

THE EFFECTS OF WORKING ON ADOLESCENT DEVELOPMENT
AMONG HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS AND WORKING ADOLESCENTS

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EYÜP ÖZKAMALI


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DOKÜMANTASYON MERKEZİ**

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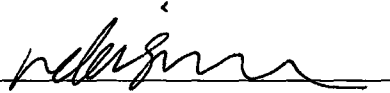
Prof. Dr. Bahattin Akşit
Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science.



Prof. Dr. Nuray Karancı
Head of Department

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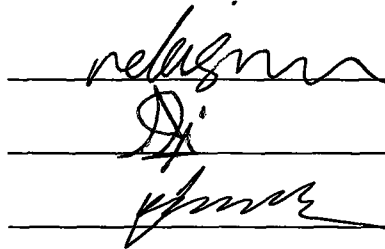
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Nebi Sümer
Supervisor

Examining Committee Members

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Nebi Sümer

Prof. Dr. Ali Dönmez

Assist. Prof. Dr. Sibel Kazak Berument



ABSTRACT

THE EFFECTS OF WORKING ON ADOLESCENT DEVELOPMENT AMONG HIGH-SCHOOL STUDENTS AND WORKING ADOLESCENTS

Eyüp Özkamalı

M.Sc., Department of Psychology

Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Nebi Sümer

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Although the impact of a number of social and psychological factors, such as family, school environment, and peers on adolescents' self and identity development has been extensively investigated, the role of full-time working on these factors has remained largely unexamined. Therefore, the purpose of the present study was to compare working adolescents and nonworking-students on ego identity-status, self-image, psychological well being and parenting styles. It was expected that, as compared to students, working adolescents would have higher scores on identity foreclosure, parental control, and psychopathological variables. The participants of the study were 182 working adolescents and 280 students from four different high schools and occupational courses run by state institutions for adolescents. The data were gathered by administering five

instruments; the Extended Objective Measure of Ego Identity Status, the Offer Self Image Questionnaire, the Brief Symptom Inventory, the Parenting Styles Questionnaire, and a demographic information form. A series of two-way analysis of co-variance was conducted to assess the differences between working and student adolescents. The findings of this study partially supported the hypothesis. Results indicated that working adolescents reported higher levels of interpersonal and ideological ego identity status, especially foreclosure, than students holding the age and family income of the participants constant. In seven subscales of Ego Identity Status, the working adolescent obtained significantly higher scores than students. Working adolescents, compare to the students, were found to have lower scores on various domains of self-image such as, family relationship, impulse control and sexual attitude. Finally, working adolescents reported higher levels of somatization, depression, and anxiety and perceived more parental control than students. The results were discussed within the context of the relevant literature and suggestions were made for further studies.

Keywords: Working Adolescents, Self-Image, Ego Identity Statuses, Parenting Styles, Psychological Well Being.

ÖZ

ÇALIŞAN VE ÖĞRENCİ ERGENLERDE ÇALIŞMANIN ERGEN GELİŞİMİ ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİ

Eyüp Özkamalı

Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Psikoloji Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi: Doç Dr. Nebi Sümer

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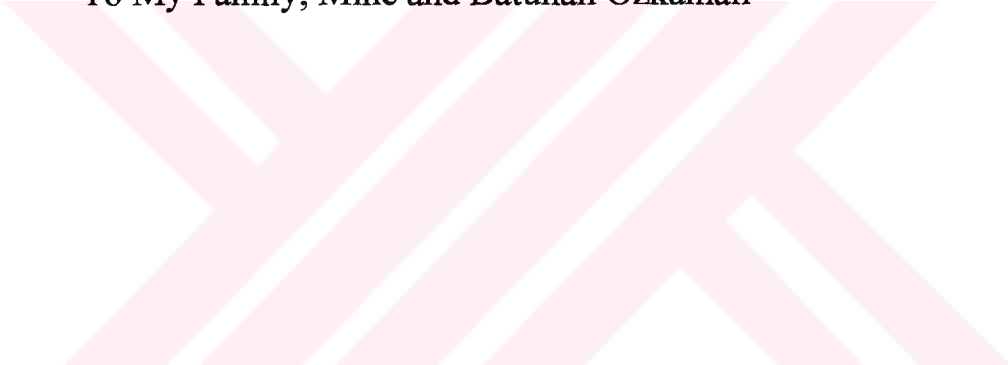
Aile yapısı, okul çevresi ve akran grupları gibi birçok psikolojik ve sosyal faktörün ergenlerin kimlik ve benlik gelişimi üzerindeki etkileri kapsamlı bir şekilde incelenmesine karşın, ergenlik döneminde bir işte tam zamanlı olarak çalışmanın anılan değişkenler üzerindeki etkisi yeterince irdelenmemiştir. Bu nedenle, bu çalışmanın temel amacı çalışan ergenlerle çalışmayan öğrenci ergenleri, kimlik statüleri, benlik imgesi, ruh sağlığı ve çocuk yetiştirme tutumları bağlamında karşılaştırmaktır. Öğrencilerle karşılaştırıldığında, çalışan ergenlerin ipotekli (bastırılmış) kimlik statüsü, ebeveyn kontrolü ve ruh sağlığı değişkenlerinden daha yüksek puanlar alması beklenmiştir. Araştırmaya dört farklı okuldan toplam 182 çalışan ergen ve 280 çalışmayan öğrenci ergen katılmıştır. Katılımcılara beş farklı ölçek uygulanmıştır; Genişletilmiş Nesnel Kimliği Statüleri Ölçeği, Benlik İmgesi Ölçeği, Kısa Semptom Envanteri, Çocuk Yetiştirme Tutumları Ölçeği ve, araştırmacı tarafından hazırlanan demografik bilgi formu. Çalışan ergenleri ve çalışmayan öğrencileri adı geçen değişkenler

temelinde karřılařtırmak amacıyla bir dizi, iki ynl kovaryans analizi yapılmıřtır. Sonular bu alıřmanın hipotezlerini kısmen desteklemiřtir. Yař ve aile gelirleri sabit tutulduėunda, alıřan ergenlerin, hem ideolojik hemde kiřilerarası alanlarda daha yksek dzeylerde kimlik statleri rapor etmiřlerdir. Farklılıkların zellikle ipotekli kimlik stats deėiřkeninde belirgin olduėu gzlenmiřtir. Diėer yedi kimlik stats alt boyutlarında da alıřan ergenler, alıřmayan ėrenci ergenlere oranla daha yksek puanlar rapor etmiřlerdir. alıřan ergenler, ėrenci ergenlere oranla Benlik İmgesi leėinin bazı alt boyutlarında daha dřk puanlar almıřlardır. zellikle, aile iliřkileri, drt kontrol ve cinsel tutumlar da belirgin farklılıklar gzlenmiřtir. alıřan ergenlerin ėrencilere oranla yksek dzeyde somatizasyon, depresyon ve kaygı rapor ettikleri de bulunmuřtur. Ayrıca alıřan ergenlerin, ėrencilere oranla daha fazla ebeveyn denetimi algıladıkları saptanmıřtır. Sonular ilgili literatr iinde tartıřılmıř ve gelecek alıřmalar iin nerilerde bulunulmuřtur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: alıřan Ergenler, Benlik İmgesi, Kimlik Statleri, ocuk

Yetiřtirme Tutumları, Ruh Saėlıėı.

To My Family, Mine and Batuhan Özkamalı



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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of working on the self and identity development of adolescents. In contrast to the extensive literature on adolescent socialization in the family, school, and peer group, relatively little systematic study on the impact of working on adolescent development has been conducted (Steinberg, Garduque, Ruggiero, Vaux, & Greenberger, 1982). Past research on this issue yielded divergent findings and sparked much controversy, mostly concerned with the relationship between adolescent working and academic achievement (Green & Jaquess, 1987; Lillydahl, 1990; Mortimer, Finch, Ryu, Shanahan, & Call, 1996; Carr, Wrigth & Brody, 1996), family relationship (Schill, McCartin, & Meyer, 1985; Mortimer & Shanahan, 1994), self-image (Özbay, Hınçal, Güngör, Kılıç, Aktaş, Aybaş, Göka, & Şahin, 1991), self-concept (Mortimer & Lorence, 1979), mental health (Greenberger, Steinberg & Vaux, 1981; Shanahan, Finch, Mortimer, & Ryu, 1991; Bachman & Schulenberg, 1993; Mortimer, Finch, Ryu, Shanahan, & Call, 1996), negative impact of working on adolescent (Gottfredson, 1985; Steinberg & Dornbusch, 1991; Steinberg, Fegley & Dornbusch, 1993).

There are two fundamental approaches with respect to the effects of adolescents' working (Mortimer & Finch, 1996). Those who support first approach claim that

working is “good” for youths. According to this view, employment in adolescence poses special opportunities for growth and development. Those who support second approach argue that teenage employment during the school years is detriment especially if it occurs in large doses; therefore, hours of work should be strictly monitored (Gottfredson, 1985; Finch, Shanahan, Mortimer & Ryu, 1991; Bachman & Schulenberg, 1993; Mortimer & Finch 1996). It can be concluded that the question of whether or not working has a positive impact on development of adolescents has not been clearly answered yet. Past research on this issue is characterized by inconsistent findings for the effects of working. For example, Green and Jacquess (1987) found that part-time working during adolescence does not negatively affect academic achievement. However, in other studies, it was found that working adolescents had significantly lower grades than did students who were not working (Steinberg, Greenberger, Garduque, Ruggiero & Vaux, 1982; Lillydahl, 1990).

In the majority of Western countries, adolescent work experience can be characterized as being predominantly part-time and short-term, and is concentrated in low level, non career jobs (Peters, 1987; Stern, Stone, Hopkins & McMillion, 1990). Part-time or short-term employment is generally considered a significant step in the social and personality development of individuals from adolescence to adulthood for several reasons. In addition to providing vocational experience, working enables the adolescents to deal with people other than family members and peers. Because working adolescents make a real contribution to society, they may be increasingly recognized as adults. It provides for additional

responsibility and independence, and the money earned reduces financial dependence upon others (Schill, McCartin & Meyer 1985; Peters, 1987; Green & Jacquess, 1987).

Adolescents have several reasons for part-time working. These are training and experience invocation, help support family, earning money, saving money for future education, money for current expenses, enjoyable activity, family owned business, adding to savings account, learning to get along in adult world of work, something to fill time, education not related to future vocation, cost of buying and operating an automobile. Research on this area shows that the most important reasons are money for current expenses, to add to savings account and money for future education (Peters, 1987; Stern, Stone, Hopkins & McMillion, 1990).

According to Greenberger (1983), psychological benefits of working are defined as follows; increased understanding of money matters, increased feelings of responsibility, increased self-reports of willingness to stick to a task and enjoyment of a job well done and increased feelings of self-reliance. Although many developmental psychologists believe that full-time working has detrimental effects on adolescent development, part-time work has always been viewed as beneficial. Past studies show that parents and others generally believe that by going to work adolescents gained in positive ways, such as: increasing self-reliance, promoting intergenerational harmony, increasing social responsibility, teaching personal autonomy, increasing employability, increasing feelings of integration into adulthood, learning mature work attitudes, learning role

flexibility, enhance and broaden the self-concept, learning to live with boring routines, obtaining relevant vocational training, enhancing educational experiences, and smooth the transition to adulthood (Peters, 1987; Phillips & Sandstrom 1990; Mortimer & Shanahan, 1994).

Although, some studies demonstrated that part-time working during the school years has several positive effects on adolescent development, some other studies revealed that working part-time during the school years has several negative effects on adolescent development (Bachman & Schulenberg, 1993; Manning, 1990). These researchers found that compared to their nonworking peers, working adolescents spend less time on homework, are absent more, and report less enjoyment with school. Adolescents who work more than 15 to 20 hours per week also perform less well academically, probably because they simply are less involved in school. Working adolescents also are less involved in extracurricular activities because they simply do not have time for them (Steinberg, Greenberger, Garduque, Ruggiero & Vaux, 1982).

In relation with negative effects of part-time working Bachman and Schulenberg (1993), in their study, listed four broad psychosocial issues: substance use (including cigarette, alcohol, marijuana and cocaine use), other problem behaviors (including interpersonal aggression, victimization and trouble with police), time use (including time spent on sleep exercise and dating) and general and specific life satisfaction and self-esteem. The majority of these studies are conducted on

part-time working adolescents. The effects of full-time working, as seen commonly among Turkish adolescents, has not been investigated in a full-range

The effects of adolescents' work experiences have also been demonstrated on work values and work preferences for future jobs reported by adolescents (Stevens, Puchtell, Ryu & Mortimer, 1992). Adolescence is an important life stage for the formation of work-related orientations and the development of work identity. Working experience provides an important role for adolescents' future roles. Also working may provide an impetus for reflection on, and anticipation of the future and may influence aspirations and plans. In the light of sex differences, boys with more formal work usually come from large families and experience longer paid work duration. For girls, in contrast, formal work is reducing their interest in traditional family roles, postponing expected marriage age and reducing anticipated marriage, and parenthood involvement (Stevens, Puchtell, Ryu & Mortimer, 1992).

Previous findings indicate that adolescents cannot make intelligent decisions about future work goals and cannot make long term commitments toward an occupation. Adolescents, like most people, make vocational choices in a random way. Some researchers have argued that adolescents cannot terminate for searching new occupations when they choose a vocation and enter the adult work world (Mortimer, Owens, Shanahan, & Finch, 1990; Stevens, Puchtell, Ryu & Mortimer, 1992; Mortimer & Shanahan, 1994; Mortimer & Finch 1996).

Working has also an effect on the levels of self-esteem. Mortimer and Finch (1996) found that high adolescent self-esteem is associated with high occupational aspirations, and expectations of success in attaining one's goal. Moreover, it is widely assumed that a positive self-image promotes occupational achievement. Another important factor for the occupational achievement is the socioeconomic position of the family, particularly the father's occupation influences the formation of work values among young people. The parental workplace is one of the most important environments influencing the vocational development of children. The majority of mothers and fathers seem to approve their own child's employment (Mortimer & Finch, 1996).

Reviewed studies appear to suggest that part-time working has positive effect on self-image and it increases the self-evaluations, namely self-esteem. Although the role of part-time work experience on adolescents overall development has been studied, the role of full-time working on ego identity formation, self-image, psychological well being and parental styles has not received enough attention. The primary objective of this study, hence, is to look at the effect of full-time working, which is the common working pattern in Turkey, on adolescents' self and identity development. In the following sections, the literature on the self and identity development, as well as psychological well being and parenting styles will be briefly summarized.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Past studies have provided evidence supporting that work experiences do influence personality (e.g., Mortimer & Lorence 1979; Dusek, 1987; Stevens, Puchtell, Ryu & Mortimer, 1992). Occupational success and failures (as indicated by prestige and income attainment, promotion, demotion and unemployment) have been shown to influence the sense of internal locus of control, self-esteem, competence, physical health, and emotional stress among adolescents. Also work experience affects individual's attitudes, values, and perceptions of the self. Adolescent work experiences may be viewed as beneficial to identity formation, although too much pressure for making vocational decisions too early may retard identity development (Mortimer & Lorence 1979).

According to the fundamental theories of identity development, such as Erikson's (1968) theory, teenage years are accepted as the time for identity formation and as a period of intensive quantitative and qualitative changes in personality development. Therefore, ego development and identity formation are the main developmental tasks during adolescence and hence, these issues received increased attention by developmental psychologists. While several operationalizations of Erikson's theoretical statements of identity formation of adolescents have emerged, the most widely accepted application of his theory has

been provided by Marcia (1966). It is important to address Erikson's view of identity formation before proceeding through Marcia's conceptualization.

2.1. Ego Identity Formation:

According to Erikson's (1968) psychosocial theory of personality the central developmental task of adolescence is the formation of a coherent identity formation. According to Erikson (1968), ego identity refers to a sense of uniqueness and temporal consistency/continuity in a person's beliefs, values and interests in the domains of occupations, religion, ideology, and philosophy of life. Erikson developed his theory on the basis of his clinical and cross-cultural observation of young people at various stages of development. He viewed the developing person as moving through a series of eight psychosocial crises over the course of the life span. Erikson's constructs of identity has become the principal tool for understanding the development of personality from adolescence to adulthood. Erikson viewed this phase of life cycle as a period of occupational and ideological commitment (Waterman, 1982). Researchers studying identity development have usually relied on Marcia's (1966) identity status paradigm. According to Marcia (1980), the Eriksonian dimensions of crisis and commitment are the fundamental processes that underlie the development of identity during adolescence. Marcia interpreted crisis as an active period of identity-exploration in which an individual tests and experiments with alternative directions in his or her life, beliefs, self-presentation styles, and interpersonal relationships. An active exploration process is expected to lead to a subsequent commitment. In this sense,

commitment refers to the choice of one among several alternative paths in the various identity domains (Marcia, 1980).

The most important elaboration of Erikson's views on identity formation is Marcia's (1966) identity status model. In Marcia's interpretation of Eriksonian concept of identity formation, there are two essential criteria for determining the development of ego identity: exploration (crisis) and commitment (see in Figure 1).

		COMMITMENT	
EXPLORATION		Yes	No
	Yes	Identity Achievement	Moratorium
	No	Foreclosure	Identity Diffusion

Fig. 1. Schematic Diagram of Marcia's Identity Statuses

Exploration is defined as a period of questioning and experimenting with alternative roles and ideals. Commitment involves making firm and relatively enduring decisions regarding various identity alternatives. As seen in Figure 1, ego identity statuses differ in terms of the present or absence of active exploration and commitment in the identity domains during late adolescence. From this criteria, Marcia (1966) developed both his four-status model (achieved, moratorium, diffused, foreclosed) and an interview procedure designed to identify an individual's status. The statuses represent four possible outcomes or processes regarding identity. Identity achievement describes the status of someone who has experienced an active identity exploration on various alternatives and

made commitments. Moratorium refers to the status of someone who is currently experiencing an exploration or still exploring and actively seeking commitments. A person is classified as a foreclosure when he or she has made commitments without ever having gone through a period of exploration. Finally, diffusion refers to the status of someone who has not made commitments and is unable or unwilling to make them. This person may or may not have experienced a crisis. Marcia's (1966) early formulation of identity statuses included only an ideological dimension of identity which was limited to the domains of religion, politics, and occupation. Recently, however, based on Erikson's (1968) conceptualization of identity, Grotevant and Adams (1984) made a distinction between ideological (personal) and interpersonal (social) identity in a research conducted on a scale called the Objective Measure of Ego Identity Status (OMEIS). The authors claimed that close examination of Erikson's (1968) writing reveals that ideological commitment includes the formulation of an individual or philosophical life style. Thus, an extended version of the OMEIS was constructed that allowed the categorization of ideological, interpersonal, and total identity status. Four new domains of friendship, dating, sex roles, and recreation were constructed for the interpersonal aspect of identity. The original three domains of occupation, politics, and religion were retained for the ideological aspect, with a fourth new dimension of philosophical life style constructed for inclusion in the extended version of the OMEIS (Grotevant & Adams, 1984).

In ego identity formation, vocational identity was found to have an important role in forming a mature adult identity and relates to progress in ego identity

(Savickas, 1985). From this perspective, adolescent work experiences may be viewed as beneficial to identity formation. Vocational identity can be described as the possession of a clear and stable picture of one's goals, interests and talents. Savickas asserted that there was a moderate association with both degree of vocational development and ego identity achievement. In his study, students who developed vocational goals, abilities and talents also had more progress in ego identity achievement. In this study, a small difference was found between males and females about vocational development and ego identity. However, females scored higher than males in vocational developmental measure.

Naturally, in many cultures, school activities constitute the largest and most important aspect of life during adolescence. Therefore, it seems reasonable to assume that adolescent vocational development is heavily influenced by school experience (Vondracek & Skorikov, 1997). School, work and leisure interests of high school students are closely related and most likely, all represent variations in the general interests of adolescents (Vondracek & Skorikov 1997). Past studies suggest that working may indirectly and positively affect identity development via vocational development.

In addition to work experience, it was shown that the level of participation in sports and physical activities was positively associated with identity development for females but not for males, even though females were less likely than males to represent self-identity as "physical active" (Shaw, Kleiber & Caldwell, 1995).

Relationship between leisure and identity development seems to depend on both gender and the nature of leisure activities.

In the present study, it was assumed that full-time working may have detrimental effects on the identity development. On the basis of past research, it can be speculated that working may prevent adolescents from active exploration and thus, may lead to early commitment on an alternative (usually on occupation preferred by parents). Therefore, it would be expected that working adolescents would be more likely to have higher levels of foreclosure and diffusion statuses in both ideological and interpersonal domains than non-working adolescents.

2.2. Parenting Styles

Developmental psychologists have long searched for the ingredients of parenting that promote competent social and emotional development in children (McNally, Eisenberg, & Harris, 1991). An extensive literature on socialization practices of children provides consistent evidence that parental warmth, inductive discipline, nonpunitive punishment practices, and consistency in child rearing are each associated with positive developmental outcomes in children (Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 1994). Baumrind (1971), as the pioneer of parenting style research, believes that parents should be neither punitive nor permissive, but should develop rules for their children and be affectionate with them. She coined three types of parenting that are associated with different aspects of the child's social behavior. These styles are authoritative, authoritarian, and neglectful parenting. In the authoritarian style of parenting, parents attempted

to shape, control, and evaluate the behavior and attitudes of their children in accordance with an absolute set of standards. In permissive parenting, parents are tolerant and accepting toward the child's impulses, use as little punishment as possible, make few demands for mature behavior, and allow considerable self-regulation by the child. Authoritative parenting is the third type which contains an expectation of mature behavior from the child and clear setting of standards by the parents; firm enforcement of rules and standards, using commands and sanctions when necessary. Maccoby and Martin (1983) and Steinberg et al., (1994) believed that different parental styles and practices were best understood on the basis of two underlying dimensions; control-supervision and acceptance-involvement. According to the authors, when crossed these dimensions (parental acceptance/involvement and strict-control) produce four parenting styles emerge. The authoritative parenting style is characterized by high levels of both acceptance-involvement and control the permissive/neglectful parenting style is characterized by low levels of both dimensions. While higher levels of strict control/supervision and lower levels of acceptance/involvement typify the authoritarian parenting, conversely, lower levels of strict control/supervision and higher levels of acceptance/involvement typify the permissive/indulgent parenting style.

Authoritarian parenting is described a restrictive, punitive style that forces the child to follow the parent's directions and to respect them with a full obedience. The authoritarian parents place firm limits and controls on their children with little verbal exchange allowed. Authoritarian parenting is associated with children's

social incompetence. Children of authoritarian parents are often anxious about social comparison, fail to initiate an activity, and have poor communication skills. Also early harsh discipline was associated with child aggression (Weiss, Dodge, Bates, & Pettit, 1992). On the other hand, authoritative parenting encourages children to be independent but still places limits and controls on their activities. Extensive verbal and is allowed, and parents are warm and nurturant toward the child. Authoritative parenting is associated with children's social competence. Studies show that children whose parents are authoritative are socially competent, self-reliant, and socially responsible. Permissive parenting has two styles: permissive-neglectful and permissive-indulgent. Permissive-neglectful parenting is a style in which the parent is extremely uninvolved in the child's life; it is associated with children's social incompetence, especially a lack of self-control. Children with permissive-neglectful parents develop the sense that other aspect of parents' lives are more important than they are. Also, they are socially incompetent, develop poor self-control and do not handle independence. Finally, permissive-indulgent parenting is a style in which parents are highly involved with their children but places few demands or controls on them. Permissive-indulgent parenting is associated with children's social incompetence, especially a lack of self-control. Children whose parents are permissive-indulgent usually do not learn respect for others and have difficulty controlling their behavior (Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991; Bornstein & Lamb, 1999).

Several studies have demonstrated that adolescents who raised in authoritative homes perform better in school than their peers with other parenting styles

(Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts, & Fraleigh, 1987; Stenberg, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989; Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991). Additional research on school outcomes, other than grades, shows that authoritative parenting is also associated with increases in a number attitudinal and behavioral indicators of academic orientation during adolescence, including a stronger work orientation, greater engagement in classroom activities, higher educational aspirations, more positive feelings about school, greater time spent on homework, more positive academic self-conceptions, and lower levels of school misconduct, such as cheating or copying assignments (Steinberg, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989). Yılmaz (2000) and Sümer and Güngör (1999) in their studies stated that the traditional (i.e., authoritarian) and relatively “modern” (i.e., permissive-indulgent) parenting seem to coexist among Turkish families. Authoritarian parenting style is mostly found in the families with low SES. In Turkey, adolescents who comes from low SES families are more likely to have authoritarian parents (especially fathers) as compare to those who come from middle or high SES families.

2.3. Parenting Style as a Factor Related to Ego Identity Status Development

Ego identity development is a critically important variable to study within the context of the transition period of adolescence to adulthood. The achievement of ego identity is generally recognized as the fundamental developmental task of adolescence (Marcia, 1987; 1994). Adolescent identity exploration has also been shown to be sensitive to parenting style (Adams & Jones, 1983). In their study, Quintana and Lapsley (1987) examined the contribution of parental control to the acquisition of ego identity. Analysis showed that there was a weak relation

between adolescent attachment to their parents and ego identity. Adolescents who perceived that their parents were controlling reported weak attachment; and adolescent identity achievement was inhibited by perceptions of high parental control. Parents who are perceived as controlling tend to have adolescents who are less trusting of their relationship with parents and less communicative with them. Authors of this study claim that adolescents who feel securely attached to their parents are believed to adaptively resolve the identity formation crises. On the other hand, Adams, Bennion, and Huh (1989) argued that parents who are highly cohesive may be inhibiting identity development. They also added that adolescents' perceptions of family environment were predictive of developmental tasks. It can be assumed that poor parent-adolescent relationships which is characterized by weak affection, rejection and poor communication may not provide the emotional security for adolescent needs to undertake the risks involved in identity exploration (Adams, Bennion, & Huh, 1989). Consistent with above findings Grotevant and Cooper (1985) found an interaction between family relationships and adolescent identity exploration. In their research, Grotevant and Cooper (1985) have developed a model of individuation in family relationships that focuses on communication processes and to assess the links between them and adolescent identity exploration. Expressions of the four dimensions of the model; self-assertion, separateness, permeability and mutuality were predicted to be positively associated with identity exploration in adolescents. Also, it was shown that family interaction styles are associated with identity exploration for adolescents.

Adams and Jones (1983) found that diffused and foreclosed adolescents perceive more parental control or regulating behavior than achieved or moratorium teenagers. Foreclosed youths were most likely to report affectionate relationships with parents. Foreclosed subjects scored higher than the achieved and moratorium subjects on the authoritarian measure, while achieved individuals reported significantly more self-acceptance than the diffused or foreclosed group, and the foreclosed subjects were more rigid than the other identity statuses.

Parental relationship is also related to career decision making, (even after school years) and identity formation. Adolescents who experience their mothers as having been more encouraging of independence in childhood experience less career indecision than those who found their mothers to be more overprotective (Guerra & Braungart-Rieker, 1999). These findings also support those reported by Bluestein, Devenis, and Kidney (1989) who indicated that commitment to career choice is more likely to be present in those who are seeking independence from their parents but who are also securely attached to them. In a study it was concluded that adolescents who worked usually spent less time with their families. (Mortimer & Shanahan, 1994). For example, the more time the adolescents worked, the less frequently was dinner shared with other family members. About half of adolescents in this study reported that they helped around the house less often since they became employed, which would also likely diminish daily parent-adolescent contact. Also intensity of work was negatively relate to time spent with parents. In the present study, giving that authoritarian parenting style is common in Turkish culture, especially in lower SES families, it would be expected, that

compare to students, working adolescents would have more parental control and less parental acceptance, indicating high levels of authoritarian parenting styles.

2.4. Gender as a Factor Related to Ego Identity Status Development

Gender roles are also related with ego identity development. The issue of possible gender differences in the process of adolescent identity formation has attracted much theoretical and empirical attention (Kroger, 1997). The role of working experience in one's life is closely related to one's gender. Therefore, it may be expected that males and females do not develop vocational and identity development in the same manner. Occupational identity may be a more salient issue for males and a less pressing issue for females because of its relation to traditional sex-role development. Furthermore, since more male adolescents, rather than females, work occupational identity may develop earlier for males.

Working during the adolescence period is also associated with the occupational identity. Past research has shown that occupational identity development for females was related to a willingness to work hard and to the avoidance of competition (Stevens, Puchtell, Ryu, & Mortimer, 1992). Males' and females' educational aspirations and expectations do not differ to a greater extent. Males' aspire to, and expect higher occupational attainment levels than girls. Male and female adolescents go about achieving an occupational identity differently, and that adolescent work experiences may have different meanings for females and males.

In terms of identity structure, men and women have not differed in the modes by which they approached important identity issues. Furthermore, they have not shown differences in the developmental process of identity status transition pathways. Adams and Fitch (1982), in a longitudinal study of identity development with late adolescents, found that there were no sex differences in identity formation. The majority of the studies using the Objective Measure of Ego Identity Status measuring four identity status reported no significant gender differences in terms of ego identity statuses (Adams, Shea & Fitch, 1978; Grotevant & Adams, 1984; Streitmatter, 1993; Jones, Akers & White, 1994; Kroger, 1997).

Archer's (1982) cross-sectional study of early and middle adolescents addressed the issue of gender differences in identity development, in addition to age-related differences. Results indicated that no significant gender differences existed according to grade level and it was concluded that females and males proceed through the identity status in a similar fashion. Archer (1982) also found no timing differences in the identity development process by gender. Archer (1989) in another study found that both genders passed the identity statuses (process) comparably, except for foreclosure which characterized males significantly more than females. Both genders used the identity process similarly in the domains of vocational choice, religious beliefs, and sex-role orientation. In his study, males were significantly more likely to be foreclosed than females, in the area of political ideology. Females were significantly more likely to be in moratorium or identity achieved with regard to family roles. Also there is no timing differences.

Given the traditional gender roles in Turkey, male and female adolescent are expected to show different levels of identity status depending on whether they work or not.

2.5. Self-Concept Development

The term self-concept is closely associated with the notion of self-image (the individual's description of the self) as well as that of self-esteem (the individual's evaluation of the self); also the term identity is taken to have essentially the same meaning as self-concept by some (e.g. Coleman & Hendry, 1999). The self is defined a complex concept with multiple meanings.

According to James (1890), the self can be divided into three parts: the material self, the social self, and the spiritual self. The material self consists of one's physical body, family environment and home. The social self comprises the recognition one gets from others: one's social identity, relations, roles, and reputation. Within the spiritual self, James placed inner or subjective being, as well as psychic faculties, dispositions, or states of consciousness (cited in Adams & Gullotta, 1989).

Self-concept has been described as a number of dimensions which constitute the totality of the self. One good example regarding the different aspects of the self-image may be found in the work of Offer and colleagues. Offer is well known for the development of the Offer Self-Image Questionnaire (Offer, Ostrov, Howard, & Atkinson, 1988). In this questionnaire, the adolescent self-image is divided into

five global areas of psychosocial functioning, and then further divided into ten scales. In this assessment, adolescents are asked to respond to items measuring the degree to which various aspects of their psychological self (impulse control, emotional tone, body and self-image), social self (social relationships, morals, vocational and educational), sexual self, familial self, and coping self (mastery of the external world, psychopathology, and adjustment) reflect their own self-images.

In Offer's conceptualization, psychological self comprises the adolescents' concerns, feelings, wishes, and fantasies. This aspect of the self deals with the adolescents' sense of control over impulses, emotions, and conceptions of their bodies. Adolescents are often described in terms of the friends they have, the company they keep, and the values they hold. In the social self, adolescents' perception of their interpersonal relationships, their moral attitudes, and their vocational and educational goals are assessed. Sexual aspect of the self concerns about the important areas in adolescence, the integration of emerging sexual drives into psychosocial life. With respect to this area, adolescents' feelings, attitudes, and behaviors toward sexual matters are assessed. The feelings and attitudes of adolescents toward their families are crucial for their overall psychological health. The family contributes more to the development of adolescents than any other psychosocial influence. Familial self is concerned with the how the adolescents feel about their parents and the kind of relationships they have with them. The coping aspect of the self is concerned with the psychiatric symptoms the adolescents say they have, if any; also allow the adolescents to

describe how they cope with the world (Offer et al. 1988). In conclusion, in Offer's approaches self-images are represented into different domains of self-concept which are critical for adolescents.

The development of the self-concept reflects the number of physical, social, and cognitive factors (Bluestein, Wallbridge, Friedlander, & Palladino, 1991; Lucas 1997). In past studies, self-esteem is used to assess the evaluative aspect of self-concept. Jensen (1985) found that males from the middle class families to have higher self-esteem than boys from lower social classes. Also closeness of the father-son relationship is highly related to self esteem in adolescent boys. Low self-esteem adolescents had parents who more frequently used physical punishment or the withholding of love as a means of discipline. High self-esteem adolescents had parents who used management techniques that emphasized strict and consistent discipline coupled with parental interest and concern for the adolescents (Jensen, 1985). Adolescents with high self-esteem perceive their parents as more accepting, as using less psychological control, and as being only moderately strict in enforcing rules. While family cohesion is positively correlated with adolescents' self-esteem conflict within the family is negatively related with self-esteem (Adams & Gullotta, 1989).

Another important factor influencing self-concept is the socioeconomic status of family. Adolescents who are poor have weaker or less positive self-concepts than those who are relatively well off. A poor home atmosphere and weak relationship with parents are likely to produce a negative self-concept. Negative self-concepts

and low self-esteem may emerge in either middle or lower class homes (Bluestein, Wallbridge, Friedlander, & Palladino, 1991).

It is often assumed that work experience has broad impacts on the personality, influencing the individual's attitudes, values, and perceptions of self. As a result, successes and failures in work would have important consequences on self-concepts of adolescents (Mortimer & Lorence, 1979). Self-concept is also linked to vocational aspiration, choice, and satisfaction (Bluestein, Devenis & Kidney, 1989; Guerra & Braungart-Rieker, 1999). Those with positive self-concepts and higher self-esteem have also higher occupational aspirations and make choices that are higher status than those with negative self-concept or lower self-esteem. The adolescents with higher self-concept choose occupations in which there is a demand for leadership and power, and avoid vocations in which they are dominated by others. As a result, self-concept seems to provide directive influence on vocational decision making during the adolescent years (Bluestein, Devenis & Kidney, 1989). Therefore, in the light of the previous research, it can be speculated that self-concepts may be quite sensitive to occupational experiences, particularly in the early phases of the work career. However, studies showing the positive effects of working on self-concepts had been conducted with adolescents working in part-time jobs. In the present study, it was aimed to assess the effects of full-time working on self-image. It was expected full-time working would have a negative effect on working adolescents as compared to students.

2.6. Psychological Well-Being

The period of adolescence is a time for the young individuals to change within almost every domain of experience -physical, affective, social, familial, and educational (Wenz-Gross, Siperstein, & Untch, 1997). Most adolescents handle these changes without developing problems. For some individuals, though, this period can represent a time of significant adjustment difficulties. Working experiences during the adolescence receives valuable attention on the domain of well-being. Shanahan, Finch, Mortimer, and Ryu (1991) reported that work experiences contribute to depressed mood among adolescents. The workplace represents a new source of chronic stressors which could contribute to a host of distressful outcomes, including depressed mood, among young workers. In another study, it was found that working adolescents engaged in more deviant behavior and school tardiness and more cigarette and marijuana use, than those who are not employed (Mortimer, Finch, Ryu, Shanahan, & Call, 1996). Contrary to the mentioned studies, some others found that workers, especially boys, report fewer somatic symptoms than nonworkers; and that boys who work under stressful job conditions report fewer somatic and psychological symptoms than boys who hold less stressful jobs (Greenberger, Steinberg, & Vaux, 1981). Working does indeed have costs as well as benefits of adolescents' socialization and development. However, it is generally accepted that working has negative effects on the health and behavior of adults and it is stressful. It is reasonable to speculate that full-time working may have adverse effects on the well-being of adolescents because it may cause an extra stress during their change period. Thus,

in the present study it would be expected that working adolescents would report higher levels of depression, anxiety and other symptoms than students.

2.7. Studies in Turkey

A few studies which tried to compare working and nonworking adolescents were conducted in Turkey. One of these studies investigated the relationship between perceived social support and working status (Kılıç, Göka, Aktaş, Güngör & Özbay, (1994). In this study, the authors examined the close relationships of adolescents in terms of perceived social support by comparing working adolescent and students for the amount of support and changes in perception of support by age. Results indicated that while working adolescents perceived less amount of support, the perception of decreasing support by age is more prominent in the student group. Because of the correlational nature of this study, it could not be concluded that whether working during adolescence has a positive effect on the perception of social support or not.

Another study was conducted to examine how adolescents experience the period of teenage years in Turkey (Özbay, Hınçal, Güngör, Kılıç, Aktaş, Aybaş, Göka, & Şahin, 1991). In this study, large groups of working and student adolescents were compared in relation to their scores on tests measuring self-image, anxiety and depression. They utilized Offer Self Image Questionnaire, State-Trait Anxiety Inventory, and Beck Depression Inventory. The results of this study indicated that more than 80 % of adolescents report having positive self-images. Working adolescents tend to have lower scores on self-image tests than students. Students,

on the other hand, score higher on anxiety scales. Results indicate that neither school nor work has a decisive role on self-image or adolescence problems by itself, but gain significance when factors like sex and age are also taken into account. The present study is crucial in terms of replicating the results of Özbay et. al.'s study (1991) on self aspects.

2.8. Overview of the Study and the Hypothesis

The primary objective of this study is to specifically examine the effects of working on ego identity statuses, parenting style, self-image and psychological well being by comparing working and student adolescents. This study also intends to clarify the inconsistencies in past research regarding the effect of part-time and full-time working

It can be speculated that full-time employment might be viewed as the termination of psychosocial moratorium and therefore, might stimulate rapid movement toward identity formation, while student adolescents might experience an extended moratorium period. Also, working is expected to have effects on psychological well-being and different aspects of self-image.

It was hypothesized that (1) ego identity status was related to working status. Specifically, working adolescents are expected to have high levels of foreclosure than students given the fact that they had to make commitment without having active exploration (i.e., foreclosed identity status). (2) Ego identity status was related to gender (e.g., working and nonworking adolescents were expected to

differ consistent with traditional gender roles) (3) parenting style was of importance in acquisition of ego identity. Since working adolescents come from lower SES families, they are expected to report higher levels of parental control. (4). Overall working adolescents are expected to have relatively higher levels of psychological symptomatology, such as depression, than students. (5) Students are expected to report more positive self-image aspects than working adolescents.



CHAPTER III METHOD

3.1 Participants

The sample was consisted of 182 working adolescents (107 males and 75 females) and 280 high-school students (107 males and 173 females). Students ranged in age from 15 to 20 with a mean of 16.72 ($Sd = .88$). Working adolescents ranged in age from 14 to 20 with a mean of 17 ($sd = 1.43$). The mean year of working for working adolescents is 3.35 ($sd = 1.82$). Major socio-demographic characteristics of the study are given in Table 1.

Table 1. Socio-demographic characteristics of the sample

Variables(N= 462)	Working Adolescents		Students		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Gender						
Male	107	58.8	107	38.2	214	46.3
Female	75	41.2	173	61.8	248	53.7
Mother's Educational Level						
Illiterate	33	18.1	11	3.9	44	9.5
Primary School Graduate	85	46.7	94	33.6	179	38.7
Middle School Graduate	54	29.7	87	31.1	141	30.5
High School Graduate	9	4.9	72	25.7	81	17.5
University Graduate	1	0.5	16	5.7	17	3.7
Father's Educational Level						
Illiterate	9	1.9	1	0.4	10	2.2
Primary School Graduate	77	42.3	41	14.6	118	25.5
Middle School Graduate	65	35.7	61	21.8	126	27.3
High School Graduate	28	15.4	116	41.4	144	31.2
University Graduate	3	1.6	61	21.8	64	13.9
Smoking						
Yes	36	12.9	45	24.7	81	17.5
No	230	82.1	108	59.3	338	73.2
Sometimes	14	5.0	29	15.9	43	9.3
Drinking Alcohol						
Yes	10	5.5	12	4.3	22	4.8
No	149	81.9	239	85.4	388	84.0
Sometimes	23	12.6	29	10.4	52	11.3

As seen in Table 1, in terms of educational level, parents of working adolescents mostly graduated from primary schools. Similarly, education level of students' mother was mostly at the level of primary school. However, their fathers were mostly high school graduated. As expected, the monthly family income of students ($X=5.09$ $sd=1.34$) was higher than the working adolescents' ($X=4.31$ $sd=1.98$) on a seven point scale. Majority of the working adolescents and students were non-smoker and only 18 % of them infrequently smoke and consume alcohol.

3.2 Instruments

Both working adolescents and students were asked to complete following measures: Demographic Information Form (Appendix A), Extended Objective Measure of Ego Identity Status (EOM-EIS) (Appendix B), Offer Self Image Questionnaire (OSIQ) (Appendix C), Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI) (Appendix D), Parenting Styles Questionnaire (PSQ) (Appendix E). The scales are described below.

3.2.1 Demographic Information Form

Demographic and social characteristics of the participants were measured by a set of questions prepared by the investigator. In addition to questions measuring age, sex, and educational status of parents, family income was measured by a seven points scale asking participants to evaluate their family income relative to others (See Appendix A).

3.2.2 Extended Objective Measure Of Ego Identity Status (EOMEIS)

Identity statuses were assessed by using The Extended Objective Measure Of Ego Identity Status (EOMEIS) developed by Grotevant and Adams (1984). It was adopted to Turkish by Varan (1987). This scale includes 64 items and subjects respond on a six point likert scale (1 strongly disagree and 6 strongly agree). EOMEIS consists of two domain of identity: interpersonal identity and ideological identity. Each domain involves four subscales. Interpersonal identity consists of the domains of friendship, dating, sex roles, and recreation. Ideological identity, on the other hand, involves the domains of occupation, religion, politics, and philosophical life style. Within each of the eight domains, two items were written for each of the four identity status: Achievement (commitment to a choice based on exploration of alternatives), Moratorium (current exploration of choices but not yet committed), Foreclosure (commitment based on little or no exploration of alternatives), and Diffusion (lack of exploration and commitment). In the past studies, different estimates of reliability showed significant high consistency for the EOMEIS (Grotevant & Adams, 1984; Adams, 1994). Internal consistency, and split-half reliability indicate moderate to strong consistency between items and the estimate of test-retest reliability provides evidence for consistency over time (internal consistency, range from .30 to .89). In studies conducted in western culture, the median alpha was 0.66. Correlations of stability for the ideological and interpersonal subscales ranged from 0.59 to 0.82 (Oskay, 1983). The coefficient of test-retest reliability have 0.76, for split-half range from 0.10 to 0.68. The total identity score correlations with subscale scores ranged from 0.37

to 0.64 (Jones & Stritmatter, 1987) . In the present study, the coefficient for internal consistency, assessed by Cronbach's Alpha, is 0.87 for full scale. The coefficients for ideological subscales ranged from 0.57 to 0.72 and for interpersonal subscales ranged from 0.62 to 0.74. Internal consistency coefficients for 8 subscales were presented in Table 2.

3.2.3 Offer Self- Image Questionnaire (OSIQ)

Different self aspects of participants were measured by using the Offer Self-Image Questionnaire developed by Offer, Ostrov, Howard, and Atkinson (1988).

This measure is a self-descriptive personality test that assesses the adjustment of teenage boys and girls between the ages 13 and 19. Originally it comprise 130 items concerning teenagers' feelings about their psychological world. This test was originally developed by Offer and his colleagues in 1962 and the aim of this test is to find out the characteristics of normal adolescent development studying in high school. However, Offer and his colleagues tested the scale in a cross-cultural studies and dropped the number of items from 130 to 99 for international form. As a result of all these procedures the 'international' version of the OSIQ comprises 99 items. The OSIQ consists of 11 subscales. However, in the present study 10 of these scales were used. They are:

1. Family relationship: This subscale is concerned with how the adolescents feel about their parents and the kind of relationship they have with them.
2. Impulse control: This subscale measures the extent which the ego apparatus of the adolescents is strong enough to cope with various pressures that exist in their internal and external environment.

3. Sexual attitudes: It concerns itself with the adolescent's feelings, attitude, and behaviors toward sexual matters.
4. Coping with the external world: It assesses how well an adolescent adapts to the immediate environment.
5. Body image: It indicates the extent to which the adolescents feel positive or feel awkward about their bodies.
6. Emotional tone: This subscale measures the degree of affective harmony within psychic structure
7. Superior adjustment: This subscale measures how the adolescents feel about their ability to cope.
8. Vocational and educational goals: It measures how well the teenager is faring in accomplishing learning and planning for a vocational future.
9. Social relationships: It assesses peer relationships and friendship patterns.
10. Psychopathology: This subscales identifies overt psychopathology.

Participants were asked to indicate how well each item describes them. A verbal description for each of the five response alternatives is provided at the top of each page of the test booklet. The subjects respond by circling a number (1 through 5) that is printed next to each item number on the answers sheet. The five response alternatives are as follows: describes me very well, describes me well, describes me fairly well, does not quite describe me, does not really describe me

Offer Self Image Questionnaire was translated in Turkish by Özbay, Hınçal, Güngör, Kılıç, Aktaş, Aybaş, Göka, and Şahin (1991). In Özbay et al's study, the

coefficient of internal consistency for full scale was found to be .87. The coefficients for subscales are ranged between .30 and .69. In another study, the coefficient for full scales was found to be .88 (Şahin, 1993). In his study, Şahin (1993) dropped the number of items from 99 to 50. He found out that the internal consistency for 50 items was .90. The internal consistency coefficient was found to be 0.92 for full scale. In order to assess the criterion related validity of the scale, Şahin (1993) utilized Beck Depression Inventory and State-Trait Anxiety Inventory. It was found out that, the correlation coefficients between OSIQ and utilized scales were significantly negative. The results of the study conducted in Turkey revealed that psychometric properties of OSIQ was satisfactory. In the present study, the last form of OSIQ consisted of 50 items and 10 subscales was used. The coefficients of internal consistency of the 10 subscales for the present study are ranged between .11-.78. The reliability coefficients are given in Table 2.

3.2.4 The Subscales of the Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI)

The Brief Symptom Inventory (Derogatis, 1992), a self-report instrument, consists of 53 items related to various aspects of physical and psychological distress. BSI is a shorter version of the original SCL-R-90 (Derogatis, 1992). Participants were instructed to indicate how distressed they had felt in the past 7 days by rating their level of distress on a 5-point scale (0=not at all to 4=Extremely). The Brief Symptom Inventory possesses good convergent and discriminant validity, as well as reliability (Derogatis & Melisaratos, 1983). With respect to convergent and discriminant validity, the items were found to correlate (all > 0.30) with the associated scales selected from the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory

(MMPI) and were not correlated with those MMPI scales not expected to be associated. Internal consistency of the scale was found to be between 0.71 and 0.85 (Derogatis, 1992).

The Brief Symptom Inventory was adapted to Turkish by Şahin and Durak (1994). Factor analysis was performed in order to see the structure of the scale in Turkish culture and it was found that the Brief Symptom Inventory had five factors, namely, “Anxiety”, “Depression”, “Negative Self-identity”, “Somatization”, and “Hostility”. In three different studies conducted by Şahin and Durak (1994) the sub-scales were found to possess adequate internal consistency ranging from 0.55 to 0.86. For the whole scale the internal consistency coefficients ranged between 0.95 and 0.96. In terms of the convergent validity of the whole scale the correlations of the Brief Symptom Inventory with the UCLA-Loneliness Scale ranged between 0.24 and 0.36 in the three different studies (Şahin & Durak, 1994). The range for the Offer Loneliness Scale in the same three studies were between 0.34 and 0.57; and for the Beck Depression Inventory it was between 0.34 - 0.70 (Şahin & Durak, 1994).

In the present study, five subscales of BSI, namely, Depression, Anxiety, Somatization, Hostility and Interpersonal Sensation were used. The coefficients for five subscales of BSI ranged from 0.63 to 0.82.

3.2.5 Parenting Style Questionnaire (PSQ):

The PSQ was originally developed by Sümer and Güngör (1999). In the original version of the scale there were 34 items. In the revised version of the PSQ Sümer (2000) dropped the number of items to 22. Eleven items measures acceptance-involvement and 11 items measures strict-control dimension. The first subscale measures the extent to which the adolescents perceives his or her parents as loving, responsive and involved. The second subscale assesses parental monitoring and control of the adolescents. In this study the scale consisting of 22 items (11 items for acceptance/involvement and 11 items for strictness/control) was used. Sümer and Güngör (1999) found that the coefficients of internal consistency for mother acceptance was .86, and for mother control was .88. The reliability coefficients for father acceptance and father control were .88 and .87, respectively. In the present study the reliability coefficients for father control and mother control were .76. For father acceptance was .84 and for mother acceptance was .81.

3.3 PROCEDURE

A battery of questionnaires consisting instruments described above was applied to adolescents. Permission for administering the survey for each group of participants was obtained from the director of the Regional Education Office in Samsun. The questionnaires were distributed to the participants during course hours by the researcher. The settings of data collection for the group of students were three different high school, namely, Namık Kemal Lisesi, 19 Mayıs Lisesi and Cumhuriyet Lisesi. The data for the working adolescents were collected

during the course hour of Çıraklık Eğitim Merkezi in Samsun. The first page included a general instruction to the study and explaining the questions concerning demographic characteristic. Each scale had also specific exploratory instructions. The completion of the scales took about 60 minutes. Participants and their teachers were debriefed at the end of data collection process.

3.4 ANALYSIS OF DATA

The data were subjected to two-way analysis of covariance on the Ego Identity Status with eight subscales, Offer Self Image with ten subscales, Parenting Styles with four subscales, and Brief Symptom Inventory with five subscales as the dependent variables and the working status and gender as the independent variables holding age and family income of the participants constant. Analysis of the main effects and interaction terms permitted inferences regarding the extent to which dependent variables were affected by working status and gender.

All the analyses of this study were carried out by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) programs (Nie, Hull, Jenkins, Steinbrener, & Bent, 1975; Tabachnick & Fidel, 1996).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Prior to the analysis, all the data were examined through various SPSS programs for accuracy of data entry, missing values, and fit between their distributions and the assumptions of univariate analysis. Twenty-six cases were found to have missing values and it was decided to delete all these 26 cases. To improve pairwise linearity and to reduce the extreme skewness and kurtosis, the z score for all variables was computed. Four cases with extremely high z scores were found to be univariate outliers, therefore, these cases were also deleted, leaving 462 cases for analysis.

Table 2 presents means, standard deviations, range of measures and Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients for all subscales. As seen in Table 2, the means of ideological and interpersonal ego identity status of working adolescents and students have revealed similar pattern. That is to say, the subjects of both groups have the lowest mean in ideological and interpersonal identity diffusion status and the highest mean in ideological and interpersonal identity achievement status. The order of the means of all identity status of both groups was similar. In terms of self-image, both groups of adolescents had their highest mean in family relationship subscale and the lowest in psychopathology subscale. While the working adolescents had the highest mean in interpersonal sensation subscale of Brief Symptoms Inventory, the students had the highest mean in hostility subscales.

Table 2. Means, Standard Deviations, Ranges, And Cronbach's Alphas of the Variables

Variables (N=462)	Workings			Students			Total			Alpha
	\bar{X}	sd	Min.-Max	\bar{X}	sd	Min.-Max.	\bar{X}	sd	Min.-Max.	
Identity Status										
Ideological										
Diffusion	3.21	0.90	1.0-5.8	2.69	0.83	1.0-5.6	2.89	0.89	1.0-5.8	0.72
Foreclosure	4.33	0.77	2.4-6.0	3.51	0.83	1.3-5.9	3.83	0.90	1.3-6.0	0.65
Moratorium	4.42	0.71	2.3-6.0	4.30	0.77	1.8-5.9	4.34	0.74	1.8-6.0	0.57
Achievement	4.72	0.67	2.8-6.0	4.40	0.75	1.5-6.0	4.52	0.74	1.5-6.0	0.65
Interpersonel										
Diffusion	3.59	0.93	1.0-6.0	3.07	0.88	1.0-5.5	3.27	0.93	1.0-6.0	0.68
Foreclosure	4.41	0.83	2.3-6.0	3.72	0.90	1.1-5.9	3.99	0.94	1.1-6.0	0.74
Moratorium	4.52	0.76	2.3-5.9	4.03	0.77	1.1-6.0	4.22	0.80	1.1-6.0	0.66
Achievement	4.85	0.68	2.9-6.0	4.59	0.67	2.7-6.0	4.69	0.69	2.7-6.0	0.62
Self-Image (OSIQ)										
Family										
Relationships	3.93	0.61	2.14-4.93	4.11	0.59	1.9-5.0	4.04	0.60	1.9-5.0	0.78
Impulse Control	3.45	1.16	1.0-5.0	3.89	1.04	1.0-5.0	3.72	1.11	1.0-5.0	0.32
Sexual Attitudes	3.79	1.06	1.0-5.0	4.18	0.89	1.0-5.0	4.02	0.98	1.0-5.0	0.37
Coping with the										
External World	3.50	1.08	1.0-5.0	3.74	1.04	1.0-5.0	3.65	1.06	1.0-5.0	0.31
Body Image	3.54	0.84	1.0-5.0	3.85	0.86	1.3-5.0	3.73	0.86	1.0-5.0	0.55
Emotional Tone	3.18	0.79	1.0-4.88	3.62	0.83	1.1-5.0	3.45	0.84	1.0-5.0	0.78
Superior Adjustment	3.93	0.95	1.0-5.0	3.98	0.82	1.5-5.0	3.96	0.87	1.0-5.0	0.11
Vocational and										
Educational Goals	3.54	1.51	1.0-5.0	4.24	1.08	1.0-5.0	3.97	1.31	1.0-5.0	--
Social Relationships										
Psychopathology	3.44	0.75	1.6-5.0	3.82	0.71	1.0-5.0	3.67	0.75	1.0-5.0	0.65
	3.13	0.73	1.4-4.8	3.52	0.75	1.5-5.0	3.37	0.76	1.4-5.0	0.66
Brief Symptom										
Inventory										
Somatization	0.80	0.73	0.0-2.9	0.60	0.68	0.0-2.9	0.68	0.71	0.0-2.9	0.79
Interpersonal										
Sensations	1.21	0.95	0.0-3.8	1.04	0.89	0.0-4.0	1.11	0.92	0.0-4.0	0.63
Depression	1.16	0.90	0.0-3.8	0.85	0.85	0.0-4.0	0.97	0.88	0.0-4.0	0.80
Anxiety	1.08	0.91	0.0-3.8	0.84	0.87	0.0-4.0	0.93	0.89	0.0-4.0	0.82
Hostility	1.19	0.99	0.0-4.0	1.06	0.90	0.0-4.0	1.11	0.94	0.0-4.0	0.76
Parenting Styles										
Father										
Acceptance	3.53	0.71	1.2-4.8	3.39	0.86	1.0-5.0	3.45	0.81	1.0-5.0	0.84
Control	3.06	0.70	1.4-5.0	2.79	0.73	1.0-4.6	2.90	0.73	1.0-5.0	0.76
Mother										
Acceptance	3.69	0.61	1.7-4.8	3.69	0.80	1.0-5.0	3.69	0.73	1.0-5.0	0.81
Control	3.00	0.73	1.4-5.0	2.77	0.68	1.0-4.5	2.86	0.71	1.0-5.0	0.76

4.1 The Correlation Coefficients of the Variables

The Pearson product-moment correlations among the measures were presented in Table 3. As expected, there was a significant positive relationship between related subscales of ideological and interpersonal ego identity status for working and student adolescent at $p=0.01$ (e.g., ideological diffusion and interpersonal diffusion). The coefficients for working adolescent were between .51 and .64, and for students were between .49 and .58. The highest correlation obtained for working adolescent and students was between ideological diffusion and interpersonal diffusion ($r=.64$, $p<.01$; $r=.58$, $p<.01$ respectively). Additionally, as expected, there was a significantly negative relationship between ideological diffusion and ideological achievement for students ($r= -.15$, $p<.01$). However, similar significant relationship was not obtained for working adolescent. Similarly, significantly negative relationship was found between interpersonal diffusion and interpersonal achievement for students ($r= -.15$, $p<.01$) but not for working adolescent.

The correlation coefficients of 10 subscales of the OSIQ with each other were significantly positive for students except for coefficient between vocational and educational goals and impulse control. Almost similar pattern was found for working adolescents. However, the correlation between vocational and educational goals and impulse control, coping with external world, superior adjustment, and psychopathology were not found to be significant. The highest correlation for working adolescent and students was between psychopathology and emotional tone ($r=.68$, $p<.01$; $r=.74$, $p<.01$, respectively).

All correlation coefficients of the subscales of the Brief Symptom Inventory with each other were found to be significantly positive for both groups of adolescents at $p=0.01$. The highest correlation for working adolescents and student was found to be between anxiety and hostility ($r=.73$, $p<.01$; $r=.79$, $p<.01$, respectively).

The mother acceptance and mother control of the students was negatively correlated ($r=-.34$, $p<.01$). Similarly, father acceptance and father control of the students was also negatively correlated ($r=-.28$, $p<.01$). As expected, there was a significant positive correlation between mother and father acceptance and between mother and father control ($r=.60$, $p<.01$; $r=.64$, $p<.01$, respectively). The mother acceptance and mother control of the working adolescents, however, were positively correlated but not significant. Similarly, positive but not significant relation was also found between father acceptance and father control of the working adolescents. Similar to the students, as expected, there was a significant positive correlation between mother and father acceptance and between mother and father control of the working adolescents ($r=.64$, $p<.01$; $r=.72$, $p<.01$, respectively).

In terms of relationship between identity status and self image, almost all subscales of self image were negatively correlated with ideological and interpersonal diffusion for students and working adolescent at $p=0.01$. The highest significant negative correlation was obtained for ideological diffusion and family relationship for students and working adolescents ($r=-.30$, $p<.01$; $r=-.29$, $p<.01$, respectively). It is important to note that, interpersonal foreclosure is positively

related to almost all subscales of self-image at $p=0.05$ for students but not for working adolescent. However, most of the coefficients between ideological and interpersonal achievement and self-image could not reach significance level in both group of adolescent.

The five subscales of Brief symptoms Inventory were positively related with interpersonal moratorium for students. The highest positive correlation was found to be between anxiety and moratorium for students ($r=.29$, $p<.01$). Ideological diffusion and interpersonal diffusion were positively related with hostility ($r=.10$, $p<.05$; $r=.10$, $p<.05$) in students. Interpersonal foreclosure, on the other hand, was negatively correlated with somatization ($r=-.10$, $p<.05$), depression ($r=-.19$, $p<.01$), anxiety ($r=-.11$, $p<.05$), and hostility ($r=-.19$, $p<.01$) for students. In working adolescent, on the other hand, ideological and interpersonal foreclosure were negatively related with somatization ($r=-.14$, $p<.05$; $r=-.12$, $p<.05$, respectively), interpersonal sensation ($r=-.09$, $p>0.05$; $r=-.17$, $p<.05$), depression ($r=-.19$, $p<.01$; $r=-.19$, $p<.01$), anxiety ($r=-.17$, $p<.01$; $r=-.18$, $p<.01$) and with hostility ($r=-.26$, $p<.01$; $r=-.23$, $p<.01$).

In terms of relationship between ego identity status and mother and father acceptance, there was a significant negative relationship between mother acceptance and ideological diffusion ($r=-.15$, $p<.01$) and interpersonal diffusion ($r=-.23$, $p<.01$) and between father acceptance and ideological diffusion ($r=-.12$, $p<.01$) and interpersonal diffusion ($r=-.19$, $p<.05$) for students. Similarly, interpersonal moratorium was negatively related with mother acceptance ($r=-.23$,

$p < .01$) and father acceptance ($r = -.29$, $p < .01$) in students. Moreover, interpersonal moratorium was found to be positively related with mother control ($r = .12$, $p < .05$) and father control ($r = .15$, $p < .01$) in students. Additionally, in students, ideological and interpersonal achievement were positively related with mother acceptance ($r = .17$, $p < .01$; $r = .23$, $p < .01$, respectively) and with father acceptance ($r = .19$, $p < .01$; $r = .13$, $p < .05$, respectively) and was negatively related with mother control ($r = -.04$, $p > .05$; $r = -.10$, $p < .05$, respectively) and with father control ($r = -.10$, $p < .05$; $r = -.06$, $p > .05$, respectively). It is important to note that ideological foreclosure was found to be positively related with mother acceptance, mother control, and father acceptance for both students and working adolescents.

Similar to students, there was a significant negative relationship between mother acceptance and ideological diffusion ($r = -.18$, $p < .01$) and interpersonal diffusion ($r = -.23$, $p < .01$), and between father acceptance and interpersonal diffusion ($r = -.15$, $p < .05$) but not significant for ideological diffusion in working adolescent. Interpersonal achievement was not only positively correlated with mother acceptance ($r = .25$, $p < .01$) and father acceptance ($r = .22$, $p < .05$) but also with mother control ($r = .16$, $p < .05$) and father control ($r = .17$, $p < .05$) in working adolescent. However, as expected, mother control (but not father control) was negatively associated with identity achievement in students ($r = -.10$, $p < .05$).

All the correlation coefficients between the subscales of the OSIQ and the Brief Symptom Inventory were found to be significantly negative for both groups of adolescents. The highest correlation obtained for working adolescent and students

was between depression and emotional tone ($r=-.53$, $p<.01$; $r=-.71$, $p<.01$, respectively).

In students, it was found out that mother acceptance and father acceptance were negatively related with somatization, interpersonal sensation, depression, anxiety, and hostility at $p=0.01$. The coefficients were ranged between $-.22$ and $-.30$ for mother acceptance and ranged between $-.25$ and $-.38$ for father acceptance. As expected, mother control and father control were positively related with these five subscales of Brief Symptom Inventory, the coefficients were ranged between $.16$ and $.27$ for mother control and ranged between $-.25$ and $-.38$ for father acceptance. Similar to students, mother acceptance and father acceptance were negatively related with somatization, interpersonal sensation, depression, anxiety, and hostility in working adolescents. The coefficients were ranged between $-.16$ and $-.35$ for mother acceptance and ranged between $-.23$ and $-.36$ for father acceptance in working adolescents. Unlike for students the correlation coefficients between mother and father control and the subscales of the BSI were found to be positive, but not statistically significant with the exception of somatization and mother control ($r=.13$, $p<.05$).

Table 3. Correlation Coefficients of the Variables used in Two-Way Analysis of Covariances

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Identity Status (Ideological)													
1. Diffusion	-	.15*	.15*	.02	.64**	.15*	.23**	-.08	-.29**	-.15*	-.16*	-.12*	-.21**
2. Foreclosure	.19**	-	.41**	.37**	.20**	.59**	.27**	.28**	.01	-.03	-.09	.02	-.04
3. Moratorium	-.05	.14**	-	.39**	.20**	.44**	.51**	.47**	-.19**	-.23**	-.09	-.17*	-.06
4. Achievement	-.15**	.25**	.33**	-	.11	.36**	.42**	.55**	.03	.01	-.03	.03	.11
Identity Status (Interpersonal)													
5. Diffusion	.58**	.21**	.15**	-.08	-	.17*	.29**	.05	-.27**	-.19**	-.22**	-.12	-.17**
6. Foreclosure	.07	.56**	.14**	.34**	.05	-	.16*	.42**	.18	.04	-.01	.07	.03
7. Moratorium	.14**	.14**	.49**	.20**	.17**	.08	-	.38**	-.22**	-.25**	-.12*	-.20**	-.12
8. Achievement	-.06	.18**	.29**	.50**	-.15**	.35**	.30**	-	.17**	.03	.11	-.04	.08
Self-Image													
9. Family Relationships	-.30**	.14**	-.03	.21**	-.32**	.41**	-.28**	.21**	-	.59**	.43**	.31**	.36**
10. Impulse Control	-.13*	.08	-.14**	.04	-.10*	.13*	-.28**	.01	.46**	-	.29**	.28**	.19**
11. Sexual Attitudes	-.23**	-.09	-.09	.06	-.25**	.02	-.18**	.06	.36**	.31**	-	.26**	.40**
12. Coping with the External World	-.21**	.03	-.10*	.01	-.24**	.15**	-.30**	.02	.54**	.36**	.27**	-	.35**
13. Body Image	-.19**	-.01	-.10*	.11*	-.21**	.16**	-.20**	.10*	.59**	.31**	.38**	.55**	-
14. Emotional Tone	-.14**	.01	-.10*	.09	-.19**	.19**	-.32**	.11*	.60**	.50**	.36**	.55**	.56**
15. Superior Adjustment	-.22**	-.01	.01	.08	-.24**	.18**	-.15**	.21**	.39**	.11*	.20**	.26**	.20**
16. Vocational and Educational Goals	-.24**	-.04	.01	.12*	-.22**	.14**	-.08	.05	.37**	.06	.11*	.21**	.26**
17. Social Relationships	-.24**	-.09	-.08	.05	-.27**	.09	-.17**	.13*	.52**	.30**	.43**	.52**	.57**
18. Psychopathology	-.21**	-.11*	-.21**	.06	-.25**	.11*	-.40**	.01	.55**	.51**	.39**	.51**	.56**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Brief Symptoms Inventory													
19.Somatization	.03	-.08	.05	.01	.09	-.10*	.24**	.01	-.34**	-.46**	-.17**	-.35**	-.36**
20.Interpersonal Sensations	.03	.08	.06	-.04	-.01	.01	.26**	-.02	-.27**	-.35**	-.25**	-.34**	-.32**
21.Depression	.04	-.05	.07	-.14**	.05	-.19**	.26**	-.07	-.48**	-.45**	-.21**	-.46**	-.40**
22.Anxiety	.05	-.04	.12*	-.04	.09	-.11*	.29**	-.03	-.36**	-.53**	-.23**	-.41**	-.32**
23.Hostility	.10*	-.09	.07	-.04	.10*	-.19**	.25**	-.03	-.43**	-.42**	-.19**	-.45**	-.28**
Parenting Styles													
24. Mother Acceptance	-.15**	.17**	-.04	.17**	-.23**	.31**	-.26**	.23**	.54**	.27**	.20**	.27**	.34**
25. Mother Control	.06	.17**	-.01	-.04	.01	.01	.12*	-.10*	-.25**	-.20**	-.13**	-.17**	-.21**
26. Father Acceptance	-.12*	.13*	-.02	.19**	-.19**	.30**	-.29**	.13*	.53**	.26**	.14**	.28**	.29**
27. Father Control	.06	.11*	.03	-.10*	.04	-.09	.15**	-.06	-.32**	-.21**	-.12*	-.16**	-.20**

	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
Identity Status (Ideological)														
1.Diffusion	-.06	-.10	-.13*	-.09	-.10	-.07	.01	-.04	.04	.07	-.18**	-.03	-.10	.01
2.Foreclosure	-.01	.12*	.15*	-.04	-.05	-.14*	-.09	-.19**	-.17**	-.26**	.16*	.14*	.19**	.10
3.Moratorium	-.12	-.02	.12	-.07	-.16*	.03	-.04	-.01	.03	-.05	.08	.17**	.10	.18**
4.Achievement	.10	.02	.11	.01	-.01	-.07	-.02	-.10	-.02	-.03	.21**	.07	.14*	.09
Identity Status (Interpersonal)														
5.Diffusion	-.20**	-.12	-.18**	-.17*	-.19**	-.03	.03	.04	.03	.07	-.23**	.05	-.15*	.07
6.Foreclosure	.14*	.15	.16*	.08	.04	-.12*	-.17*	-.19**	-.18**	-.23**	.19**	.12	.28**	.11
7.Moratorium	-.23**	-.18**	.08	-.17*	-.30**	.09	.10	.11	.11	.04	-.01	.18**	-.03	.16*
8.Achievement	.11	.12	.15*	.07	.02	-.04	-.05	-.10	-.02	-.05	.25**	.16*	.22**	.17*
Self-Image														
9.Family Relationships	.51**	.37**	.28**	.38**	.40**	-.22**	-.25**	-.35**	-.36**	-.26**	.43**	-.26**	.46**	-.26**
10.Impulse Control	.41**	.22**	.10	.36**	.41**	-.21**	-.12*	-.25**	-.25**	-.28**	.26**	-.18**	.25**	-.13*
11.Sexual Attitudes	.45**	.20**	.13*	.30**	.43**	-.16*	-.22**	-.22**	-.26**	-.18**	.16*	-.12	.28**	-.04
12.Coping with the External World	.37**	.37**	.10	.28**	.33**	-.24**	-.26**	-.26**	-.33**	-.36**	.06	-.26**	.20**	-.17**
13.Body Image	.50**	.34**	.23**	.47**	.44**	-.31**	-.35**	-.40**	-.42**	-.25**	.26**	-.07	.37**	-.06
14.Emotional Tone	-	.30**	.14*	.52**	.68**	-.37**	-.41**	-.53**	-.47**	-.37**	.28**	-.15*	.36**	-.10
15.Superior Adjustment	.24**	-	-.02	.23**	.30**	-.21**	-.15*	-.26**	-.21**	-.18**	.13*	-.05	.18**	-.16*
16.Vocational and Educational Goals	.13*	.20*	-	.16*	.06	-.12	-.01	-.05	-.20**	-.26**	.22**	-.07	.16*	-.01
17.Social Relationships	.61**	.21**	.27**	-	.49**	-.24**	-.19**	-.34**	-.29**	-.19**	.25**	-.11	.31**	-.05
18.Psychopathology	.74**	.24**	.16**	.56**	-	-.42**	-.31**	-.51**	-.43**	-.38**	.16*	-.11	.26**	-.12

	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
Brief Symptoms Inventory														
19.Somatization	-.55**	-.17**	-.07	-.33**	-.50**	-	.45**	.56**	.67**	.58**	-.16*	.13*	-.23**	.12
20.Interpersonal Sensations	-.55**	-.07	-.09	-.36**	-.46**	.46**	-	.63**	.59**	.45**	-.20**	.07	-.28**	.05
21.Depression	-.71**	-.19**	-.14**	-.42**	-.60**	.62**	.68**	-	.70**	.58**	-.35**	.03	-.36**	.09
22.Anxiety	-.63**	-.18**	-.10*	-.34**	-.55**	.66**	.60**	.78**	-	.73**	-.31**	.06	-.35**	.02
23.Hostility	-.56**	-.19**	-.15**	-.34**	-.47**	.60**	.56**	.72**	.79**	-	-.20**	.11	-.27**	.02
Parenting Styles														
24. Mother Acceptance	.41**	.19**	.25**	.32**	.31**	-.25**	-.22**	-.30**	-.23**	-.32**	-	.10	.64**	.06
25. Mother Control	-.32**	-.04	-.10*	-.23**	-.34**	.22**	.27**	.25**	.16**	.18**	-.34**	-	.01	.72**
26. Father Acceptance	.46**	.25**	.18**	.27**	.33**	-.32**	-.25**	-.38**	-.28**	-.30**	.60**	-.19**	-	.10
27. Father Control	-.29**	-.05	-.09	-.19**	-.31**	.17**	.18**	.19**	.11*	.16**	-.26**	.64**	-.28**	-

* p<.05, one-tailed. ** p<.001, one tailed
 The bold characters are for the working adolescents
 The regular characters are for the students

4.2 Two-way Analysis of Covariance

Since the differences between working and students adolescents are very imperative to this study, a series of two way analysis of covariances (ANCOVA) was conducted on all of the dependent variables. In these analysis, age and family income of the participants were statistically controlled.

4.2.1 Two-way Analysis of Covariance for Ego Identity Status

A series of two-way ancova were conducted on eight subscales of EOMEIS. The independent variables were working status and gender. Each had two levels: working adolescent, students and males, females. The dependent variables were the scores gathered on eight subscales of EOMEIS and the covariates were the age and the family income of the participants. The first four subscales of EOMEIS are intended to measure ideological ego identity and the second four subscales of EOMEIS are intended to measure interpersonal ego identity. The results of the analysis were given in Table 4 and 5.

Results revealed no significant interaction effect between working status and gender on any of the ego identity statuses. However, significant main effects for working status were found on 7 out of 8 subscales and for gender significant main effects were found on 3 out of 8 subscales of the EOMEIS. Working adolescents ($X=3.21$) reported higher level of ideological diffusion than students ($X=2.69$) ($F_{(1,456)}= 25.59, p<.001$). The strength of relationship between working status and ideological diffusion was low, as assessed by eta square, with working status accounting for .05 percent of the variance of the dependent variable. Similarly, it

was found that males ($X=3.05$) reported higher level of ideological diffusion than female ($X=2.84$) ($F_{(1,456)}= 11.90$, $p<.001$, $\eta^2=.03$). Importantly, the largest significant difference between working adolescent and student was obtained on the ideological foreclosure. Working adolescents ($X=4.33$) reported higher level of ideological foreclosure than students ($X=3.51$) ($F_{(1,456)}= 98.3$, $p<.001$). The strength of relationship between working status and ideological diffusion was the strongest among other dependent measures, as assessed by eta square, with working status accounting for 18 percent of the variance of the dependent variable. Male ($X=3.94$) reported higher level of ideological foreclosure than female ($X=3.74$) ($F_{(1,456)}= 6.45$, $p<.05$).

Table 4. The main effects for working status on the Ego Identity Statuses

		Working (N=182) \bar{X}	Student (N=280) \bar{X}	MS	F (1;456)	Eta ²
Ideological	Diffusion	3.21	2.69	18.43	25.59**	0.05
	Foreclosure	4.33	3.51	62.27	98.30**	0.18
	Moratorium	4.42	4.29	1.49	2.77	
	Achievement	4.72	4.40	12.05	23.49**	0.05
Interpersonal	Diffusion	3.59	3.07	19.81	24.96**	0.05
	Foreclosure	4.41	3.72	48.38	64.17**	0.12
	Moratorium	4.52	4.03	25.81	44.80**	0.09
	Achievement	4.85	4.59	9.60	21.04**	0.04

** $p<0.001$ * $p<0.05$

Table 5. The main effects for gender on the Ego Identity Statuses

		Male (N=214) \bar{X}	Female (N=248) \bar{X}	MS	F (1;456)	Eta ²
Ideological	Diffusion	3.05	2.84	8.57	11.90**	0.03
	Foreclosure	3.94	3.74	4.09	6.45*	0.01
	Moratorium	4.29	4.44	1.41	2.60	
	Achievement	4.52	4.61	1.16	0.002	
Interpersonal	Diffusion	3.47	3.20	14.71	18.59**	0.04
	Foreclosure	3.99	4.14	1.74	0.02	
	Moratorium	4.17	4.37	1.4	2.43	
	Achievement	4.65	4.78	0.82	1.80	

** p<0.001 *p<0.05

The results of the analysis had revealed that there was no significant differences in terms of working status and gender on ideological moratorium. Additionally, working adolescents ($X=4.72$) were found to be more ideologically achieved than students ($X=4.40$) ($F_{(1,456)}= 23.49$, $p<.001$, $\eta^2=.05$). However, male and female were not found to be significantly different from each other on ideological achievement. Similar to ideological diffusion, working adolescents ($X=3.59$) reported higher level of interpersonal diffusion than students ($X=3.07$) ($F_{(1,456)}= 24.96$, $p<.001$). The strength of relationship between working status and interpersonal diffusion was low, as assessed by a eta square, with working status accounting for .05 percent of the variance of the dependent variable. Similarly, it was found that males ($X=3.47$) reported higher level of interpersonal diffusion than females ($X=3.20$) ($F_{(1,456)}= 18.59$, $p<.001$, $\eta^2=.04$). As it was found for ideological foreclosure, the most significant differences between working adolescent and student was obtained on the interpersonal foreclosure. Working adolescents ($X=4.41$) reported higher level of interpersonal foreclosure than

students ($X=3.72$) ($F_{(1,456)}= 64.17$, $p<.001$, $\eta^2=0.12$). However, there was no significant differences between male and female on interpersonal foreclosure. Contrary to ideological moratorium, working adolescents ($X=4.52$) reported higher level of interpersonal moratorium than students (4.03) ($F_{(1,456)}= 44.8$, $p<.001$, $\eta^2=.09$). Additionally, working adolescents ($X=4.85$) were found to be more interpersonally achieved than students ($X=4.59$) ($F_{(1,456)}= 21.04$, $p<.001$, $\eta^2=.04$). Finally, there was no significant differences between male and female in terms of interpersonal moratorium and interpersonal achievement.

4.2.2 Two-way Analysis of Covariance on Self-Image Variables

A series of two-way ANCOVA were conducted on ten subscales of the OSIQ. The independent variables were working status and gender. Each had two levels: working adolescent, students and male, female. The dependent variables were the scores gathered on ten subscales of the OSIQ and the covariates were the age and the family income of the participants. The results of the analysis were presented in Table 6 and 7.

The results of the analysis revealed that there was no significant interaction effect between working status and gender in terms of self image. However, the main effects for working status for all subscales were obtained except for superior adjustment. Findings indicated that students reported more positive relationship with their family ($X=4.11$) than working adolescents ($X=3.93$) ($F_{(1,456)}= 7.61$, $p<.05$, $\eta^2=.02$). There was no significant difference between males and females on family relationships. Similarly, students ($X=3.89$) and males ($X=3.92$) were found

to spend stronger effort to cope with various pressures that exist in their internal and external environments than working adolescents ($X=3.45$) and females ($X=3.46$) ($F_{(1,456)}= 24.66, p<.01, \eta^2=.05$; $F_{(1,456)}= 15.28, p<.01, \eta^2=.03$, respectively). It was also found that students have more positive attitudes, feelings and behaviors ($X=4.17$) towards sexual matters than working adolescents ($X=3.79$) ($F_{(1,456)}= 10.39, p<.01, \eta^2=.02$). There was no significant difference between male and female on sexual attitudes. Students ($X=3.74$) reported higher level of adaptation to immediate environment than working adolescents ($X=3.50$) ($F_{(1,456)}= 5.92, p<.05, \eta^2=.01$). However, there was no significant difference between males and females in terms of coping with external world. Additionally, students were found to have more positive attitudes toward their bodies ($X=3.74$) than working adolescents ($X=3.50$) ($F_{(1,456)}= 9.13, p<.05, \eta^2=.02$). There was no significant difference between males and females in terms of attitudes about their bodies. Students ($X=3.62$) and males ($X=3.55$) reported higher degree of affective harmony within the psychic structure than working adolescents ($X=3.18$) and females ($X=3.27$) ($F_{(1,456)}= 34.39, p<.01, \eta^2=.07$; $F_{(1,456)}= 7.22, p<.05, \eta^2=.02$, respectively). Additionally, students ($X=4.24$) and females ($X=4.16$) reported higher level of accomplishing learning and planning for a vocational future than working adolescents ($X=3.54$) and males ($X=3.65$) ($F_{(1,456)}= 17.67, p<.01, \eta^2=.04$; $F_{(1,456)}= 24.91, p<.01, \eta^2=.05$, respectively).

Table 6. The main effects for working status on Self Image

	Working (N=182) \bar{X}	Student (N=280) \bar{X}	MS	F(1;456)	Eta ²
Family Relationship	3.93	4.11	2.73	7.61*	0.02
Impulse Control	3.45	3.89	28.09	24.66**	0.05
Sexual Attitude	3.79	4.17	9.37	10.39**	0.02
Coping with the External World	3.50	3.74	6.59	5.92*	0.01
Body Image	3.54	3.85	6.56	9.13*	0.02
Emotional Tone	3.18	3.62	22.05	34.39**	0.07
Superior Adjustment	3.93	3.98	0.35	0.46	
Vocational and Educational Goals	3.54	4.24	26.74	17.67**	0.04
Social Relationships	3.44	3.82	11.60	21.79**	0.05
Psychopathology	3.13	3.52	15.72	29.36**	0.06

** p<0.001, * p<0.01

Table 7. The main effects for gender on Self Image

	Male (N=214) \bar{X}	Female (N=248) \bar{X}	MS	F(1;456)	Eta ²
Family Relationship	4.03	4.01	0.009	0.03	
Impulse Control	3.92	3.46	17.41	15.28**	0.03
Sexual Attitude	3.99	4.00	0.48	0.53	
Coping with the External World	3.70	3.53	1.31	1.18	
Body Image	3.71	3.69	0.17	0.24	
Emotional Tone	3.55	3.27	4.63	7.22*	0.02
Superior Adjustment	3.93	3.96	0.32	0.43	
Vocational and Educational Goals	3.65	4.16	37.71	24.91**	0.05
Social Relationships	3.60	3.65	1.90	3.57	
Psychopathology	3.43	3.24	1.96	3.67	

** p<0.001, * p<0.01

Finally, students ($X=3.82$) reported more positive peer relationship than working adolescents ($X=3.44$) ($F_{(1,456)}=21.79$, $p<.01$, $\eta^2=.05$). There was no significant

differences between male and female in terms of peer relationships and friendships patterns.

4.2.3 Two-way Analysis of Covariance on the Five subscales of the Brief Symptom Inventory

A series of two-way ANCOVA were conducted on five subscales of BSI. The independent variables were working status and gender. The dependent variables were the scores obtained on the five subscales of BSI namely, depression, anxiety, somatization, interpersonal sensation, and hostility, and the covariates were the age and the family income of the participants. The results of the analysis are given in Table 8 and 9.

The results of the analysis revealed that females reported higher level of interpersonal sensation ($X=1.25$) than males ($X=.99$) ($F_{(1,456)}= 8.81$, $p<.05$, $\eta^2=.01$). However, there was no significant difference between students and working adolescents in terms of interpersonal sensation. Additionally, working adolescents ($X=1.14$) and females ($X=1.11$) reported higher level of depression than students ($X=.83$) and males ($X=.87$) ($F_{(1,456)}= 9.53$, $p<.05$, $\eta^2=.02$; $F_{(1,456)}= 9.14$, $p<.05$, $\eta^2=.02$, respectively). Finally, working adolescents ($X=1.07$) and females ($X=1.10$) reported higher level of anxiety than students ($X=.81$) and males ($X=.78$) ($F_{(1,456)}= 5.29$, $p<.05$, $\eta^2=.01$; $F_{(1,456)}= 17.51$, $p<.01$, $\eta^2=.04$, respectively). The results of the analysis indicated that the interaction between working status and gender on somatization was significant ($F_{(1,456)}=5.97$, $p<0.05$, $\eta^2=0.01$). While student males ($X=.41$) had significantly lower levels of

somatization than student females ($X=.71$), working males ($X=.80$) and working females ($X=.78$) did not differ from each other on somatization subscale of BSI.

Table 8. The main effects for working status on five subscales of BSI

	Working (N=182) \bar{X}	Student (N=280) \bar{X}	MS	F(1;456)	Eta ²
Somatization	.78	.57	4.38	9.18**	0.02
Interpersonal Sensation	1.20	1.03	1.40	1.71	
Depression	1.14	0.83	7.07	9.53*	0.02
Anxiety	1.07	0.81	3.99	5.29*	0.01
Hostility	1.17	1.04	1.54	1.80	

** $p<0.001$ * $p<0.05$

Table 9. The main effects for gender on five subscales of BSI

	Male (N=214) \bar{X}	Female (N=248) \bar{X}	MS	F(1;456)	Eta ²
Somatization	.60	.77	2.72	5.70*	0.01
Interpersonal Sensation	0.99	1.25	7.22	8.81*	0.01
Depression	0.87	1.11	6.78	9.14*	0.02
Anxiety	0.78	1.10	13.19	17.51**	0.04
Hostility	1.05	1.16	1.74	2.03	

** $p<0.001$ * $p<0.05$

Similarly, the results of the analysis indicated that the interaction between working status and gender on hostility was also significant ($F_{1,456}=4.05$, $p<.05$, $\eta^2=0.009$). The pattern of the interaction indicated that student males ($X=.90$) had lower levels of hostility than student females ($X=1.17$), working males ($X=1.22$) and females ($X=1.13$). However, student females, working males and females did not differ from each other on hostility subscale of the BSI.

4.2.4 Two-way Analysis of Covariance on Parenting Styles Dimensions

A series of two-way ANCOVA were conducted on the two dimensions of the PSQ; acceptance and control for both mothers and fathers. The dependent variables were the scores obtained on the four subscales of PSQ namely, maternal acceptance, maternal control, paternal acceptance, and paternal control and the covariates were the age and the family income of the participants. The results of the analysis were given in Table 10 and 11.

Table 10. The main effects for working status on parenting style

	Working (N=182) \bar{X}	Student (N=280) \bar{X}	MS	F(1;456)	Eta ²
Maternal Acceptance	3.71	3.68	0.08	0.17	
Maternal Control	3.00	2.76	6.06	12.40**	0.03
Paternal Acceptance	3.53	3.40	1.81	2.81	
Paternal Control	3.05	2.80	6.30	12.22**	0.03

** p<0.001 * p<0.05

Table 11. The main effects for gender on parenting style

	Male (N=214) \bar{X}	Female (N=248) \bar{X}	MS	F(1;456)	Eta ²
Maternal Acceptance	3.73	3.66	0.75	1.41	
Maternal Control	2.90	2.86	0.66	1.35	
Paternal Acceptance	3.55	3.38	4.30	6.67*	0.01
Paternal Control	2.99	2.86	3.14	6.10*	0.01

** p<0.001 * p<0.05

It was found that there was no interaction effect between working status and gender in terms of parenting style. Moreover, there was no significant difference between working adolescents and students and between males and females in terms of maternal acceptance. Working adolescents on the other hand, reported higher level of maternal control ($X=3.00$), than students ($X=2.76$) ($F_{1,456}=12.40$, $p<.001$,

$\eta^2=0.03$). Males and females did not differ from each other on maternal control. In terms of paternal acceptance, while working adolescents and students did not differ from each other, males reported higher level of paternal acceptance ($X=3.55$) than females ($X=3.38$) ($F_{1,456}=6.67$, $p<.05$, $\eta^2=.01$). Finally, working adolescents ($X=3.05$) and males ($X=2.99$) were found to perceive more paternal control than students ($X=3.40$) and females ($X=3.38$) ($F_{(1,456)}= 12.22$, $p<.01$, $\eta^2=.03$; $F_{(1,456)}= 6.10$, $p<.05$, $\eta^2=.01$, respectively).

In summary, the findings of this study partially support the hypothesis. Regarding the working status, as expected, the findings indicated that working adolescent reported higher levels of interpersonal and ideological foreclosure than students holding constant the age and family income of the participants. In seven subscales of Ego Identity Status, the working adolescent obtained significantly higher scores than the students. Regarding the gender, findings revealed that male reported higher levels of ideological diffusion, ideological foreclosure and interpersonal diffusion than females. However, there was no interaction effect between working status and gender in terms of ego identity status.

In terms of self image, the most significant difference between working adolescents and students was obtained on impulse control. Students and males were found to report higher levels of effort to cope with various pressures that exist in their internal and external environments than working adolescents and female. It was also found that students reported more positive relationship with their family than working adolescents. The results of the analysis have also

revealed that students had more positive attitudes, feelings and behaviors towards sexual matters than working adolescents. In addition, the students have reported significantly less overt psychopathology than the working adolescents. Consistent with above results, working adolescents reported higher levels of symptomatology than students measured by the BSI subscales. The results showed that working adolescent and females are significantly more anxious and depressive than students and males. Working adolescents reported higher level of maternal control than students. However, males and females did not differ from each other on the perceived maternal control. In terms of father acceptance, while working adolescents and students did not differ from each other, males reported higher level of father acceptance than females. Finally, working adolescents and males were found to perceive more father control than students and females.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Although different aspects of identity, self development, the role of psychological well being, and parenting styles have been extensively studied, the impact of working on these variables has remained largely unexamined. Therefore, the primary objective of the present study was to examine the effects of working status and gender on ego identity statuses, parenting styles, self-image, and psychological well being among Turkish adolescents.

This study was intended to clarify the relationship between adolescent working, self-concept and identity so that it would have an implication for vocational choices, vocational development and orientations to the future. It was speculated that full-time employment might force the adolescents to terminate the psychosocial moratorium and might stimulate rapid movement toward identity formation, and higher identity foreclosure while student adolescents may have an extended time to search for identities and they experience larger period for moratorium.

The analysis of the pearson product moment correlation coefficients have revealed different patterns of relationships between certain variables for working adolescents and students. As expected, there was a significantly negative

relationship between ideological diffusion and ideological achievement for students ($r = -0.15$, $p < 0.01$). However, similar significant negative relationship was not obtained for working adolescents. Similarly, significantly negative relationship was found between interpersonal diffusion and interpersonal achievement for students ($r = -0.15$, $p < 0.01$) but not for working adolescents. These findings seem to imply that differences among the four identity statuses could not be clearly identified for working adolescents. When the coefficients were computed for working girls and working boys separately, it was found out that the coefficients between diffusion and achievement are negative for girls even they are not significant. However, contrary to expectation, there was a significant positive correlation between achievement and diffusion for working boys ($r = 0.22$, $p < 0.05$). Therefore, the unexpected results on these variables may result from the data of working boys.

The coefficients have also revealed similar pattern between diffusion and moratorium in relation with self-image for students. All the coefficients between ideological and interpersonal diffusion and the subscales of self-image were significantly negative. Similarly, interpersonal moratorium and almost all subscales self-image were negatively related. The similar pattern was also found for working adolescents. Consistent with the past studies conducted in Western cultures, students seemed to have higher levels of moratorium, but working adolescents were characterized by higher levels of foreclosure. Additionally, interpersonal moratorium is the only ego identity status which has the highest significant positive correlation with subscales of the Brief Symtoms Inventory

(e.g., depression, anxiety) for students. Diffusion, on the other hand, has only significantly positive relation with hostility for students. Moreover, ideological achievement has only significant negative relationship with depression. On the other hand, foreclosure is the only ego identity status which has significantly negative correlations with subscales of the Brief Symtoms Inventory for working adolescents. It can be concluded that foreclosure is somehow related to the psychological well being in working adolescents only. In the lighth of the coefficients between ego identity status and the other measures, the results has revealed that the pattern of ego identity status of working adolescent and students are relatively different from each others.

Overall, the findings of this study partially supported the expectations. As expected, working adolescents had the highest foreclosure scores in both interpersonal and ideological domains indicating a lack of exploration during the period of adolescence possibly, because of full-time working. There was no interection effect of working status and gender in terms of ego identity status while controlling for age and family income of participants. Moreover, significant main effect was obtained for working status and gender. Firstly, contrary to expectation, working adolescents and males were more ideologically and interpersonally diffused. It can be concluded that working adolescents and males comparing to students and females may have undergone some tentative exploration but remain uncommitted. Secondly, similar to diffused identity, working adolescents were also found to be more ideologically and interpersonally foreclosure than students. That is, to say, working adolescents, while strongly

committed, have not arrived at their commitments via the route of exploration; they have more retained the values and occupational direction of their childhood from the parents than students. Males, compare to females, reported higher levels of ideologically foreclosure but not significantly different in terms of interpersonal foreclosure. Thirdly, working adolescents and students were not significantly different from each other in terms of ideological moratorium. However, working adolescents reported higher levels of interpersonal moratorium than students indicating that they are in the process of exploring alternatives in interpersonal relations. However, interpersonal occupational identity which is represented in ideological domains they seem to have committed certain alternatives. No gender differences were found in terms of moratorium. More suprisingly, the findings have revealed that working adolescents were more ideologically and interpersonally achieved than students. However, given the inconsistent findings working adolescents appeared to have some difficulty in seperating foreclosure and achievement. Therefore, it is not clear if this finding is specific to the sample used in this study. Further studies are needed to clarify these inconsistencies. It seems that working adolescents are more diffused and achieved than the students at the same time. Because of the lower level education of working adolescents they might have misinterpreted the items of EOMEIS.

Actually, there are a number of studies conducted for the purpose of the effects of working on the period of adolescence and number of the studies conducted in the purpose of investigation ego identity status (e.g., Mortimer & Shanahan, 1994; Mortimer, Finch, Ryu, Shanahan, & Call, 1996; Carr, Wrigth & Brody, 1996;

Lucas, 1997). However, working status and ego identity status, to the knowledge of the present investigator, have not been investigated, yet. Therefore, there appears a difficulty to compare the results of the present investigation to the related literature in terms of ego identity status and working status in order to clarify contradictory findings of more achieved and diffused identity of working adolescents compare to students.

The study of sex differences in identity development has produced conflicting and mixed results. Adams, Bennion, and Huh, (1989) claimed that the majority of the studies report no significant gender differences regarding identity statuses. When comparing identity statuses development by gender, the results of this study partially support previous work. Consistent with Streitmatter's work (1993) there were no statistically significant differences between boys and girls in their progress through the identity statuses. The results of the present study revealed that there was no significant differences between males and females in terms of identity achievement, moratorium, and foreclosure. However, the results of the present study have also revealed that there was a significant difference between males and females in terms of ideological and interpersonal diffusion. Male adolescents were found to be more diffused than females. Lucas (1997) has found that females are more achieved than males. Archer (1989) revealed that males were significantly more likely to be foreclosed and females were more diffused in the area of political ideology. These findings of minimal gender differences suggest that men and women use similar psychological structure to address key

identity-defining questions and undergo similar developmental process in transition from one identity structure to another (Kroger, 1997).

In recent years, a number of studies have examined the negative effect of work setting on healthy development of adolescents. In terms of psychological well being, the present study has found that working adolescents are significantly more depressed and anxious than students holding constant the age and family income of the participants. However, it could not be concluded that work experience results in psychological impairment in adolescents due to the cross-sectional nature of the present study. The controlled longitudinal studies are needed to examine more closely familial, personal, and social factors and their interactions to determine cause and effect between working and psychological well being in adolescent. Moreover, the findings of the present study are somehow parallel to the related literature. In a study, it was demonstrated that students who worked more than 20 hours were not found to exhibit a more external orientation, lower self-esteem, or greater depressive affect than students who did not work (Mortimer, Finch, Ryu, Shanahan, & Call, 1996). They found no evidence that work intensity is significantly linked to adolescents self-esteem, mastery, or depressive affect. Another challenging finding on this topic has revealed that there is evidence that for boys, working under more stressful conditions is associated with reporting fewer, rather than more, symptoms of either physical or psychological distress (Greenberger, Steinberg, & Vaux, 1981). Consistent with above findings, this study has also found that there is a tendency for boys who work to report fewer physical symptoms than boys who never work. However

result of the present study showed that full-time working adolescents reported high levels of anxiety, depression and somatization than students. These results can be interpreted as full-time working may be relatively stressful for adolescents. Consistent with this in a study (Bachman & Schulenberg, 1993) it was found that correlation between work intensity and problem behaviors was positive (e.g., smoking, interpersonal aggression) in adolescents. Work intensity appears to reduce the likelihood of getting sufficient sleep, eating breakfast and having a satisfactory amount of leisure time. There is also evidence that work experience contributes to depressed mood among adolescents (Shanahan, Finch, Mortimer, & Ryu, 1991).

Finally, the findings of present study showed that working adolescents reported higher levels of perceived control from both their mothers and fathers than students. There was no significant differences between these two groups in terms of parental acceptance and involvement. These results showed that working adolescents have mostly authoritarian parents which are characterized by high levels of control on children's behaviors. However, the pattern of correlations imply that working adolescents, parental control was not perceived as negative as students' perception. The correlation coefficients revealed that diffusion is negatively related with mother and father acceptance in working adolescent and students. Additionally, achievement is positively related with parental acceptance in this two groups of adolescent. These findings imply that parental acceptance fosters identity achievement and buffers identity diffusions for adolescents. Although these two groups of adolescent differ from each other in perceived

parental control, it is the parental acceptance which is important in significant exploration and having made commitments in most area for adolescents.

In terms of adolescent working, there are critical differences between European cultures and Turkey. In many European countries, obligatory education for adolescents is twelve years. Therefore adolescents' working in these countries mostly part-time or short-term. When the relevant literature was investigated both positive and negative aspects of part-time working are observed. Most of the studies have reported that part-time working of adolescents is beneficial for adolescent development when the hours of work strict to 15 to 20 hrs per week. But in Turkey, recently, obligatory education for adolescents is eight years and adolescent working mostly full-time in our country. There are two alternatives for adolescents; either to get in education system or to be a worker in early age adolescents. Working of adolescents in Turkey mostly depends on the socioeconomic status of family. Therefore, effects of working on adolescent development must be considered together with the family SES. In the present study it was also supported that, for example, working adolescents have lower levels of self-image than students and working adolescents are more depressed than students. To eliminate these negative aspects of adolescent working, first of all obligatory education must be twelve years and adolescent working should be part-time or short-term. But, it is not enough, because socioeconomic status of society is an important factor on the adolescent working.

The results of this study should be interpreted in the context of some methodological limitations. The present study is cross-sectional in nature. From a methodological standpoint, cross-sectional findings are susceptible to bias associated with possible confounding between measures of socio-environmental conditions. This type of design is not suitable for testing the hypothesis that work experiences do affect ego identity status or self development. Therefore, to address this question fully, it will be necessary to conduct controlled prospective studies in the future. Furthermore, the instruments utilized in this study had some limitations in their psychometric properties. Especially, the Turkish version of the Objective Measure of Ego Identity Status (EOMEIS) yielded some inconsistent results. Therefore, there is a need for an independent study in order to evaluate and improve the psychometric properties of EOMEIS, OSIQ, and PSQ for Turkish samples. Additionally, the results of the present study must be interpreted in the light of the utilized sample of adolescents. The sample of working adolescents and students were selected from a specific region of Turkey (Samsun) and the majority of working adolescents were included in the study from organized institutions (state run mentorship institution). In future studies, full-time working adolescents from different occupational domains and students from different SES groups and schools must be selected and the result should be replicated in future studies.

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APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM

1.Cinsiyetiniz	E	K
2.Yaşınız:	_____	
3.Mesleğiniz:	_____	
4.Çalışıyorsanız Kaç Yıldır Çalışıyorsunuz:	_____	
5.Kazancınızı Ne Şekilde Değerlendiriyorsunuz:		
a) Aileme Ekonomik Katkıda Bulunuyorum		
b) İleriki Yaşamda Kullanmak İçin Biriktiriyorum		
c) Günlük Giderlerim İçin Kullanıyorum		
d) Hem Aileme Katkıda Bulunuyorum Hem de Özel İhtiyaçlarımı Karşılıyorum		
6.En son Bitirdiğiniz Okul :	_____	
7.Annenizin Mesleği :	_____	
8 .Babanızın Mesleği	_____	
9.Annenizin Eğitim Düzeyi:	Okur yazar değil	İlk Orta Lise Üniversite
10.Babanızın Eğitim Düzeyi:	Okur yazar değil	İlk Orta Lise Üniversite
11.Ailenizin Ayık Gelir Düzeyi:		
Ortalamanın Altında	Ortalamaya Yakın	Ortalamanın Üzerinde
12.Sigara Kullanıyor musunuz?:	Evet	Hayır Arada bir
13.Alkol Kullanıyor musunuz? :	Evet	Hayır Arada bir

APPENDIX B

EOMEIS (Extended Objective Measure of Ego Identity Status)

Bu anket gençlerle ilgili 64 maddeden oluşmuştur. Lütfen her maddeyi dikkatlice okuyun. Okuduğunuz her maddenin sizin için ne kadar DOĞRU veya YANLIŞ olduğunu,her maddenin yanındaki altı seçenekten YALNIZCA BİRİNİ seçerek belirtin.

Şayet bir maddenin birden fazla bölümü varsa,CEVABINIZI MADDENİN TÜMÜNE GÖRE verin.

Ankette ana-baba ifadesi içeren maddeler,anneniz,babanız veya her ikisini ifade etmek için kullanılmıştır. Bu nedenle mutlaka ana-babanız için tek bir yanıt vermek zorunluluğunda hissetmeyiniz.

Araştırmama katıldığınız için teşekkür ederim.

	Çok Doğru	Oldukça Doğru	Biraz Doğru	Yanlış	Oldukça Yanlış	Çok Yanlış
1.Arkadaşlık ilişkilerinin kafamı kurcalayacağı bir dönem oldu ama şimdi kime arkadaş diyeceğimi,arkadaşlıktan ne anladığımı çok iyi biliyorum.						
2.Ana-babanın oy verme,parti tutma gibi politik konulardaki görüşleri bana her zaman uygun gelmişti.						
3.Karşı cinsle duygusal ilişkilerde henüz net bir görüşüm yok,ama bu konudaki düşüncelerimi ve tavrımı netleştirmeye çalışıyorum.						
4.Düzenli olarak sürdürdüğüm ve benimsediğim bir boş zaman uğraşım olmadığı gibi,böyle bir uğraş bulmaya da çalışmıyorum.						
5.Ne ailemi anlamak, ne de kendimi onlara anlatmak gibi bir çabam yok;daha açıkçası bu tür konularla pek ilgili değilim.						
6.Karşı cinsle duygusal bir ilişkiden ne beklediğimi,ne istediğimi sorguladığım bir dönem oldu;ama şimdi bu konuda neye inandığımı çok iyi biliyorum.						
7.Kendime ve yeteneklerime gerçekten uygun bir mesleğe karar verebilmek için çeşitli alternatifleri araştırıyorum. Henüz arayışım bitmiş değil.						
8.Samimi olmak gerekirse,anne-babamın dini konulardaki inanç ve tutumlarını üzerinde fazla düşünmeden benimsediğimi söyleyebilirim.						
9.Arkadaş seçimi veya arkadaş ilişkileri konusunda belli bazı prensiplerim yok. Bu tür prensipler bulmaya da çalışmıyorum.						
10.Tam olarak benimsediğim politik bir görüşüm olmamasına rağmen,çeşitli politik görüşleri izliyor ve hangisinin bana uygun olacağına karar vermeye çalışıyorum.						
11.Ailemle ilişkilerimi düşünüp,gözden geçirdiğim bir dönem oldu;ama artık onlarla ilişkimde ne beklediğimi ve neye önem verdiğimi iyi biliyorum.						
12.Gelecekte hayatımın nasıl olacağına dair görüşleri tamamen anne-babamdan almışım.						
13.Benim için hangi mesleğin en uygun olacağını araştırdıktan sonra,mesleğimin ne olacağını belirledim.						
14.Arkadaşlık ilişkilerimde herhangi bir prensibim yok.Bu konuda aklıma						

39.İleride nasıl bir hayat yaşamak istediğimi tam bilmiyorum. Doğrusu,bu konu beni hiç ilgilendirmiyor.						
40.Dini konular üzerinde düşünüp,kendi bakış açımı netleştirmeye çalışıyorum.						
41.Pek çok kişi aileleriyle ilişkilerini gözden geçirme ihtiyacı hissediyor. Doğrusu,ailemle her zaman çok uyumlu olduğum için böyle bir ihtiyaç hiç hissetmemişimdir.						
42.Politik olarak neye inanacağımı belirleyebilmek için çeşitli görüşler üzerinde düşündüm. Şimdi bu konu kafamda nitelik kazanmış durumda.						
43.Karşı cinsle duygusal ilişkilerimde benim için neyin önemli						
44. .Mesleğime henüz karar vermiş değilim ama çeşitli olasılıklar arasında hangi mesleğin bana uygun olacağını belirlemeye çalışıyorum						
45.Ailemi ve onlarla ilişkilerimi enine boyuna değerlendirdim. Onlarla ilişkilerim artık tamamen rayına oturmuş durumda.						
46.Ana-babamın boş zamanlarını değerlendirmek için yaptığı etkinlikleri ben de aynen benimsemişimdir.						
47.Dini konular hakkında belirli bir görüşüm yok. Açıkçası bu konuyu kafama hiç takmıyorum.						
48.Karşı cinsle duygusal ilişki konusunda düşüncelerimin ve tavrımın pek net olmadığı bir dönem yaşadım ama şimdi bu konuda ne istediğimi iyi biliyorum.						
49.İleride yaşamak istediğim hayat konusunda,ana-babamın hayatının benim için çok iyi bir model olduğunu düşünüyorum.						
50.Politika konusundaki çeşitli görüşleri izleyerek,kendi politik görüşümün ne olacağını belirlemeye çalışıyorum.						
51.Bazen boş zaman uğraşlarına takıldığım olur ama düzenli olarak sürdüreceğim bir etkinlik bulmak gibi bir derdim yok.						
52.Bana uygun mesleğin hangisi olduğu konusunda her zaman ana-babamın görüşlerini benimsemiş ve bu yönde hareket etmişimdir.						
53.Bir yandan etrafımdaki kişilerin hayatlarını izlerken,bir yandan da ileride kendim için nasıl bir hayat istediğimi belirlemeye çalışıyorum.						
54.Dini konularla ilgili olarak kendime ciddi sorular sorduğum bir dönem oldu ancak şimdi,din konusunda kafamda pek çok şey netlik kazanmış durumda.						
55.Karşı cinsle duygusal ilişkilerimde belirli prensiplerim yok. Bu konuda kafama göre takılıyorum.						
56.Çeşitli boş zaman uğraşlarıyla ilgilenerek,yapmaktan gerçekten hoşlandığım bir (veya birkaç) uğraş belirlemeye çalışıyorum.						
57.Ana-babamın dini inanç ve tutumlarını tamamen benimsemiş olduğumdan dolayı,dini konular üzerinde düşünmem hiç gerekmemiştir.						
58.Ailemle ilişkilerimi henüz tam yerine oturtabilmiş değilim;bu konudaki düşüncelerimi ve tavrımı netleştirmeye çalışıyorum.						
59.Benimsediğim belirli bir politik görüş yok,doğrusu bu konuda herhangi bir arayışında yok.						
60.Geçmişte çeşitli boş zaman uğraşları denedim ama şimdi hoşuma giden uğraşları net bir şekilde belirlemiş bulunuyorum.						
61.Ailemle her zaman uyumlu ilişkiler içerisinde olmuş,onlarla ilişkilerimi gözden geçirme ihtiyacı hiç duymamışım.						
62.Meslek seçimi konusunda her zaman ana-babamın görüşleri doğrultusunda hareket etmeyi benimsemişimdir.						
63.Şu sıralar arkadaşlık konusunda kafama takılan pek çok soru var;bu konudaki düşüncelerime ir açıklık kazandırmaya çalışıyorum.						

64.Bir birey olarak gelecekte nasıl bir hayat istediğim sorusuna bir yanıt bulmaya çalıştım,şimdi bu konuda kafamda pek çok şey açıklık kazanmış durumda.						
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Adams, G. R, & Grotevant, H. D. (1984). Development of an Objective Measure to Assess Ego Identity in Adolescence: Validation and Replication. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence* ,13 , 419-438.

Translated and adopted into Turkis language by Varan (1987).



APPENDIX C

OFFER BENLİK İMGESİ ÖLÇEĞİ (OBİÖ)

Lütfen aşağıdaki her cümleyi dikkatle okuduktan sonra her ifadenin yanındaki kutulardan size en uygun olan birisinin içine X işareti koyunuz. Lütfen sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

- | | |
|---------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. Bana çok uygun | 4. Bana pek uygun değil |
| 2. Bana uygun | 5. Bana çoğunlukla uygun değil |
| 3. Bana biraz uygun | 6. Bana hiç uygun değil |

1. Başka insanlarla birlikteyken birinin benimle alay edeceğinden korkarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Anne ve babamın gelecekte benimle gurur duyacaklarını sanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Annem ve babam hep başkasının (örneğin kardeşlerimden birinin) tarafını tutarlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Karşı cinsten akranlarım beni sıkıcı bulur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Kendimi genellikle gergin hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Genellikle pikniklerde veya arkadaş toplantılarında kendimi bir yabancı gibi hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Ailem gelecekte benim yüzümden hayal kırıklığına uğrayacak.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Zaman zaman pek kontrol edemediğim ağlama veya gülme nöbetlerine tutulurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Genellikle babamın hiçbir işe yaramadığını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Çoğu zaman kafam karmakarışıktır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Kendimi tanıdığım insanların çoğundan daha aşağı hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Annemi ve babamı anlamak benim için mümkün değil.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Kendi hatam olmayan şeylerden ötürü bile çoğunlukla kendimi suçlu hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Genellikle mutluyum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Bazen kendimden öyle utanırım ki, hemen bir köşeye saklanıp ağlamak isterim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Duygularım kolayca incinir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. Çoğu zaman kendimi duygusal yönden boş hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. Annem ve babam genellikle iyi geçinirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Başka insanların benden pek hoşlanmadıklarını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Yeni arkadaşlıklar kurmakta çok zor gelir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. Çok fazla huzursuzum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. Yaşamaya devam etmektense, ölmenin daha iyi olacağını sık sık düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. Yeni arkadaşlıklar kurmak bana çok zor gelir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. Ailemde kararlar verilirken benimde söz hakkım olduğunu hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. Kendimi çok yalnız hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6

26. Yaşamayı seviyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. Annem ve babam bana karşı genellikle sabırlıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. Kendi çocuklukları mutsuz geçmişse, anne babalar çok sıklıkla çocukları anlamazlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. Yaşıtlarımla beraber olmaktansa, yalnız olmayı tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. Sürekli olarak bir şeyden ürküyorum	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. Çok sıklıkla “Hiç de olmak istediğim gibi biri değilim” diye düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. Genellikle, kendimi evde bir fazlalık gibi hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33.Eğer başkaları benimle aynı fikirde olmaz, beni desteklemezlerse, fena halde canım sıkılır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. Genellikle kendimi çirkin hisseder, çekici olmadığımı düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35. Cinsel konularda kendimi geri (cahil ve tecrübesiz) hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36. Hiç boş durmadığım halde işlerimi, bir türlü bitiremiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37. Diğer insanlar bana baktıklarında, herhalde vücudumun pek iyi gelişmemiş olduğunu düşünüyorlardır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38. Annem ve babam benden utanıyorlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39. Kendimi güçlü ve sağlıklı hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40. Genellikle vaktimin çoğunu evden uzak geçirmeye çalışıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41. Hayatı, çözümü olmayan sonsuz sayıda problemler dizisi olarak görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42. Yıllardır anne- babama kin besliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
43. Hiçbir yeteneğimin olmadığını düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
44. Başıma geleceğinden emin olduğum bir olayla nasıl başa çıkabileceğim konusunda önceden hazırlık yapmam (Başıma geldikten sonra düşünürüm).	1	2	3	4	5	6
45. Annem ve babam genellikle benden memnundurlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
46. Yeni arkadaşlıklar kurmakta fazla zorluk çekmem.	1	2	3	4	5	6
47. Okul ve ders çalışmak benim için pek önemli değil.	1	2	3	4	5	6
48. Katıldığım eğlence ve arkadaş toplantılarının çoğundan zevk alırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
49. Sebebini anlayamadığım korkularım pek fazla yoktur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
50. Kendimi sıklıkla hüzünlü, kederli hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Offer, D. (1988). *The Teenage World*. NY: Pleum Medical Book Company,

Şahin, N. (1993). *Offer benlik imgesi ölçeği el kitabı*. Basılmamış Monograf, ODTÜ Psikoloji

Bölümü

APPENDIX D

Subscales of the Brief Symptom Inventory

Aşağıda, insanların bazen yaşadıkları belirtilerin ve yakınmaların bir listesi verilmiştir. Listedeki her maddeyi dikkatle okuyun. Daha sonra o belirtilerin SİZDE BUGÜN DAHİL, SON BİR HAFTADIR NE KADAR VAROLDUĞUNU yandaki bölümde uygun olan yerde işaretleyin. Her belirti için sadece bir yeri işaretlemeye ve hiçbir maddeyi atlamamaya özen gösterin. Yanıtlarınızı kurşun kalemle işaretleyin. Eğer fikir değiştirirseniz ilk yanıtı silin.

Yanıtlarınızı aşağıdaki ölçeğe göre değerlendirin:

Bu belirtiler son bir haftadır sizde ne kadar var?

1. Hiç yok
2. Biraz var
3. Orta derecede var
4. Epey var
5. Çok fazla var

1. İçinizdeki sinirlilik ve titreme hali	0	1	2	3	4
2. Baygınlık,başdönmesi	0	1	2	3	4
3. Çok kolayca kızıp öfkelenme	0	1	2	3	4
4. Göğüs (kalp) bölgesinde ağrılar	0	1	2	3	4
5. Yaşamınıza son verme düşünceleri	0	1	2	3	4
6. Hiçbir nedeni olmayan ani korkular	0	1	2	3	4
7. Kontrol edemediğiniz duygu patlamaları	0	1	2	3	4
8. Yalnızlık hissetmek.	0	1	2	3	4
9. Hüzünlü,kederli hissetmek	0	1	2	3	4
10. Hiçbir şeye ilgi duymamak	0	1	2	3	4
11. Ağlamaklı hissetmek	0	1	2	3	4
12. Kolayca incinebilme,kırılabilme	0	1	2	3	4
13. İnsanların sizi sevmediğine,kötü davrandığına inanmak	0	1	2	3	4
14. Kendini diğerlerinden aşağı görmek	0	1	2	3	4
15. Mide bozukluğu,bulantı	0	1	2	3	4
16. Nefes darlığı,nefessiz kalmak	0	1	2	3	4
17. Sıcak,soğuk basmaları	0	1	2	3	4
18.Bedeninizin bazı bölgelerinde uyuşmalar,karıncalanmalar	0	1	2	3	4
19.Gelecek ile ilgili umutsuzluk duyguları	0	1	2	3	4
20. Bedenin bazı bölgelerinde zayıflık,güçsüzlük hissi	0	1	2	3	4
21. Kendini gergin ve tedirgin hissetmek	0	1	2	3	4
22. Birini dövme,ona zarar verme,yaralama isteği	0	1	2	3	4
23. Birşeyleri kırma dökme isteği	0	1	2	3	4
24. Diğerlerinin yanındayken yanlış birşeyler yapmamaya çalışmak	0	1	2	3	4
25. Dehşet ve panik nöbetleri	0	1	2	3	4
26. Sık sık tartışmaya girmek	0	1	2	3	4
27. Yerinde duramayacak kadar tedirgin hissetmek	0	1	2	3	4
28. Kendini değersiz görmek/değersizlik duyguları	0	1	2	3	4

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nadiren izin verirdi.										
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