for non-clinical families without clinical symptoms.

In sum, findings of the study demonstrated that demographic variables of the present study; especially gender, age and GPA were the stronger predictors than family-of-origin variables in explaining the risk-taking behaviors of emerging adults. Nevertheless, among four family-of-origin variables, only the intergenerational father intimacy and personal authority significantly predicted the low and high risk taking behaviors with very low variances in the present study.

5.2 Implications for Practice

Based on the results of the current study, several implications can be considered. Firstly, one of the most important implications of the current study is that Personal Authority in Family System Questionnaire-College Version (Bray & Harvey, 1992) was adapted into Turkish. This scale is one of the first instruments in the field of family counseling to assess family-of-origin variables in Turkey. In addition, intergenerational triangulation subscale of the PAFS-QVC may also enable family counselors to assess the triangles within a family system. .

Secondly, in the present study, psychometric properties of the M-RIPS were re-examined in emerging adults sample. Therefore, low and high risk involvement sub-sales of the measure might also be useful tool for counselors to obtain detailed information about risk involvement behaviors of emerging adults.

Thirdly, as mentioned before, this study was the first attempt to examine the role of intergenerational family concepts on risk-related behaviors of Turkish emerging adults. However, findings of the study indicated that demographic variables were stronger than family-of-origin variables to predict risk taking behaviors of emerging adults. Hence, information about gender, age, academic achievement (i.e., GPA), father educational level and number of siblings appear to be important in understanding risk involvement behaviors of emerging adults.

Furthermore, based on the results of the current study, young emerging male adults with low academic achievement, who have one or no sibling, have high level of personal authority and low level of father intimacy are more prone to demonstrate low level of risk taking behaviors. This at-risk group may exhibit some behaviors regarding their academic life such as truancy, incomplete homework or cheating. Hence, Learning and Student Development Offices and Psychological Counseling Centers of universities can develop both intervention and prevention programs for those students.

In addition, results of the present study also indicated that high level of risk taking behaviors are associated mostly with father educational level and personal authority level of the older emerging male adults. In other words, they may exhibit high risk-involvement frequencies related to substance use (i.e. smoking marijuana, hash, and cigarette), sexual behaviors (i.e. having sex, having sex without condom) and driving (i.e. taking speed, car race, driving a car). Counselors working at university psychological counseling centers, Centers for Alcohol and Substance Abuse Treatment such as AMATEM, or community mental health centers can design and develop educational and preventive group programs by taking the results of the study into consideration.

5.3 Recommendations for Future Studies

Based on the results of the current study, several recommendations for future studies can be considered.

Firstly, both qualitative and quantitative studies can be conducted about the role of family-of-origin variables on risk-taking behaviors.

Secondly, as aforementioned, two of the family-of-origin variables in the present study were non-significant and two of them represented with very low variances. Therefore,

these variables can be investigated by possible mediators and different samples in the future studies.

Thirdly, including the parents into the sample can be more beneficial to understand the triangulation construct within family system. For this purpose, nuclear family triangulation subscale of PAFSQ-Version A for parents, and intergenerational family triangulation subscale of PAFSQ-Version C for emerging adults can be used concurrently in a model with regard to risk-related behaviors. This model may provide more specific examination of the relationship between triangles within participants' family systems and adolescents' or emerging adults' risk-related behaviors. Similarly, developing a new scale that measure intergenerational family triangulation considering Turkish cultural context may be more beneficial.

Fourthly, as aforementioned, intergenerational family triangulation and differentiation of self-concepts were developed through clinical observations by Bowen (1985). In addition, majority of the risk-taking studies that examine the role of these concepts have focused on high risk-taking behaviors such as substance abuse (Goldman, 1994; Grand, 1995; Martyn et al., 2009; Pinheiro, et al., 2006; West, Hosie & Zorski, 1987). Therefore, for a better understanding of the role of these concepts, a comparative study can be conducted between clinical and non-clinical families.

Fifthly, the period of early adolescence may be more appropriate to examine the role of intergenerational intimacy and family triangulation. Because of possible increase in personal authority, the influences of family triangulation may become more invisible in emerging adult sample. Therefore, future studies can replicate the study with adolescent samples to understand the role of family triangulation and intergenerational intimacy in risk taking behaviors.

Moreover, a holistic and longitudinal study can provide a better understanding for the reasons of risk-related behaviors. Along with specific demographic variables (age, gender, SES, religiosity etc.) personality-trait characteristics, family structure, social media, decision-making processes, peer intimacy and individuation can be included in studies to examine low and high risk taking behaviors among Turkish adolescents and emerging adults.

Finally, the participants of the current study recruited from the universities in Ankara by using convenience sampling. For a better understanding of risk-related behaviors in this age group, a replication of the study with a more representative sample of emerging adults, including uneducated and working youths, should be carried out. In addition, equal distribution of gender should also be considered in future studies.

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Appendix A. Sample Items from Modified Risk Involvement and Perception Scale

Lütfen aşağıda sıralanan her bir davranışı “son üç ay boyunca ne sıklıkla gösterdiğinizizi” ilgili alanı işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

Madde		Hiç bir	Nadiren		Bazen		Sık sık		Her	
		zaman	(Yılda	(Ayda	(Haftada	(Haftada	zaman	(Her gün)		
			2-3 kez)	2-3 kez)	2-3 kez)	2-3 kez)				
14	Prezervatifsiz cinsel ilişkide bulunma	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
13	Marihuana içme	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
19	Esrar içme	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
24	Okulu asma/devamsızlık yapma	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
23	Sınavda kopya çekme	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
27	Okul ödevlerini yapmama	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

**Appendix B. Sample Items from Personal Authority In Family System
Questionnaire-College Version (PAFSQ-VC)**

Aşağıdaki sorular ebeveynleriniz ve partnerinizle (örn. eş, hayat arkadaşı, sevgili) **şu anki** ilişkilerinize yöneliktir. **Lütfen bu kişilerle şu anki ilişkinizi en iyi yansıtan cevapları seçiniz.** Eğer evli değilseniz soruları yakın zamandaki partnerlerinizden sizin için en önemli olanı düşünerek cevaplayınız. Eğer hayatınızda böyle biri yoksa soruları en muhtemel ya da en son partnerinizi düşünerek cevaplayınız.

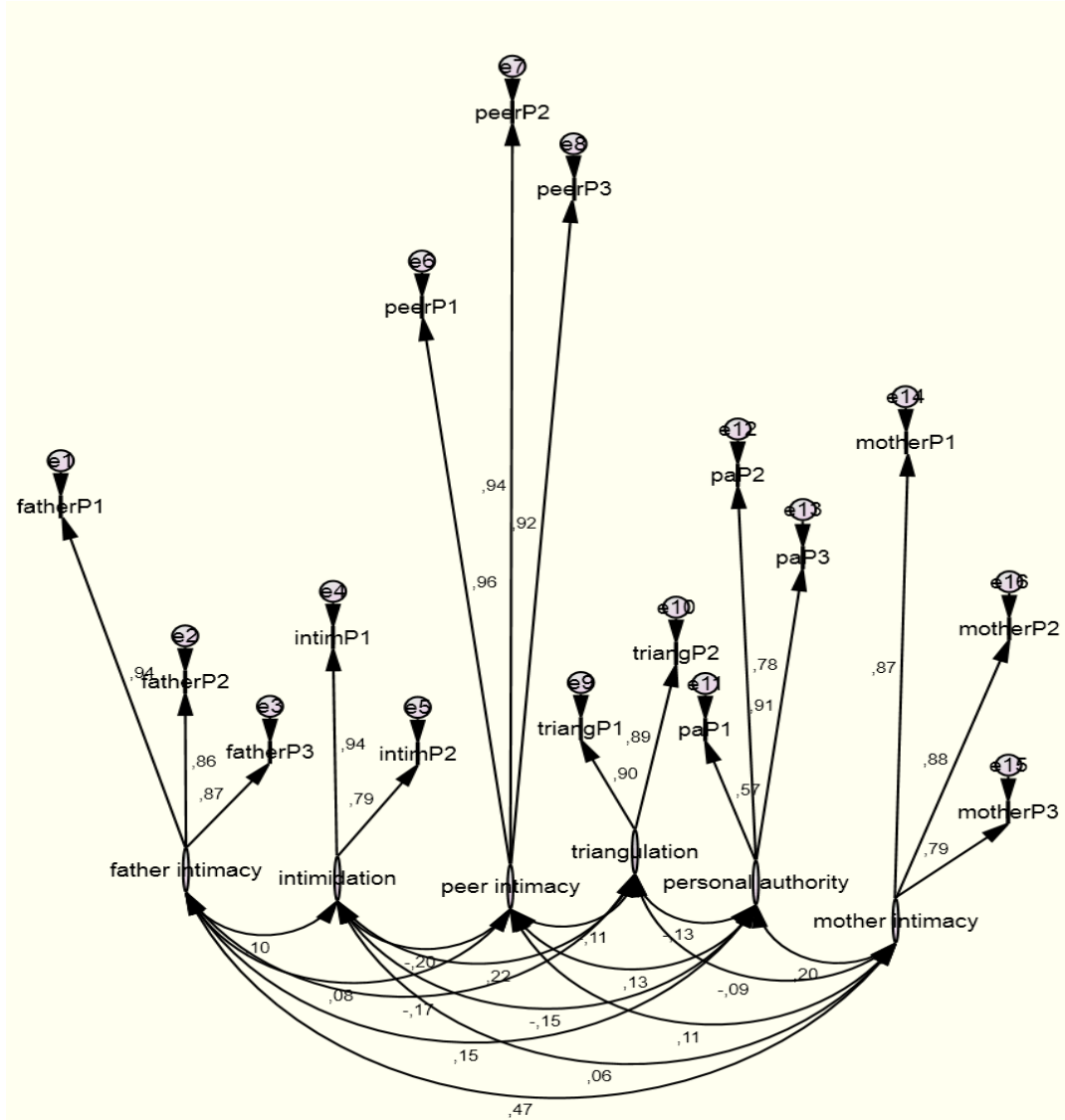
Eğer ebeveynlerinizden birisi ya da her ikisi de hayatta değilse ilgili soruları kaybettiğiniz ebeveyn(ler)inizle olan ilişkinizi nasıl hatırladığınız ya da nasıl hayal ettiğinize göre cevaplayınız.

	Mükemmel	İyi	Orta	Zayıf	Çok Zayıf
Hayatımdaki önemli olaylarla ilgili gerçek hislerimi annemle paylaşırım.	1	2	3	4	5
Annemin yaşam tarzıyla ilgili beklentilerini karşılamak için	1	2	3	4	5
Bazen ebeveynlerimin beni gerçekten ne kadar sevdiğini merak ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
Anneniz babanızla sizin aranızdaki bir anlaşmazlığa ne sıklıkla müdahale eder?	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix C. Kişisel Bilgi Formu

Cinsiyetiniz:
Yaşınız:
Eğitim durumunuz: (1) İlköğretim (2) Ortaöğretim (3) Yüksekokul (4) Üniversite (5) Yüksek Lisans
Annenizin eğitim durumu: (1) Okur-yazar değil (2) Okur-yazar (3) İlkokul mezunu (4) Ortaokul mezunu (5) Lise mezunu (6) Lisans-Lisansüstü mezunu
Babanızın eğitim durumu: (1) Okur-yazar değil (2) Okur-yazar (3) İlkokul mezunu (4) Ortaokul mezunu (5) Lise mezunu (6) Lisans-Lisansüstü mezunu
Üniversite öğrencisi ya da mezunu iseniz not ortalamanız ya da mezuniyet notunuz: (.....) 4'lük not sisteminde
Sizin dışınızda ailedeki kardeş sayısı: (1) Kardeşim yok (2) 1 kardeş (3) 2 kardeş (4) 3 kardeş (5) 4 kardeş (6) 5 kardeş ve daha fazla

Appendix D. Amos Estimates of Parameters in the Measurement Model for PAFSQ-VC (Separated Items) with Coefficients to Standardized Values



**Appendix E. Approval Letter from Middle East Technical University Human
Subjects Ethics Committee**

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER

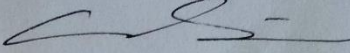
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28.11.2014

Gönderilen : Doç. Dr. Zeynep Hatipoğlu SÜMER
Eğitim Bilimleri

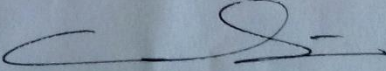
Gönderen : Prof. Dr. Canan Sümer 
IAK Başkanı Vekili

İlgi : Etik Onayı

Danışmanlığını yapmış olduğunuz Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü öğrencisi
Mustafa Alperen Kurşuncu'nun "Aile Üçgenleşmesinin Beliren
Yetişkinlikte Risk Alma Davranışlarına Etkisi" isimli araştırması "İnsan
Araştırmaları Komitesi" tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay
verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Etik Komite Onayı
Uygundur
28/11/2014


Prof. Dr. Canan Sümer
Uygulamalı Etik Araştırma Merkezi
(UEAM) Başkanı Vekili
ODTÜ 06531 ANKARA

Appendix F. Turkish Summary

1. GİRİŞ

Genç yetişkinlik; ergenlik ya da yaşlılık gibi yaşam periyodlarıyla karşılaştırıldığında döneme özgü bir tanım yapmanın daha zor olduğu bir dönem olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Jessor, Donovan ve Costa (1991) bu durumla ilgili olarak, döneme özgü bir bilgi eksikliğine dikkat çekmektedirler. Yaşamın geri kalanını etkileyebilecek düzeyde önemli kararların alındığı bir dönem olmasına karşın, dönemin gelişim ödevlerinin ve karakteristik özelliklerinin neler olduğu halen bir merak konusudur. Döneme ilişkin bu bilgi eksikliği vurgusuna rağmen Arnett (2000, 2004) bu dönemi ‘beliren yetişkinlik’ olarak adlandırmış ve ergenlikle yetişkinlik arasında 18-25 yaşlarını kapsayan bir geçiş dönemi olarak tanımlamıştır. Bununla birlikte Atak ve Çok (2010) aynı dönemin Türkiye’de 19-26 yaşlarını kapsadığını belirtmişlerdir. Arnett (2004) dönemin beş belirgin özelliğinin; kimliğin keşfi, geleceğe ilişkin kararlarda ve planlarda sürekli bir değişkenlik, ben-odaklılık, ergenlikle yetişkinlik arasında arada kalmışlık duygusu ve geleceğe ilişkin yüksek umutlar çağı olduğunu belirtmiştir.

Dönemin birçok karakteristik özelliği arasında özellikle risk alma davranışları belirgin bir araştırma konusu olarak göze çarpmaktadır. Risk alma davranışlarına ilişkin araştırmalar daha çok ergenlik döneminde yoğunlaşsa da Arnett (1999) risk alma davranışlarının sıklığının beliren yetişkinlik döneminde daha fazla olduğunu belirtmektedir. Bununla birlikte, yetişkinlik dönemiyle karşılaştırıldığında da beliren yetişkinlikte risk alma davranışlarının daha fazla olduğu görülmektedir (Blinn-Pike, Worthy, Jonkman & Smith, 2008).

Beliren yetişkinlik döneminde görülen risk alma davranışlarına ilişkin çeşitli varsayımlar bulunmaktadır. Örneğin, Arnett (1999) ergenlik dönemiyle karşılaştırıldığında daha fazla

kişisel özgürlük duygusunun ve daha az duyumsanan sosyal sorumluluğun bu dönemde artan risk alma davranış sıklığının açıklanmasında önemli argümanlar olabileceğini savunmuştur. Ayrıca Ravert ve Gomez-Scott (2014) çalışmalarında risk alma davranışları için en belirgin motivasyon kaynaklarının kişisel büyüme, başarı ve doyum sağlamak olduğunu bulmuşlardır.

Alanyazında risk alma davranışının tanımına ilişkin farklı yaklaşımlar bulunmaktadır. Örneğin, Problem Davranış Kuramı bakış açısından risk davranışlarının tanımlanmasında; kültürel normlara, risk davranışının sosyal tanımına, resmi yetişkin otoritesine ve risk davranışlarına karşı sosyal kontrole (Jessor & Jessor, 1977) yönelik vurgular bulunmaktadır. Bu kuram açısından, risk alma davranışı, içinde bulunulan sosyal ve kültürel normlardan uzaklaşma olarak kavramlaştırılmaktadır. Moore ve Gullone (1996) ise risk alma davranışının olası olumsuz sonuçları ile algılanan olumlu sonuçları arasındaki dengenin, algılanan olumlu sonuçlar lehinde ağırlık kazanması olarak tanımlamaktadır.

Risk alma davranışları çeşitlilik göstermekle birlikte, Arnett (2005) madde kullanımının beliren yetişkinlik döneminde en yüksek sıklığa sahip risk alma davranış biçimi olduğunu vurgulamaktadır. Alanyazında da, beliren yetişkinlik döneminde madde kullanımına ilişkin önemli sayıda çalışma yer almaktadır. Çalışmalar herhangi bir madde türünün kullanımına eğilim gösteren genç yetişkinlerin diğer madde türlerini kullanmaya da eğilim gösterdiklerini vurgulamaktadır. Örneğin, Cohn, ve ark. (2015) 1609 genç yetişkinin marihuana, alkol ve tütün ürünleri kullanımları arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemişlerdir. Sonuçlar marihuana ve alkol kullanımının tütün ürünleri kullanımını artırdığı yönündedir.

Bir çok çalışma ele aldığı değişkenler açısından farklılıklar gösterse de, ilişkili çalışmaların çoğu çevresel faktörlerin ya da psikososyal bağlamın risk alma davranışlarının açıklanmasındaki önemine dikkat çekmektedir. Örneğin; Bonem,

Ellsworth ve Gonzalez, (2015) risk algısının ve davranışlarının yaşa ve ortama göre farklılık gösterdiğini ifade etmektedirler. Bu çalışmada yaşça büyük olan yetişkinler sosyal bağlamlarda genç yetişkinlerle benzer sıklıkta risk alma davranışları sergilesele de, özellikle yüksek düzeyde risk algıladıkları sağlık ve güvenliğe ilişkin alanlarda genç yetişkinlere göre daha az risk alma davranışları sergilemişlerdir. Bir davranışın hangi ölçütlere göre riskli olarak nitelendirilebileceği ise benzer şekilde tartışma konusu olabilmektedir. Bazı durumlarda, kişiler bir davranışın riskli olabileceğini bilmelerine rağmen sağlayacağı yararlar nedeniyle bu davranışı sürdürmeye devam edebilmektedirler. Bu nedenle, risk alma davranışlarının açıklanmasında bağlamsal bakış açısı göz ardı edilmemesi gereken bir durum olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır.

Risk davranışlarını bağlamsal bir bakış açısıyla ele alan Arnett (1995) sosyalizasyon sürecine vurgu yaparak, bu sürece ilişkin incelenmesi gereken yedi temel alan olduğunu ifade etmiştir. Bu alanlar; toplum, okul, medya, yasa ve kanunlar, akranlar, kültürel inanç sistemi ve ailedir. Özellikle esnek sosyalizasyon kültürünün hakim olduğu toplumsal alanlarda risk bağlantılı davranışların sınırları keskin bir şekilde tanımlanmamıştır. Bu toplumlar, risk bağlantılı davranışlar için daha hoşgörülüdür. Risk alma eğilimli bireyler, kendilerini daha çok ifade edebilme fırsatı yakalamakta ve bu tür toplumlarda risk alma davranış sıklığı da daha fazla gözlemlenmektedir. Diğer yandan, daha sıkı ve dar sosyalizasyon süreçlerinin yaşandığı toplumlarda ise risk davranışlarının sınırları keskin bir şekilde tanımlanmıştır. Bu kurallar ve normlar, özellikle risk bağlantılı davranışlar sergilemeye eğilimli bireyler için pek de esnek değildir.

‘Bağlamsal’ bakış açısı, kişiyi belirli bir çevre içinde ve bu çevreyle kişi arasındaki etkileşim açısından değerlendirilmesini savunan bir yapıya sahiptir. Bu karşılıklı etkileşim dinamik ve birbirinden ayrılamaz bir süreçtir. Bireyler çevrelerinin birer pasif çıktıları olarak değil, öz disiplin, organize olabilme ve içgözlem gibi yeteneklerini kullanarak çevrelerini yeniden yapılandırabilecek potansiyele sahip bireyler olarak görülürler

(Bandura, 1986, 1997). Bronfenbrenner'in (1979) ortaya koyduğu 'mikrosistemler', bireyin doğrudan ilişki içinde olduğu aile, arkadaş, okul, akrabalar, komşular vb. ekolojik bir çevreyi tanımlamakta ve belirli bir çevrenin kişilik özellikleri üzerindeki etkisini vurgulamaktadır.

Aileler, üyeleri ve özellikle çocuklar için istikrarlı bir çevre, günlük rutinler ve sürekli bir güvenlik sağlamaya çalışmaktadırlar. Bununla birlikte, bu istikrarlı yapı, gelişimsel değişimlere bağlı olarak özellikle ergenlik dönemi gibi belirli dönemlerde zaman zaman sınırlanmaktadır. Aileler bu tür geçiş dönemlerinde ergenlerin problem ya da yıkıcı davranışlar sergilemelerini önlemek ve psikolojik iyi oluşlarını korumak için, bir yandan yakınlığı ve sağlıklı ilişkilerini korumak, bir yandan da daha fazla özerklik, kişisel yeterlilik, eşitlik ve kendi sorumluluklarını alma gibi taleplerini daha çok dikkate almak zorundadırlar (Peterson, Bush & Supple, 1999). Bireyselliğe ilişkin taleplerin ne ölçüde tolere edileceği ve bir taraftan da yakınlığın korunmasına ilişkin bu karmaşık süreç 'ayrışma (differentiation)' olarak adlandırılmaktadır (Anderson & Sabatelli, 1990; Bowen, 1985).

Bu noktada; Bowen'ın Kuşaklararası Aile Sistem Kuramı ve Williamson'ın Aile Sisteminde Kişisel Otorite Yaklaşımı ile Jessor'ın Problem Davranış Kuramı bağlamsal ve sistemik bir bakış açısı sunmaları nedeniyle risk davranışlarının aile bağlamında açıklanmasında dikkat çekici kuramlar olarak ortaya çıkmaktadırlar.

Risk alma davranışlarını açıklayan en önemli kuramlardan birisi Jessor'ın Problem Davranış Kuramı'dır. Jessor, Donovan ve Costa (1991) ayırt edici bir yaklaşım ortaya koyarak, 'kişisel sistem', 'algılanan çevre sistemi' ve 'davranış sistemi' olarak adlandırdıkları üç ana sistem arasındaki etkileşime vurgu yapmaktadırlar. Bu üç ana sistem belirli bir problem davranışın oluşumunu nedensel olarak açıklayıcı bir güce sahiptir. Özet olarak kuram, ergenlerin suç işleme, riskli cinsel davranışlarda bulunma,

madde kullanımı ve riskli araç kullanma gibi risk alma davranışlarını, ergenle onu kuşatan çevresel faktörlerin etkileşiminin bir sonucu olarak görmektedir. Kurama göre herhangi bir türde risk alma davranışı sergileyen ergenler diğer türdeki risk alma davranışlarını da sergileme eğilimi taşımaktadır.

‘Benlik Ayrışması’, Bowen’ın (1985) kuramında çatı kavram olarak yer almaktadır. Ayrışma bir süreç olarak tasvir edilmekte ve benlik ayrışması sürecini gerçekleştirmiş bir bireyin bireyselliğini korurken, ilişkilerinde yakınlığı ve beraberliği de muhafaza edebileceği belirtilmektedir (Kerr & Bowen, 1988). Bununla birlikte, Kerr ve Bowen (1988) ‘ayrışma’ ve ‘bireyselleşme’ kavramlarının tamamen aynı deneyimleri açıklamadığını ve bu nedenle birbirlerinin yerine kullanılmaması gerektiğini de ifade etmişlerdir. Benlik ayrışmasını gerçekleştirmiş bir birey, kişisel tercihlerinin tüm sorumluluğunu alabilirken, bir yandan da kendisi için önemli olan diğerlerinin duygu ve düşüncelerinin etkisi altında kalmadan kişisel özerkliğini de koruyarak hareket edebilmektedir. Aksi durumlarda ise, aile sistemi içinde çeşitli semptomlar zayıf benlik ayrışmasının bir sonucu olarak ortaya çıkabilmektedir.

Yukarıda ifade edilen durumun en belirgin örneklerinden biri olarak aile üçgenleşmesi verilebilir (Kerr & Bowen, 1988). Bir aile üçgenleşmesi içinde yer alan bireyler, daha yoğun bağlılık hissettikleri diğerleriyle bir taraf oluşturarak hareket etme eğilimi gösterirler. Bu durum ise, üçgenleşme içinde yer alan üçüncü kişinin bu yapı içinde dışarıda kalmasına neden olur. Aile üçgenleşmeleri çoğunlukla kişiler için başedilmesi zor bir durum olan bir tür ‘günah keçisi’, ya da ‘dışlanan tip’ durumunun ortaya çıkmasına neden olur. Bu yapıda, çoğunlukla iki aile üyesi arasındaki gerilimin içine bir üçüncü kişinin (genellikle benlik ayrışması daha düşük olan kişi) dahil edilmesiyle, iki aile üyesi arasındaki gerilim nötralize edilmektedir. Bununla birlikte, üçgene dahil edilen kişinin aile üyesi olması gerekli değildir. Arkadaşlar ve akrabalar da üçgene dahil olabilirler ve aile üyelerinin sayısı arttıkça üçgenleşme görülme olasılığı da artmaktadır.

Diğer yandan, benlik ayrışmasının ve kuşaklararası yakınlığın bir sentezi olarak kişisel otorite (Williamson, 1991) kavramı; bir süreç olarak bireyin ebeveynleri ile yaşadığı evden fiziksel olarak ayrılmasından ziyade, duygusal ya da psikolojik bir ayrılışa işaret etmektedir. Bununla birlikte, bu ayrılış, bir kopuş anlamına da gelmemektedir. Süreç bireyin, aile sistemi içinde yer alan kuşaklararası hiyerarşi ve üçgenleşmeye ilişkin aile politikalarının yeniden müzakeresi yoluyla kişisel ototritenin kazanılması anlamına gelmektedir. Kişisel ototritenin amacı, benlik ayrışmasının gerçekleştirilmesi ve bir yandan da yakınlığın ebeveynler, akranlar ve önemli diğer kişilerle korunmasıdır.

Bu iki kuramın bakış açısıyla risk alma davranışlarının incelendiği çalışmalar daha çok madde kullanımı ve cinsel risk alma davranışları odaklıdır ve bu tür problem davranışlarda kuşaklararası ilişki biçimlerinin önemine vurgu yapılmaktadır. Örneğin; Searight, ve ark. (1991) karşılaştırmalı çalışmalarında madde kullanımı sorunu yaşayan ergen ailelerinin bireyselleşme ile duygusal yakınlık arasındaki dengeyi koruyamadıklarını bulmuşlardır.

Sonuç olarak; risk alma davranışları beliren yetişkinlik döneminin dikkate alınması gereken önemli karakteristik özelliklerinden biri olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Esnek ve katı sosyalizasyon süreçlerine sahip olan kültürler için risk davranışlarının tanımları ve sınırları farklılık göstermektedir (Arnett, 1995) ve aile bu sosyalizasyon sürecinin çok önemli bir parçasıdır. Diğer yandan, sistemik temelli bakış açısı, davranışı problem olarak tanımlamaktan çok, risk alma davranışının aile sistemi içindeki işlevine odaklanmayı gerektirmektedir. Bu nedenle, köken aile ve kuşaklararası ilişkilere ilişkin değişkenlerin beliren yetişkinlerin risk bağlantılı davranışlarının yordanmasında ve anlaşılmasında önemli bir rol oynayabileceği düşünülmektedir.

1.1 Çalışmanın Amacı

Bu çalışmanın amacı, cinsiyet, yaş, akademik ortalama, anne ve babanın eğitim düzeyi ile kardeş sayısı değişkenlerinin kontrol edilerek, kişisel otorite, anne ve babaya olan yakınlık ile aile üçgenleşmesinin beliren yetişkinlikte risk alma davranışlarını ne ölçüde yordadığını belirlemektir.

1.2 Çalışmanın Önemi

Bu çalışma, Türkiye’de risk alma davranışlarının yordanmasında köken aileye ilişkin değişkenlerin yer aldığı ilk çalışmadır. Arnett (1995), sosyalizasyon sürecinin önemli bir parçası olarak ailenin, kültürel değerlerin sonraki kuşaklara aktarılmasında önemli rol oynadığını vurgulamıştır. Aileye ilişkin birçok değişken arasında bu çalışma, özellikle köken aileyle ilişkili değişkenler üzerine odaklanmaktadır. Çünkü ergenlerin risk alma davranışları zaman zaman aile içi çatışmaların ortaya çıkmasını engelleyen bir tampon görevi görebilmektedir. Bu sorun davranışların çözümlenmesi ise aile içi odağın, sorun davranışlardan, özellikle evlilikle ilgili çatışmalara yeniden kaymasına neden olabilmektedir (Robin ve Foster, 1989).

Çalışmanın en önemli katkılarından biri de, çalışma kapsamında Türkçe uyarlaması yapılan Aile Sisteminde Kişisel Otorite Ölçeği’nin (PAFSQ-VC; Bray & Harvey, 1992), Türkiye’de aile danışmanları için kuşaklararası ilişkilere yönelik yapıların değerlendirilmesinde kullanılabilecek bir ölçek olmasıdır.

2. YÖNTEM

Bu araştırmada ilişkiyel araştırma yöntemi kullanılmıştır. İlişkiyel araştırma, nicel araştırma yöntemlerinden biri olup iki ya da daha fazla değişken arasında anlamlı bir ilişki

olup olmadığının tespit edilmesinde kullanılmaktadır (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012). Bu çalışmanın bağımlı değişkeni risk alma davranışları olup, düşük düzeyde ve yüksek düzeyde risk alma davranışları olmak üzere iki düzeyde ele alınmıştır. Yordayıcı değişkenler ise aile üçgenleşmesi, anne ve baba ile olan yakınlık, kişisel otorite ve demografik değişkenlerdir.

2.1 Araştırma Sorusu

Bu çalışmada şu temel sorunun yanıtı araştırılmıştır: Cinsiyet, yaş, akademik ortalama, kardeş sayısı ve ebeveynlerin eğitim düzeyleri kontrol edildiğinde aile üçgenleşmesi, kişisel otorite ve anne baba ile olan yakınlık, beliren yetişkinlikte düşük ve yüksek düzeyde risk alma davranışlarını ne ölçüde yordamaktadır?

2.2 Örneklem

Çalışma örneklemini Ankara'da yaşamakta olan 18-26 yaş arası, beliren yetişkinler oluşturmaktadır. Arnett (2000, 2004) beliren yetişkinlik döneminin 18-25 yaşlarını kapsadığını belirtse de Atak ve Çok (2010) bu dönemin Türkiye'de 19-26 yaşlarını kapsadığını ileri sürmüşlerdir. Bu nedenle, çalışma örneklemini kapsayan yaş aralığı da 18-26 olarak belirlenmiş ve kolayda örnekleme yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Katılımcılar, çoğunluğu Ankara'da iki devlet üniversitesinde öğrenim görmekte olan 575 lisans ve lisansüstü üniversite öğrencisinden oluşmaktadır.

2.2.1 Katılımcıların Demografik Özellikleri

Beliren yetişkinlikte risk alma davranışlarını incelemek amacıyla 535 üniversite öğrencisi çalışmaya katılmıştır. Örneklem büyük bir çoğunluğu, 429 katılımcı ile kadınlardan (80.2%) oluşmuştur. Erkek katılımcı sayısı ise 106'dır (%19.8). Yaş aralığı 18 ile 26

arasında deęişkenlik göstermiştir. Katılımcıların yaş ortalaması 21.10, standart sapması ise 2.27 olarak bulunmuştur.

2.3 Veri Toplama Araçları

Çalışmada, veri toplama araçları olarak araştırmacı tarafından hazırlanan Demografik Bilgi Formu, Türkçe adaptasyonu yine araştırmacı tarafından yapılan Aile Sisteminde Kişisel Otorite Ölçeği - Genç Yetişkin Versiyonu (PAFSQ-VC; Bray & Harvey, 1992) ve Risk Alma Davranışlarını Gösterme Sıklığı ve Risk Algısı Ölçeği (M-RIPS; Özmen, 2006) kullanılmıştır. Aile Sisteminde Kişisel Otorite Ölçeği'nin pilot uygulama çalışmalarında ölçeğin geçerliliğinin test edilmesi amacıyla Yaşam Doyumu Ölçeği (SWLS; Şimşek, 2011), Beck Depresyon Envanteri (BDI; Hisli, 1989), Benlik Ayrışması Ölçeği (DSI-R; Işık & Bulduk, 2013) ve Marlow-Crown Sosyal Beğenirlik Ölçeği (Kısa Versiyon; Ural & Özbilecikli, 2006) kullanılmıştır.

2.4 Veri Toplama Süreci

Bu çalışmanın verileri 2015 yılı bahar döneminde Ankara'daki iki devlet üniversitesinde ilgili ölçekler uygulanarak toplanmıştır. İlgili üniversitelerin etik kurullarından gerekli izinler alındıktan sonra uygulamaya geçilmiştir. Katılımcılar çalışmanın amacı, gönüllülük, istedikleri zaman çalışmayı bırakabilecekleri ve gizlilik gibi konular hakkında bilgilendirilmiştir. Katılımcıların ebeveynlerinden bir ya da ikisi de vefat etmiş olanlardan, ebeveynleriyle ilgili hatıralarından yola çıkarak soruları yanıtlamaları istenmiştir. Aynı şekilde, halihazırda herhangi bir romantik ilişkisi olmayanlardan önceki ilişkilerini düşünerek soruları yanıtlamaları istenmiştir. Anket uygulaması yaklaşık 20 dakika sürmüştür.

2.5 Veri Analizi

Çalışmada açıklayıcı ve çıkarısal istatistik yöntemleri, IBM Statistical Packages of Social Sciences 22 (SPSS) programı kullanılarak yapılmıştır. Çalışmanın bağımlı değişkeni kesintisiz, bağımsız değişkenleri ise ikiden fazla olduğu için çoklu hiyerarşik regresyon analiz yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Bağımlı değişken iki alt boyuttan oluştuğundan, düşük ve yüksek düzey risk alma davranışları için iki farklı çoklu hiyerarşik analizi yapılmıştır.

2.6 Çalışmanın Kısıtlılıkları

Bu çalışmanın en önemli kısıtlılıklarından bazıları örneklem seçme yöntemi olarak kolayda örneklem yönteminin seçilmesi ve öz-bildirim tekniğinin kullanılmış olmasıdır. Bir diğer kısıtlılık ise aile içi üçgenleşme yapısının sadece katılımcıların gözünden değerlendirilmesidir. Bu kısıtlılığın giderilebilmesi için katılımcıların anne ve babalarının da kuşaklararası üçgenleşme açısından değerlendirilmesi gerekmektedir.

3 BULGULAR

Düşük düzey risk alma davranışları için yapılan aşamalı regresyon analizi sonuçlarına göre ilk adımda demografik değişkenler modele alınmış ve bu model varyansın %22.9'unu açıklamıştır. İkinci adımda ise, anne ve baba ile olan yakınlık, aile üçgenleşmesi ve kişisel otorite modele dahil edildiğinde modelin varyansın %24.8'ini açıkladığı görülmüştür. Bu modelde, cinsiyet, yaş, akademik ortalama, kardeş sayısı, kişisel otorite ve babayla olan yakınlık değişkenlerinin, düşük düzey risk alma davranışlarını anlamlı bir şekilde yordadığı, , ebeveynlerin eğitim düzeyi ile aile üçgenleşmesi değişkenlerinin ise anlamlı bir şekilde yordamadığı bulunmuştur.

Bununla birlikte yüksek düzey risk alma davranışları için yapılan aşamalı regresyon analizi sonuçlarına göre ilk adımda yine demografik değişkenler modele alınmış ve bu model varyansın %20.5'ini açıklamıştır. İkinci adımda ise, anne ve baba ile olan yakınlık, aile üçgenleşmesi ve kişisel otorite değişkenleri modele dahil edilmiş ve bu modelin varyansın %22.8'ini açıkladığı görülmüştür. Bu modelde yalnızca cinsiyet, yaş, babanın eğitim düzeyi ve kişisel otorite yüksek düzey risk alma davranışlarını anlamlı bir şekilde yordarken, diğer değişkenler anlamlı bulunmamıştır.

4 TARTIŞMA

Çalışmanın bulguları, beliren yetişkinlik döneminde daha fazla kişisel otoriteye sahip, akademik ortalaması düşük, kardeşi olmayan ya da bir kardeşi olan ve babasıyla yakınlık ilişkileri zayıf olan genç erkeklerin, daha sıklıkla düşük düzey risk alma davranışı gösterdiklerine işaret etmektedir. Bununla birlikte, daha fazla kişisel otoriteye sahip katılımcılardan, babanın eğitim düzeyinin ortaöğretim olduğu daha yaşlı erkeklerin, beliren yetişkinlik döneminde daha sıklıkla yüksek düzey risk alma davranışı gösterdikleri görülmüştür.

Akademik ortalama (GPA) düşük düzey risk alma davranışlarının en güçlü yordayıcısı olarak bulunmuş ve varyansın %6.9'unu açıklamıştır. Bu bulgu alanyazında yer alan diğer bulgularla da tutarlıdır. Çalışmalar, düşük akademik başarı ile risk alma davranışları arasında negatif bir korelasyon olduğunu vurgulamaktadır (Brook, Cohen & Kasen, 1998; Foster, 2014; Kıran, 2005; Knight, 2014; Odacı, 2013). Ancak, akademik ortalama, yüksek düzey risk alma davranışlarını anlamlı bir şekilde yordamamaktadır. Bu durum, düşük düzey risk davranışları alt boyutunun akademik davranışlara ilişkin maddeler içermesi, yüksek düzey risk davranışları alt boyutunun ise bununla ilişkili maddeler içermemesiyle açıklanabilir. Bir diğer açıklama ise, Bayar ve Sayıl'ın (2005) da ifade

ettiği gibi, Türkiye’de ergenlerin yüksek düzey risk alma davranışlarından ziyade düşük düzey risk alma davranışları göstermeleri de olabilir.

Bu çalışmada kardeş sayısı değişkeni düşük düzey risk alma davranışlarının %3.6’sını açıklamıştır. Alanyazında da benzer bulgular kardeş sayısı arttıkça risk davranışlarının azaldığını göstermektedir (Aras, Günay, Özan & Orçın, 2007; Ayvayışık & Sümer, 2010).

Cinsiyet, bu çalışmada incelenen hem düşük hem de yüksek düzey risk davranışlarını açıklayan değişkenlerden biri olmuştur. Düşük düzey risk davranışları için varyansın %5.3’ünü, yüksek düzey risk davranışları için ise varyansın %10.6’sını açıklamıştır. Bu bulgu, alan yazında sıklıkla ifade edilen, erkeklerin daha sıklıkla risk davranışları sergiledikleri bulgusuyla da uyumludur (Arnett, 1995; Bayar & Sayıl, 2005; Charness & Gneezy, 2012; Grasmick, Hagan, Blackwell & Arneklev, 1996; Miller & Schafer, 1999; Turner & McClure, 2003; Yorulmaz, Akturk, Dagdeviren & Dalkilic, 2002).

Benzer bir şekilde, kişisel otorite de, cinsiyet ve yaşla birlikte her iki düzeydeki risk alma davranışlarını anlamlı bir şekilde yordayan değişkenlerden biri olmuştur. Ancak, bu değişkenin düşük düzey ve yüksek düzey risk alma davranışlarını oldukça düşük varyanslarla açıkladığı (düşük düzey risk davranışları için %0.7 ve yüksek düzey risk davranışları için %1.2) göz önünde bulundurulmalıdır.

Cinsiyet ve kişisel otoriteye ilişkin bulguların bu noktada, sosyalizasyon ve aile bağlamında tartışılmasının daha anlamlı sonuçlar vereceği söylenebilir. Arnett (1995)’e göre sosyalizasyon süreci daha açık ve esnek olan kültürlerde bireylerin, kendini ifade etme biçimi olarak risk alma davranışlarını gösterme sıklığı daha fazladır ve bu davranışlara ilişkin sosyal normlar da katı değildir. Bununla birlikte, cinsiyet açısından kadınların sosyalizasyon süreçlerinin daha kapalı sosyalizasyon özelliklerini yansıttığı, erkeklerin ise bu süreci daha açık ve esnek bir sosyalizasyon bağlamında yaşadıklarını

ifade etmektedir. Özetle, erkeklerin risk alma davranışlarının, kadınlarla karşılaştırıldığında, sosyal normlar açısından daha çok kabul gördüğü söylenebilir.

Türk kültürel konteksinin bu bakımdan her iki sosyalizasyon sürecine ilişkin özellikler taşıdığı da söylenebilir. Bununla birlikte, Kağıtçıbaşı (2007) önerdiği yeni modelde, bireylerin daha fazla kişisel özerkliğe sahip olmalarının kuşaklararası hiyerarşi için artık bir tehdit olarak algılanmadığını varsaymaktadır. Model, aile üyelerinin dinamik bir denge içinde duygusal yakınlıklarını korurken, kişisel özerkliklerini de devam ettirebildiği bir yapı ortaya koymaktadır. Benzer bir şekilde İmamoğlu (1987) da Türk kültüründe çocukların sosyalizasyon sürecine ilişkin olarak, ilişki ve birliktelikle, bireyselliğin ve bağımsızlığın bir arada olduğu bir yapıyı kavramsallaştırmaktadır. Bu anlamda her iki modelin de, yine aile sistemi içinde kişisel otorite ile birliktelik ve yakınlık dengesine vurgu yapan Williamson'ın (1991) kişisel otorite kavramı ile örtüştüğü söylenebilir. Sonuç olarak, Türk ailesinde kişisel otoritenin kuşaklararası hiyerarşi açısından bir tehdit oluşturmadığı (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2007) varsayımından hareketle, Türk kültürel konteksinin özellikle erkekler için risk bağlantılı davranışlar söz konusu olduğunda daha açık ve esnek bir yapıya sahip olduğu söylenebilir. Bu durum, çalışmanın sonuçlarıyla da tutarlılık göstermektedir.

Yaş değişkeni yine her iki risk alma düzeyi için çalışmanın önemli yordayıcılarından biri olmuştur. Düşük düzey risk alma davranışları için varyansın %4'ü yaş değişkeni tarafından açıklanmıştır. Bu sonuç, alanyazında genç yetişkinlerin daha fazla risk alma eğiliminde olduğuna ilişkin bulgularla da tutarlılık göstermektedir (Jessor, Turbin & Costa, 1997; Ravert & Gomez-Scott, 2014). Yüksek düzey risk alma davranışları için ise varyansın %7.5'i yine yaş değişkeni tarafından açıklanmıştır. Bununla birlikte, yüksek düzey risk davranışları ile yaş arasında bulunan ilişki pozitif bir ilişkidir. Bray (2004) kişisel otoritenin otuzlu yaşlardan itibaren kazanıldığını, sürecin tamamlanmasının ise çoğunlukla otuzbeş ve kırk yaşları arasında olduğunu belirtmiştir. Bu bakımdan, bir geçiş

dönemi olarak, beliren yetişkinlikte yaşın artmasıyla birlikte kişisel otoritenin arttığı ve kişisel otoritenin artmasıyla birlikte yüksek düzeyde risk alma davranışlarının da artış gösterdiği söylenebilir.

Anne ve baba ile olan yakınlık değişkenlerinden biri olan baba ile yakınlık, oldukça düşük bir oranda (%1.1 varyans) düşük düzey risk alma davranışlarını yordamıştır. Bu bulgu ışığında, çalışmanın sonuçlarının baba ve oğul arasındaki ilişkinin risk davranışları ile ilgili anlamlı bir yapı oluşturduğu söylenebilir. Aile sistemi bağlamında ise baba ve oğul arasındaki ilişkinin niteliği alanyazında da risk davranışlarının açıklanmasında önemli bir yer tutmaktadır. Örneğin, madde kullanımının önlenmesine yönelik çeşitli yaklaşımları inceledikleri çalışmalarında Snell, Radosevich ve Feit (2014) baba rolünün önemli bir koruyucu unsur olduğunu ve önleyici programlar geliştirilirken baba ve oğulları arasındaki ilişkiye de odaklanılmasının uzun soluklu olumlu sonuçları beraberinde getireceğini belirtmişlerdir.

Ebeveynlerin eğitim düzeyleri değişkenlerinden biri olan babanın ortaöğretim mezunu olması, yine oldukça düşük bir oranda (%1.1 varyans) yüksek düzey risk alma davranışlarını yordamıştır. Ayrıca, ebeveynlerin eğitim düzeylerinin risk alma davranışlarını ne düzeyde yordadıklarına ilişkin literatürde farklı bulgular bulunması da, bu bulguların yorumlanmasını zorlaştırmaktadır. Ebeveynlere ilişkin (tutum ve kontrol vb.) olası moderatör değişkenler gelecek çalışmalara dahil edilerek bu değişken daha kapsamlı olarak incelenebilir.

Çalışmanın son değişkeni olarak, beklenilenin aksine, aile üçgenleşmesi risk alma davranışları için anlamlı bir yordayıcı olarak bulunmamıştır. Aile üçgenleşmesi biçimlerine ilişkin verdiği örneklerden birinde Bowen (1985), çocukların evlilik ya da eğitim gibi bir nedenle evden ayrılmalarının, genellikle varolan bir üçgenleşmeden de ayrılmalarıyla sonuçlanacağını belirtmiştir. Çalışma örnekleminin üniversite eğitimi için

evlerinden ayrılmış olan beliren yetişkinlerden oluşması ve üçgenleşmeye ilişkin soruların şu an ki güncel ilişkilere yönelik olması göz önüne alındığında, katılımcıların kendilerini bir üçgenleşme içinde hissetmemeleri sonucu ortaya çıkmış olması muhtemeldir. Ayrıca, bu çalışmada anne ile olan ilişkiler yordayıcı bulunmamıştır ve sonuçlar baba ve oğul arasında duygusal bir mesafeye işaret etmektedir. Bu durumun, anne ve baba arasındaki gerilimin, erkek çocuğun da sürece dahil olduğu gizli bir üçgenleşme yapısının sonucu olabileceği olasılığı da gözden kaçırılmamalıdır.

4.1 Uygulamaya Yönelik Öneriler

Öncelikle, çalışma kapsamında Türkçe uyarlaması yapılan Aile Sisteminde Kişisel Otorite Ölçeği - Genç Yetişkin Versiyonu (PAFSQ-VC), köken aileye ve kuşaklararası ilişkilere ilişkin değişkenlerin değerlendirilmesi için kullanılabilecek ilk ölçeklerdendir. Bununla birlikte, bu çalışma Türkiye’de kuşaklararası ilişkilere ilişkin değişkenlerin risk davranışlarının yordanmasında kullanıldığı ilk çalışmadır. Çalışma sonuçları, düşük akademik başarıya sahip olan, babasıyla yakın bir ilişkiye sahip olmayan, bir ya da hiç kardeşi olmayan ve yüksek düzeyde kişisel otoriteye sahip olan yaşça daha genç erkeklerin daha fazla düşük düzey risk davranışları gösterdiklerini ortaya koymaktadır. Bu katılımcılar, örneğin, düşük düzey risk davranışları arasında bulunan kopya çekme, ödevlerini tamamlamama ve okulu asma gibi akademik hayatlarına ilişkin davranışları daha sıklıkla göstermektedirler. Bu nedenle, üniversitelerin öğrenci gelişim merkezleri ve psikolojik danışma birimleri özellikle bu risk grubunda bulunan öğrencilere yönelik akademik risk davranışlarını önleme odaklı psikoeğitsel programlar geliştirebilirler.

Çalışma sonuçları ayrıca, babası ortaöğretim mezunu, yüksek düzeyde kişisel otoriteye sahip olan yaşça daha büyük erkeklerin daha fazla yüksek düzeyde risk alma davranışları gösterdiklerini ortaya koymaktadır. Bu katılımcılar, örneğin, preservatifsiz cinsel ilişkide bulunmak, marihuana ve esrar kullanmak gibi sağlığı tehdit edici davranışları daha sıklıkla

göstermektedirler. Bu nedenle, üniversitelerin psikolojik danışma birimleri ile AMATEM gibi madde kullanımını ve önlenmesine yönelik çalışmalar yapan kurumlarla iş birliği yapılarak özellikle bu risk grubunda bulunan öğrencilere yönelik önleyici programlar geliştirebilirler.

4.2 Gelecek Çalışmalar için Öneriler

Çalışma sonuçları, köken aile ve kuşaklararası aile ilişkileri değişkenlerinin risk alma davranışlarını çok düşük varyanslarla açıkladığını ortaya koymuştur. Bu nedenle köken aileye ilişkin bu değişkenler muhtemel aracı değişkenlerle farklı bir örneklem grubu üzerinde yeniden çalışılabilir. Bununla birlikte, katılımcı ebeveynlerinin de çalışmaya dahil edilmesi, aile sistemi içindeki üçgenleşme yapılarının daha iyi değerlendirilmesine olanak sağlayabilir. Ayrıca Bowen'ın (1985) kuşaklararası aile ilişkileriyle ilgili değişkenlerini klinik gözlemler sonucu elde ettiği bilinmektedir. Alanyazında da risk bağlantılı çalışmalarda bu değişkenlerin klinik ve klinik olmayan örneklemelerin karşılaştırılması yoluyla yapıldığı görülmektedir. Bu nedenle daha sonra yapılacak çalışmalarda klinik örneklem de çalışmalara dahil edilebilir.

Çalışmada aile üçgenleşmesinin anlamlı bir yordayıcı olarak bulunmamasının nedenlerinden biri de, beliren yetişkinlik döneminde kişisel otorite düzeyinin artmasıyla, aile sistemi içinde üçgenleşmenin katılımcılar açısından azalması ya da etkisinin daha az hissedilmeye başlaması olabilir. Bu nedenle, beliren yetişkinlik döneminden çok ergenlik döneminde benzer bir çalışmanın yapılmasının üçgenleşmenin etkilerinin görülebilmesi açısından daha anlamlı olabilecektir.

Son olarak, daha sonra yapılacak çalışmalarda sonuçların genellenebilirliği açısından kolayda örneklem yöntemi yerine seçkisiz örneklem yönteminin kullanılması ve katılımcıların cinsiyet dağılımının mümkün olduğunca eşit olması önerilmektedir. Ayrıca çalışma örnekleme, ağırlıklı olarak beliren yetişkinlik döneminde üniversite eğitimi gören

katılımcılardan oluşmuştur. Beliren yetişkinlik döneminde, üniversite öğrenimi görmeyen örneklemde de çalışmaların yürütülmesi önerilmektedir.

Appendix G. Tez Fotokopisi İzin Formu

ENSTİTÜ

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enformatik Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>

YAZARIN

Soyadı : Kurşuncu
Adı : Mustafa Alperen
Bölümü : Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışmanlık

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) : Risk Involvement in Emerging Adulthood: The Role of Personal Authority, Intergenerational Intimacy and Family Triangulation

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans Doktora

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.
2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.
3. Tezimden bir bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınamaz.

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ: