

THE FACTORS CONTRIBUTE TO CAREER ADAPTABILITY OF HIGH
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ABSTRACT

THE FACTORS CONTRIBUTE TO CAREER ADAPTABILITY OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

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The purpose of the study is to seek out some potential factors that contribute to career adaptability of high school students. For this purpose, the study examined to what extend the direct and indirect relations of perceived social support, optimism, general self-efficacy and the combination of these variables explain career adaptability of high school students.

The sample of the study comprised of 1610 high school students (862 public high school; 748 private high school) from Ankara. Multidimensional Perceived Social Support Scale (MSPSS), Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R), General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE), and Career Adapt-Abilities Scale were used to collect the data. Multi-sample structural equation modeling (SEM) was carried out to investigate whether the proposed model of career adaptability fit the data. The results of multi-sample SEM demonstrated model invariance according to school type (public and private). Therefore a single-group structural equation modeling was administered. The proposed model explained 46% of the variance in career adaptability scores. The

results revealed indirect effects of perceived social support and optimism in predicting career adaptability via general self-efficacy. The findings of the study may shed a light onto theory, research and practice in understanding factors that contribute to career adaptability of high school students.

Keywords: Career adaptability, perceived social support, optimism, general self-efficacy, multi-sample SEM.

ÖZ

LİSE ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN KARIYER UYUM YETENEĞİNİ YORDAYAN ETKENLER

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Bu çalışmanın amacı, lise öğrencilerinin kariyer uyum yeteneğini yordayan bazı olası etkenleri araştırmaktır. Bu doğrultuda, algılanan sosyal destek, iyimserlik ve genel öz-yeterlik inancı değişkenlerinin kariyer uyum yeteneği ile doğrudan ve dolaylı ilişkileri ve bu değişkenlerin kombinasyonunun lise öğrencilerinde kariyer uyum yeteneğini ne kadar açıkladığı araştırılmıştır.

Araştırmanın örneklemini, Ankara'daki okullardan 1610 lise öğrencisi (862 devlet lisesi, 748 özel lise) oluşturmuştur. Bu çalışmada, verileri toplamak amacıyla Çok Boyutlu Algılanan Sosyal Destek Ölçeği, Revize Edilmiş Yaşam Yönelimi Ölçeği, Genel Öz-Yeterlik Ölçeği ve Kariyer Uyum Yetenekleri Ölçeği kullanılmıştır.. Çalışma kapsamında, önerilen modelin veriye uygunluğu çoklu grup yapısal eşitlik modellemesi (YEM) ile test edilmiştir.

Çoklu grup yapısal eşitlik modellemesi sonuçlarının önerilen modelin okul türüne göre (özel-devlet) değişmediğini göstermesi üzerine, model, bütün katılımcılar üzerinde sınanmıştır. Model, kariyer uyum yeteneğine ilişkin varyansın %46'sını açıklamıştır. Bulgular, algılanan sosyal destek ve iyimserliğin genel öz-yeterlilik inancı aracılığıyla kariyer uyum yeteneği üzerinde dolaylı bir etkiye sahip olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu çalışmanın bulgularının, lise öğrencilerinde kariyer uyum yeteneğini etkileyen değişkenlerin anlaşılmasında teori, araştırma ve uygulamaya ışık tutacağı düşünülmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kariyer uyum yeteneği, sosyal destek, iyimserlik, genel öz-yeterlilik, çoklu grup yapısal eşitlik modellemesi.

To whom they dedicate their life for improving humanism
and
To masters who make inroads into progress of humanity

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

In the world of 21st century, by recognizing the importance of career, individuals pay more attention on how to shape their career path that will lead to a fulfilling life. Indeed, individuals construct their subjective career that fits meaning and direction of their lives throughout the life-span (Savickas, 2013).

The new generation seeks higher positions to earn high salaries, likes to have fun, and praise which impact their career construction process (Wall, 2004). According to the statistics reported by Saratago Institute (2005), they alter their first job approximately 7 months later and occupy wide variety of jobs in their career as mobile employees. This creates boundaryless organizations and raises temporary assignments instead of permanent jobs (Savickas, 2011).

It is also remarkable that the changing characteristics of generations and the world of work are inextricably intertwined. Concomitant with advancement in technology, globalization and information, uncertainty and flexibility have raised in the world of work (Savickas, 2009). The individualization of the life course (Hofmeister, 2013) and the loss of stable structures of work conditions (Savickas, 2012) have also posed insecure work lives.

Accordingly, the amount and variety of these changes have increased the possibilities of career transitions and the number decision making. Thus, intervening career indecisions and facilitating decision making process which are central aims of career counseling seem to have very significant place for both individuals and society during the transitions and switches of 21st century (Gati, Krausz, & Osipow, 1996). Notably, high school students are required to make career oriented decisions that may influence their future (Watson, Creed, & Patton, 2003). As Super (1990) stated, self exploration and the environment exploration start in adolescence. Crystallization of choices is expected during that period as a result of development of career maturity. Thus, the main aim of counseling during adolescence period is to increase their readiness for making a career decision.

Career decision-making may be identified as multifaceted, life-long process (Doyle, 2001). Decision making refers identifying all the possible alternatives and then choosing the best option that fits specific goal or objective (Ahmed & Omotunde, 2012). It is a changing process as individuals, societies, and circumstances change and develop (Doyle, 2001). Decision theories focus on some principles and algorithms that may influence decision making process. There are basically two decision theories as normative and descriptive decision theory. While normative theory studies how decision making should be made, a descriptive theory clarifies how decisions are actually made (Germeijs & De Boeck, 2003). By using normative decision analysis, logical, rational and moral decision making models are developed. On the other hand, through descriptive decision analysis, models of decision making explaining actual decision behavior of individuals are improved (Keller, 1989). Thus, it could be inferred that career decision making models have been derived from these perspectives.

Developmentally and contextually, Harren (1979) proposed a model underlying individual differences in decision making by explaining three decision making styles. Firstly, rational decision-making style refers individuals' realistic evaluations about themselves, investigative approaches for gathering information about alternatives or solutions, visions about decisions and their long-term effects. Rational decision

makers have high responsibility for their decisions and solve problems systematically. Secondly, people utilizing intuitive decision-making style use their feelings, imaginations, and emotional self-awareness to cope with problems and make decisions unsystematically and suddenly. Thirdly, dependent decision makers, lastly, avoid making decisions independently; rather, they prefer to ask others and try to possess approval without taking any responsibility (Coon, 2009).

Gelatt's (1989) model, called Positive Uncertainty, stated the importance of making flexible, creative, rational and intuitive plan for decision making in order to manage risks, changes, uncertainty and instability. To apply this approach to career decision making process, the answers of four "what" questions that are a) what you want; b) what you know; c) what you believe; and d) what you do when the future is unforeseen should be taken into account. In other words, the main focus of this approach is being able to cope with uncertainty in the career decision-making process.

From the perspective of a dynamic model focused on awaking about requisite of career choice development, van Esbroeck, Tibos, and Zaman (2005) posited six activities including a) gaining awareness about career choice activities, (b) exploration of the self, (c) exploration of environment, (d) exploration of the relationship between the self and the environment, (e) specifying choices, and (f) decision making. On the other hand, there are several researchers who believe the process to make career decisions. Slaney (1980) explained career decision-making as a systematic process consisted of (1) no first choice or alternatives, (2) alternatives but no choice, (3) one choice and alternatives, or (4) one choice but no alternatives phases.

Gati and colleagues (Gati, 1986; Gati & Asher, 2001) followed Slaney's road and improved a three-phase PIC model. At the prescreening (P) phase, potential alternatives are selected, and then reduced according to preferences. In-depth exploration (I) phase is related with exploration of alternatives deeply. At the last phase referring choice (C), the most suitable alternative is decided. Similarly,

Germeijs and Verschueren (2006) proposed a process-oriented model of career decision making as following: (a) orientation to choice, (b) self-exploration, (c) broad exploration of the environment, (d) in-depth exploration of the environment, (e) choosing an alternative, and (f) committing to a particular career alternative.

The cognitive information processing approach offered a model named CASVE Cycle of career decision making included five phases as (a) communication (identifying a career problem), (b) analysis (interrelating problem components), (c) synthesis (creating likely alternatives), (d) valuing (prioritizing alternatives), and (e) execution (forming strategies to implement the choice). The process returns to the first phase to communicate on whether the career decision making problem has been solved or not (Sampson, Lenz, Reardon, & Peterson, 1999; Sampson, Peterson, Reardon, & Lenz, 2000). When examining these models closely, it can be seen that they have similar phases based on the process. For unifying them, Hirschi and Läge (2007) presented a model consisted of six common basic phases extracted from these process oriented models of career decision-making: (a) awareness for career decision making, (b) self and environmental exploration for generating possible career alternatives, (c) reducing the alternatives, (d) deciding among few alternatives, (e) selecting the best choice and building a commitment to it, and (f) being firmly decided and committed to a choice.

Recently, Gati, Landman, Davidovitch, Asulin-Peretz, and Gadassi (2010) developed a model of offering multidimensional profiles of individuals for career decision making process. The 11 dimensions derived from the 16 prototypes as perfectionist, satisfying, avoidant, fatalist, rational, intuitive, hesitant, impulsive, compliant, resistant, systematic, involved, easygoing, help-seeker, individualist, and dependent labeled in the previous studies. After analyzing of these prototypes in terms of the common and distinctive characteristics, the dimensions characterizing career decision-making were created. These dimensions comprise of information gathering, information processing, locus of control, effort invested in the process, procrastination, speed of making the final decision, consulting with others,

dependence on others, desire to please others, aspiration for an ideal occupation, willingness to compromise, and use of intuition.

Tinsley (1992, as cited in Landry, 2006, p. 6-7) inferred that the first phase of career decision-making models begins with preawareness and following phases encompass awareness, planning, commitment, and implementation of decision phases. In the models, dynamic characteristic of career decision making process is also underlined as being influenced by many factors. The common idea they have is a cyclical and developmental process of career decision making.

Career indecision, on the other hand, refers to a state of decision maker where he or she is unable to make decisions (Di Fabio, Palazzeschi, Asulin-Peretz, & Gati, 2013; Osipow, 1999). While this difficulty may be resulted from weakness of information about occupations and self (Di Fabio et al., 2013), this may cause making inconvenient decisions or avoiding (Gati et al., 1996). Indecision is different from indecisiveness that seems a trait of an individual who has chronic indecision due to psychological barriers, lack of self-confidence and fear of commitment (Di Fabio et al., 2013; Martincin & Stead, 2015; Osipow, 1999). However, indecision is developmental temporary state, which can be overcome with a decision by the life span. Undecided people do not have to be indecisive, yet indecisive person shows undecidedness many times (Osipow, 1999).

From a theoretical point of view, career indecision can be explained by different approaches. From developmental approach of Super, career indecision could be seen as a normal stage during life time (Osipow, 1999). It is important to distinguish developmental indecision in which people have the potentials to make decisions and decisiveness characterized by severe stuck in problem-solving in order to understand the situation (Savickas, 2004).

The vocational interests approach of Holland (1977) propose that indecision is stemmed from identity problems and unspecific interests. Holland's RIASEC Model explained six personality types as Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social,

Enterprising, and Conventional and their professional correspondents. Insufficient crystallization of interests occur when an individual has two or more personality types, low or high scores in all of them, and a variety of skills, which leads to indecision about making a career decision (Herr, 1974).

Three factors indecision theory of Pitz and Harren (1980, as cited in Germeijs & De Boeck, 2003, p. 12-13) explains theoretical sources of indecision as lack of information, valuation problems, and evaluative evenness. Lack of information is related with lack of awareness about alternatives. The second source includes unclarities about goals and conflicts between alternatives. The last source of indecision resembles the evaluation of the blocked outcome because of equal attractiveness of alternatives.

According to cognitive information processing approach, dysfunctional beliefs or thoughts impair career decision making process by preventing systematic and organized thinking. Also, these thoughts may damage self-esteem, perceived self-efficacy due to distorted information processing on occupational and self-knowledge and decision making skills. Therefore, such thoughts may inhibit career decision-making process (Sampson, Peterson, Reardon, & Lenz, 2003).

Overall, in the context of career development, chance of the success has become more ambiguous and harder because postmodern era's requirements resulted in an increase in responsibilities as well as skills and competencies of individuals as they commit to changes and adapt to transitions (Savickas, 2009). At that point, career construction approach as a new, relevant, and meaningful way has been raised in order to help individuals construct their careers for meaning making, purpose and life direction (Bucassa, 2007). Unlike earlier career theories, career construction theory is a holistic approach of psychological, situational or developmental career theories. Individuals as active agents constructing their careers develop, change and adapt to career roles (Navarro, 2012). In this way, career construction theory incorporates individual factors, psychodynamic component, and environmental agent by taking attention to the developmental issues, the life themes and the fitness of person to

environment, respectively (Maree, 2014). Hence, this theoretical framework constitutes the foundational base of the current study.

Career adaptability is one of the core concepts of career construction theory. Introduced by Savickas (1997), career adaptability is a psychosocial structure that refers to coping strategies and sources of individual to overcome developmental tasks, transitions and traumas about occupational fields. Adaptability as a life-long skill infers to master career decision making process and navigate changes in the world of work. It was conjectured that career adaptability subsumes such behaviors as planfullness, exploration of one's self and environment, and decision-making (Savickas, 1997). Especially in adolescence, career adaptability is fundamental in order for career development and preparation (Hirschi, 2009). Adolescents with higher career adaptability accomplish to manage developmental and vocational tasks and transitions (Creed, Muller, & Patton, 2003; Patton & Creed, 2007; Savickas, 1997).

There are four dimensions of adaptability as concern, control, curiosity and confidence (Porfeli & Savickas, 2012). Career concern as the first resource of career adaptability is related with awareness of future career opportunities and options (Fouad & Bynner, 2008; Savickas, 2005). Supporting adolescents to raise career concern tentatively may help them look ahead and shape their future orientations. Secondly, career control means that an individual has competence and decidedness about decision-making in career by taking control over their future (Koen, Klehe, & Vianen, 2012). Thus, adolescents may deal with career related choices easily thanks to their control abilities after encouraged. Acquiring career control triggers career curiosity referring one's exploration of world of the work and oneself. Then, individuals begin scanning their environments and experiences to learn more about self in terms of values, abilities, interests, etc. and work regarding to routines, rewards, requirements etc. (Savickas, 2013). Adolescents may also need to know themselves and work life to get adequately prepared for career decision making process. Lastly, career confidence required for action means having self-efficacy and self-acceptance to go further occupational choices successfully (Savickas, 2013).

When individuals have career confidence, they see themselves competent to solve career related problems effectively (Koen et al., 2012). Therefore, adolescents having with career confidence may act bravely through their career path.

A range of individual and contextual variables has been related with career adaptability. In this sense, it was proposed that higher self-efficacy beliefs advance career adaptability in adolescents (Creed, Patton, & Prideaux, 2007; Hirschi, 2009). Self-efficacy could be identified as the beliefs or expectations about themselves in terms of capabilities and abilities that will determine their performance on behavioral tasks (Bandura, 1977). As these expectations and beliefs influence the amount and continuance of efforts to handle the challenges or obstacles (Bandura, 1977), people who have stronger efficacy beliefs slug on instead of avoiding them (Farrar, 2009). Individuals' self-efficacy beliefs have an influence on their choices and self-development (White & Bower, 2008). Hereby, self-efficacy is a facilitator and constituent career decision-making process for adolescents (Arbona, 2000) as well as a feature of career adaptability (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994).

Meanwhile, discovery process of adolescence may add some stressful life events to adolescents (Casey, Getz, & Galvan, 2008), which means that adolescents need a variety of social support from their environment (Viviano, 2014). Adolescents experience a meaningful acceptance, being valued, loved and understood when they perceive social support from others (Huurre, 2000). Adolescents perceive social support from family, friends, school, and any other educational and occupational institutions (Weisenberg & Aghakhani, 2007). Particular to career domain, supportive environment and relationships foster adaptive skills to cope with strains through educational and career development (Kenny & Bledsoe, 2005). Also, social support enables resources for career preparation among young people, such as providing information and advice (Kracke, 2002). Especially, occupational aspirations of adolescents have been found to be related with social support provided from parents (Ali & Saunders, 2006; Diemer & Hsieh, 2008). In terms of career decision making process, although adolescents make their decisions, there are influences of parents and significant others on their decisions at the final (Gati &

Saka, 2001). Taking into consideration that exploring themselves and occupations, planning for future, making career decision constitutes career adaptability (Creed, Fallon, & Hood, 2009), perceived social support would influence career adaptability of adolescents.

In concert with career choices and career future, optimism is keen variable regarding enthusiastic learning through career path and grateful satisfaction with career choices and finally confident feelings for career success (McIlveen, Beccaria, & Burton, 2013). Optimism refers to the tendency to beliefs and expectations about that good things and outcomes will happen in general (Scheier & Carver, 1985). With respect to career development, optimists set career goals, expect positive outcomes, and act to access them (Patton, Bartrum, & Creed, 2004). Besides, optimistic people are more responsive to changes in career related issues (Chatterjee, 2013).

In a nutshell, the proposed model of Greenglass (2002) assumed that there is a positive relationship between internal resources including self-efficacy and optimism and social support as an external resource on coping. In a similar vein, it is stated that while optimism is related with self-efficacy positively (Kennedy, 2012), self-efficacy is associated with social support (Bandura, 1992, as cited in Bruell, 2013) which is reported to be related with optimism also (Allison et al. 2000).

In Turkey, career adaptability new construct that has been studied recently. Firstly, the convergent validity of the four subscales of career adaptability scale was investigated with the sample of undergraduate students in business, politics and administration. The results yielded positive associations between career concern with future time perspective, of career control with locus of control and core self-evaluations. Negative association of career concern with neuroticism, career curiosity with proactive personality, of career confidence with generalized self-efficacy was also found. Contrary to the expectations, self-esteem was not found to be related with career confidence, yet found positively related with career control and career concern (Öncel, 2014).

In another study, the impact of academic advising on career adaptability of tourism and hotel management students was sought out through structural equation modeling. While intellectual and affective academic advising had a positive influence, instrumental academic advising had negative impact on career adaptability (Tuna, Kanten, Yeşiltaş, Kanten, & Alparslan, 2014).

Büyükgöze-Kavas (2014) reported concurrent validity of Career Adapt-Abilities Scale. Results showed positive associations between total and subscale scores of career adaptability with hope and optimism among university students. In another study (Büyükgöze-Kavas, Duffy, & Douglass, 2015), concern and control dimensions of career adaptability were found to be related with life satisfaction via full mediation of life meaning and work volition. At the same time, four subscales were found to have association with life satisfaction in a sample of Turkish undergraduate students.

Given the important theoretical bases regarding associations between various constructs and career adaptability, the current study aimed to investigate the some potential factors that contribute to career adaptability of high school students.

1.2. The Purpose of the Study

The current study aimed at investigating direct and indirect relationships between perceived social support, optimism, general self-efficacy, and career adaptability among high school students in Ankara. In addition study examined whether the proposed career adaptability model differed according to school type (public or private) or not. For this aim, the proposed path model (Figure 1.1) was created to seek out the role of perceived social support (from family, friends and private person), optimism and general self-efficacy in predicting career adaptability of high school students from public and private high schools. Notably, the main research questions of the current study were as follows:

1. To what extent the career adaptability is explained by the proposed path model included perceived social support (from family, friends and private person), optimism and general self-efficacy among high school students?
2. Do the hypothesized relationships in the model differ with regard to school type?

1.3 Proposed Path Model and Hypothesis

Career choice might be estimated by two viewpoints as individual variables and social conditions (Schoon, 2001). Supportively, career adaptability is interrelated with both the development of self and the interaction of the self with the world (Angel, 2012). Therefore, in this study, perceived social support (from family, friends, and significant others) as the environment-related variable and optimism as person-related variable were included in the present proposed model of career adaptability. Together with these variables, another person related variable general self-efficacy was added to the model as a mediator variable. The influence of school type was also investigated in terms of whether the model would differ across public and private high school groups. More precisely, while perceived social support (from family, friends and significant others) and optimism were independent variables, the outcome variable was the career adaptability, albeit exploring indirect effects of these variables via general self-efficacy (Figure 1.1). Thus, it was expected that the relationship of optimism and perceived social support with career adaptability would be strengthened markedly through the influence of general self-efficacy.

Based on the main research questions, the present study encompass following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: There will be significant association between perceived social support and optimism (Path A).

Hypothesis 2: Perceived social support will be significantly and directly related to career adaptability (Path B).

Hypothesis 3: Optimism will be significantly and directly related to career adaptability (Path C).

Hypothesis 4: Perceived social support will be significantly and directly related to general self-efficacy (Path D).

Hypothesis 5: Optimism will be significantly and directly related to general self-efficacy (Path E).

Hypothesis 6: There will be a relation between general self-efficacy and career adaptability (Path F).

Hypothesis 7: Perceived social support will significantly and indirectly be related to career adaptability through general self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 8: Optimism will significantly and indirectly be related to career adaptability through general self-efficacy.

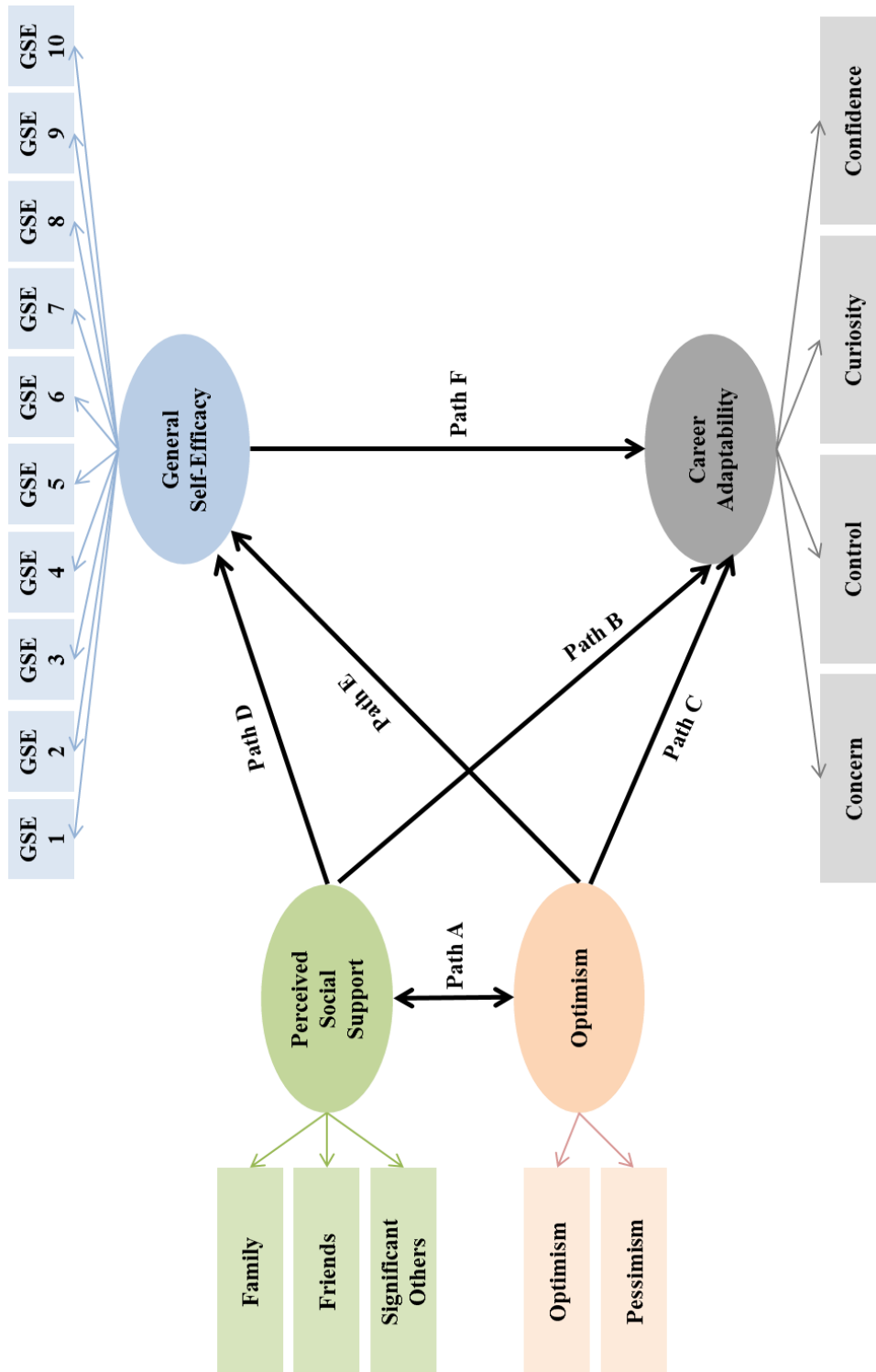


Figure 1.1. The conceptual model

1.4 Significance of the Study

Adolescence is a very critical period in terms of not only experiencing developmental changes but also making the first career-related decisions that may have many influences on people's future well-being and the quality of life (Mann, Harmoni, & Power, 1989). Identity formation is another crucial developmental task of adolescence or early adulthood (Erikson, 1968). Career identity as a component of overall identity is seen as the sense of self on occupational development and is assumed to be continuing during critical transitions such as leaving high school and starting university (Stringer, Kerpelman, & Skorikov, 2011). Vocational developmental task of adolescents is age-graded normative transitions that include being prepared for occupations according to their interests and abilities, as well as crystalizing preferences (Savickas, 2013). One of the central constructs to assist adolescents during this successful career preparation stage is career adaptability (Savickas, 1997).

Carrying on the work of Super and colleagues, Savickas posited the construct of career adaptability through the career construction counseling. This approach, aimed to help individuals to increase their level of career adaptability (Savickas, 2002). Creed, Fallon and Hood (2009) assumed that supporting adolescents to promote their career adaptability would reduce their concern about career decision making process. Hartung, Porfeli, and Vondracek (2008) suggested that important antecedents of career adaptability in childhood and adolescence that promote or obstruct dealing with developmental career transitions should be investigated by using the adaptability model.

In the literature, career adaptability has been examined with a variety of variables among various samples over a lot of countries. Some of them could be summarized as following. The influence of career adaptability on career satisfaction and self-rated career performance above and beyond personality and core self-evaluations with employees (Zacher, 2014) and the positive association between career adaptability and adaptivity assessed by learning goal orientation, proactive personality, and career

optimism with a sample of university students (Tolentino et al., 2014) were reported in Australia. Similarly, the significant correlations between eight dimensions of individual adaptability including crisis, culture, work stress, interpersonal, learning, physical, creativity, and uncertainty and four dimensions of career adaptability were reported in the context of Luxemburg (Hamiaux, Houssemand, & Vrignaud, 2013). Another research showed that career adaptability predicted life satisfaction through hope among adult workers with mild intellectual disability in Italia (Santilli, Nota, Ginevra, & Soresi, 2014). In the study with young adults, career adaptability mediated the relationships between person (learning, performance-prove, performance-avoid) and situation (perceived social support from family, friends and significant others) variables and career concerns (Creed et al., 2009).

With reference to Turkey, the most important educational and vocational decisions are made during high school years due to educational system in Turkey. On the 10th grade, students choose a field or elective courses either Turkish Languages-Mathematics or Math and Sciences Social Sciences or Foreign Languages. Thereby, they would study these courses mainly through the 11th and 12th grades of high school years. This might mean that if they could be successful on these subjects at the university entrance exam, they could select the occupations among the options proposed by the each field. Another important selection is done at the end of 12th grade. Students have to be successful at the university entrance exam that is conducted at the end of 12th grade. The statistics help us to better understand the situation; in 2015, around two million students entered university entrance exam and 20% of them succeeded in entering undergraduate programs (ÖSYM, 2015). Therefore, most of the students study to get higher scores instead of exploring themselves and occupations. In fact, at the end of this stressful period, they mostly select their vocation according to the results of exam instead of their career aspirations.

This system made career counseling services in Turkey to focus on this selection and transition process from high school to university (Yeşilyaprak, 2012). When looked at the literature in the field of career counseling in Turkey, it could be seen that there

were a remarkable amount of research studies focused on career decision making difficulties and career maturity of high school students and the related variables. For instance, Bacanlı, Eşici and Özünlü (2013) investigated the career decision making difficulties of high school students according to grade level, gender, perceived academic achievement, perceived social-economic level, decided and undecided students, and decision confidence level. The results ensured that when grade level, perceived academic achievement, and perceived social-economic level increased the career decision making difficulties decreased as well. On the other hand, undecided students had higher career decision making difficulties. In another research on career decision making difficulties of high school students, while perceived social support from teachers was found important predictor of lack of information and inconsistent information subscales, gender was the significant predictor of the lack of information subscales (Öztemel, 2013). The role of some personal variables such as hope and locus of control on career decision making self-efficacy were also studied among 12th grade students (Sarı & Şahin, 2013). Çoban (2005) reported high school students need to improve their career maturity levels according to the results of the research study conducted with 12th grade students. Similarly, Gülbahçe (2009) reported that school types (e.g. normal, vocational, art, science high schools) influenced the career maturity of high school students. Accordingly, in the study of Ulaş and Yıldırım (2015) the importance of social support perceived from family, friends and teachers on career maturity of high school students was mentioned. Saya, Kazak and Doğan (2009) reported there was a need to improve social support level of high school students as they found that the students who had already succeeded the university entrance exam and they were at stage of decision making for a major of undergraduate program had low level of career maturity. Similarly, Akıntuğ and Birol (2011) mentioned 9th grade students' having low career maturity level. Furthermore, while high career maturity students used rational decision making strategy, students who had low career maturity were seen as dependent and undecided with regard to decision making strategies.

The previous research findings displayed career counseling needs of high school students. The paradigm on career counseling was changed along with 21st century.

The constructivist theory opened new way for counseling in the postmodern world (Karairmak & Aydın, 2007). Career construction theory introduced by Savickas (2002) as a theoretical framework and career counseling approach attaches importance to lifelong learning, being multi-skilling, having critical thinking abilities and creative problem solving skills (Maree, 2014).

In the recent years, Turkey has faced with dramatic challenges and changes due to globalization (Yeşilyaprak, 2012). Therefore, the need for renewal of career approaches have also emerged (Karairmak & Aydın, 2007; Yeşilyaprak, 2009; 2012). When considering the amount of young population and changing economic conditions, of Turkey, future oriented counseling process as proposed by career construction counseling may be beneficial in providing career counseling to high school students (Aysan & Totan, 2009).

Career adaptability as one of the pivotal constructs of career construction counseling is seen as a way of thriving of adolescents and then creating healthy youth in societies (Hirschi, 2009). In consideration of the evidence that the results of the previous studies indicated that adolescents who promoted for increasing career adaptability could overcome vocational transitions more successfully (Creed et al., 2003; Germeijs & Verschueren, 2007; Patton, Creed, & Muller, 2002), it also seems crucial to study career adaptability of high school students in Turkey. However, no study has been found in the literature in Turkey with regard to exploring factors that impact the career adaptability of adolescents. Thus, the career adaptability model proposed in the current study is unique in the sense that investigating the relationship between person related variables such as optimism and general self-efficacy and environmental variables such as social support with career adaptability.

From the reality of Turkey, Akça (2002) stated that parents who send their children to think that the qualification of education is adequate compared to public schools. On the other hand, the parents who send their children to public schools pay for private lessons or courses extra because they have preoccupations about the quality of education in the public schools. As well, Altun and Canca (2011) found that

private school students had higher marks on high school entrance exam than public school students. They predicted that, the reason of this as private schools' having more opportunities in terms of physical conditions, the variety of education materials, the qualifications of the teachers and the number of the students in the classroom than those public schools have. Accordingly, this study investigated to what extent the proposed model demonstrated variation with respect to school type differences. According to results, the study will enable to compare the factors contributing career adaptability of the students from public and private high schools.

Overall, based on career construction theory, it is expected that the findings of the study will shed a light onto theory and practice. Determining the influences of the proposed variables in the current study would be helpful to understand the factors contributing to career adaptability. The results can be also used to comprise comprehensive career counseling programs at schools in order to enhance the career adaptability of adolescents. Comparing two different school types would help to uncover the needs of the students from public and private high schools for having career adaptability. The findings could be used to help students to gain awareness regarding meaning making in their lives in addition to promote future.

1.5 Definition of the Terms

Multi-dimensional perceived social support: It judges an individual's perception of how much social support he or she receives from family, friends and significant others (Dahlem, Zimet, & Walker, 1991).

Dispositional optimism: It is defined as the belief of an individual about having favorable outcomes in his or her life (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994).

General self-efficacy: "General self-efficacy is the belief in one's competence to cope with a broad range of stressful or challenging demands" (Luszczynska, Scholz, & Schwarzer, 2005; p. 439).

Career Adaptability: “A psychosocial construct that denotes an individual’s readiness and resources for coping with current and imminent vocational developmental tasks, occupational transitions, and personal traumas” (Savickas, 2005, p. 51).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter included the review of the related literature. After mentioning changes on workplace requirements through 21st century, theoretical framework of career adaptability was provided. Subsequently, the chapter continued with the related literature on the proposed model variables as perceived social support, optimism and general self-efficacy with regard to career adaptability. Finally, the research on model variables was summarized.

2.1 The 21st Century Requirements on Career Counseling

Career related issues lie throughout the life-span of individuals from childhood to adulthood and making career choices is the core element of our life. The need for career counseling dates back to beginning of the 20th century. During 1900s when career theories began to develop, career was seen as life goal of individuals. Basically, Parson (1909) provided a Trait-Factor approach that assumed people should know about themselves in terms of attitudes, abilities, interests etc., and as well as the work with regard to requirements, opportunities, pros and cons and match these two groups of facts (Sharf, 2010). Since that time, a variety of career theories have been emerged. According to Niles and Bolwlsbey (2009), these theories could be overviewed as followings; a) Work Adjustment, b) Life-Span and Life-Space, c) Circumscription, Compromise, and Self-Creation, d) Vocational Personalities and Work Environments, e) Learning Theory of Career Counseling f) Social Cognitive Career Theory, g) Cognitive Information Processing Approach, h) Values-Based, Holistic Model of Career and Life-Role Choice and Satisfaction, i) Integrative Life Planning, and j) Postmodern career theories. The Theory of Work Adjustment

(TWA; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) could be considered within person-environment approach which focuses on matching an individual to a satisfactory work environment according to abilities, skills and needs to reach satisfactoriness (Swanson & Fouad, 1999). Dawis and Lofquist (1984) posited that occupational decision occurs when biological (such as need for food) and psychological (such as social acceptance) needs of people and the needs of environments satisfy each other and thus correspondence emerges (As cited in Brown, 2012). Thus, main concepts of this theory focused on are satisfaction, satisfactoriness, person within environment and correspondence (Niles & Bolwlsbey, 2009).

Then, Super's (1990) framework got attraction after realizing the importance of life-span process of career development. Super proposed the career stages as growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance (or management), and disengagement, which are expected that a person follows to manage vocational developmental tasks. Thus, self-concept of a person is shaped through these stages given in the chronological age range. For instance, adolescence period corresponds the stage of exploration in which crystallization of interests, skills, and values, specification of career choices and implementation of steps to reach career choices as the vocational developmental tasks are expected to be overcome (Brown, 2012). This means having career maturity that refers readiness for career decision by planning behaviors and looking ahead for accomplishing career decision making process successfully (Freeman, 1993). In a nutshell, main concepts Super focused on are life span, career stages, career development tasks, life space, self-concept, career maturity and career adaptability (Niles & Bolwlsbey, 2009).

Gottfredson's theory of circumscription, compromise, and self-creation offers a developmental and sociological perspective to career counseling and development. The content of individuals such as ethnic background, gender, having disability and low socio-economic status etc. was included into her theory as the barriers for career decision (Patton & McMahon, 2006). As it is understood, circumscription and compromise form two key constructs of her theory (Niles & Bolwlsbey, 2009).

From viewpoint of psychological aspect of career development, Holland's (1959) career theory was differentiated that choosing vocations is based on personality characteristics (Navarro, 2012). As very structural and convenient, Holland proposed six vocational personality types and work environments as realistic, artistic, investigative, social, enterprising, and conventional in the vocational personalities and environments theory. The idea behind the theory is that "people can function and develop best and find job satisfaction in work environments that are compatible with their personalities." (Gill, 2013, p. 104). Thus, congruence, consistency, and differentiation of these vocational identities include the main constructs of the theory (Niles & Bolwlsbey, 2009).

Based on Bandura's social learning theory, Mitchell and Krumboltz (1996) developed a career counseling theory that proposes four factors impacting career decision making as genetic endowment such as race, appearance and special abilities such as artistic abilities, environmental conditions and events such as ecological factors, instrumental learning experiences including antecedents, behaviors and consequences and associative learning experiences referring paired neutral and positive or negative stimulus, and task approach skills such as problem solving skills, emotional responses. The interactions of these factors influence career decision of people by a person's generalizations based on self-observation, worldview, task approach skills and actions to enter a career (Niles & Bolwlsbey, 2009).

Passing away 20th century, some contemporary approaches to career counseling raised in 21st century. Firstly, The Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) rooted from principles of social cognitive theory of Bandura (1986) underlined the importance of interaction of social cognitive variables such as self-efficacy and other key factors related with person such as gender, culture, support system, and barriers as experimental-learning factors. This theory is examined into three models including career-academic interest development assuming interests' influence on self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectancy, choice model referring individuals' making choice and then implements actions according to interests and performance model viewing

influences of self-efficacy, performance goals, ability, outcome expectations on occupational and academic performance (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2002).

According to cognitive information processing (CIP) approach (Peterson et al., 1996; Sampson et al., 1999), career decision making occurs with the interaction between cognitive and affective process. Problem solving capacity of a person is influenced by the negative emotions and thoughts. Thus, determining career thoughts of a person at the beginning is crucial to help people to make a career decision (Bullock-Yowell et al., 2011). As knowledge structure is improving through the life and career development is a continuing process, the main aim of career counseling is to endorse the cognitive information processing skills of a person (Niles & Bolwlsbey, 2009). There are two core concepts for career problem solving and decision making as a pyramid of information-processing domains and CASVE cycle (Sampson et al., 2000). The first domain includes self (about values, interests, skills etc.) and occupational (about the world of the work) knowledge (Sampson, Peterson, Lenz, & Reardon, 1992). Then, CASVE cycle comes, which involves problem solving and career decision making and includes following stages; identifying a gap, analyzing problem, synthesizing alternatives, valuing them, and execution of strategies (Sampson et al., 1992). Thus, pyramid of information processing, CASVE cycle, executive processing domain, career thoughts are important key constructs of this approach (Niles & Bolwlsbey, 2009).

Attaching importance to ethnic and cultural minorities, Brown (1995, 1996, 2002) proposed values-based, holistic model of career and life-role choices and satisfaction. The assumption underlying this model is that work values such as achievement or financial prosperity influence a person's work goals which results in a kind of behaviors or actions toward career choice and decision (Brown, 2002). Cultural background, gender, socio-economic status has an impact on work values (Patton & McMahon, 2006). These values are satisfied through life roles, which influence life satisfaction of a person. That's why; individuals change roles to satisfy their values (Brown & Crace, 2002). In order to make career decision, individuals should be aware of their values by crystallizing and prioritizing them (Patton & McMahon,

2006). Overall, the key concepts of the theory are life values, work values, and cultural values (Niles & Bolwlsbey, 2009).

Based on the principles of interconnectedness, relatedness and wholeness, Hansen (1997) proposed a holistic approach. According to this theory, there are six major life tasks that a people should complete in order to accomplish more systematic life planning and take a control over their life (Hansen, 2001). These tasks could be summarized as following. Firstly, in the accordance with changing world context, an individual should find a job. Secondly, it is important to retain physical, emotional, and mental health. Thirdly, a person should hold with work and family. Fourthly, caring diversity helps individuals go further in their workplace. Fifthly, a person should aim at inquiring and exploring spirituality and life purposes. Lastly, a person should overcome changing in the world and workplace (Bundsgaard & Hansen, 2011). As it seen by the tasks, the key concepts of the theory are social justice, social change, connectedness, diversity, spirituality, integrative life planning (Niles & Bolwlsbey, 2009).

Recently, postmodern theories with constructivist assumptions have been emerged. For instance, narrative career counseling focuses on verbal process emerged between counselor and the client to help the client gain self-understanding (McIlveen & Patton, 2007). Through the process, the clients are encouraged to narrate a life story in order to uncover life theme or life plot -a pattern of meaning- and a mission that directs the client take a active role in the world (Cochran 2011). Thus, the counseling aims at create a story to enhance personal meaning and then make career decisions and actions (McIlveen & Patton, 2007). While the clients are given to chance to give the titles to their past chapters of their life book and take three lessons from their past experiences, they have also a chance to create future chapters to shape their remaining life (Niles & Bolwlsbey, 2009). Key concepts are career problem, life story and future narrative in this theory (Niles & Bolwlsbey, 2009).

As a last, due to abrupt social, technological, economical, and moral changes engendered by 21st century, a paradigm shift in career counseling has emerged

(Maree, 2014). Vocational psychology and career counseling have accepted the importance of being lifelong learners and having adaptabilities to adapt changing work environment (Stoltz, Wolff, Monroe, Farris, & Mazahreh, 2013). For instance, Arthur and Rousseau (1996) mentioned how being open-minded psychologically and environmentally are crucial in order to catch up requirements of alterations in the work structure. On the other hand, Savickas (2007) mentioned that individuals have to harmonize their life and career by holding themselves in the central by rebuilding the self against today's changing circumstances and frequent transitions. With the shift in the world of work, the constructivist career counseling raised as a new and another postmodern approach focused on the fact that career changes go from stability to mobility (Savickas, 2012) as the assurance between organizations and employers was not kept (Barclay, 2012). The following part includes detailed explanation on career construction theory that constitutes the theoretical framework of this study as mentioned earlier.

2.2 Career Construction Theory

Career construction theory is based on constructivism. Constructivism posits that individuals' create their own experiences by their cognitive perceptions. On the other hand, social construction emphasizes that the relationships with others influence the viewpoints and actions of individuals (Young & Collin, 2004). With the growing attraction to constructivism more recently, constructivist counseling has been incorporated into vocational psychology also (Bucassa, 2007).

Constructivist approach concerns the interaction between the world of work and people in terms of to what extent and how affects each other (Savickas, 2005). However, except from this person-environment fit and social learning viewpoints, psychodynamic and developmental perspectives are integrated into career construction model, which makes it a comprehensive theory and counseling method (Hartung & Taber, 2008).

In contrast to stages of development, career construction theory includes three components as life themes, vocational personality, and career adaptability (Savickas, 2005). As derived from Super's work, life themes reflect vocational preferences of individuals as they state what kind of people they are, or want to be through their occupational terminology or their ideas (Savickas, 2005). Vocational personality consists of an individual's career-related abilities, needs, values, and interests. It is also what of career construction is. The focus of vocational personality is on the implementation of vocational self-concepts, providing a subjective, private, and ideographic perspective for understanding careers (Savickas, 2005). The third component of career construction theory is career adaptability that includes the attitudes, competencies, and behaviors, which help individuals to fit them to work. It reflects in what way career construction is hold (Usinger & Smith, 2010).

Over these three components, career construction theory is based on four keystones as stories, structure, style, and strategies (Hartung & Taber, 2008). Firstly, narrating stories by the clients is used to detect motivations underlying their career choices, which reflects stories keystone of career construction counseling. In detail, personal stories of the clients constitute the life themes that give direction and meaning to life (Savickas, 2002). Therefore, the counselor helps clients reveal self-defining stories and gain awareness about family career stories by using some narrative methods such as career construction genograms and career story interview for the purpose of helping clients to reach comprehensive understanding of their own life constructions (Rehfuss, 2009). In this way, the clients realize that their present stories started in the past and they may construct them in future according to their preferences (Di Fabio, 2012).

Secondly, the roles of an individual in the work, family, community etc. form the structure part of theory. Through the counseling, the clients are encouraged to realize their meaning making process, life purposes and directions to have greater life structure satisfaction (Bucassa, 2007; Hartung & Taber, 2008).

Thirdly, individual's career-related abilities, needs, values, and interests refer the style, which means vocational personality styles (Savickas, 2005). Career construction theory appreciates changeable identity constructions because the self is seen as self-making and self-regulation system rather than stable traits. For this reason, personality styles of individuals are explored from co-construction perspective by some assessments such as Holland's RIASEC personality types that include interests, competencies, and values shaped by schemas, strategies, and beliefs of individuals (Savickas, 2010).

Lastly, strategies reflect career adaptability that means coping strategies that a person used for overcoming developmental tasks, work traumas and career transitions (Savickas, 1997). Career construction counseling aims at increasing career adaptability of individuals (Savickas, 2005).

Based on these components and keystones, counseling process of career construction model follows the five steps as construction, de-construction, re-construction, co-construction, and action. At the first stage, counselors help the clients to construct their career through small stories by using Career Construction Interview. Career Construction Interview (CCI) includes five questions about role models, favorite books and movies, magazines or TV shows, mottos and early recollections. By allowing the clients to narrate their stories, the counselors can detect the way of the clients' constructing their self, identity and career as well as adaptability strategies (Taber, Hartung, Briddick, Briddick, & Rehfuss, 2011). At the second and third sessions, self-exploration of clients is encouraged based on their answers. For instance magazines or TV shows, giving clues for interests of clients are analyzed with the client to help them gain awareness about him or herself. According to this theory, individuals make their career choices based on construction of their identity which is shaped by individuals' perceptions about themselves regarding social roles. While the identity is developing through the life span, it must be revised due to changes of social roles. Thus, counselors may help stucked clients to deconstruct their stories and reconstruct them to make meaning of their life. In the process, counselor and the client go ahead for making clear of priorities and tendencies of the

client according to reconstruction of life portrait. Then, the client forms intentions for future steps to follow and starts to take actions. If the client satisfies his or her needs for career counseling, the counselor summarizes the process of counseling and explain that how co-construction of the story helped the needs of the client for seeking counseling (Savickas, 2011). The role of counselor is being co-structor not an expert (Cardoso et al., 2014). At the end, it is expected from client to take action for the change. Overall process lasts three sessions (Savickas, 2011).

The purpose of career construction counseling is not only to help individuals to create a career but also to design a life by encouraging them to find meaning, purpose and direction of their life (Bucassa, 2007). Therefore, career construction theory is named also as “Life Designing” due to its characteristics of being life-long, holistic, and preventive (Maree, 2010a; Savickas et al., 2009).

Overall, Savickas (2012) mentioned three types of helping process as vocational guidance, career education and career counseling in the career construction theory. The aim of vocational guidance is to help people for exploring self and occupations and later matching themselves to occupations. It looks like the person-environment fit approaches. The person utilized from helping process is actor. Career education, on the other hand, leads to evaluate and improve abilities, attitudes, and competencies in order to promote developmental status and tasks of people who are agent during this process. Lastly, career counseling aims also same goals as to uncover life meaning and making by shaping themselves and constructing career (Savickas, 2010). The person becomes author in this paradigm. In this sense, the current study could be considered as career education inclusive of career construction theory.

2.3 Research Based on Career Construction Theory

Existing research based on career construction theory includes a lot of case studies exemplifying the use of career construction methods. For instance, Spencer (2011) proposed a project integrating constructivist theory into practice through a college

career course. It was suggested that the course could be employed with 20 college students through a three-unit semester or four-unit quarter college course. In this project, the methods of constructivist theories as Childhood dreams, Career genogram, Lifeline assignment, Life role circles exercise, Autobiography, Custom card sorts, Career possibilities, Do what you are (DWYA), The party exercise, The goal map, The job search phase were introduced.

In turn, Grier-Reed and Ganuza (2011) developed a constructive career course to foster career decision self-efficacy of the university students. Participants of this study were 81 Asian American and African American college students. The course based on narrative including activities such as the Earliest Career Fantasy, the Identity Experiential Exercise and Reflective Writing, construction including the Career Genogram, and Reflective Writing, action the “Who Am I Experiential Exercise” and interpretation through integrative assignments such as students' midterm papers. Results yielded that there were increases the dimensions of career decision self-efficacy as self-appraisal, occupational information, goal selection, planning, and problem solving.

Another case example is Navarro's (2012) phenomenological study examining the life experiences of senior student-athletes at university. The aim of this research was to realize the career aspirations and to examine life experiences of participants about choosing this occupation. A multiple semi-structured individual interviews were administered to 29 participants. The results indicated student-athletes have identity foreclosure during planning their careers because they see having a profession as impossible and thus leading to sportive professions. Additionally, they feel role conflict and have academic clustering more than others. This study offered a conceptual model for constructing career paths of student-athletes according to Savickas's Career Construction Theory.

As being an example of validity studies of Career Construction Interview (CCI) as a career construction method, Barclay and Wolff (2012) investigated the usefulness of CCI by comparing it with Strong Interest Inventory. For this aim, the mixed-methods

study was employed to 83 college students. The results of the study showed that there was a moderate correlation between the three-letter RIASEC Strong Interest Inventory (SII) theme code and RIASEC theme codes derived from coding the CCI narratives of the participants.

When looked at the literature about research on career construction theory and its' application in Turkey, it can be inferred that this approach is newborn. Aysan and Totan (2009) proposed an article about constructivist career counseling and its applicability in Turkey. They evaluated career construction theory from the perspective of the realities of Turkey and stated that construction of Turkish society for being westernized and influences of new innovations in the U.S.A on Turkish culture make the theory applicable to career counseling studies and educations.

Research summarized above aimed at fostering self and environmental exploration, helping to create career paths, detecting career styles and increasing career adaptability of participants.

2.4 Career Adaptability

Super (1990) proposed the terms of career maturity that means physical, psychological and social maturity for succeeding developmental tasks coming with age and development across life. Crites (1971) mentioned the importance of cognitive maturity and affective maturity for decision making (Patton & Creed, 2001).

In time, Savickas (2005) evolved the term of career maturity and updated it as career adaptability. In career construction theory, career adaptability refers capabilities, abilities, resources, competencies, attitudes for life transitions, occupational traumas and developmental task (Savickas, 2011). It is a kind of illustration of a person's actions along his or her career and engagements with the world (Savickas, 2005a). It is not enough to gain awareness about life themes and personality style for creating

or shaping career, hence it is necessary to have adaptability resources and strategies as concern, control, curiosity and confidence (Savickas, 2005).

Because the development of career is life-span and life-space, career adaptability develops across Growth, Exploration, Establishment, Management and Disengagement stages of career development and their developmental tasks (Hartung et al., 2008). The importance of career adaptability is to facilitate the process of transitions from school to work and career transitions or work changes, especially (Koen et al., 2010). It includes also some abilities as career planning, career decision making, exploration and confidence on career goals (Savickas, 2002, 2005). Therefore, one of main goals of career construction counseling is to increase career adaptability of clients.

2.4.1 Career adaptability during adolescence

There are certain milestones of career development (Havenga, 2011). One of these milestones is reached during the adolescence. According to Skorikov (2007), adolescents should fabricate vocational preferences, constrict their choices of occupations, set career goals and do future plans for appropriate career development and preparation during this process. Further, this period spans some transitions such as school to university and school to work that involve some difficulties, adjustment problems and challenges. For overcoming career transitions through the life, it was underlined to have readiness, confidence, control, support, and making decision skills (Heppner, Multon, & Johnston, 1994), which are resources of career adaptability (Greenleaf, 2011).

Therefore, career adaptability could be seen as essential for child and adolescent development (Hartung et al., 2008). To increase career adaptability of adolescents, concern, control, curiosity and confidence resources as well as attitudes, beliefs, and competencies are called together as the ABCs of career construction (Corso, Refhuss, & Glavin, 2011) should be taken into attention.

Concern refers to paying attention to the future and trying to prepare for it (Koen et al., 2012). It requires being optimistic and gaining awareness about opportunities (Hartung et al., 2008). The question in the mind of adolescent should be whether or not they have a future. If they do not have any question or concern about their future, then a career problem arises such as indifference for orientation to future. On the other hand, adolescents who succeed to pass this process would be involved and plan full. The ABCs of this dimension are plan full as an attitude and belief and planning as competency (Savickas, 2005a). To increase concern resource of career adaptability, it would be beneficial to enhance optimism, to awake awareness about future and to help gaining time perspective and to improve being plan full (Savickas, 2005a).

Control primarily requires having concern for the future; next, it is expected to have sense of control over future and to take responsibility for making career decisions. Therefore, control resources of career adaptability requires being decisive and competent for going further (Koen et al., 2012). The question in the mind of adolescent is that “who owns my future?” If adolescents are supported with adults to be more assertive and gain autonomy for their future, then they would embrace their future and regulate themselves for decision making (Hartung et al., 2008). While attitude and belief for control dimension involve being decisive, decision making is required as competency. The lack of control sense of career adaptability may lead to indecision and uncertainty for career roads (Savickas, 2005a).

Curiosity comes later than the concern and control resources that adolescents have. It involves exploring the self through exploring the environmental situations and opportunities (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). For having curiosity resources, adolescents need to be inquiring about options, the world of work, self-expectations (Blustein, 1992). The main question adolescents have is about wishes for future. If adolescents lack this question, they would have unrealistic future expectations. To increase curiosity adaptability of adolescents, activities for enhancing information seeking abilities and inciting exploration of surroundings, career opportunities, requirements and characteristics of occupations are suggested to be implemented (Savickas, 2005).

After gaining all other resources, adolescents still need another ability to overcome difficulties and challenges in their road to career aspirations; which is career confidence (Koen et al., 2012). The question in their mind is that “Can I do it?” For that matter confidence is related with having self-efficacy beliefs and self-esteem. Consequently, efficacious as the attitude and belief is expected to have. As a competency, adolescents should have problem solving skills in order to handle vocational tasks and transitions (Savickas, 2005). Additionally, striving, persistent and industrious are needed as coping behaviors (Savickas, 2005a). Lack of confidence may result in detention in approaching to the future in adolescents. Therefore, self-esteem building interventions, counseling or activities are supportive for fostering this resource (Hartung et al., 2008).

By getting into account life-span and life-space career development, career construction counseling may help adolescents to reduce their concerns about career decision making by increasing career adaptability (Creed et al., 2008). Hirschi (2009) stated that the research (Creed et al., 2003; Germeijs & Verschueren, 2007; Neuenschwander & Garrett, 2008; Patton, Creed, & Muller, 2002) ensured that adolescents with high career adaptability have accomplished career transitions successfully.

2.4.2 Research on career adaptability

Zacher (2014) explored the validity of career adaptability by searching its influences on career satisfaction and self-rated performance, Big Five personality traits and core self-evaluations with 1723 (762 men and 961 women) employees. The results yielded that both overall career adaptability and its dimensions positively predict career satisfaction, Big Five personality traits, and core self-evaluations. In detail, while concern and confidence influenced positively and significantly career satisfaction, control and confidence had not any influence. As well, overall career adaptability and career adaptability dimensions predicted self-rated career performance. Again, while concern and confidence had positively and significantly

influences on self-rated career performance, confidence had negative influence. However, curiosity dimension did not have significant influence on it.

De Guzman and Choi (2013) examined the relations of variables of employability skills (communication skills, problem solving skills, and team work skills) with career adaptability (concern, control, curiosity and confidence). The participants consisted of 193 technical secondary school students. The results indicated that team work skills had higher correlations with the four dimensions of career adaptability than communication and problem solving skills had.

To understand the relations between individual adaptability that refers the capacity to be able to adapt to changes and career adaptability, the research study was done with 398 participants (243 female, 155 male) (Hamtaux et al., 2013). Individual adaptability was assessed by eight indicators of adaptability as crisis, creativity, cultural, interpersonal, learning, and physical, work stress, and uncertainty. Career adaptability (CAAS) included four dimensions; concern, control, curiosity, and confidence. There were positive and significant correlations between the dimensions of individual adaptability and career adaptability, respectively; crisis dimension with control and confidence, creativity with curiosity, cultural with curiosity, the learning with curiosity and, physical with confidence, the work stress with the control and the confidence, the uncertainty with the control and confidence. Overall score of individual adaptability was associated strongly with confidence dimension of career adaptability.

Similarly, Tolentino et al. (2014) tested whether there is association between adaptivity and career adaptability. They formulated adaptivity as including learning goal orientation, proactive personality, and career optimism, which referred also adaptive readiness. On the other hand, career adaptability referred total adaptability and concern, control, curiosity and confidence subscales of career adaptability. 555 undergraduate university students attended to the research study. The findings illustrated that there were positively significant correlations between learning goal orientation, proactive personality, career optimism and adaptability and four

dimensions of career adaptability. The results suggested that to increase career adaptability among youth goal orientation, proactive personality, and career optimism referring personal adaptive readiness should be fostered.

Santilli and her colleagues (2014) investigated the influences of career adaptability and hope on life satisfaction of the workers with disabilities. Participants of the study included 60 men and 60 women with intellectual disability. According to results, career adaptability predicted life satisfaction indirectly through hope.

Scholl and Cascone (2010) offered a case illustration about using constructivist career approach to promote professional identity development and the dimensions of career adaptability as concern, curiosity, confidence, and control of candidate counselor students. Case example with a female student consisted of four sessions including application of card sort technique, constructivist resume review, coconstruction of action plans and goals, and the client's describing own professional identity. The client stated positive gains from the process that was evaluated with the client's written responses.

An experimental research was conducted to investigate the effect of training program on career adaptability, job status, job quality and career success of graduating university students (Koen et al., 2012). A full day training included activities for planning, exploring options, making decisions and problem solving that were based on Savickas' suggestions on four dimensions of career adaptability; concern, control, curiosity and confidence. They measured career adaptability, job status, job quality and career success of 47 participants before and six months after the training. They found that while concern, curiosity and control dimensions of career adaptability increased after training, employment and employment quality were predicted by getting training. In addition, it was seen that confidence did not increase through the training and concern and curiosity dropped after finding a job.

The effect of two types of career interventions including a single career information session and a six-week career intervention and their effects on career adaptability

were investigated with high school students who have adaptive and pessimistic career coping styles. The participants included 319 9th and 12th grade students at three public schools in Portuguese. The results revealed that the participants of the six-week career intervention group had higher career adaptability scores after intervention, comparing the single information session group participants. In addition, the intervention increased career confidence and curiosity scores of pessimistic group participants; whereas the adaptive coping style group subjects maintained their scores the same before intervention (Janeiro, Mota, & Ribas, 2014).

In the study of Coolen (2014), an ePortfolio intervention was used for enrichment of university students' career adaptability. While experimental group consisted of 23 participants took two interventions including a self-exploration meeting and an environmental exploration meeting. The control group consisted of 26 students attended the environmental exploration meeting only. The self-exploration meeting aimed at helping the students to explore about themselves such as personality, roles, interests etc. The environmental exploration meeting, on the other hand, included job-search activities by using the computer programs. It was found that the first phase of intervention increased concern, curiosity and control scores of participants in the experimental group in comparison to control group subjects' scores. After attending the second phase of intervention, both experimental and control groups showed an increase on career adaptability dimensions.

Overall, the research studies about career adaptability aimed at either to investigate the variables related with career adaptability or to implement some interventions to increase it. It could be implied that it is crucial to ascertain the associated variables in order to advance career adaptability programs or counseling methods. For this aim, some variables based on the related literature and research for testing the proposed career adaptability model was explained in the subsequent part of literature review.

2.5 Proposed Model Variables

2.5.1 Social support

Social support implies the availability of the various types of support such as being valued, esteemed and loved and getting care, assistance by the people who are needed (Sarason et al. 1983). Sense of having social support makes people believe as a part of community or social network they belong to (Park, Nguyen, & Park, 2012).

Social support is a multidimensional construct including structural and functional aspects (Rodriguez & Cohen, 1998). While structural part is associated with constructional characteristics of support as the size, frequencies, and reachability, functional component involves the quality of support (Canty-Mitchell & Zimet, 2000; House & Robert, 1985). The structural characteristics of social support can be considered as received social support that is also called as enacted support by Barerra (1986); whereas the quality and accessibility of received social support point out perceived social support (Bagherian-Sararoudi, Hajian, Ehsan, Sarafranz, & Zimet, 2013; Tonsing, Zimet, Samson, & Tse, 2012).

Cohen and Wills (1985) have done another classification of social support as informative, instrumental, emotional, and companionship. Informative support includes obtaining information, coaching, and advice from social network. Instrumental support is a kind of material support such as getting money or objects etc. These two types of support could also be categorized into structural support. Following, emotional support is related with getting affinity, respect and acceptance. Lastly, companionship support requires belong to a social network, which is called as embeddedness by Barerra (1986). Thus, the remaining supports could be accepted as functional social support.

Tardy (1985) proposed a hierarchical model of social support that is constituted of five dimensions. At the top, the direction of support as received or provided was hold. The second step included disposition of support as available or enacted. Described or evaluated social support was defined at the third layer from the top

down. While the content of support constituted the fourth dimension, the sources of social support as from family, friends, and other social networks illustrated the last dimension.

It was also discussed whether social support affects the peoples feeling of stress or in the stressful situation directly or enact as a buffer to prevent from the hazardous influences or not. In fact, it works as directly in all conditions as stressful or not and also as a buffer during stressful circumstances (Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, & Farley, 1988). Accordingly, social support research evidenced its' influence on adjustment, (Kelly, Melnyk, Jacobson, & O'Haver, 2011), improving coping strategies (Günüç & Doğan, 2013), understanding health conditions (Ekbäck, Benzein, Lindberg, & Årestedt, 2013), the well-being of adolescents (Cimarolli & Wang, 2006). Contrarily, lack of social support was found associated with anxiety and depression (Hipkins, Whitworth, Tarrier, & Jayson, 2004) and onset of any psychological disorders (McCarthy, Tarrier, & Gregg, 2002).

The system of social sports includes a range of social network from family to the community (Barkin, 1985; Cobb, 1976). During adolescence, there are main resources such as parents, peers, and teachers. Principally, perceived support from family increases the possibility of experiencing new opportunities or environmental exploration among adolescents, which helps them construct and shape their vocational identity (Ryan, Solberg, & Brown, 1996; Shin, 2010; Wall, Covell, & Macintyre, 1999). Moreover, interaction within family, the style of parenting, and guidance have an influence on vocational development of kids (Bergen, 2006; Flores & O'Brien, 2002; Ketterson & Blustein, 1997) in terms of career maturity, career exploration, occupational aspirations, career choices and decision making (Geijsendorpher, 2008; Shin, 2010).

From sociological viewpoint, the influence of family was explained by underlining that children may make their vocational choices by either inheriting parents' occupations or being influenced by their values, expectations, underlying message or social class (Olaosebikan & Olusakin, 2014). Children need parental support or

approval; accordingly, adolescents who acquire sufficient social support from their mothers want to choose a professional career (Brown, Ortiz-Nunez, & Taylor, 2011).

Although the most of the studies showed the huge impact of parents on career expectations and decisions of adolescents, friends are also an important resource of social support (Günüç & Doğan, 2013; Hamama & Ronen-Shenhav, 2012; Paa & McWhirter, 2000). For adolescents the other social influence is teachers as by being a role-model (Barrera, 1986). Perceiving supportive friendship was found as facilitative function during the transition process to college for high school students (Larose, Cyrenne, & Garceauand, 2009). These models might affect their career choices, career expectations, and perceptions about themselves (Falaye & Adams 2008; Kenny & Bledsoe, 2005; Shumba, Matsidiso, & Naong, 2012). Besides of self-exploration, it would be serviceable to acquire information from external environment for occupational exploration (Savickas, 2005). Overall social support would be a relational factor in the process of career development (Di Fabio & Kenny, 2012). Therefore, it is crucial to find out the social influences on adolescents besides individual factors (Olaosebikan & Olusakin, 2014).

Of high quality of social support perceived from others procreates self-approval and better sense of the self (Arce, 1996). On self-efficacy beliefs, although both parents and peers have influence on self-esteem of adolescents, peers become important in adolescence period. In other words, while role models have influence during the childhood, peers become effective social resource along with adolescence (Colarossi & Eccles, 2000; White & Bowers, 2008). Even so, a plenty of studies showed that perceived family support was related with self-efficacy beliefs directly (Ferry, Fouad, & Smith, 2000). Into the bargain, self-efficacy beliefs and future expectations concerning career are fostered by means of social support perceived from parents (Gushue & Whitson, 2006; McWhirter, Hackett, & Bandalos, 1998). Thereby, family offers a function as facilitating and encouraging their children to experience self and environmental exploration, which would take a crucial role to improve self-efficacy expectations of them (Ryan et al., 1996). A cyclical effects between social support, career choice and self-efficacy could be exemplified by Queen (1999)'s mention that

students who want choose unconventional career for their families or society feel anxiety. If they do not perceive social support from their family or friends as social network, their self-efficacy may be affected negatively.

Arce (1996) reported that stronger social support was interrelated with both a high level of self-esteem and being more decisive during career choice process. In addition, Lent, Brown, Nota, and Soresi (2003) confirmed that the influence of social support on career choice via self-efficacy.

What's more, the influential effect of social support via higher self-approval could be seen in overcoming with unexpected situations and adapting to transitions and challenges of life (Arce, 1996). Savickas and Porfeli (2012) stated that career adaptability develops and alters with the interaction between individual and its environment. Thus, it could be implied that social support might be a predictor of career adaptability. The research studies have illustrated the associations between perceived social support and career adaptability (Hirschi, 2009; Tian & Fan, 2014).

2.5.2 Optimism

Optimism refers generalized positive expectations for future (Carver, Scheier, & Segerstrom, 2010). Substantially, it is an attitude for engagement with the world (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 2001). The opposite side of optimism could be considered as pessimism that reflects approaching to the situations with negative expectations or attributing negative explanations to the experiences permanently (Gillham, Shatte, Reivich, & Seligman, 2001).

There are two explanations about optimism; the first is derived from Seligman's the attribution theory of motivation, the second is Carver and Scheier's dispositional optimism approach. The former explains optimism and pessimism by the style of explanations and attributions for past events (Jovanovic & Gavrilov-Jerkovic, 2013). The latter typify optimism as a trait and positive expectations for future, which may

predict whether or not the person would make efforts to overcome obstacles (Scheier et al. 2001).

The bases of Scheier and Carver's approach lied behind expectancy-value models of motivation that constituted two components as goals and expectations. While the goals determine a person's motivation for making any effort, expectations refer a sense of achieving these goals (Scheier et al., 2001). When a person is optimistic, he or she expects positive outcomes and as a result shows insistency go further toward his or her goals (Scheier & Carver, 1985). On the other hand, pessimistic beliefs reveal when the person anticipates that bad things and negative outcomes would appear. Consequently, they have lower motivation and insistency to take a step (Scheier et al., 2001). In the light of such information, Carver and Scheier's dispositional optimism is accepted as a unidimensional continuum including optimism and pessimism at the opposite sides (Gillham et al., 2001).

In a sense, it could be deduced that differences between optimists and pessimists result from their approaches to contact with the world and to handle rigors they faced with (Scheier et al., 1994; Scheier et al., 2010). Scheier and colleagues (2001) stated that optimists have more effective resources for problem solving and coping behaviors such as exploring information, making plan as well as adaptive characteristics such as using humor, looking from positive perspectives, being openness to changes. Concurrently, these features and coping styles of optimists are consistent and resistant; but also resilient toward new and unexpected situations (Scheier, Weintraub, & Carver, 1986). Thanks to these resources, optimist do not hesitate to make an effort and attempt on their goals instead of setbacks (Scheier et al. 2001); for instance applying for a promotion, asking help from others (Shotts, 2013). This may take its source from that they do not blame themselves against failures and misadventures; indeed they accredit their endeavors to beat the situations (Proudfoot, 2004).

On the other hand, pessimists do not pursuit their goals because of giving up, being distracted easily, and being open to distress (Scheier et al., 2001). In addition,

pessimism is found related with neurotism and negative affect (Marshall, Wortman, Kusulas, Hervig, & Vickers, 1992). This yields that their tendencies to expect negative outcomes or rejection and to believe bad things to happen (Scheier et al., 2010). So, they hesitate to apply to somewhere or some position in accordance with their goals (Shotts, 2013).

The construct of optimism has attracted attention of researchers from clinical and non-clinical areas (Zenger et al., 2013). For example, there were found associations with optimism and active coping and planning (Scheier et al., 1994), psychological adjustment to receive cancer diagnosis (Zenger, Brix, Borowski, Stolzenburg, & Hinz, 2010). Related research proved that optimists have better coping mechanisms and adaptive strategies than pessimists (Jovanovic & Gavrilov-Jerkovic, 2013). They can adapt to important life transitions (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1992) as well as unexpected situations easier (Aspinwall, Richter, & Hoffman, 2001).

Unsurprisingly, optimism was found to be positively related with general self-efficacy (Zenger et al., 2013). Especially, optimism was supposed to endorse self-efficacy (Ochoa, 2011). It was ensured that persons who were accepted as optimists obtained lower anxiety and higher self-efficacy (Prokopčáková, 2015). As compared with pessimism, optimism predicted general self-efficacy positively which is an also an indicator of well-being (Jovanovic & Gavrilov-Jerkovic, 2013). In conclusion, optimism and self-efficacy are characterized with positive outcomes, which refer the implication of association between optimism and self-efficacy (Speier & Frese, 1997).

More particular, optimist adolescents had less negative emotions such as anger, depression and used more adaptive strategies to solve problems (Puskar, Tusaie-Mumford, Sereika, & Lamb, 1999) and utilized its positive influences in order to adjust changes that comes with that life period (Monzani, Steca & Greco, 2014). Besides, optimists reported longer friendships (Geers, Reilly, & Dember, 1998) and satisfaction with the relationships (Scheier et al., 2010). On top of it, the studies indicated that optimists perceived greater social support (Brissette, Scheier, &

Carver, 2002; Dougall, Hyman, Hayward, Mc-Feeley, & Baum, 2001; Park & Folkman, 1997).

From the perspective of career development, optimistic high school students followed hard upon their career goals and reported better well-being (Creed, Patton and Bartrum, 2002). With regard to career construction counseling, Savickas (2002) mentioned the importance of attitudes of plan fullness and optimism for gaining awareness about upcoming vocational tasks and occupational transitions, which in turn help individuals to acquire a sense of career concern resource for career adaptability.

2.5.3 General self-efficacy

Social cognitive theory assumed that behaviors of people are shaped by the interaction between self-beliefs and environment (Bandura, 1986). Conceptually speaking, self-efficacy represents one's beliefs about its abilities, capabilities to accomplish a certain course of actions to access specific goals or to master some situations (Bandura, 1995). Suffice it to say that self-efficacy beliefs convict whether or not one will carry on the actions, perform the behaviors to set outcomes, the amount of effort that one will demonstrate in the case of facing difficulties, setbacks and demands; finally how long that person will pursue the endeavor (Bandura, 1986). It could be implied that in turn, self-efficacy leads to a change on attitudes of people by illustrating the differences of their feelings, thoughts and actions (Bandura, 1977).

Given the slope, high self-efficacy carries willingness for challenging goals, tasks and settings. After people with high self-efficacy succeeded them, they establish new ones. They shape the process in their mind, take actions later and also they are committed to accomplish (Luszczynska, Gutie´rrez-Don˜a, & Schwarzer, 2005). As a result, they are credited as more active and self-determined. Whereas, having low self-efficacy beliefs regards with some feelings such as depression, anxiety, and helplessness. In a related vein, low self-efficacy beliefs have associations with low

self-esteem, pessimism, inhibition of motivation (Scholz, Gutie'rrez-Don~a, Sud, & Schwarzer, 2002).

Self-efficacy beliefs have different aspects as magnitude, strength and generality. To be more precise, magnitude illustrates the amount of challenges that an individual aspire to tackle. Strength reflects the amount of endurance that a person will pursue, and generality determines transferable of self-efficacy expectations to different situations (Bandura, 1977).

Self-efficacy could be improved via four sources. First of all is performance attainment that refers a person's personal experience that raises efficacy beliefs through successful experiences. This is the mastery way of building powerful efficacy expectations. The second is vicarious experience that brings through observing the accomplishments of others, which help an individual to believe that he or she can succeed in similar tasks or activities as well. The third one is a persuasion of a person by him or her social network or others verbally in the matter of being able to achieve. The last is regarding positive perspective of a person, which help people to enhance efficacy beliefs to get ahead (Bandura, 1994).

When it comes to career domain, Bandura states that "there are a number of ways in which self-efficacy beliefs contribute to career development and success in vocational pursuits" (Bandura, 1994). On the role of self-efficacy beliefs on the specialty of career, Hackett and Betz (1981) took a pivotal step. They proved the applicability of self-efficacy expectations to career counseling. In their research study, they found that low self-efficacy beliefs of women restricted their views about career options in terms of type and number of occupations that they think to accomplish (Betz & Hackett, 1981).

The related career research and practice evidenced the influential role of self-efficacy in career development. In the slope of social cognitive career theory, the research showed that self-efficacy beliefs and interests were precursor to determine educational aspirations than personality traits (Larson et al., 2012; Rottinghaus,

Lindley, Green, & Borgen, 2002). In their longitudinal study, Pinquart, Juang, and Silbereisen (2002) found high self-efficacy influenced the status of employment via the higher career-related motivation and by less perceived application stress. Similarly, Panagos and DuBois (1999) detected that self-efficacy beliefs' and outcome expectations' influential effects on career development of adolescents with learning disabilities. In turn, Fouad and Smith (1996) supported the impact of self-efficacy on interests and development of intentions.

While investigating a similar construct, Jerusalem and Schwarzer proposed the construct of general self-efficacy in 1981. As opposed to specific self-efficacy considered as task-specific beliefs, generalized self-efficacy could be deemed as a sense of confidence on personal competence to cope with stressful or changing situations (Schwarzer et al., 1999). It is accepted as a stable personality trait, relatively (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001). It is altogether clear the predictor role on perceived ability in a range of tasks and influential characteristic on some outcomes such as self-regulation, openness to challenging experiences, optimism and coping behaviors of general self-efficacy (Teo & Kam, 2014). In addition, the effect of optimism, self-efficacy, depression, and anxiety on the adaptation of naive university students who had experienced transition process yet (Morton, Mergler, & Boman, 2014) was explored. The finding was summarized thus and so having higher optimism, lower depression and anxiety would facilitate to adapt the transition from high school to university.

Finally, a variety of research ensured that self-efficacy has an impact on career decision making process (Ali, McWhirter, & Chronister, 2005). In addition, interaction of person and his or her environment reveal career mature people (Angel, 2012). Social support might be considered as an environmental factor to grow career mature individual. As mentioned by Betz and Hackett (1981), self-efficacy could be modified via support from others.

Over and above, the mediating role of self-efficacy between abilities, occupational themes, depression, personality factors, interests, personal initiative, well-being, and

coping stressful life events was ensured through some studies (Lapan, Boggs, & Morrill, 1989; Speier & Frese, 1997; Strobel, Tumasjan, & Spörrle, 2011).

2.6 Related Research on the Associations between Model Variables

By empirical and theoretical studies, the proposed association of social support with optimism, general self-efficacy and career adaptability was ensured in the review of the literature. Accordingly, the relation of perceived social support with general self-efficacy and career adaptability and the association between general self-efficacy and career adaptability were indicated. However, there was no any model testing these associations all together. Therefore, this section summarizes the research studies on the variables in the model in accordance with the aim of the study. The flow of the text was organized as three parts. Firstly, the research studies illustrating the association between exogenous variables (social support and optimism) and the associations between exogenous variables and mediator variable (general self-efficacy) were presented. Secondly, the association of exogenous and mediator variables with endogenous variable (career adaptability) were offered.

Previous studies indicated an association between social support and optimism. For instance, Brissette and colleagues (2002) assumed that optimist students would have greater social network while they are trying to handle the transition process from high school to college. They also investigated the association of social network with perceived social support. For this purpose, optimism, self-esteem, coping skills, network size, perceived social support, and depression level of freshmen were evaluated at the beginning and at the end of semester. 89 students (46 women and 43 men) participated to the research study. According to results, optimistic students reported that they had larger and supportive social network, smaller stress and depression in contrast to pessimist students. At the end of semester, the association of perceived social support with optimism increased, but not with pessimism.

Another research study investigated the influence of parental support and optimism together on the depression level of adolescents though, it could be seen as involved with the path between social support and optimism as it investigated the mediating

role of parental support on the relation between optimism and depression. 149 middle school students included 68 boys and 81 girls lived in Italy attended to the study. Results indicated a partially mediating effect between optimism and depression, which meant there was a path from optimism and social support with a correlation of .23. However, social support mediated the lack of optimism. Researchers underlined the role of parents in fostering optimism in adolescents (Sumer, Giannotta, Settanni, & Ciairano, 2009).

Except from the relations between optimism and social support, another path was proposed from optimism to general self-efficacy in the current study. Consisted with this assumption, there were conspicuous research studies pointing the relationships between optimism and self-efficacy. For example, Zagórska and Guskowska (2014)'s experimental study aimed at increasing self-efficacy among athletes. Optimism, hope of success, locus of control was accepted as the cognitive dimensions of self-efficacy. 42 athletes including 29 women and 13 men participated to experimental and control groups by assigning randomly after ensuring they got similar results in the initial test of self-efficacy. A pre-test and a post-test experimental and control groups design was employed. While the training group attended self-efficacy intervention constituted four psycho-educational workshops, the control group was free to listen to music, watch television, or to shop. The training group lasted 10 days during a summer sports camp. According to the results of t-test for dependent samples, the program was found effective, because participant increased their self-efficacy scores. The control group's scores did not reveal any change. Not only self-efficacy scores, but also optimism and internal locus of control scores of experimental group participants also increased after intervention.

Similarly, the relationships between self-efficacy and psychological constructs such as personality, well-being, stress appraisals, social relations, and achievements were explored with 8796 participants from Costa Rica, Germany, Poland, Turkey, and the USA. The participants were composed of high school students from Poland, Turkey, and USA, university students from Costa Rica and migrants and teachers from Germany. According to results, the highest positive relations were found between

Germany. According to results, the highest positive relations were found between optimism, self-regulation, and self-esteem. On the other hand, the lowest associations were between depression and anxiety. The relationships between self-efficacy and other psychological constructs were consisted across cultures (Luszczynska et al., 2005).

Although the association between social support and general self-efficacy was illustrated in the health related research studies mostly (e.g., Haugland, 2013), there were some studies conducted with adolescents also. However, perceived social support and general self-efficacy were investigated together as predictors of some other variables such as depression, stress etc. For instance, King, Wu, and Niranjana (2013) explored the influence of social support and self-efficacy on depression levels of college students. 98 freshman students aged ranged from 18 to 23 participated to study. According to results of separate correlation models, it was found significant relationship between social support and self-efficacy ($r = .30$).

In addition, Yusliza (2011) investigated the influences of social support and general self-efficacy on socio-cultural adjustment of international undergraduate students in Malaysia. 185 students (85 male, 100 female) participated to study. According to result of multiple linear regression analysis, while perceived support from friends and significant others, family, and self-efficacy explained 11%, 15%, 12% variances in cultural empathy, impersonal endeavors and cultural relatedness, respectively, the associations of perceived support from friends and significant others together and perceived support from family with general self-efficacy were reported as .61 and .55, respectively.

Another study tested a model to explore the influences of parents and friend social support, school sense of community, and self-efficacy on psychosocial well being of early adolescents. 7,097 students from middle and high school students (3,650 boys, 3,447 girls) participated to research. Overall finding of the study showed that there was a positive association between social support and psychosocial adjustment via self-efficacy and school sense of community. While association between parent

support and general self-efficacy was reported as .48, the relation of friend support with general self-efficacy was .22 (Vieno, Santinello, Pastore, & Perkins, 2007).

After mentioning prospective relations between optimism, social support, general self-efficacy, the related research and associations on career domain were summarized in the following.

With regard to career development, the influence of optimism and pessimism, career decision-making autonomy, and family support on vocational identity was explored. Then, the interrelations between study variables were compared according to cultures as Western and Eastern Culture. The participants of the study consisted of 164 American and 183 Korean college students. According to results, optimism was found as important predictor of vocational identity formation for both American and Korean students. Intrinsic motivation, on the other hand, was a mediator between them. Pessimism only was found as a significant predictor for American students' vocational identity formation. In respect of family support, it served differently across cultures; for Americans, the relation between optimism and intrinsic motivation was strengthened via family support; whereas for Koreans, it served as buffered link between pessimism and extrinsic motivation (Shin, 2010).

Contributions of the relational context as social supports from family, teachers and close friends and peer belief to four dimensions of career adaptability as school identification, perceptions of educational barriers, career outcome expectations, and career planning among urban adolescents were explored by Kenny and Bledsoe (2005). In addition, Hirschi (2009) investigated the predictors of career adaptability development and its effect on development of sense of power and experience of life satisfaction among eighth graders. The predictors including positive emotional disposition, goal decidedness, capability beliefs and social context beliefs as well as influences of gender, age, whether or not they are immigrant, educational level of parents, and plans for college-bound or vocational education were taken into attention.

Again, the influence of social support on career related issues was investigated via Creed and colleagues (2008)'s study that explored the representations of career adaptability by searching career adaptability related variables such as career planning, career exploration, self-exploration, decision-making, self-regulation. Therefore, the relationships of career adaptability, goal-orientation, and social support with career concerns were investigated. Additionally, the relationships of goal-orientation and social support with career concerns via career adaptability were examined. The participants of the study constituted of 245 first-year university students. The results yielded that there were correlations between social support perceived from significant others and career planning and self-exploration that were inclusions of career adaptability. In addition, social support perceived from family and friends were found to be associated with self-exploration also. In the structural model, it was ensured that social support perceived from significant others predicted career adaptability variables including career planning and self-exploration.

Research studies indicated the association between self-efficacy and career adaptability also. For instance, the difference of career perceptions of students with the companies was inquired to find out an employment stipulation. The research was conducted with the international students in Japan and the Japanese companies. Career perceptions were evaluated by career maturity, career adaptability, self-efficacy and career change scores. Regardless other hypotheses, the researcher investigated whether or not self-efficacy had an influence on career adaptability. 43 international students in Japan participated to an online survey. The results yielded that career maturity had almost no correlation with career adaptability, self-efficacy and career change. However, the highest correlation revealed between self-efficacy and career adaptability. As well, career adaptability had good correlation with career change also (Angel, 2012). The researcher summarized the results as students with high self-efficacy believe their adaptabilities to new conditions. Thus, self-efficacy is important not only for having high career adaptability but also decision making and career development.

Control dimension of career adaptability regards with career decision making abilities, hence lack of career decision making abilities and the decidedness may result in indecision (Savickas, 2005). The career decision making process of Hispanic adolescents was examined by investigating career indecision and self-efficacy. Also, the relations of gender, grade level, acculturation, grade point average (GPA) and SES level with career indecision and self-efficacy were inquired. 250 high school students from 10th and 12th grades in the rural part of South Texas attended to research. Also, a group consisted of 2200 Hispanic students was used as a population to compare the results. The findings demonstrated that the students in both low SES and population had career indecision, but lower self-efficacy in low SES than population. Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients showed negative relationship between career indecision and self-efficacy; that is the higher career indecision, the lower self-efficacy individuals have (Queen, 1999).

2.7 Related Research on Model Variables in Turkey

Upon review of the literature, perceived social support, optimism, and general self-efficacy were studied all together occasionally. In that vein, although there are a lot of studies about career decision, indecision, decision making process, career maturity and their related variables, there is not any research study on the impact of perceived social support, optimism and general self-efficacy on career adaptability. Therefore, existing research on model variables of the current study was summarized in the following.

As an exogenous variable of the current study, social support has been studied widely in Turkey. Some research studies focused on investigating the association of perceived social support with some demographic information such as high school students' staying at home with their parents or in dormitory (Firat & Kaya, 2015), academic achievement, number of children in the family, number of classmates, the working situation of mothers of secondary school students (Ateş, 2012). Some others aimed at testing models such as the influence of perceived social support from family on cyber victimization and the influence of cyber victimization on perceived social

support from friends (Eroğlu & Peker, 2011) and the influence of perceived social support on seeking psychological help via life satisfaction and attitudes toward psychological help- seeking and intention (Topkaya & Büyükgöze-Kavas, 2015). A meta-analysis of studies about relations of social support with depression, loneliness, life satisfaction, self-esteem and well-being in Turkey was also conducted. According to the results of the study on 35 articles, social support was found positively related with well-being variables, yet negatively correlated with depression and loneliness (Yalçın, 2014).

Social support was utilized through career related research studies. For instance, vocational outcome expectation was explored in terms of the relations with social support as environmental factor and locus of control as personal factors. The results of the study conducted with 263 university students yielded that perceived social support from family, friends, and significant others had associations the vocational outcome expectations negatively. Especially, perceived social support from family predicted vocational outcome expectations. On the other hand, locus of control was related with vocational outcome expectation positively, and so predicted it (Işık, 2013).

Accordingly, perceived social support was evaluated in terms of whether or not it predicts career decision making difficulties of high school students. 273 students consisted of 114 girls and 159 boys from 9th, 10th, and 11th graders participated to the study. To analyze the data, Pearson correlation coefficient and simultaneously multiple regressions were administered. The findings illustrated that while perceived social support and gender together explained 5 % of the variance of the career decision making difficulties, the perceived social support from teachers was strong predictor of lack of information and inconsistent information subscales as well as the total career decision making difficulties. The lack of readiness subscale was not predicted any study variables (Öztemel, 2013).

To inquire whether there is any relationship between perceived social support and career maturity of gifted students, a correlational research was conducted with 275

(130 girls, 145 boys) high school students selected from science high schools. According to the results of Pearson moments correlation coefficient, perceived social support was correlated with career maturity positively by a correlation value of .49. Career maturity was correlated with the perceived social support from family as .50, from friends as .53 and from teachers as .44. As a result, it suggested that the higher perceived social support, the higher career maturity the students have (Bozgeyikli, Doğan, & Işıklar, 2010).

Saya and her colleagues (2009) explored the career maturity levels of the students who were succeeded at the university entrance exam and qualified to choose a major of undergraduate program. The relations of gender, age and social support perceived from the family with career maturity of them were examined with the sample of 237 (155 female, 82 male) individuals. The results implied that career maturity level of students should be improved. In addition, students perceived higher social support had higher career maturity. While female students had higher career maturity than male students, age was not significant predictor.

Accordingly, Ulaş and Yıldırım (2015) examined whether social support from family, peer, and teacher and some demographic variables predicted career maturity of high school students. For this purpose, 483 high school students' career maturity levels were explored by t test to see gender differences as well as Stepwise Regression to investigate predictors of career maturity. According to results, while family support, gender, teacher and peer support predicted career maturity significantly, school type and grade level did not. In comparison of gender, it was found that career maturity of girls was higher than boys'.

Optimism as another exogenous variable of the current study was investigated with a variety of variables. For example, influence of optimism on life satisfaction and well-being (Dursun, 2012), life satisfaction and academic achievement (Güler & Emeç, 2006), happiness and life satisfaction (Ünüvar, Avşaroğlu, & Uslu, 2012; Sapmaz & Doğan, 2012), resilience (Terzi, 2008) was ensured.

The only study investigating the relations between optimism and career adaptability was Büyükgöze Kavas's (2014) the adaptation study of Career Adapt-Abilities Scale. The study was done with 669 high school and university students. The results of concurrent validity analysis indicated the positive association between optimism and career adaptability.

In terms of self-efficacy studies, the negative associations of general self-efficacy, academic, social and emotional self-efficacy with depression, anxiety, negative self-perception, somatization and hostility (Telef & Karaca, 2011) were found. Positive associations between subjective well-being and academic self-efficacy, social self-efficacy, emotional self-efficacy, and general self-efficacy of high school students (Certel, Saracaloğlu, Bahadır, Varol, 2015) were also reported.

When scanned career related research, Oğuz (2008) investigated the influences of self-efficacy beliefs and some other variables as the decision-making strategies, gender, grade level and academic achievement on career maturity level of high school students as well as whether the attitudes of parents to career development of their child contribute career maturity of them. The participants of the research were 402 students from 9, 10, and 11th grade students and their parents including 98 mothers and 98 fathers. According the result of multiple regression analysis, all variables explained 41% of variance in career maturity, self-efficacy beliefs was found the most important predictor of career maturity. Being 11th and 10th grade level, gender and rational decision making strategies followed it. However, career maturity did not change according to attitudes of parents to their child's career development.

More particularly, Öncel (2014) examined the relations between general self-efficacy and career adaptability through adaptation study of Career Adapt-Abilities Scale to Turkish. The research was done with 332 undergraduate students from administration and business department. The results proved the positive association between general self-efficacy and confidence subscale of career adaptability of business and administration undergraduate students.

2.8 Summary of the Review of Literature

In this chapter, the review of the literature including a brief introduction to theories of career counseling, the theory of career construction that is theoretical base of the current study, career adaptability, proposed model variables and related literature were presented. Upon review of the literature, it can be seen that there are a lot of studies about career decision, indecision, decision making process, career maturity and related variables. It could be implied that there was rich international literature on career adaptability, exploring the contributing factors in a variety age groups, in various countries. However, research on career adaptability has been gained attention recently in Turkey. The studies conducted in Turkey focused on scale adaptation mostly. However there is also few research that tested career adaptability models. These studies were conducted with university students mostly. Neither in abroad nor in Turkey, there was not any study tested career adaptability model that included perceived social support, optimism, and general self-efficacy variables with high school students.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This chapter represents the research design, data collection process, psychometric properties of the measures, procedure, data analysis, and the limitations of the study.

3.1 Design of the Study

The aims of the current study were: a) to test the direct and indirect relationships of perceived social support, optimism and general self-efficacy with career adaptability of high school students, b) to investigate to what extent the combination of these variables explain career adaptability and, c) to examine whether these relationships differ according to school type. Depending upon the purpose of the study, a correlational research was designed. A correlational design aims to explore the nature and magnitude of relationships between various variables without making any manipulation (Fitzgerald, Rumrill, & Schenker, 2004). Further, in the accordance with the aim of the current study to predict associations among several variables structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed. SEM refers a method used to investigate causal relations among latent constructs in the behavioral and social sciences (McDonald & Ho, 2002).

3.2 Sampling Procedure and Participants

Participants of the study were selected by convenient sampling. The data were collected from six private and six public high schools. The private schools located in

Çankaya district and the public schools located in Mamak, Keçiören, and Sincan, Etimesgut counties of Ankara. Taking into account the income and educational level as two indicators of SES, parents from private schools were mainly from upper middle or upper class; parents from public schools were mostly from low and/or middle SES.

After data cleaning procedure, the analyses were run with a sample of 1610 (862 public school, 748 private school) students. The characteristics of sample were presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Gender and Class Level of Public and Private High School Participants

		Public School		Private School	
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Gender	Female	501	58.1	363	48.5
	Male	361	41.9	385	51.5
Class Level	9 th Grade	287	33.3	293	39.2
	10 th Grade	328	38.1	207	27.7
	11 th Grade	242	28.7	248	33.2
Total		862	53.5	748	46.5

As presented in Table 3.1, while 361 (41.9 %) males and 501 (58.1%) females constituted of public school group, 363 (48.5%) females and 385 (51.5%) males composed private school group. Accordingly, while the former participant group included 287 (33.3%) 9th, 328 (38.1%) 10th and 242 (28.7%) 11th grade students, the latter consisted of 293 (39.2%) 9th, 207 (27.7%) 10th, and 248 (33.2%) 11th grade students. Since 12th graders were preparing for university entrance exam, the most of them were absent in their schools, they were not included in the sample.

3.3 Measures

Measures of this study consisted of a set of instruments including Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS; Zimet et al., 1988) (*see Appendix A*),

Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R; Scheiver & Carver, 1985) (*see* Appendix B), General Self Efficacy Scale (GSE; Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995) (*see* Appendix C) and Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS; Porfeli & Savickas, 2012) (*see* Appendix D). Participants responded all of the instruments at the same session.

3.3.1 The Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS)

The Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (Zimet et al., 1988) consisted of 12 items to measure the degree of perceived social support from family (Items 3, 4, 8, and 11), friends (Items 6, 7, 9, and 12), and significant others (Items 1, 2, 5, and 10). With a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*very strongly disagree*) to 7 (*very strongly agree*), the total scores change between 7 and 84. Sample items are that: “I can count on my friends when things go wrong.” and “I can talk about my problems with my family.”

Factor structure of the scale explored by principal component analysis with Oblique rotation illustrated three factors ((Zimet et al., 1988). In addition, discriminant validity of the MSPSS was investigated with The Adolescent Family Caring Scale. The correlations were as follows,.76 with MSPSS Family subscale, .33 with Friends subscale, and .48 with Significant Other subscale (Canty-Mitchell & Zimet, 2000).

Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was .84, for the total scale, .81 for family .92 for friend, .83 for significant others subscales respectively in the study conducted with adolescents (Zimet et al., 1990). The test-retest reliability with three month interval was reported as .85 for total scale and .72, .85, and .75 for significant other, family, and friends subscales (Zimet et. a., 1988).

The Turkish adaptation of the scale was done by Eker and Arkar (1995) and Çakır and Palabıyık (1997). Three-factor structure of the scale was confirmed for Turkish Form of MSPSS by utilizing principal component analysis with an oblique rotation. In addition, the validity of the scale was examined on psychiatry and the surgery samples, which produced adequate correlations with loneliness, hopelessness,

negative social interaction, and a symptom check list (Eker et al., 2001). In the same study, internal reliability was examined with three different samples as psychiatry patients, surgery patients and normal samples, including 50 subjects in each. The Cronbach alpha correlation coefficients ranged between .80 and .95, indicating high reliability.

3.3.1.1 Psychometric properties of the MSPSS for the present study

In the current study, the construct validity of the MSPSS was tested through Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) with maximum likelihood estimation (ML) by using AMOS 22 software (Arbuckle, 2009). The several fit indices were utilized as presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3. 2.

Fit indices of MSPSS for the Present Study

	χ^2 (df)	χ^2/df	SRMR	CFI	RMSEA
Optimal Value	-	< 3.0 ^a /5.0 ^b	< .08 ^c	> .90 ^d	< .06 ^e
Modified Model	134.707 (47) *	2.87	.02	.99	.03

Note. a. Kline (1998); b. (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004); c. Hu and Bentler (1999); Browne & Cudeck (1993); d. Schumacker and Lomax (1996); e. Hu and Bentler (1999) * p<.001

After slight modifications suggested by program, the model fitted the data. As can be seen in Table 3.2, χ^2 value was 134.707 and df was 47. The normed chi-square value was 2.87, which was an acceptable ratio. In addition to chi-squared statistics, the other goodness of fit indices showed that the model fitted the data very well, SRMR=.02, CFI=.99, RMSEA=.03.

Based on these results, the construct validity of MSPSS was ensured for the present study. The standardized coefficients of the model were illustrated in Figure 3.1.

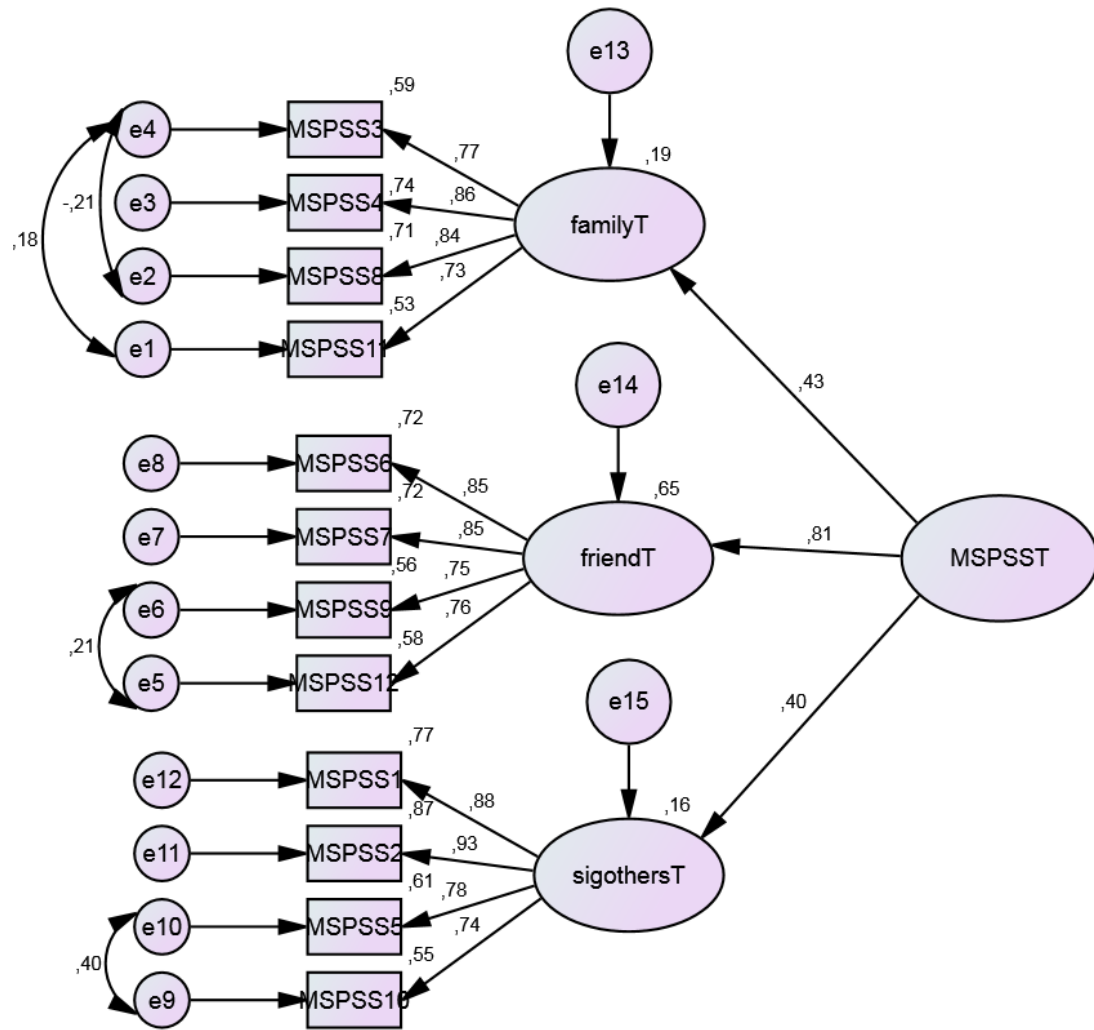


Figure 3.1 Second-order CFA model of MSPSS with standardized estimate

As can be seen the Figure 3.1, the standardized values were ranged from .73 to .93 for the items, from .40 to .81 for the factors. The results proved the factor structure of the scale with three dimensions for the present study.

Internal reliability was evaluated by Cronbach alpha that produced .85 for the total scale, .87 for Family subscale, .88 for Friends subscale, and .91 for Significant Others subscale for total sample. Public school sample produced internal consistency scores as .83 for total scale, .88 for Family subscale, .88 for Friends subscale, and .90 for Significant Others subscale. On the other hand, private school sample generated the scores as .84 for total scale, .86 for Family subscale, .88 for Friends subscale, and

.91 for Significant Others subscale. Sum up, the psychometric properties of the MSPSS was sufficiently satisfactory to use in the current study.

3.3.2 Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R)

Life Orientation Test was developed (LOT) by Scheier and Carver in 1985 to measure optimism. Although the scale consisted of 12 items at the beginning, the authors revised the scale as 10 item-versions, named LOT-R in 1994. The scale includes 3 items in positive direction (1, 4, and 10) and 3 in negative one (3, 7, and 9). Hence, it contains 4 filler items that are not scored. A five-point Likert-type scale ranges from 0 = *strongly disagree* to 4 = *strongly agree*. An overall score ranging 0 to 24 is obtained by adding the scores of negatively worded items after reversing to the scores of positive items (Scheier et al., 1994). At the same time, it is possible to calculate a unidimensional score as optimism and pessimism (Appaneal, 2012). Sample items are; “In uncertain times, I usually expect the best” as positive and “I rarely count on good things happening to me” keyed as negatively (Scheier et al., 1994).

Psychometric properties of the LOT-R were investigated with the data obtained from 4,309 subjects by Scheier and colleagues (1994). To assess predictive and discriminant validity, the correlations between LOT-R and Self-Mastery Scale (SMS), State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI), the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey for neuroticism, Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale were investigated. The results established predictive and discriminant validity, demonstrating adequate scores as .75, .88, .86, and .89, respectively. On the other hand, an exploratory factor analysis carried out with the sample of 5,187 adolescent twins and 999 of their non-twin siblings from the Netherlands. It was found that two clustered factor structures correlated negatively with each other (Mavioğlu, Boomsma, & Bartels 2015). In addition, confirmatory factor analyses yielded both single factor (Scheier et al., 1994) and two-factor structures (Appaneal, 2012).

Internal consistency estimates was found .78 for total score of LOT-R (Scheier et al., 1994). Cronbach's alpha score for the sample consisted of adolescents was found as .65 (Mavioğlu et al., 2015). The first form of LOT including 12 items was adapted to Turkish by Aydın and Tezer (1991). Later, the psychometric properties of the LOT were evaluated by Türküm (2001) with a sample of 541 university students. Türküm used the LOT by excluding 3 items that had been already taken out from the original scale to revise the LOT, but not including the item added to LOT-R. Therefore, the scale used by Türküm consisted of 5 items. A two-factorial structure was found in the both studies. It was reported that the distribution of the items to dimensions were the same for both study. In addition, the correlations of LOT with Beck Depression Inventory and Physical Symptoms Inventory were investigated. The results yielded -.56 and -.21, respectively (Aydın & Tezer, 1991). The reliability was ensured by the Cronbach alpha score as .72 and by test-retest procedure with four-week interval as .77 (Aydın & Tezer, 1991). Türküm (2001) reported the internal reliability and the test-retest reliability with ten-week interval were .50 and .77 respectively.

3.3.2.1 Psychometric properties of the LOT-R for the present study

When permission to use the LOT for the current study was requested via e-mail from corresponding author (Prof. Michael Scheier), he suggested using the LOT-R instead of LOT. In addition, the permission was ensured from Prof. Esin Tezer who is one of the first researchers adapted LOT into Turkish. She also suggested conducting the psychometric properties of LOT-R. Actually, the LOT-R consists of 6 items (3 worded positively and 3 worded negatively and totally representing optimism) and 4 filler items. Five of the items representing total optimism are the same with the first version of LOT. Differently, 1 item was added to LOT-R. Hence, at the current study, the new item was translated to Turkish by the researcher. The accuracy of the translation in terms of linguistic and meaning was ensured by the supervisor of the researcher. Five items translated by Tezer and Aydın (1991) were used without any change.

Factor structure of the LOT-R for the current sample was pursued by using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with maximum likelihood estimation (ML) by using AMOS 22 software (Arbuckle, 2009). After ensuring assumptions for CFA, the factorial structure of LOT-R was tested by comparing three previous models: a single-factor model with all six items loading on one factor, two independent factors, and a second -order comprised of two factors (e. g., Appaneal, 2012; Glaesmer et al., 2012; Monzani et al., 2014; Zenger et al., 2013). The results of CFA for three models were illustrated in the Table 3.3 in comparison and the following figures (Figure 3.3, 3.4, and 3.5) separately.

Table 3.3

Fit indices of three tested models of LOT-R for the Present Study

Model	χ^2 (df)	χ^2/df	SRMR	CFI	RMSEA
<i>Optimal Value</i>	-	< 3.0 ^a /5.0 ^b	< .08 ^c	> .90 ^d	< .06 ^e
1 A single-factor model	438.941 (14)*	31.35	.71	.10	.14
2 Two- independent factors model	218.534 (9)*	24.82	.86	.12	.12
3 A second -order comprised of two factors model	37.045 (7)*	4.63	.98	.03	.05

Note. *p<.001, RMSEA= root mean squared error of approximation; SRMR= standardized root mean square residual; CFI= comparative fit index

a. Kline (1998); b. (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004); c. Hu and Bentler (1999); Browne & Cudeck (1993); d. Schumacker and Lomax (1996); e. Hu and Bentler (1999)

According to the fit indices given in Table 3.3 presented that the Model 3 (a second order factor comprised of two factors model) had better results compared to other two models. The value of χ^2 as 37.045 and the normed χ^2 were higher than 3 recommended by Kline (1998). However, as mentioned before these results depended on the sample size and may reject the models although the model fits the data (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008). Consequently, the other fit indices proved the model fit; SRMR=.03, RMSEA=.05, CFI=.98. Considering optimal values

presented in Table 3. 3, it can be concluded that the factor structure of LOT-R is a second-order factor composed of two factors, optimism and pessimism.

As illustrated in Figure 3.3, 3.4, and 3.5, the standardized loadings were between .49 and .54 in the Model 1, between .49 and .74 in the Model 2, and between .48 and .77 in the Model 3. According to R^2 results, items accounted the variances between 23% and 60% in the model 3. On the other hand, these values were varied between 23% and 29% in Model 1 and 24% and 55% in Model 2.

Cronbach alpha coefficients were .67 for total sample, .65 for public school group, and .70 for private school group. It is suggested that Cronbach alpha should be used poisedly for internal reliability because of requirements of tau-equivalence that presumes all items underlie the same factor or construct in the scale (Raykov, 2004). Especially, the items are arbitrary, multidimensional and heterogeneous of the measurements in social sciences (Thurber & Bonyng, 2011). If tau-equivalence is not ensured, Cronbach alpha may underestimate the reliability of the test. To handle this limitation, composite reliability (CR) could be used as an alternative method (Raykov, 2004). After ensuring the bidimensional factor structure of LOT-R for the current sample by using CFA, the bootstrapping results (by setting 1000) were utilized to compute CR. The analysis produced a value of .78 for total sample, .75 for public school sample, and .82 for private school sample. Overall, although internal consistency coefficients were slightly lower than suggested values, the psychometric properties LOT-R could be summarized as acceptable.

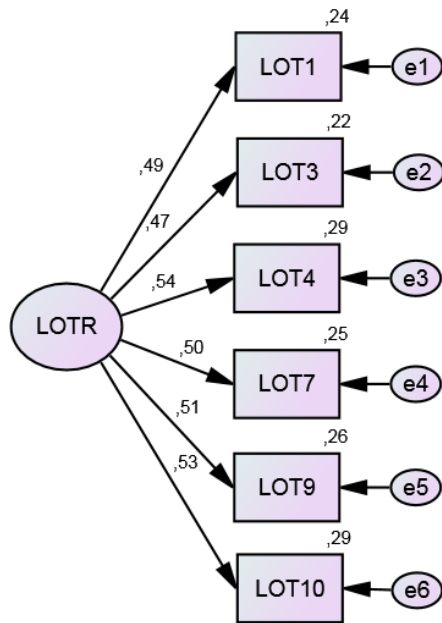


Figure 3.2 One-factor model of LOT-R

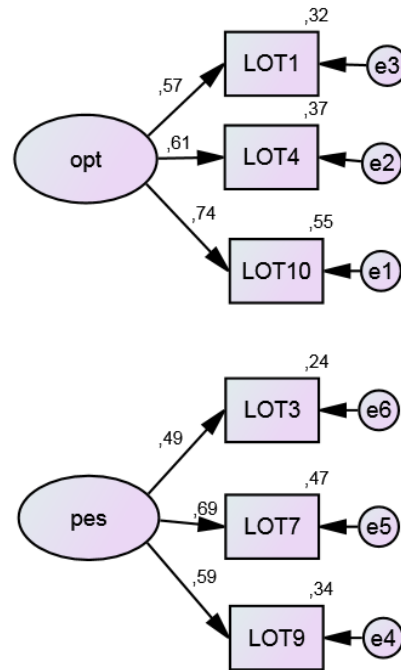


Figure 3.3 Two-independent factors model of LOT-R

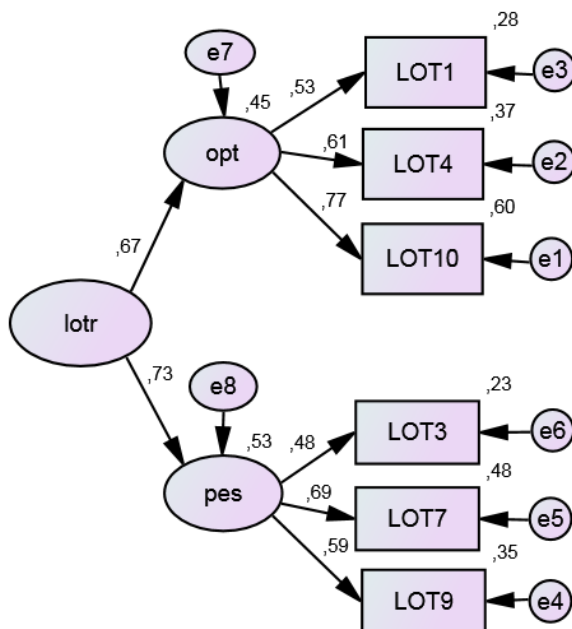


Figure 3.4 A second -order comprised of two factors model of LOT-R

3.3.3 General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE)

General Self Efficacy Scale was developed by Schwarzer and Jerusalem in 1979 in German. Then, it was revised as including 10 items and adapted into 28 languages. As 4 Likert type scale, the responses range from 1 = *not at all true* and 4 = *exactly true*. While the responses of 10 items are sum for scoring, getting higher scores mean higher self-efficacy (Scholz et al., 2002). The sample item is; “No matter what comes my way, I am usually able to handle it” (Scholz et al., 2002).

Factor structure of the scale was provided as one global dimension and configurally equivalent across 28 nations (Luszczynska et al., 2005a). General self-efficacy was evaluated as a universal construct because it was associated with some psychological constructs such as well-being, and coping strategies in the study, self-regulation in the study conducted with 1933 respondents in three countries as Germany, Poland and South Korea (Luszczynska et al., 2005b).

The internal consistency estimates were reported between .75 and .91 (Schwarzer & Born, 1997). More recently, the Cronbach’s alphas from the samples of Germany with 240 participants and Singapore with 258 participants have been found as .73 and .95, respectively (Teo & Kam, 2014).

The Turkish adaptation of the instrument was done by Aypay (2007) with 693 university students. Although the scale yielded two factors by principal components analysis with Varimax rotation, the researcher evidenced the use of one dimension total scale. The validation of the scale was ensured by checking criterion validity with the Coping with Stress Scale and Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale, which yielded the values of .40 and .38, respectively. While the internal consistency of the GSE was reported as .83, test-retest reliability was .80

3.3.3.1 Psychometric properties of the GSE for the present study

The construct validity of the GSE was examined by Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) with maximum likelihood (ML) estimation by AMOS 22 software (Arbuckle, 2009). As can be seen in Table 3.4, the model fitted the data after modifications suggested by program; χ^2 (31) = 81.136, $p = .00$; $\chi^2/df = 2.61$; SRMR = .02, RMSEA = .03, CFI = .99. According to these results, the construct validity of GSE was proved for the current study. Figure 3.6 demonstrated the standardized coefficients of the model.

Table 3. 4.

Fit indices of GSE for the Present Study

	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	SRMR	CFI	RMSEA
Optimal Value	-	-	< 3.0 ^a /5.0 ^b	< .08 ^c	> .90 ^d	< .06 ^e
Modified Model	81.136	31	2.61	.02	.99	.03

Note. a. Kline (1998); b. (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004); c. Hu and Bentler (1999); Browne & Cudeck (1993); d. Schumacker and Lomax (1996); e. Hu and Bentler (1999)

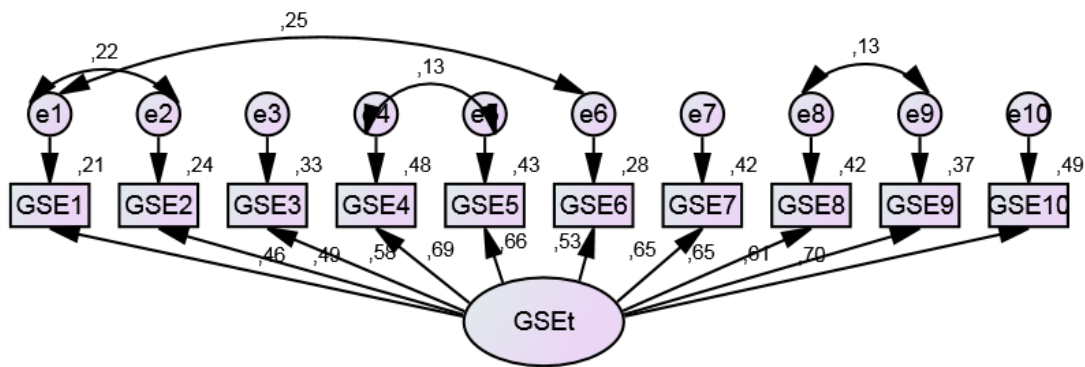


Figure 3.5 Single factor CFA model of GSE with standardized estimates

Further analysis for reliability was run on the total score of the scale by using Cronbach's alpha coefficient and the scores were .86 for total sample, .84 for public school sample and .87 for private school sample. Taken together, it could be inferred that the scale was valid and reliable for this study.

3.3.4 Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS)

An international team of vocational psychologists from 18 countries worked together to develop a measure to assess the construct of career adaptability. Firstly, they produced operational definition of career resources or adapt-abilities based on career construction model (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Next, they decided to develop this measurement in English for practical outcome comparison, and then to translate to other countries' languages. After discussing on the measurement being qualitative or quantitative, the researchers from 13 countries reached a consensus on the latter. By this way, the CAAS was developed (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). The scale consists of 24 items with a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from "5 = Strongest" to "1 = Not Strong". It has four dimensions as Concern (Items 1-6), Curiosity (Items 7-12), Confidence (Items 13-18), and Control (Items 19-24) (Maree, 2012b; Porfeli & Savickas, 2012). The total scores obtained from the scale range from 24 to 120. Sample items are, "Realizing that today's choices shape my future" (concern), "Doing what's right for me" (control), "Looking for opportunities to grow as a person" (curiosity), and "Taking care to do things well" (confidence).

The research study in 13 different countries such as France, Belgium, The Netherlands, Spain, Italy, Switzerland, Iceland, Brazil, South Africa, China Taiwan, Korea, and the US to develop an international measure of career adaptability showed that CAAS has extensively been validated as the factor structure was quite similar (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). As well as, concurrent validity evidence of the USA Form of CAAS that is identical to international form was ensured by consistent pattern of association between subscales of CAAS and Vocational Identity Status Assessment (VISA) (Porfeli & Savickas, 2012).

The reliability of the CAAS- International was reported as .92 for the total score and as .83 for Concern, .74 for Control, .79 for Curiosity and .85 for Confidence subscales in the research study conducted with 460 10th and 11th grade students (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Although there are a lot of adaptation studies of CAAS, only the evidence related to high school sample was presented in this dissertation because the subjects of the current study consisted of high school students. For instance, the results of the research study examined the psychometric characteristics and construct validity of the Icelandic form of the Career Adapt-Abilities Scale yielded the reliability score as .94 for total scale and for subscales as .68 (Concern), .88 (Control), .80 (Curiosity) and .86 (Confidence) with a total of 1740 participants from 9th and 10th graders, upper secondary schools and higher education institutions (Vilhjálmsson, Smáradóttir, Kjartansson, & Einarsdóttir, 2012). In addition, it was reported that the reliability of Belgium Form of CAAS as .88 for total score, .67 for Concern, .74 for Control, .80 for Curiosity and .89 for Confidence subscales by gathering the data from 700 students in high school, college and university students (Dries et al., 2012). Lastly, the reliability of South African Form of CAAS was found as .91 for the total score and .77 for Concern, .71 for Control, .78 for Curiosity, and .80 for Confidence with a total 435 participants included 9th and 10th grade public and private school students (Maree, 2012b).

The initial adaptation of CAAS into Turkish was conducted by Kanten (2012). The participants of the adaptation study constituted 474 students from vocational higher education institutions. According to the results of confirmatory factor analysis conducted with using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), 3 items of concern subscale, 1 item of control subscale and 1 item of curiosity subscale were excluded from the scale. Thus, final form was consisted of 19 items with five-point Likert type scale. For the reliability evidence, Cronbach alpha coefficients revealed that .61 for Concern, .77 for Control, .79 for Curiosity and .81 for Confidence. However, the internal consistency result for total score of the scale was not reported.

When the research study for this dissertation begin in 2013 there was only one translation study conducted by Kanten (2012) with vocational higher education

students in Isparta as a small city of Turkey. Therefore, this study aimed at adapting the scale for high school students in the context of Ankara as capital city. However, there had been three other translations (Büyükgöze-Kavas, 2014; Öncel, 2014; Yücel & Polat, 2015) until the completion of the current study. The difference of the current adaptation study lied on conducting with students from public and private high schools.

3.3.4.1 Translation procedure of the CAAS

Firstly, permission to translate and adapt the Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS) into Turkish for high school students was requested and obtained via e-mail from corresponding author (Prof. Mark. L. Savickas). Next, following the translation procedure recommended by Ægisdóttir, Gerstein, and Cinarbas (2008), the CAAS-International Form 2.0 was translated into Turkish independently by five experts (two advanced doctoral level counseling students, three school counselors) who are fluent in English. Then, two school counselors reviewed and compared the translations with the English version in order to ensure the items' linguistic equivalence and appropriateness to Turkish high school students. They suggested using the terms "choices" instead of "decisions" at the item #2, "targets" instead of "goals" at the item #5, and stating the sentences without using verbs. Following revising the differences in the use of language based on the school counselors' comments on the translated forms, the final form was amended by the researcher and her advisor.

In order to test psychometric properties of the Turkish High School Form of the CAAS, in the present study a pilot study was carried out with 619 (255 male, 281 female and 83 not reported) high school students selected through a convenient sampling. The participants of the pilot study were not incorporated into the sample of the actual study. The sample of pilot study was composed of 4.2% 9th grade students, 14.1% 10th grade, 46.6% 11th grade, and 35.1% 12th grade students, with 65% from public schools and 33% from private schools.

3.3.4.1.1 Psychometric Properties of the CAAS-Turkish High School Form

As a beginning, the obtained data were controlled in terms of whether or not there was any awkwardness in data by checking minimum and maximum scores via frequencies. After data screening and cleaning procedure six cases with missing values exceeding 5% were deleted as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Cases with missing values were replaced by the variable mean to utilize remaining data on the whole (Hair et al., 2014). All procedure was run by using SPSS thus far.

Normality assumption was evaluated by checking skewness and kurtosis values via AMOS 22. The CAAS-Turkish High School Form item means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis values were presented in Table 3.5. The typical response in the range of strong to very strong could be deduced through the item means and standard deviations. Skewness and kurtosis values ranged from (between -1.26 and -.07) and (between -1.11 and .97), respectively. Five items had values over one, whereas the majority of items evidenced no violation of the assumptions of confirmatory factor analysis for this sample. As well, skewness values appeared between -.56 and -.43 and kurtosis yielded the values between -.25 and -.06 for the constructs, which ensured the assumptions of correlation-based statistics for this sample.

3.3.4.1.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of CAAS Turkish High School Form

Confirmatory factor analysis is used mostly development and assessment of construct validity of the scale (Jackson, Gillasp, & Purc-Stephenson, 2009). The researchers developed CAAS conducted CFA to check the multidimensional and higher order factor structure of the scale, cohering with the theoretical model of adaptability (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Unlike exploratory factor analysis, CFA is used to prove the hypotheses settled on a theory and the relationships between test scores and factors (Jackson et al., 2009).

Thus, following the same procedure, to validate the structure of the CAAS Turkish High School Form, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with maximum likelihood estimation (ML) was conducted by using AMOS 22 software (Arbuckle, 2009).

The results of CFA suggested slight modifications between error terms of items 2 and 3 of control subscale, items 1 and 2; 3 and 4 of confidence subscale. For the Turkish high school sample, the fit indices were $\chi^2 = 730.085$, $df = 245$, $p = .00$, $\chi^2/df = 2.98$; SRMR = .05, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .90, which confirmed previously suggested fit criteria as seen in Table 3.6, although the degree of fit was slightly higher than the fit for the CAAS-International model (RMSEA = .053 and SRMR = .039; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012 Table 2, row M1b).

Except from item 6 (Concerned about my career) of Concern subscale, the standardized loadings (indicated in Table 3.7) promised that all items are strong indicators of the first-order constructs as Concern, Control, Curiosity, and Confidence, which in turn strong indicators of the second-order adaptability construct. According to R^2 results that explained how much variance is accounted for in each item, the values varied between 17% and 57% except for 6th item.

Meanwhile, the correlations between subscales revealed significant results ($p < .01$) ranged from .35 to .61 as well as to the total adaptability score ranged from .73 to .85.

The results showed that data fit the proposed higher order model with four factors (Concern, Control, Confidence, and Curiosity) as illustrated in Figure 3.7.

Table 3.5

Career Adapt-Abilities Scale: Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness, and Kurtosis

Construct	Items	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Concern	1	3.96	1.07	-.84	.04
	2	4.25	.89	-1.04	.53
	3	3.37	1.07	-.24	-.48
	4	4.00	.97	-.69	-.21
	5	3.42	1.09	-.29	-.56
	6	3.42	1.36	-.34	-1.11
Control	1	3.45	1.32	-.31	-1.05
	2	4.03	1.02	-.81	-.18
	3	4.20	.95	-1.03	.37
	4	4.27	.96	-1.26	.97
	5	3.79	1.16	-.72	-.37
	6	3.81	1.06	-.66	-.15
Curiosity	1	3.74	1.15	-.56	-.55
	2	3.57	1.08	-.30	-.63
	3	3.66	1.09	-.48	-.49
	4	3.65	1.11	-.46	-.56
	5	3.22	1.19	-.07	-.81
	6	3.85	1.10	-.66	-.36
Confidence	1	3.63	1.06	-.44	-.36
	2	4.06	.97	-.84	.05
	3	3.84	1.05	-.56	-.46
	4	3.87	1.07	-.67	-.35
	5	3.74	1.01	-.45	-.43
	6	3.70	1.04	-.52	-.25

*Note: All of the loadings are statistically significant at $\alpha=0.01$.

Table 3.6

Fit indices of CAAS Turkish High School Form

	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	SRMR	CFI	RMSEA
Optimal Value	-	-	< 3.0 ^a /5.0 ^b	< .08 ^c	> .90 ^d	< .06 ^e
Higher-order model	730.085	245	2.98	.05	.90	.06

Note. a. Kline (1998); b. (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004); c. Hu and Bentler (1999); Browne & Cudeck (1993); d. Schumacker and Lomax (1996); e. Hu and Bentler (1999)

Comparison of CAAS-Turkish High School Form higher order factor model to the model for the CAAS-International factor model was demonstrated that the item loadings on the first-order dimensions were slightly lower. In particular, Concern#6 (Concerned about my career) remarked the most critical difference with the lowest item loading in the present data. This refers the mention of Savickas and Porfeli (2012) that “item #6 appears to be the most problematic item to establishing error invariance across the samples” (p. 669). Another remarkable difference was for Control#1 (Keeping upbeat) displaying a weaker loading. Of the second-order constructs, control (Turkish High School= .80; International= .86) and curiosity (Turkish High School= .79; International= .88) exhibited the greatest difference between CAAS-Turkish High School Form and CAAS-International sample, with the Turkish sample indicating lower loading. On the other hand, the slight difference for confidence was exposed in favor of Turkish sample (Turkish High School= .93; International= .90). Similar patterns could be seen in the other Turkish samples (e. g. Büyükgöze-Kavas, 2014; Yücel & Polat, 2015).

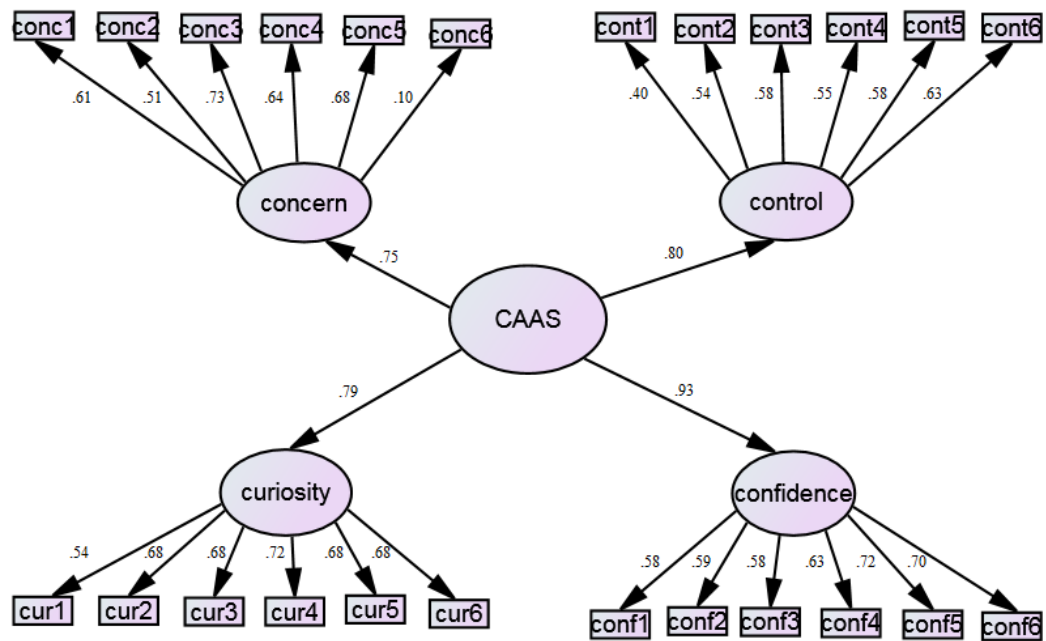


Figure 3.6 Second-order CFA model of Turkish CAAS High School Form

Table 3.7

*Standardized Regression Weights and Squared Multiple Correlations of CAAS
Turkish High School Form*

Construct	Items	Loading*	R^2
Concern	1	.61	.38
	2	.51	.26
	3	.73	.53
	4	.64	.42
	5	.68	.46
	6	.10	.01
Control	1	.40	.17
	2	.54	.23
	3	.58	.27
	4	.55	.28
	5	.58	.36
	6	.63	.43
Curiosity	1	.54	.29
	2	.68	.46
	3	.68	.46
	4	.72	.53
	5	.68	.47
	6	.68	.45
Confidence	1	.58	.30
	2	.59	.30
	3	.58	.28
	4	.63	.34
	5	.72	.57
	6	.70	.54
Constructs		Loading*	R^2
Concern		.75	.57
Control		.80	.68
Curiosity		.79	.60
Confidence		.93	.85

*Note: All of the loadings are statistically significant at $\alpha=0.01$.

3.3.4.1.3 Internal consistency of the CAAS Turkish High School Form

Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to evaluate internal consistency of the scale. The results yielded a value of .89 for the scores of total scale, which lower than International Form has as .92. In terms of four subscales of CAAS, the internal consistency reliability coefficients were .69 for Concern, .71 for Control, .82 for Curiosity and .80 for Confidence for this sample. Only, Curiosity subscale of this pilot study had higher value than the CAAS-International Form that have Cronbach alpha scores as .83 for concern, .74 for control, .79 for curiosity and .85 for confidence.

As well as the psychometric properties checked for CAAS-Turkish High School Form by this pilot sample, the internal consistency scores were found as .89 for total scale, .72 for Concern, .73 for Control, .82 for Curiosity and .81 for Confidence for total sample of the main study. For public high school sample, Cronbach alpha values were .88 for total scale, .72, .71, .79, and .79 for subscales, respectively. As for private high school sample, the values were .91 for total scale, .71, .76, .84, .83 for subscales, respectively.

So pulling together the results of all analysis, it could be supported that the scale was valid and reliable. Firstly, multidimensional, higher order structure of the scale fits the theoretical model proposed and linguistic explication of career adaptability resources, except from item 6 of concern subscale. Secondly, the total scale and four subscales each indicate good internal consistency for both pilot and main study. In consideration of these results, it could be concluded that the CAAS-Turkish High School Form could be used for further research after revising 6th item.

3.4 Data Collection Procedure of the Study

The data of the pilot study was collected during 2013-2014 spring semester and main study data were gathered in 2014-2015 spring semester. Firstly, to ensure the protection of the rights of human subjects, the researcher obtained the Human

Subjects Ethics Committee (HSEC) approval from the Middle East Technical University. Then, the public and private high schools where the measures would be administered were determined according to the location of the schools. While the public schools located in Mamak, Keçiören, Sincan, and Etimesgut counties of Ankara, the private schools were selected from Çankaya. Next, official permission was granted from Department of Research and Development of Education (EARGED) of Ministry of National Education (MEB) to apply the scales in the schools. Following, the researcher contacted to school administrators and school counseling services. All scales as a set were employed in the classroom settings with the permission of the course instructors. Information about student identity such as name, surname and student id number was not requested. The completion of the all measures took approximately a class-hour, which is 40 minutes.

3.5 Description of Variables

In this part, exogenous variables (perceived social support and optimism), mediator variable (general self-efficacy), and endogenous variable (career adaptability) were described and operationalized. The total scores of the scales were computed as the total scales were utilized in the study.

3.5.1 Exogenous variables

Person related (optimism) and environmental (perceived social support) variables were included to study as exogenous variables.

Optimism was measured by the revised Life Orientation Test (LOT-R) as 6 item 5 point continuous scale ranged from 0 to 24 points.

Perceived social support was measured by Multi-dimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS) as 12 item 7 point continuous scale ranged from 1 to 84 points.

3.5.2 Mediator variable

General self-efficacy as person related variable was utilized as mediator variable.

General self-efficacy was measured by General Self-efficacy Scale (GSE) as 10 item 4 point continuous scale ranged from 1 to 40 points.

3.5.3 Endogenous variable

Career adaptability was identified as endogenous variable.

Career adaptability was measured by Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS) as 24 item 5 point continuous scale ranged from 24 to 120 points.

3.6 Data Analysis

The aim of this study was to develop a model of career adaptability and compare it across school type. For this purpose, multi-group structural equation modeling (SEM) by using the maximum likelihood method was utilized as the primary analysis.

SEM includes multimethod such as confirmatory factor analysis, multiple regression, and path analysis (Hox & Bechger, n. d.). Thus, because inter-relationships between research variables can be explored, the regression procedures within SEM give more accurate results than standard multiple regressions (Crowley & Fan, 1997).

The data analysis process through SEM includes two steps as confirming the measurement model and testing the structural model (Kline, 1998; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010).

Initially, a theory-based measurement model was tested to validate the relationship between the observed indicator variables and the latent constructs. Confirmatory

factor analysis is suggested to evaluate the measurement model (Ullman, 1996). Assessing of the measurement model was done by administering confirmatory factor analysis. In addition, a multi-group confirmatory factor analysis was employed to test whether the same model was invariant across groups.

Next, a structural model was estimated to assess the relationships between the latent constructs across groups by using multi-group SEM (Byrne, 1994). Discrete grouping factors are used commonly to compare the relationships among variables across different groups (Shin, 2010). Thus, the constrained model was compared the unconstrained model by the structural invariance test via multi group SEM.

Some initial procedures were conducted on the data such as missing data screening and assumption checks by using SPSS. In addition, descriptive statistics of the data were analyzed with the same program also. Additionally, AMOS 22 software (Arbuckle, 2009) was utilized to test measurement and structural model of the study summarized above.

3.7 Limitations of the Study

There were some limitations of the present study. Firstly, selected scales as self-report scales have some limitations such as social desirability. Hence, the results depended on the accuracy of the responses.

Secondly, the subjects were selected from private and public high school students in Ankara. Moreover, 12th grade students were not included to research. Therefore, findings can not be generalized to high school students.

Thirdly, there might be additional limitations to generalize the findings to other public and private high school students; sampling procedure was hold very rigorous, clear and coherent steps though. The study did not also include students from other school types such as Anatolian High Schools, Science High Schools and Vocational

High Schools. Thus cannot be generalized to high school students in those school types.

Lastly, another limitation may be related with application of the measurements. Measures were applied in during class hours by teachers and the researcher. Although the researcher took necessary precautions (made explanations to teachers regarding standard and clear instructions to be made to all students while administrating measures such as stating the purpose of the study, how to fill out measures), there may be slight differences in explanations made by teachers during the scale administration.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents preliminary analyses, the results regarding descriptive statistics and correlations among variables, testing measurement and structural models and hypotheses testing.

4.1 Preliminary analysis

Prior to analysis, missing values, outliers, the independence of observations, the adequacy of sample size, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and multicollinearity were checked by using SPSS 22 Program.

Firstly, the data entry process was controlled by eye-checking and using frequencies to check minimum and maximum scores. As suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell, (2007, p. 63) cases with missing values exceeding 5% were excluded from the data set. Little's MCAR test yielded insignificant result, indicating random pattern. The remaining missing data were replaced by the variable mean, as suggested by the Hair et al. (2014).

Secondly, univariate and multivariate outliers were checked. The univariate outliers for each variable were controlled by using standardized scores (z scores). Schiffler (1988) evidenced that sample size has a crucial influence on the maximum z score by presenting a table showing that while the sample size is 11, the z score is 3.02, but when it is 18, the z scores rise to 4.01. In this respect, no univariate outliers were found exceeding z score value of 4 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998;

Shiffler, 1988). Mahalanobis distance value was computed to check multivariate outliers. There was no any case exceeding the chi-square of 22.21 ($df = 3, p < .001$).

Thirdly, the assumptions including sample size, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and multicollinearity analysis were ensured. For the checking univariate normality assumption, skewness and kurtosis values and normal Q-Q plots for each study variable were examined. As can be seen in Table 4.1, skewness and kurtosis values yielded between -3 and +3, which means that the normality assumption was ensured for this test (Field, 2009; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In addition, visual inspections of Q-Q plots showed linear lines.

Table 4.1

Indices of Normality for Study Variables

Variables	Skewness	Kurtosis
MSPSS	-.45	-.18
LOT-R	-.25	-.01
GSE	-.32	.40
CAAS	-.39	-.13

Note. CAAS= Career Adapt-Abilities Scale; MSPSS= Multi-Dimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support; LOT-R= Life Orientation Test-Revised; GSE= General Self Efficacy.

Then, further investigation for multivariate normality assumption was done by checking scatterplots of all variables. As can be seen in Figure 4.1, nearly all of the scatterplots were oval shaped; hence the variable combinations indicated multivariate normality and also linearity. As well as, scatter plot of predicted values and residuals did not show any pattern, which meant that normality, linearity and homoscedasticity assumptions were satisfied for this sample (Figure 4.2).

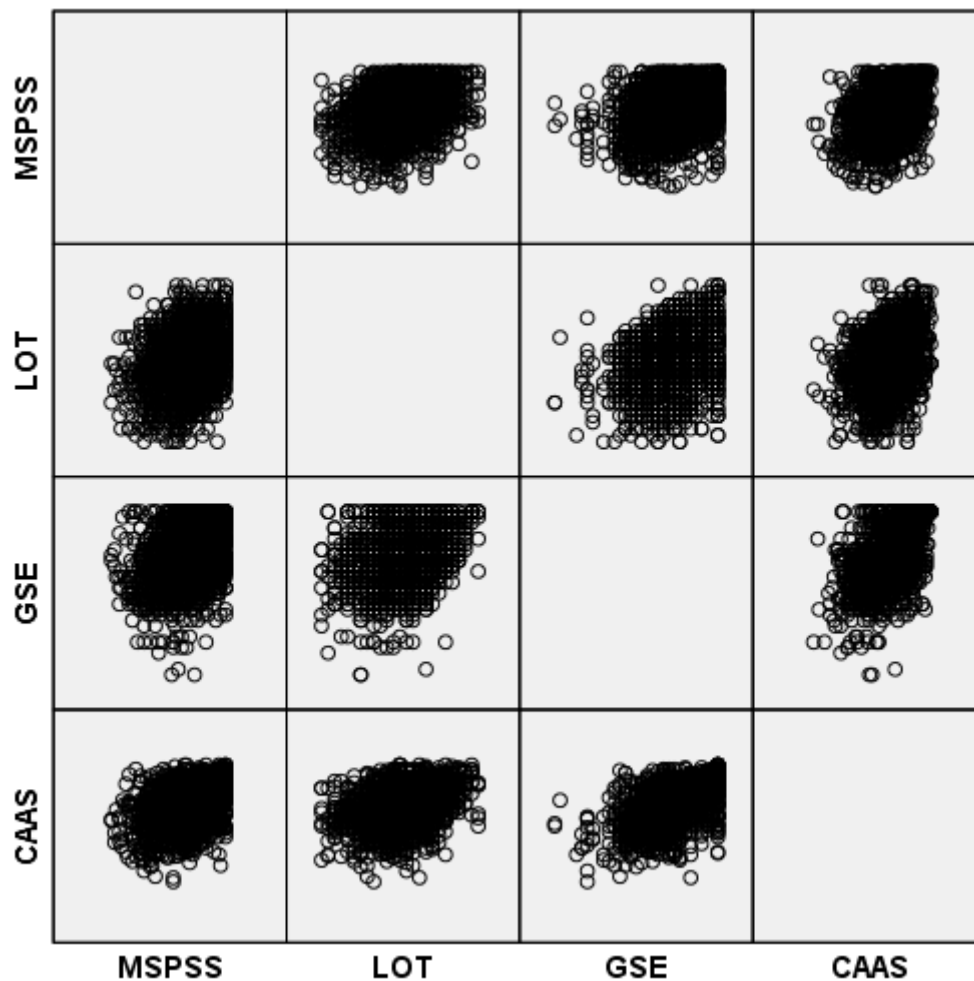


Figure 4.1 Scatterplot matrix of all variables in the study.

Lastly, tolerance, and VIF (Variance Inflation Factor) values and bivariate correlation coefficients were explored to test the assumption of multicollinearity. According to the threshold for VIF value, there were not any value that exceeds 10 for all predictors (Hair et al., 1995, as cited in Mela & Kopalle, 2002, p. 667; Marquardt, 1970, as cited in Midi, Bagheri, & Imon, 2010, p. 614), or the rule of 4 or 10 (O'brien, 2007), even any value over 2 (Craney & Surles, 2002). The tolerance values for all predictors were greater than .20 (Menard, 1995; as cited in O'brien, 2007, p. 688). In conclusion, all assumptions were ensured for the sample consisted of 1135 participants.

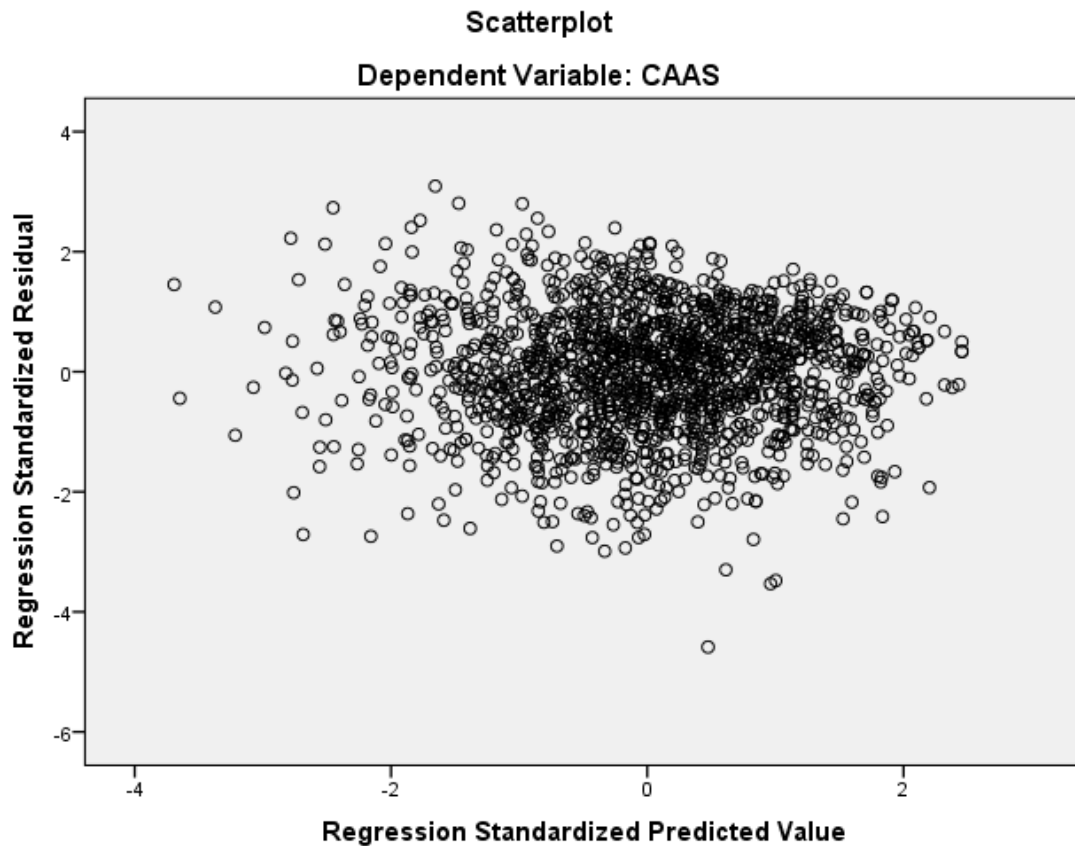


Figure 4.2 Scatter plot of predicted values and residuals

4.2 Descriptive statistics and correlations

Descriptive statistics including means and standard deviations and intercorrelations were reported for each variable in the sample (Table 4.2). When putting under the scope endogenous variable in the current study, the mean scores of career adaptability was found to be 94.58 ($SD = 14.82$) with the range of 24 to 120 for the total sample. The mean score for total career adaptability found in the current study, was slightly higher than the mean score of .90 reported by Savickas (2013).

The multidimensional perceived social support as one of the exogenous variables yielded the mean score of 5.06 ($SD = 1.18$) as similar to mean score for adolescents ($M = 5.55$, $SD = 1.2$) reported in the literature (Canty-Mitchell & Zimet, 2000). The total scores ranged between 12 and 84. The high scores indicate that the student

perceives higher social support from his/her environment. The mean of total score of perceived social support was utilized in the current study.

As another exogenous variable, optimism mean score collected by Life Orientation Test-Revised revealed as 12.68 ($SD = 4.42$), which was slightly lower than the norms for The Revised Life Orientation Test that reported a mean score as 14.33 ($SD = 4.28$) for college students (Scheir et al., 1994) and then the mean score of 20.84 ($SD = 3.09$) of the study conducted with 6186 adolescents (Mavioğlu et al., 2015). The total scores for the current study ranged from 0 to 24. Total scores shows higher level of optimism after reversing the items negatively worded.

Lastly, general self-efficacy as mediator variable yielded a mean score of 31.35 ($SD = 4.97$), which was higher than the mean score of adaptation study of the scale that was reported as 27 ($SD = 3.37$). The total scores ranged from 10 to 40. The mean score reported for 3,494 high school students from Germany was 29.60 ($SD = 4.0$) (Schwarzer, 2014). The higher scores indicate higher self-efficacy level.

Besides the descriptive analysis, bivariate correlation coefficients were computed to examine the relationships among all variables and also to check whether there is no perfect multicollinearity among variables. The literature shows different threshold values representing multicollinearity such as .95 (Zainodin & Yap, 2013), .90 and .70 (Green et al, 1988; Lehmann et al., 1998, as cited in Mela & Kopalle, 2002, p. 667). As seen from the correlation matrix for all variables presented in Table 4.2, there were no highly correlated variables more than .70. On the other hand, when looked at in detail, it can be realized that there was no significant correlations at the .001 level; yet all significant relationships were at the .01. While the highest and lowest correlation coefficient ranged between .49 to .28.

Lastly, the differences among study variables according to different school types were explored by using independent samples *t* test prior to multi-group analysis that was utilized later to compare the hypothesized model of career adaptability across groups. As shown in Table 4.3, there was variability in means scores, standard

deviations and standard errors. The mean scores of public high school group were lower than private high school group in terms of perceived social support, optimism, general self-efficacy, and career adaptability.

Table 4.2

Means, Standard Deviations and Intercorrelations of Study Variables

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4
1. MSPSS	60.14	14.37	-			
2. LOT-R	12.85	4.46	.28**	-		
3. GSE	31.28	5.33	.28**	.30**	-	
4. CAAS	90.44	14.72	.34**	.34**	.49**	

Note. *N* = 1135. MSPSS = Multi-Dimensional Perceived Social Support; LOT-R = Life Orientation Test-Revised; GSE = General Self-Efficacy; CAAS = Career Adapt-Abilities Scale. ***p* < .01, two-tailed

Table 4.3

Means, Standard Deviations, and Standard Errors for Model Variables by School Types

<i>Variables</i>	<i>School Type</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SE</i>
MSPSS	Public	57.21	14.37	.49
	Private	64.66	12.88	.47
LOT-R	Public	12.39	4.44	.15
	Private	13.01	4.37	.16
GSE	Public	30.85	5.02	.17
	Private	31.92	4.86	.18
CAAS	Public	93.37	14.61	.50
	Private	95.98	14.95	.55

Note. *N*_{low} = 584, *N*_{high} = 551. MSPSS=Multi-Dimensional Perceived Social Support; LOT-R=Life Orientation Test-Revised; GSE=General Self-Efficacy; CAAS=Career Adapt-Abilities Scale

According to the results of independent samples *t* test, statistically significant differences among public and private high schools for perceived social support [$t(1608) = -10.87, p = .00$], optimism [$t(1608) = -2.84, p = .01$], general self-efficacy [$t(1608) = -4.34, p = .00$], and career adaptability [$t(1608) = -3.53, p = .00$] were found.

4.3 Model testing

For model testing, two analyses were employed. Firstly, the measurement model was tested by a four-factor confirmatory factor analysis. Secondly, the structural model was evaluated by structural equation modeling.

The aim of this study was to compare the structural model across different school types, and therefore a multi sample approach was employed both for measurement and structural model. Firstly, the measurement equivalence across different school types (ST) was evaluated for measurement model. Then, the structure of the model was tested according to ST for structural model as suggested by Reise, Widaman, and Pugh (1993). Maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) by AMOS (22) was used to test measurement and structural model.

Several fit indices were used to assess the measurement and structural model in the current study. Firstly, the normed chi-square (χ^2/df) value was examined. As this criteria is sensitive to sample size, the results is expected less than 5 with large sample size (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Secondly, standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) was checked. For adequate fit, it is expected to be less than .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1993; Browne & Cudeck, 1993). Thirdly, Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) was confirmed to compare the proposed model and baseline model by the values greater than .90 (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996). Fourthly, the value of root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was evaluated. As a sign of good fit, it is recommended to be less than .06 (Hu & Bentler, 1993).

4.3.1 Measurement model

The measurement model is used to test whether observed variables measure latent variables well or not (Özer, 2014). On the other hand, before testing a multi-group structural equation model that was aimed at measuring model differences according to ST, a confirmatory measurement model was tested to investigate measurement equivalence of both ST. Measurement equivalence involves the invariance of the latent and observed variables between groups (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000), which is a necessary precondition for comparing groups in SEM (Drasgow & Kanfer, 1985).

Within the SEM framework, different steps may be followed to assess the equivalence across groups. Firstly, Brown (2006) suggested testing the model separately in each group for loose cross validation. Secondly, configural invariance is confirmed to investigate the similarity of number of latent variables and patterns of loadings across the different samples (Hirschfeld & Brachel, 2014). Thirdly, metric invariance is assessed to check the equivalence of factor loadings, which is used to compare the relationships between latent variables across the groups. Fourthly, scalar invariance is evaluated to test the equivalence of the item intercepts across the groups, which shows that there is no response biases systematically and the means of latent variables of different groups can be compared (Chen, 2008). Lastly, strict invariance is used to control to ensure similarity of the residual variances across groups (Wu, Li, & Zumbo, 2007). After analyzed measurement invariance across groups, structural invariance should be performed (Milfont & Fischer, 2010). Following all of these steps is not necessary for group comparisons because of being unrealistic (Steinmetz, Schmidt, Tina-Booh, Wieczorek, & Schwartz, 2009). Therefore, after ensuring cross-validation, configural and metric invariance were tested in the present study as suggested by Byrne, Shavelson, and Muthen (1989) who stated to ensure at two indicators' being invariant. While, the first step was assessed by single group confirmatory factor analysis, the subsequent steps were checked by multi-group confirmatory factor analysis and multi-group SEM.

In the current study, firstly the measurement model was constructed to confirm measurement equivalence to represent the four latent variables, three subscales of multi-dimensional perceived social support, two dimensions of life orientation test, four dimensions of career adaptability, and ten items of general self-efficacy were included to create measurement model. The measurement model for the current study was illustrated in Figure 4.3.

4.3.1.1 Preliminary single group confirmatory factor analyses

With the aforementioned steps, a preliminary single group CFA was carried out for the full sample data, for public school sample data, and for private school sample data, separately. Initially, a preliminary single group CFA was conducted on the full sample data to check whether there are any modification needs in the hypothesized model. A slight modification between error terms of general self-efficacy items (e6-e7, e9-e10, e6-e11, and e13-e14) was done as suggested by the program. As presented in Table 4.4, the normed chi square (χ^2/df ratio) was found as 4.07 (<5), which was the recommended value (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). In addition, while the RMSEA value was found as .04, the standardized RMR (SRMR) was .04, which was an approximate fit value (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Hu & Bentler, 1999). The other fit indices CFI and TLI values were .95 and .94, respectively and as recommended. Lastly, Hoelters N was 513 ($p = .01$), representing the sample size large enough to explore the differences from the null hypothesis. To sum, the fit indices illustrated measurement model fit.

Secondly, the hypothesized-slightly modified-model was tested for public high school sample data ($n = 862$) by using a preliminary single group CFA to check loose cross validation (see Figure 4.4). As seen in Table 4.4, the fit indices were, $\chi^2 = 353.203$, $df = 142$, $\chi^2/df = 2.49$, $p = .00$; CFI = .95, TLI = .94, SRMR = .04, RMSEA = .04 (90% CI of .036 to .047), which implied goodness of model fit. In other words, the model supported the proposed relationships between variables for public high school group.

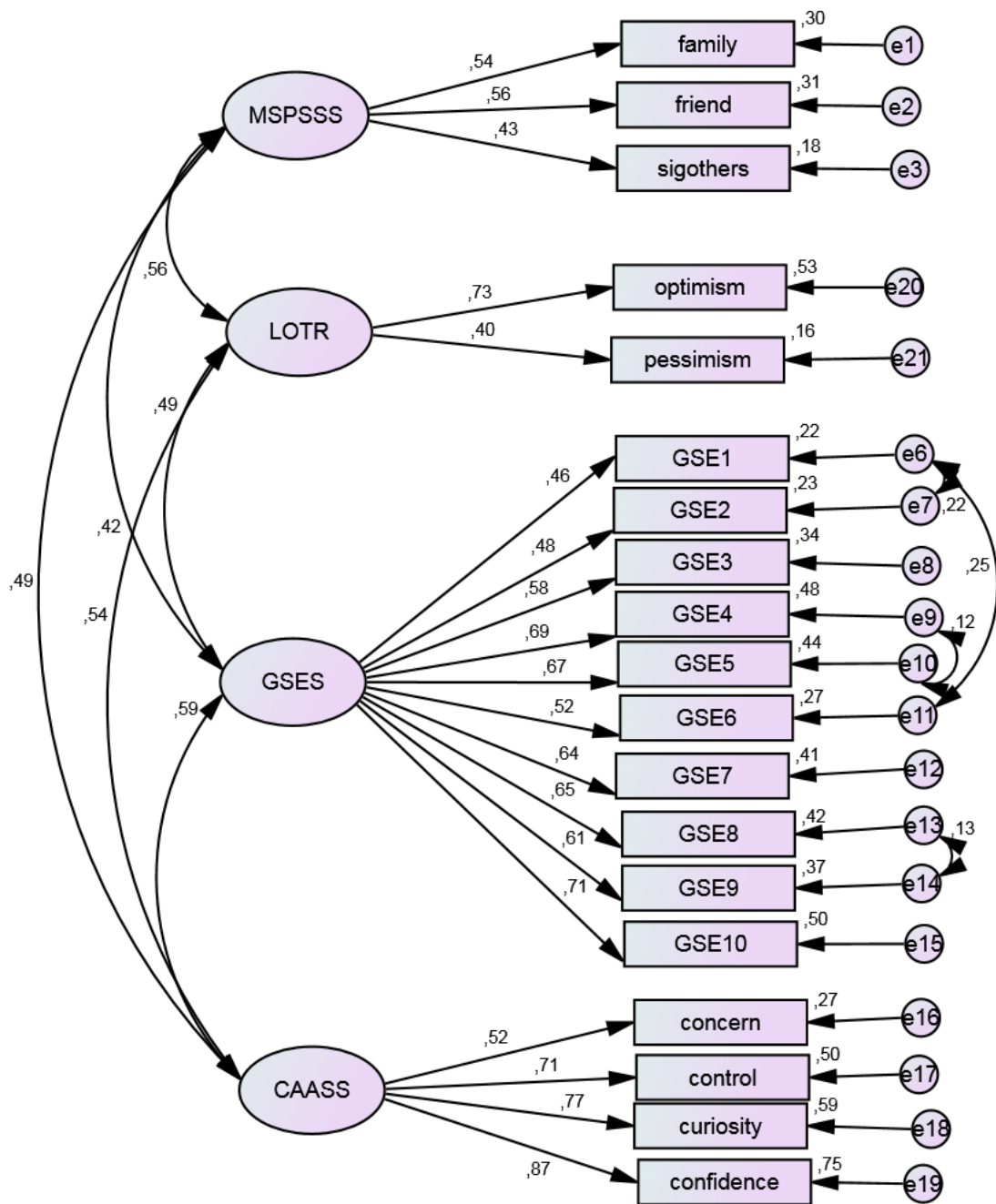


Figure 4.3 Measurement model with standardized estimates

Note: MSPSS: Multi Dimension of Perceived Social Support, Family-Friend-Private: Subscales of MSPSS, LOT-R: Life Orientation Test-Revised, Opt: Optimism Subscale of LOT, Pes: Pessimism Subscale of LOT, GSE: General Self-Efficacy Scale, GSE1-GSE10: Items of GSE, CAAS: Career Adapt-Abilities Scale, Concern-Control, Curiosity, Confidence: Subscales of CAAS

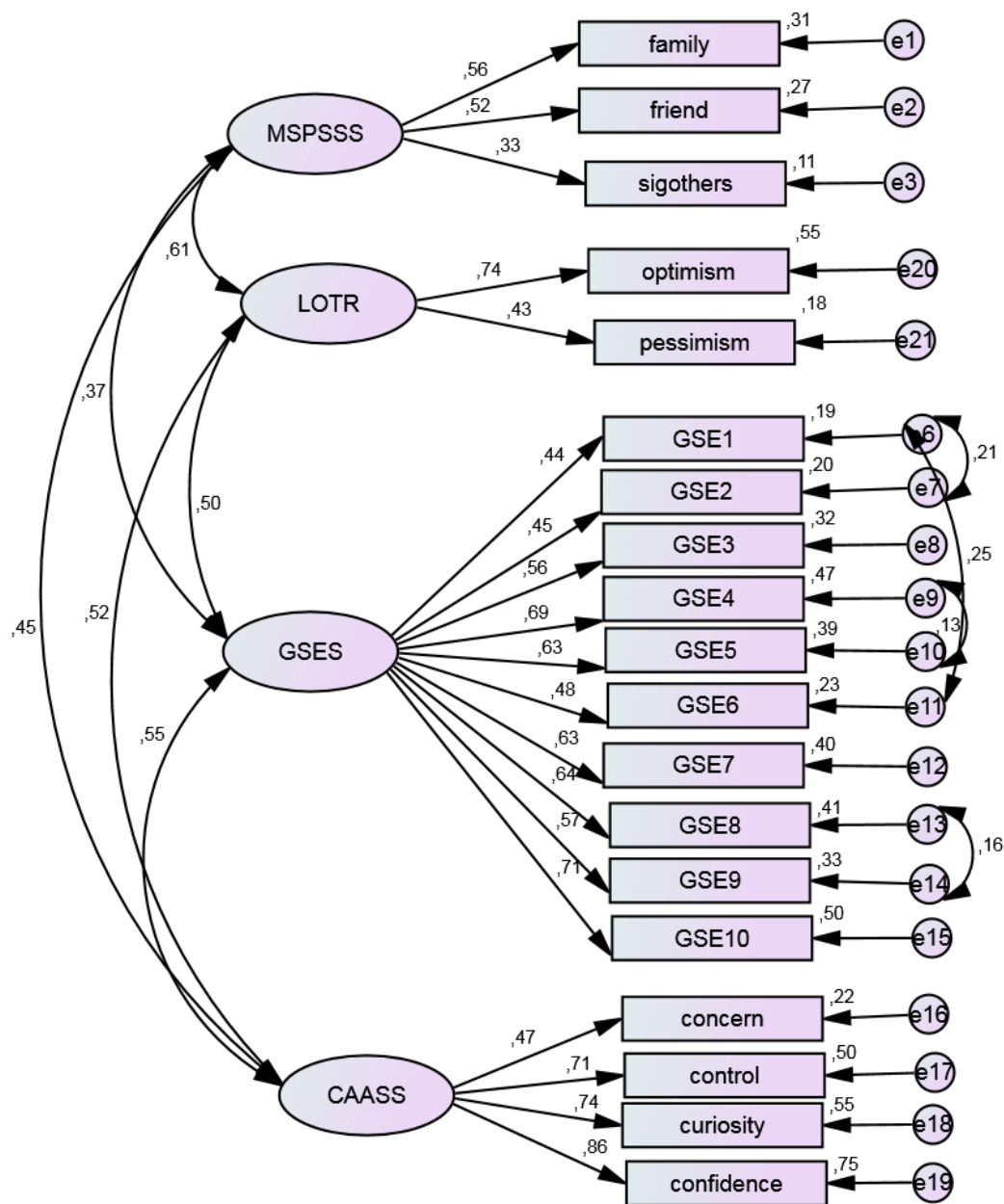


Figure 4.4 Measurement model for public high school group: Standardized regression weights, squared multiple correlations and latent factor correlations

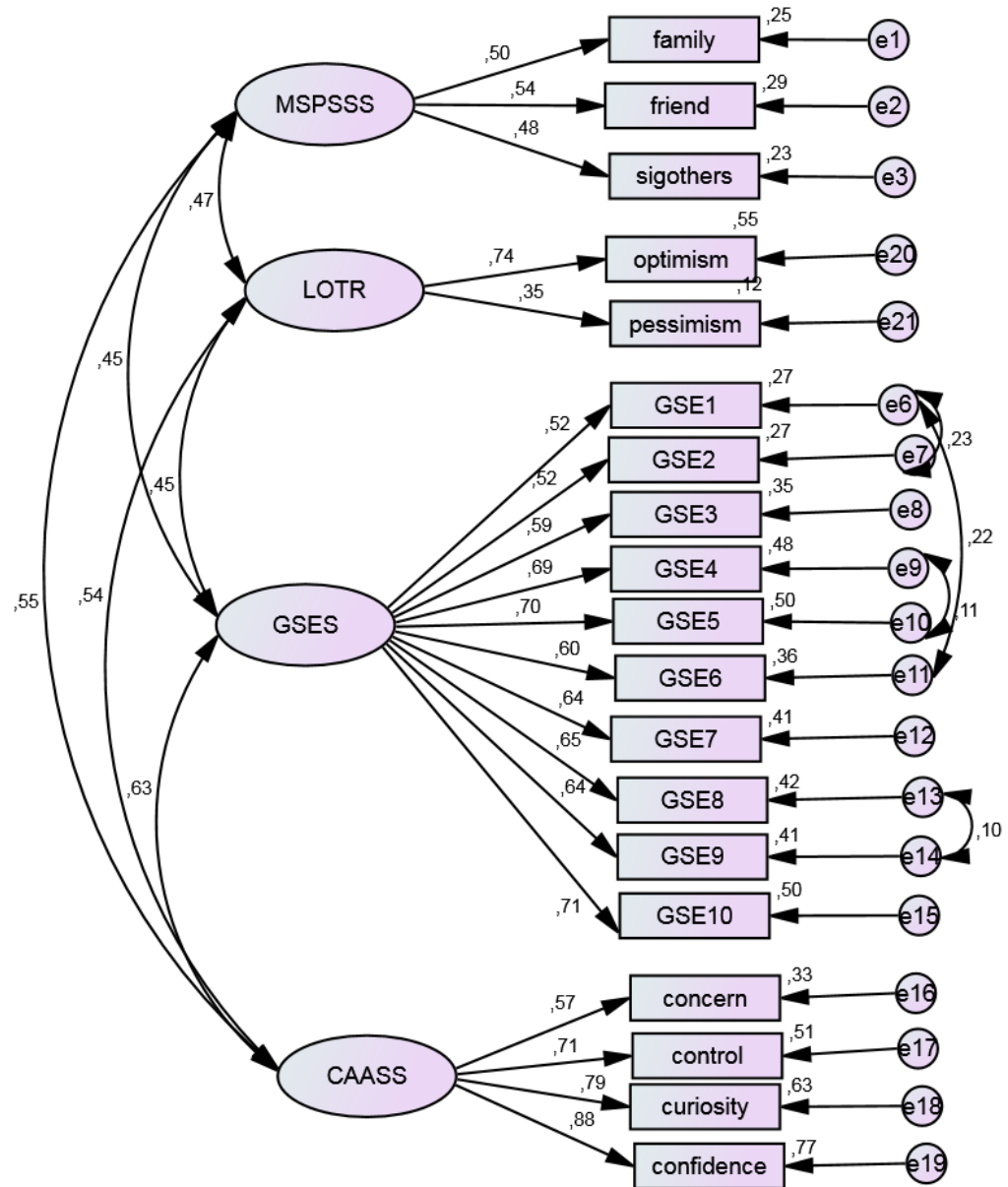


Figure 4.5 Measurement model for private high school group: Standardized regression weights, squared multiple correlations and latent factor correlations

The last preliminary single group CFA employed with the private high school sample data ($n=748$) to check loose cross validation (see Figure 4.5) yielded fit indices for the hypothesized measurement model, $\chi^2 = 415.955$, $df = 142$, $\chi^2/df = 2.93$, $p = .00$; CFI = .94, TLI = .93, SRMR = .04, RMSEA = .05 (90% CI of .045 to .057), which suggested an approximate fit (Table 4.4). Hence, the model also proved the suggested relationships between variables for private high school group.

Table 4.4

The Results of Single Group Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Measurement Model

	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA
Full Sample	578.239	142	4.07	.95	.94	.04	.04
Public High School	353.203	142	2.49	.95	.94	.04	.04
Private High School	415.955	142	2.93	.94	.93	.04	.05

4.3.1.2 Multi-group confirmatory factor analyses

Multi-group confirmatory maximum likelihood factor analysis is used commonly for measurement invariance across different groups, interventions, conditions etc. (Chen, 2008; Koh & Zumbo, 2008). Thus, configural invariance and metric invariance for measurement equivalence were evaluated by multi group confirmatory factor analysis (MG- CFA) in the current study.

Configural invariance is confirmed by establishing a baseline model (unconstrained) and checking model fit as well as ensuring the same significant loadings in the groups (Hirschfeld & Brachel, 2014). It is the first step to meet measurement invariance between the groups being compared (Meredith, 1993). To compare hypothesized model fit with a baseline model, TLI and CFI that are expected to be

larger than .90 (Schumacker & Lomax (1996). The results of a MG- CFA administered to test configural invariance showed adequate fit, $\chi^2 = 769.169$, $df = 284$, $\chi^2/df = 2.71$, $p = .00$; CFI = .95, TLI = .93, SRMR = .04, RMSEA = .03 (90% CI of .030 to .035) (*see* Table 4.5); hence, the configural invariance was ensured. That is, the constructed baseline model was reliable and latent variables in both groups were similar.

In turn metric invariance, it is tested by assessing equivalence of indicator loadings and their corresponding factors between groups to ensure the equivalence of the responses to the items by the participants in the different groups (Dansie, 2011). After establishing metric model, a chi-square (χ^2) difference test is utilized to compare the results with those of the baseline configural model. It is expected that the $\Delta\chi^2$ test is not significant for establishing of metric invariance assumption (Thompson & Green, 2006; Widaman & Reise, 1997; as cited in Dansie, 2011, p. 87). The results of a MG-CFA administered to test metric invariance were, $\chi^2 = 797.953$, $df = 303$, $\chi^2/df = 2.63$, $p = .00$; CFI = .94, TLI = .94, SRMR = .04, RMSEA = .03 (90% CI of .029 to .035) (*see* Table 4.5). These results showed close approximate fit of model. When comparing the fit for configural and metric models, χ^2 difference indicated nonsignificant value, $\Delta\chi^2 (df\Delta = 19) = 28.78$, $p = .07$. Thus, metric invariance was achieved.

Table 4.5

The Results of Multi Group Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Measurement Model

	$\chi^2/$	df	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA
<i>Multi Group</i>							
Configural Invariance	769.169	284	2.71	.95	.93	.04	.03
Metric Invariance	797.953	303	2.63	.94	.94	.04	.03

Apart from the model fit indices, standardized residual covariances were examined to validate measurement model. There were no any exceptional cases out of ± 4.00 as recommended by Field (2009).

Before going further for the SEM, it is suggested to investigate parameter estimates for model validation (Raykov, Tomer, & Nesselroade, 1991). To interpret the loadings of indicators on latent variables and compare group differences, the standardized regression weights and squared multiple correlations were utilized (Table 4.6).

Firstly, all of the loadings were statistically significant. As seen in Table 4. 6, the standardized regression weights were around .50 and above for both group, which refers large effect (Kline, 2005) except for significant others as a factor of multi-dimensional perceived social support and pessimism as a factor of life orientation test. This indicated also that factors and items of general self-efficacy loaded on their construct properly as well as being well estimated. Secondly, the squared multiple correlations ranged from 11% to 75% for public high school group and from 12% to 77% for private high school group.

Correspondingly, it can be concluded that the standardized regression weights and the squared multiple correlations were slightly higher in most cases for the first group than those for the second group.

Overall, it could be inferred that the latent constructs in the model and factor loadings of those latent constructs were equivalent across school type.

Table 4.6

The Standardized Regression Weights (SRW) and Squared Multiple Correlations (SMC) in Measurement Model

Factors & Items	Public High School		Private High School	
	SRW	SMC	SRW	SMC
FAMILY ---> MSPSS	.56	.31	.51	.26
FRIEND --->MSPSS	.52	.27	.54	.29
SIG. OTHERS ---> MSPSS	.33	.11	.48	.23
OPT ---> LOT-R	.74	.55	.74	.55
PES --->LOT-R	.43	.18	.35	.12
GSE1 ---> GSE	.44	.19	.52	.27
GSE2 ---> GSE	.45	.20	.52	.27
GSE3 ---> GSE	.56	.32	.59	.35
GSE4 ---> GSE	.69	.47	.69	.48
GSE5 ---> GSE	.63	.39	.70	.50
GSE6 ---> GSE	.48	.23	.60	.36
GSE7 ---> GSE	.63	.40	.64	.41
GSE8 ---> GSE	.64	.41	.65	.42
GSE9 ---> GSE	.57	.33	.64	.41
GSE10 ---> GSE	.71	.50	.71	.50
CONCERN --->CAAS	.47	.22	.57	.33
CONTROL --->CAAS	.71	.50	.71	.51
CURIOSITY--->CAAS	.74	.55	.79	.63
CONFIDENCE--->CAAS	.87	.75	.88	.77

Note: MSPSS: Multi-Dimension of Perceived Social Support, Family-Friend-Private: Subscales of MSPSS, SIG. OTHERS: Significant Others Dimension of MSPSS, LOT-R: Life Orientation Test, Opt: Optimism Subscale of LOT, Pes: Pessimism Subscale of LOT, GSE: General Self-Efficacy Scale, GSE1-GSE10: Items of GSE, CAAS: Career Adapt-Abilities Scale, Concern-Control, Curiosity, Confidence: Subscales of CAAS

4.3.1.3 Testing for structural invariance across groups

To investigate whether the hypothesized structural model is equivalent across groups -in other words, to test the invariance of all the paths across the groups- the structural invariance test is utilized (Byrne & Van De Vijver, 2010). As suggested by Byrne (1994), the “unconstrained” structural model was compared with the “fully constrained” model. While all path coefficients and factor loadings could vary across the groups in the unconstrained” structural model, all path coefficients are not allowed to vary, unlike they are equal in the groups, in the “fully constrained” model. The results of the unconstrained structural model resulted in $\chi^2(286) = 785.774$, $\chi^2/df = 2.75$, CFI = .94, SRMR = .04, and RMSEA = .03. However, the fully constrained structural model yielded the following values; $\chi^2(306) = 823.721$, $\chi^2/df = 2.69$, CFI = .94, SRMR = .04, and RMSEA = .03. Next, the comparative fit indices difference test (Δ CFI) was evaluated as sample size was large as suggested by Cheung and Rensvold (2002). It was reported that the value smaller than or equal to .01 shows group indifference (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). The change in comparative fit index (Δ CFI = .002) did reveal a non-significant difference between the unconstrained and constrained-equal models.

Overall, the results implied that the structural model did not vary across school type according to change in CFI as suggested by Cheung and Rensvold (2002). Thus, the hypothesized structural model was tested by a single group structural equation modeling on whole data, assuming invariance between public and private high school groups.

4.3.2 Structural model

A single-sample Structural Equation Modeling was administered to investigate the direct and indirect associations among person-related variables (optimism and general self-efficacy), environmental-related variable (perceived social support), and career adaptability. Subsequently, it was investigated that how much variance in the

mediator and outcome variables were explained by the model by evaluating the squared multiple correlation coefficients for whole group.

According to the hypothesized and tested structural model illustrated in Figure 4.6, the direct associations of optimism and perceived social support (as exogenous variables) on general self-efficacy (mediator and also as endogenous variable) and career adaptability (as endogenous variable) and the direct associations of general self-efficacy (mediator variable) on career adaptability (endogenous variable) were analyzed.

Furthermore, the indirect associations of perceived social support (exogenous variables) and optimism (measured by life orientation test) on career adaptability (endogenous variable) via general self-efficacy (mediator variable) were analyzed.

4.3.2.1 Model Testing

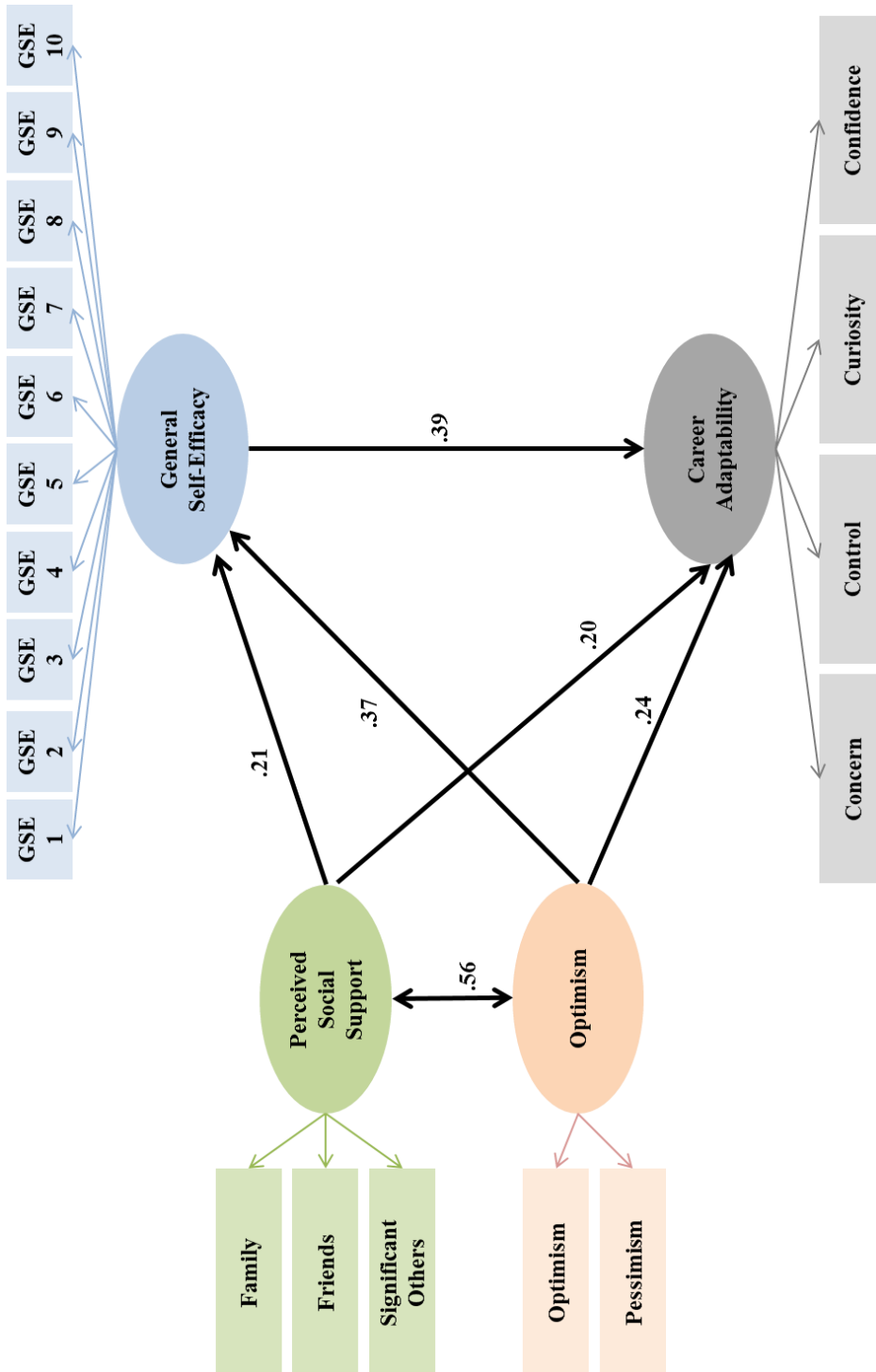
The hypothesized model tested with a single group structural equation modeling. The results were summarized in Table 4.7.

As seen in Table 4.7, the chi-square was significant, $\chi^2 (142) = 578.24$, ($p < .001$) and normed chi square had acceptable value as 4.07 (< 5). In a similar vein, the CFI and TLI were .95 and .94, respectively; SRMR = .04, and RMSEA = .04, which all of them showed approximate fit values and as a result hypothesized structural model fit.

Table 4.7

Summary of Model Fit Statistics for Hypothesized Model

Goodness of Fit Indices							
	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA
Proposed model	578.24	142	4.07	.95	.94	.04	.04



According to results, all paths were statistically significant. That is; the direct effects from exogenous variables to mediator and to endogenous, from mediator to endogenous variable were significant. The regression coefficients ranged from .20 to .39, meaning small to medium in effect size. In addition, the relationship between perceived social support and optimism was positive ($r = .56$, $n = 1610$, $p < .01$). The standardized parameter estimates were illustrated in Figure 4.6.

The squared multiple correlation coefficients (R^2) implied that while perceived social support and optimism accounted 27% of the variance in general self efficacy, the overall model accounted 46% of the variance in career adaptability.

4.3.2.2 Direct and indirect associations

The direct and indirect relationships between exogenous, mediator and endogenous variables and their significance statistically were examined by bootstrapping (set at 1000) and bias corrected bootstrap (BC) 95% confidence intervals. The bootstrap is a statistical method for resampling from the original to estimate standard errors and create the confidence intervals (Nevitt & Hancock, 2001). Bias-corrected (BC) method is a way for computing confidence intervals (Haukoos, Roger, & Lewis, 2005) and making inferences about the significance of the direct/indirect effects in path analysis (Lau & Cheung, 2010).

According to the results of the bootstrap statistic as illustrated in Table 4.8, all direct effects from exogenous variables to endogenous variable and to mediator variable were found as statistically significant. In particular, the direct effects of perceived social support ($\beta = .20$, $p < .05$) and optimism ($\beta = .24$, $p < .05$) on career adaptability were significant with a small to medium effect.

Table 4.8

Bootstrapped Results of Total, Indirect, and Direct Estimates

Paths	β	p	BC Interval
MSPSS → GSE	1.1.	1.2.	1.3.
Total	.21	.010	(.072, .324)
Direct	.21	.010	(.072, .324)
Indirect	-	1.4.	1.5.
LOT -R → GSE	1.6.	1.7.	1.8.
Total	.37	.001	(.263, .512)
Direct	.37	.001	(.263, .512)
Indirect	-		1.9.
MSPSS → CAAS	1.10.	1.11.	1.12.
Total	.28	.004	(.151, .397)
Direct	.20	.003	(.094, .298)
Indirect	.08	.009	(.028, .132)
LOT → CAAS	1.13.	1.14.	1.15.
Total	.39	.002	(.279, .500)
Direct	.24	.002	(.140, .347)
Indirect	.15	.001	(.102, .211)
GSE → CAAS	1.16.	1.17.	1.18.
Total	.39	.002	(.322, .458)
Direct	.39	.002	(.322, .458)
Indirect	-	1.19.	1.20.

Note. MSPSS= Multi-Dimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support; LOT-R = Life Orientation Test-Revised; GSE = General Self-Efficacy Scale; CAAS = Career Adapt-Abilities Scale. The bias corrected 95% confidence interval of estimates resulting from bootstrap analysis were reported for BC intervals

Additionally, perceived social support and optimism had statistically significant direct effects ($\beta = .21, p < .05$; $\beta = .37, p < .05$, respectively) as small to medium in effect on general self-efficacy as mediator variable. That is, high school students who perceive more social support from their parents, friends and significant others have higher career adaptability. In a similar manner, optimism have an influence on career adaptability. Speaking for the association with mediator variable, perceived social support and optimism contributed more to have general self-efficacy.

In turn, the indirect effects of perceived social support and optimism on career adaptability as endogenous variable through general self-efficacy as mediator were significant and positive ($\beta = .08, p < .05$; $\beta = .15, p < .05$), respectively. Interpretively, high school students who perceive more social support and were more optimist had higher general self-efficacy and thus more career adaptability.

4.3.2.3 Hypotheses testing

In this part, the hypotheses were tested in accordance with the results of analyses. As the proposed hypothesis on group differences was not supported, the results of single group structural equation modeling were reported. Considering both direct and indirect effects, all hypotheses were supported.

Hypothesis 1: There will be significant association between perceived social support and optimism (Path A). The results confirmed the Hypothesis 1 that optimism was related to perceived social support significantly and positively ($r = .56, n = 1610, p < .01$).

Hypothesis 2: Perceived social support will be significantly and directly related to career adaptability (Path B). The results validated the hypothesis on Path B ($\beta = .20, p < .05$). The relationship was significant and positive.

Hypothesis 3: Optimism will be significantly and directly related to career adaptability (Path C). The hypothesis was accepted. The relationship was significantly positive ($\beta = .24, p < .05$).

Hypothesis 4: Perceived social support will be significantly and directly related to general self-efficacy (Path D). As hypothesized, there was significant and positive relationship ($\beta = .21, p < .05$); hence the hypothesis was justified.

Hypothesis 5: Optimism will be significantly and directly related to general self-efficacy (Path E). The hypothesis was confirmed as the relationship was significantly positive ($\beta = .37, p < .05$).

Hypothesis 6: There will be a relation between general self-efficacy and career adaptability (Path F). Hypothesis 6 was verified. As hypothesized, the relationship was significant and positive and positive between general self-efficacy and career adaptability ($\beta = .39, p < .05$).

Hypothesis 7: Perceived social support will significantly and indirectly be related to career adaptability through general self-efficacy. The hypothesis was approved. The significant and positive indirect effect was revealed ($\beta = .08, p < .05$).

Hypothesis 8: Optimism will significantly and indirectly be related to career adaptability through general self-efficacy. The hypothesis was validated as the indirect effect was significant and positive ($\beta = .15, p < .05$).

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

In this chapter,, findings of the proposed model and hypothesis were discussed in the light of relevant literature first. Second, the theoretical and practical implications of the findings were presented. The chapter concluded with the recommendations for future research.

5.1 Discussion Regarding School Type

The present research that was conceptually framed by the career construction theory (Savickas, 2005) was conducted to test a model of career adaptability by using a sample from public and private high schools in Ankara. According to the results of multi-group structural equation modeling, which was employed to seek out the group differences on the hypothesized relationships between career adaptability, perceived social support, optimism, and general self-efficacy, the model did not differ according to the school type. School type taken as a variable in this study with the assumption that SES levels of families in these two different types of schools would vary. The parents in private schools in the current study were mostly from upper middle or upper class; parents from public schools were mostly from low and/or middle SES. The findings revealed that regardless of the school type or SES, the relationships in the hypothesized model did not change.

In the literature the relationship between socio-economic statuses yielded mixed results. Some researchers pointed out a link between SES and career adaptability (Blustein, 2002; McWhirter et al.,1996), yet some others did not (e.g. Eshelman, 2013).

Although the body of literature (e.g. Caro, 2009; Kerka, 1998; Osa-Edoh & Alutu, 2011; Rojewski, 1994) emphasized that individuals from different SES levels were unbalanced in terms of occupational development, career maturity or career adaptability. There were some research studies that showed insignificant influence of socio-economic status on career adaptability (e. g. Diemer & Hsieh, 2008; Eshelman, 2013). For instance, the results of Eshelman (2013)'s study yielded that SES did not predict career adaptability, yet it contributed to occupational aspirations and expectations. Similarly, in the study conducted by Tang and colleagues (1999) with Asian American university students, SES did not have any impact on career decision making self-efficacy of the students.

ERG (Education Reform Initiative) examined the 2012 PISA results and reported a strong association between socio-economic status (SES) and academic achievement in Turkey. It was also implied that students go different type of school according to their socio economic status. In Turkey, there was no research study investigating the influence of school type on career adaptability. However, the relationships between SES and career maturity and career decision making was examined frequently. In the relevant literature, there were studies that indicated when socio-economic status increases, the career development, career maturity and career decision making skills increase as well (e.g. Bacanlı et al., 2013; Sürücü, 2005; Yazar, 1997). On the other hand, there were some studies that did not demonstrate any significant association between SES and career maturity (e.g. Akbalık, 1991; Şahin, 2007; Zeren, 1999).

This result of the current study could be explained by how individuals see their occupations as an identity and as a way of getting respect from others (Kuzgun, 2000). Thus it could be speculated that for the adolescents regardless of their school type or SES, they might be motivated towards having a career with the belief that it will shape their future life, help them for being independent and respected by other people. Thus this situation might impact their career adaptability.

Moreover, the result might be explained by The Systems Theory Framework of Career Development (Patton & McMahon, 2006) that stated the characteristics of

individuals and environmental influences have an impact on career development. Thus the results of the current study indicated that the relationships among the study variables and the model did not change with respect to school type. In other words, social influences such as social support and individual characteristics such as optimism found to have more impact on career adaptability of adolescents than school type as an environmental factor.

5.2 Discussion Regarding Proposed Model and Hypothesis

Based on career construction counseling, a structural model was utilized in which perceived social support and optimism was assumed to have influence on career adaptability via general self-efficacy. Given the important theoretical and applied implications of determining the proposed relationships, the model was tested through a single group structural equation modeling after getting result about the model indifferences across public and private school groups. As literature indicated, there is a steady stream of empirical work on career adaptability and related variables such as life satisfaction, employment quality, locus of control, personality, hope etc (e.g. Koen et al., 2012; Öncel, 2014; Santilini et al., 2014; Zacher, 2014). However, there was no study to examine the associations between the variables of the current study in the literature.

The preliminary findings revealed from medium to strong relationships between the exogenous, mediator and endogenous variables. The strongest relationship was found between general self-efficacy and career adaptability. Congruently, general self-efficacy was notable predictor of career adaptability. In spite of the fact that the relationship between perceived social support and optimism has medium effect, it was the lowest among other associations yielded in preliminary analysis. Nonetheless, the correlation between these variables was large enough in the model.

When considering the hypotheses stated before, all direct effects were supported in the model. In addition, both indirect effects were supported. In the current study, findings indicated a significant and positive relationship between optimism and

social support. In other words, as the level of optimism of high school students increased as the perceived social support from their parents, friends and significant others increased. This finding was supportive of previous findings indicated that optimists perceive greater social support (Dougall et al., 2001; Park & Folkman, 1997). From opposite direction, the findings of Mavioglu and her colleagues (2015) illustrated that optimism could be influenced from environment though, it would show the relationship between these variables again. The buffering role of optimism and perceived social support together for rural adolescent was also reported (Tusaie-Mumford, 2001). To sum up, given the important theoretical foundation and applied implications, the present study followed this line of association between optimism and social support in predicting career adaptability.

Findings also showed a significant direct relationship between perceived social support and career adaptability. To clarify, high school students who perceived more social support from their parents, friends and significant others have higher level of career adaptability. The relationship between social support and career adaptability found in this study was validated by the previous studies that demonstrated influence of perceived social support on adolescents' vocational identity, career exploration, career decision making, career maturity (Flores & O'Brien, 2002; Geijsendorpher, 2008; Ketterson & Blustein, 1997; Olaosebikan & Olusakin, 2014; Ryan et al., 1996; Shin, 2010; Wall et al., 1999). In more particular, the present finding might be considered as a supportive continuation of the wisdom of Savickas and Porfeli (2012) that underlined career adaptability would change and improve with the influence of an individual's environment. For instance, Kenny and Bledsoe (2005) found that support from family, teachers and friends contributed to having higher career adaptability, which is also in line with the findings of the current study.

In the study of Creed and colleagues (2008) in which career adaptability was evaluated via career planning and self-exploration behaviors, while social support perceived from significant others was predictive of career planning and self-exploration, perceived social support from family and friends influenced self-exploration. Dietrich (2010) found that adolescents concerned career exploration

activities more when they were supported by their parents. Conversely, Tian and Fan (2014) found perceived social support from family influenced career adaptability. More recently, the results of Wang and Fu (2015)' study showed that positive social support promoted career adaptability. There are also some inconsistent results such as Yousefi and colleagues' showed a nonsignificant relationship between social support and career adaptability among Iranian students.

It could be implied that previous findings to large extend support the positive relationship between perceived social support and career adaptability. In Turkey, although there is no study exploring the association between career adaptability and social support, this result was somewhat similar with the research findings that showed positive relationship between social support and career maturity (e. g., Bozgeyikli et al., 2010; Saya et al., 2009; Ulaş & Yıldırım, 2015).

Another result of the study was verified positive and direct association between optimism and career adaptability. Clearly, optimists had higher career adaptability. This could be considered as a supportive finding of the previous studies within the context of the career construction theory implied that optimism should be enriched to improve adaptive resources of the students (Perera & McIlveen, 2014). In addition, this finding extended previous research (e.g. Aspinwall et al., 2001; Curbow et al., 1993; Fontaine, Manstead, & Wagner, 1993) about the influence of optimism on individuals' adaptation to changing and stressful situations due to their flexibility characteristics and positive reinterpretation strategies. Notably, the finding was consisted with the findings of Duffy (2010) and Rottinghaus (2004) that have documented the connection between optimism and career adaptability. Parallel to the findings of current study, Büyükgöze Kavas (2014) reported a significant positive association between optimism and career adaptability.

Similarly, perceived social support was found significantly and directly related to general self-efficacy. Thus the results proved significant and positive association between perceived social support and general self-efficacy. In other words, the high school students who perceived greater social support had higher general self-

efficacy. The present result was supported from theoretical perspective implying the influence of parents, peers, schooling and thus social support on general self-efficacy (Schunk & Meece, 2005). Given applied implications, Gibbons (2005) evidenced that positive association between perceived social support and general self-efficacy, meaning that the individuals as perceived social support increases their general self-efficacy increases as well.

Concurrently, optimism was significantly and directly related to general self-efficacy. The evidence from the present study was that general self-efficacy was related with optimism significantly and positively was similar to the findings of previous studies (e.g. Feldman & Kubota, 2015; Luthans et al., 2007; Stanculescu, 2014). In other words, high school students who had a high sense of optimism had greater general self-efficacy. There were a fair amount of research on the connection between optimism and general self-efficacy, which supported the hypotheses addressed here. While some of them showed relationship between them (e.g. Hulberti & Morrison, 2006; Prokopčáková, 2015; Zagórska and Guskowska, 2014; Zenger et al., 2013), another detected optimism as a predictors of efficacy beliefs (e.g. Rezaee 2013). Distinctively, it was reported moderate effect of optimism on self-efficacy in the study of Chemers, Hu, and Garcia (2001). With a variety of participants including university students, workers, teachers and high school students from Germany and Costa Rica, the relation of general self-efficacy with optimism was also found as significant and moderate (Luszczynska et al., 2005). In Turkey, although self-efficacy and optimism was investigated separately, limited research ensured the association between them, which were about psychological capital consisted of hope, resilience, self-efficacy and optimism in the area of Organizational Behavior (e. g., Bitmiş, 2015; Erkmen & Esen, 2012, 2013).

The presumed relationship between general self-efficacy and career adaptability was found significant and positive as hypothesized. Put it differently, more efficacious high school students had higher career adaptability. If this was the case, there were several research studies conforming this finding. From theoretical perspective, paying attention to the meaning of career adaptability, beliefs of self-efficacy might

be related to the sense of control and confidence to adapt changes or tasks of the world of work (Duffy, 2010). Although self-efficacy was investigated in career domain widely (e.g., Akdeniz, 2009; Creed, Patton, & Prideaux, 2006; Işık, 2010; Ochoa, 2011; Panagos & DuBois, 1999), relevant literature remained limited in terms of the association between career adaptability and general self-efficacy. In considering that career adaptability reflects adaptation skills to vocational developmental roles and tasks and work traumas, Morton and colleagues (2014) proved the role of optimism and self-efficacy on adaptation for managing to transition of first year university students. Accordingly, Pinquart et. al. (2002) illustrated the importance of self-efficacy on successful school to work transition and adaptation that would influence career development in the future. In particular, Angel (2012) reported high relationship between general self-efficacy and career adaptability. Seeing that Hirschi (2009) found that capability beliefs with other motivational variables predicted career adaptability, conforming the present study findings. The findings of the current study was also consisted with the result reported by Öncel (2014) who stated general self-efficacy was related with career confidence dimension of career adaptability. In addition, it was supported with the finding of Oğuz (2008) who submitted that general self-efficacy was the most important predictor of career maturity among the variables of decision making strategies, gender, class level and academic achievement. Consequently, it could be concluded that general self-efficacy might reinforce career adaptability.

With regard to indirect relationships in the proposed model, perceived social support was found significantly and indirectly related to career adaptability through general self-efficacy. That is, high school students perceived more social support had greater general self-efficacy belief, which in turn, had higher career adaptability.

Similarly, optimism was found significantly and indirectly related to career adaptability through general self-efficacy. The hypothesis was validated. In other words, the more optimist high school students were more efficacious and had higher career adaptability.

Taken together these two indirect associations, due to the lack of research on indirect effect of general self-efficacy with proposed variables, direct associations might give an inspiration. As the literature proved the direct relations of perceived social support and optimism with general self-efficacy and career adaptability, the indirect associations were validated as expected. These results are somewhat congruent with studies showing that self-efficacy as mediator variable between optimism and personality and career interests (Nauta, 2004), dispositional hope and proactive career behaviors (Hirschi, 2014). Likewise to the former, Keller and Whiston (2008) reported positive association between parental support and career decision-making self-efficacy, which accounted a small variance in career maturity. Likewise to the later, optimism and self-esteem was related career exploration and planning via career expectations and career goals (Patton et al., 2004).

Lastly, the results of the single-group structural equation modeling evidenced that the model fitted the data statistically. The proposed model accounted 30% of the variance in general self efficacy; whereas 47% of the variance in career adaptability.

Overall, not only that career construction theory is new in Turkey and there was not any research on the relations between social support, optimism, general self-efficacy and career adaptability. Save that, this was the first study investigating the proposed relationships based on career construction theory. The present findings extend the literature on career adaptability.

5.3 Implications for Practice

The present research was conducted to test a model of career adaptability by using a sample including public and private high school students in Ankara. This research affirmed that perceived social support and optimism attributed to career adaptability positively through general self-efficacy. The results of the study are expected to expand the body of knowledge in the career counseling field. Furthermore, offer implications for practice in underlining the role of optimism and social support in career counseling interventions regarding career adaptability..

Career adaptability helps individuals to succeed in developmental and vocational tasks and transitions (Creed et al., 2003; Savickas, 1997). In Turkey 12th grade is critical period in which students make a career decision that would enable their transition from high school to university. In this regard, the current study provided evidence regarding the contribution of person-related and environmental variables to career adaptability. This finding could offer a blueprint to counseling services in high schools while designing career education and training programs underlining that general self-efficacy have an important role for increasing career adaptability of students.

As suggested by Savickas (2012), three types of career helping procedures as vocational guidance, career education and career counseling could be utilized for individuals in the career construction theory. The results of the current study could be used in career education programs that aim to evaluate individuals' abilities, competencies and skills and then improve them. In this respect, career adaptability of students could be examined firstly and then it could be supported in the schools.

Another important finding of the current study was the influence of optimism on career adaptability. This finding could be open new roads to career education programs and career counseling interventions that could be designed by school counselors in several ways. Firstly, school counselors can assess the optimism levels of students and then provide individual and group counseling to foster the students who have lower level of optimism. Secondly, the other finding of the current study that there was higher relationship between optimism and social support could be taken into account. Although the direction of relationship between social support and optimism was out of the scope of this study, it was claimed that optimists perceived greater social support (Park & Folkman, 1997). In this sense, investigating students' social support perceived from their parents, friends, teachers or other significant others can be crucial to encourage students to improve optimism. The result of this study suggested that social support had an influence on career adaptability. Therefore, if social support perceived by the student is weak, it should be promoted along programs aimed to enhance career adaptability.

Overall, by going beyond activities for exploration of occupations and informing about universities, practitioners may proceed to implement training programs aimed to improve optimism, general self-efficacy and to promote perceived social support for increasing career adaptability. Furthermore, the findings of the current study suggested that these variables could be taken into account for all high school students regardless of school type.

Finally, the adaptation of Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS) and Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R) for high school students was another contribution of the study to the current literature. As career adaptability has been studied in Turkey most recently, it is expected that this instrument might be beneficial for school counselors to assess career adaptability level of high school students. In addition, although LOT-R has been used in the international literature, the LOT has been used in Turkey. The current study contributes to the literature through examining the psychometric properties of the LOT-R. Thus, LOT-R could be used for high school students hereafter in Turkey.

5.4 Recommendations

Several recommendations can be done on the basis of the current study for future research. Firstly, the career adaptability is a new construct in the career counseling literature in Turkey. Thus the findings of the present study should be interpreted carefully and supported with the findings of the future research.

Secondly, this study was the first to test the relations of the proposed variables. Thus, it is suggested to explore the influence of other exogenous variables such as personality, hope, career optimism as well as other mediators such as career decision making self efficacy, self-regulation, planfullness, which may make the model more fruitful.

Further on, longitudinal influences of career adaptability should be explored. For instance, students with low and high career adaptability should be followed in terms

of adaptation skills through the transition from school to university and from university to work, employment status, achievement in work, job and life satisfaction and well-being.

It also will be important for future researchers to pay attention in sampling. The sample of the current study included students from six private and six public high schools of Ankara. In the future, researchers could conduct further studies including participants from different school types such as Science High Schools, Vocational High Schools from different counties of Ankara.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Sample Items of Multi-dimensional Perceived Social Support

Çok Boyutlu Algılanan Sosyal Destek Ölçeği Örnek Boyutları

Aşağıda 12 cümle ve her bir cümle altında da cevaplarınızı işaretlemeniz için 1’den 7’ye kadar rakamlar verilmiştir. Her cümlede söylenenin sizin için ne kadar çok doğru olduğunu veya olmadığını belirtmek için o cümle altındaki rakamlardan yalnız bir tanesini daire içine alarak işaretleyiniz. Bu şekilde 12 cümlenin her birine bir işaret koyarak cevaplarınızı veriniz. Lütfen hiçbir cümleyi cevapsız bırakmayınız. Sizce doğruya en yakın olan rakamı işaretleyiniz.

1. Ailem ve arkadaşlarım dışında olan ve ihtiyacım olduğunda yanımda olan bir insan var.

Kesinlikle Hayır 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Kesinlikle Evet

4. İhtiyacım olan duygusal yardımı ve desteği ailemden alırım

Kesinlikle Hayır 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Kesinlikle Evet

6. Arkadaşlarım bana gerçekten yardımcı olmaya çalışırlar.

Kesinlikle Hayır 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Kesinlikle Evet

Appendix B: Sample Items of Life Orientation Scale-Revised

Gözden Geçirilmiş Yaşam Yönelimi Testi Örnek Maddeleri

Aşağıda 10 cümle verilmiştir. Her cümleyi dikkatle okuyarak beşli ölçek üzerinde size uygun olan dereceği işaretleyiniz. “Doğru” ya da “Yanlış” cevap söz konusu değildir.

0	1	2	3	4
Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum

1. Ne olacağının önceden kestirilemediği

(0) (1) (2) (3) (4)

durumlarda hep en iyi sonucu beklerim

3. Bir işimin ters gitme olasılığı varsa
mutlaka ters gider.

(0) (1) (2) (3) (4)

5. Arkadaşlarımla birlikte olmaktan
hoşlanırım.

(0) (1) (2) (3) (4)

5. Yapacak bir şeylerimin olması benim
için
önemlidir.

(0) (1) (2) (3) (4)

10. Genel olarak, bana kötü şeylerdense
hep iyi şeylerin olacağını beklerim.

(0) (1) (2) (3) (4)

Appendix C: Sample Items of General

Self-efficacy Scale

Genel Öz Yeterlilik Testi Örnek Maddeleri

Aşağıda bazı düşünceleri içeren ifadeler yer almaktadır. Bu ifadelere katılma derecenizi “Tamamen yanlış”, “Çoğunlukla yanlış”, “Çoğunlukla doğru” ve “Tamamen doğru” seçeneklerinden size en uygun olanı işaretleyiniz. Lütfen hiçbir maddeyi boş bırakmayınız.

	Tamamen Yanlış	Çoğunlukla Yanlış	Çoğunlukla Doğru	Tamamen Doğru
1. Yeterince çaba harcarsam, zor sorunları çözmenin bir yolunu daima bulabilirim.	()	()	()	()
4. Beklenmedik olaylarla etkili bir biçimde başa çıkabileceğime inanıyorum.	()	()	()	()
6. Gerekli çabayı gösterirsem, birçok sorunu çözebilirim.	()	()	()	()
7. Bir sorunla karşılaştığımda, genellikle birkaç çözüm yolu bulabilirim.	()	()	()	()
10. Önüme çıkan zorluk ne olursa olsun, üstesinden gelebilirim.	()	()	()	()

Appendix D: Sample Items of Career Adapt-abilities Scale

Kariyer Uyum Yetenekleri Ölçeği Örnek Maddeleri

Kariyerimizi inşa ederken her birimizin güçlü olduğu bazı yönler vardır. Hiç kimse her şeyde birden çok iyi değildir. Kimi insanlar bazı güçlü yanları üzerinde diğer insanlara göre daha fazla dururlar. Siz de lütfen, aşağıdaki ölçekte belirtilen yeteneklerden her birinde ne ölçüde güçlü hissettiğinizi ilgili sütunu işaretleyerek (X) değerlendiriniz.

1.21.	Çok Güçlü	Gayet	...	Güçlü	Az Güçlü	Güçlü Değil
Güçlü Yanlar	5	4	3	2	1	
1. Geleceğimin nasıl olacağı konusunda	()	()	()	()	()	
3. Gelecek için hazırlık yapma	()	()	()	()	()	
8. Kararlarımı kendi başıma verme	()	()	()	()	()	
10. İnandığım şeylere bağlı kalma	()	()	()	()	()	
15. Seçim yapmadan önce seçenekleri	()	()	()	()	()	
21. Yeni beceriler öğrenme	1.24.	1.25.	1.26.	1.27.	1.28.	

Appendix E: Middle East Technical University Human Subjects Ethics Committee Approval Letter

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

Prof. Dr. Canan Özgen
Sayı: 28620816/164-23/2-
1.04.2014

Gönderilen : Prof. Dr. Oya YERİN GÜNERİ
Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik

Gönderen : Prof. Dr. Canan Özgen
IAK Başkanı

İlişi : Etik Onayı

Danışmanlığını yapmış olduğunuz Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik
Bölümü öğrencisi Nurlen Karacan Özdemir'in "Kariyer Uyum
Yeterliliği, Kariyer Kararı Öz-Yeterlilik Ölçeği ve Öz-Düzenleme
Ölçeğinin Lise Öğrencileri için Adaptasyon Çalışmalarının Yapılması"
isimli araştırması "İnsan Araştırmaları Komitesi" tarafından uygun
görüldükçe gerekli onay verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Etik Komite Onayı
Uygundur
1/04/2014

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

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

Prof. Dr. Canan Özgen
Sayı: 28620816/35-78
23.01.2015

Gönderilen : Prof. Dr. Oya Yerin Güneri
Eğitim Bilimleri

Gönderen : Prof. Dr. Canan Sümer
IAK Başkan Vekili

İlişi : Etik Onayı

Danışmanlığını yapmış olduğunuz Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik
Bölümü öğrencisi Nurlen Karacan Özdemir'in "Yüksek ve Düşük
Sosyo-Ekonomik Düzeydeki Lise Öğrencilerinin Kariyer Uyum
Yeteneklerini Etkileyen Faktörlerin Karma Araştırma Yöntemi ile
Belirlenmesi" isimli araştırması "İnsan Araştırmaları Komitesi"
tarafından uygun görüldükçe gerekli onay verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Etik Komite Onayı
Uygundur
23/01/2015

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

Appendix F: Multi-dimensional Perceived Social Support Permission Letter

<http://gzimet.wix.com/mspss>

The Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS) is a brief research tool designed to measure perceptions of support from 3 sources: Family, Friends, and a Significant Other. The scale is comprised of a total of 12 items, with 4 items for each subscale. My colleagues, Nancy Dahlem, Sara Zimet, Gordon Farley, and I (Gregory Zimet) first published on the MSPSS in the Journal of Personality Assessment in 1988.

Across many studies, the MSPSS has been shown to have good internal and test-retest reliability, good validity, and a fairly stable factorial structure. It has been translated into many languages, including Urdu, Hebrew, Tamil, Danish, Farsi (Persian), French, Italian, Korean, Lithuanian, Hausa, Norwegian, Simplified Chinese, Traditional Chinese, Slovene, Malay, Slovak, Spanish, Swedish, Polish, Portuguese, Romanian, and Thai

The MSPSS is free to use. Please simply credit the following paper (and any others that are relevant), if you use the scale:

Zimet GD, Dahlem NW, Zimet SG, Farley GK. The Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support. Journal of Personality Assessment 1988;52:30-41.

Appendix G: Life Orientation Test-Revised Permission Letter

gönderen: **Michael F. Scheier** <scheier@cmu.edu>

alıcı: Nurten Karacan <karacan.nurten@gmail.com>

tarih: 5 Ocak 2015 21:52

konu: Re: About L.O.T

You have my permission to use the scale, but you should use the LOT-R. A copy is attached.

--Michael F. Scheier, Ph.D.

Professor of Psychology

Department of Psychology

Baker Hall 335-F

Carnegie Mellon University

Pittsburgh, PA 15213

On Jan 2, 2015, at 7:12 AM, Nurten Karacan <karacan.nurten@gmail.com> wrote:

Dear Michael Scheier,

My name is Nurten Karacan Ozdemir. I am a Ph.D student at Middle East Technical University, Program of Guidance and Psychological Counseling in Ankara Turkey. I am also a middle school counselor at Middle East Technical University Development Foundation School. I passed qualifying exam in November 2012 and currently at the stage of dissertation. I am very much interested career counseling. I will examine the impact of the optimism (and some other variables such as general self efficacy) on the career adaptability level of high school students. While reviewing the literature I found out that LOT. I am willing to use this scale for my dissertation. I would be very much pleased if you could let me know about your opinion regarding this matter.

Thank you so much for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Nurten Karacan Ozdemir,

Appendix H: General Self-efficacy Scale Permission Letter

Documentation of the General Self-Efficacy Scale

8



Freie Universität Berlin, Gesundheitspsychologie (PF 10),
Habelschwerdter Allee 45, 14195 Berlin, Germany

Fachbereich Erziehungs-
wissenschaft und Psychologie
- Gesundheitspsychologie -

Professor Dr. Ralf Schwarzer
Habelschwerdter Allee 45
14195 Berlin, Germany

Fax +49 30 838 55634
health@zedat.fu-berlin.de
www.fu-berlin.de/gesund

Permission granted

to use the General Self-Efficacy Scale for non-commercial research and development purposes. The scale may be shortened and/or modified to meet the particular requirements of the research context.

<http://userpage.fu-berlin.de/~health/selfscal.htm>

You may print an unlimited number of copies on paper for distribution to research participants. Or the scale may be used in online survey research if the user group is limited to certified users who enter the website with a password.

There is no permission to publish the scale in the Internet, or to print it in publications (except 1 sample item).

The source needs to be cited, the URL mentioned above as well as the book publication:

Schwarzer, R., & Jerusalem, M. (1995). Generalized Self-Efficacy scale. In J. Weinman, S. Wright, & M. Johnston, *Measures in health psychology: A user's portfolio. Causal and control beliefs* (pp.35-37). Windsor, UK: NFER-NELSON.

Professor Dr. Ralf Schwarzer
www.ralfschwarzer.de

Appendix I: Career Adapt-abilities Scale Permission Letter

gönderen: **Mark Savickas** <ms@neomed.edu>

alıcı: Nurten Karacan <karacan.nurten@gmail.com>

tarih: 8 Ekim 2013 16:41

konu: RE: The Turkish Form of Career Adapt-abilities Scale for High School Students

gönderen: neomed.edu

Permission granted.

Mark Savickas

From: Nurten Karacan [karacan.nurten@gmail.com]

Sent: Tuesday, October 08, 2013 7:38 AM

To: Mark Savickas

Subject: The Turkish Form of Career Adapt-abilities Scale for High School Students

Dear Prof. Savickas,

I've connected with you before I hope you remember. I offered a proposal for my dissertation titled as "The effect of career construction program on career adaptability levels of 11th grade students" last term. I will conduct an experimental design including training and waiting list control group with pre-test and post-test measurements. I consider adapt your Career Adapt-abilities Scale again because there are four items excluded from the scale that was adapted to Turkish in the past. Also because the scale had been adapted for vocational university students I want to adapt again for high school students if you permit me.

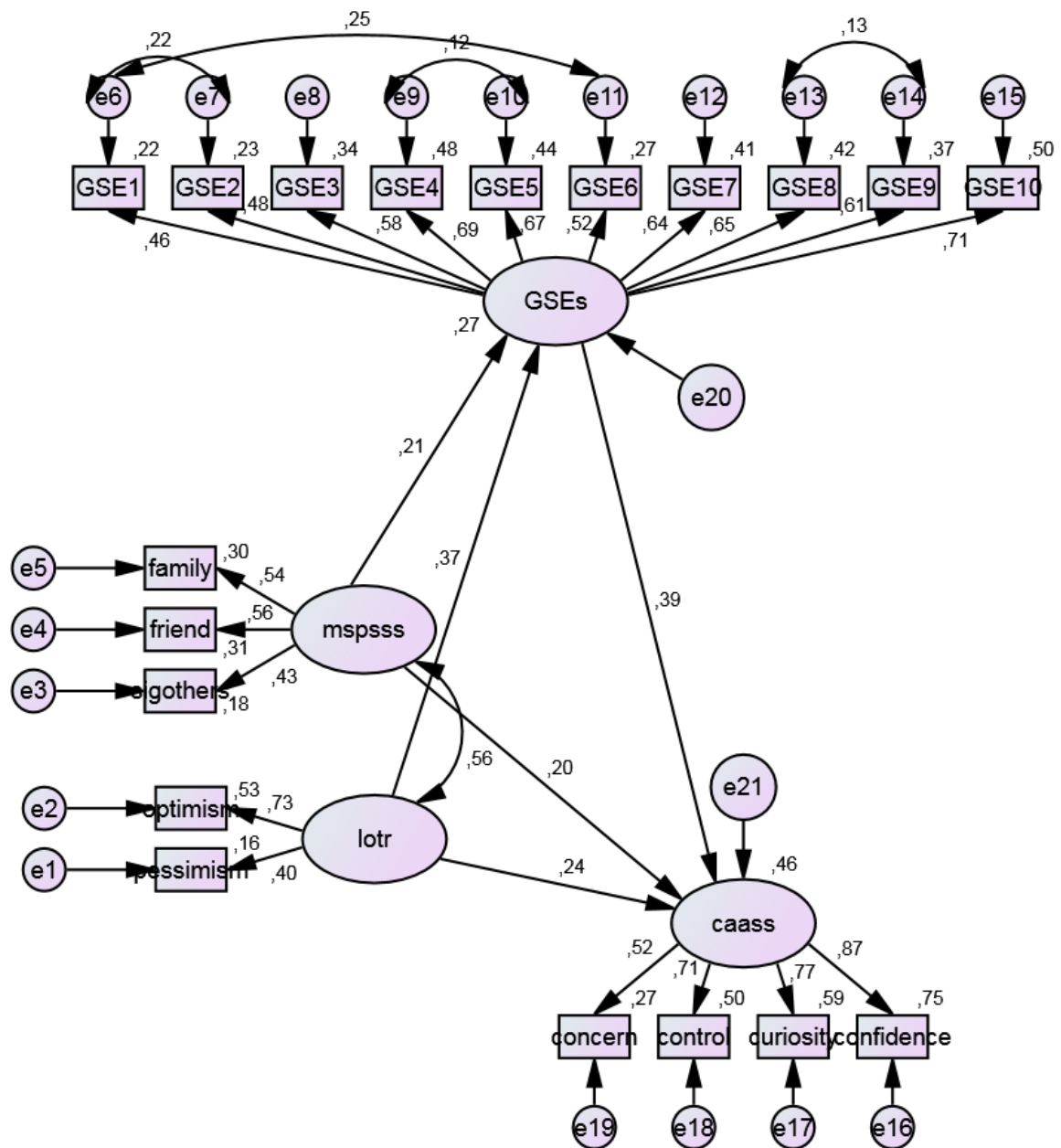
I would be very much pleased if you could give me a permission letter for adaptation.

Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,

Nurten Karacan Ozdemir,

Appendix J: Hypothesized Structural Model with Standardized Estimates



Appendix K: Turkish Summary

TÜRKÇE ÖZET

LİSE ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN KARIYER UYUM YETENEKLERİNİ YORDAYAN FAKTÖRLER

1. GİRİŞ

Hangi mesleği seçeceğimiz ya da büyüyünce ne olacağımız çocuklukta bize en sık yöneltilen sorular arasındadır. Günümüzde bu soruların cevabı biraz daha karmaşık hale gelmiştir. Çünkü artık “meslek seçimi” yerine “kariyeri yapılandırma” kavramı öne çıkmakta, tek seferlik bir seçimden ziyade kişilerin anlam arayışı ve yaşamlarına yön verme ihtiyaçlarına göre kariyerlerini bir ömür boyu biçimlendirmeleri önemli hale gelmektedir (Savickas, 2013).

Yapılandırmacı yaklaşıma dayalı kariyer yapılandırma kuramı, kişi ile iş dünyası arasındaki karşılıklı etkileşimi ve bunların birbirlerini ne ölçüde ve nasıl etkilediklerini anlamaya çalışır (Savickas, 2005). Kişi-çevre etkileşiminin yanı sıra, sosyal öğrenme, psikodinamik ve gelişimsel teorilerin bakış açılarını da kapması nedeniyle daha bütüncül bir kuram ve danışma yaklaşımıdır (Hartung ve Taber, 2008).

Yapılandırıcı kariyer danışmanlığının ortaya çıkışı, 21. yüzyılın getirdiği ani sosyal, teknolojik, ekonomik ve ahlaki değişimlerle olmuştur (Maree, 2014). Bu değişimlerle birlikte, kişinin kendi özellikleri ile mesleklerin özelliklerini eşleştirdiği yaklaşımların ötesinde, kişilerin birden fazla işle meşgul oldukları, geçici görevler veya proje bazlı çalışmalarla mobil çalışanlar haline geldikleri, organizasyonların

alıřanlarına iřte kalıcılık teminatı vermedikleri ve sınırları olmayan organizasyonların doęduęu gzlenmektedir (Savickas, 2011).

Bu deęiřimler, yařam boyu ęrenme ve deęiřen iř dnyasına uyum saęlama gereklilięini ortaya koymuřtur (Stoltz ve ark., 2013). rneęin, Arthur ve Rousseau (1996) gnmzde iř yapısının getirdięi deęiřimleri yakalayabilmek iin psikolojik ve evresel olarak aık fikirli olmanın nemini vurgulamıřtır. Benzer řekilde Savickas (2007) da, gnmzn deęiřen kořulları ve sıklաřan iř geiřleri karřısında kiřinin kendini yeniden yapılandırması gerektięini ve bu srete kendini merkezde tutmayı bařarabilmesi iin kiřisel yařamı ile kariyerini uyumlamanın zorunluluęunu vurgulamıřtır. Bu nedenle kiřiler, meslek semenin tesinde, kariyerlerini yařamlarının anlamı ve ynne gre znel bir řekilde yapılandırmaktadırlar (Savickas, 2013).

21. yzyılın deęiřimleri ile birlikte yapılandırmacı kariyer danıřmanlıęının atıęı yola duyulan ihtiya da artmıřtır. Yukarıdaki bilgilerden de grlebileceęi gibi, yapılandırmacı kariyer danıřmanlıęı sadece bir kariyerin yapılandırılmasına deęil, kiřinin yařamının anlam, ama ve ynn bulmasına yardımcı olarak yařamını řekillendirmesine olanak tanır (Bucassa, 2007). Bu yaklařım btncl, yařam boyu sren ve nleyici zelliklere sahiptir (Maree, 2010a; Savickas ve ark., 2009). Belirtilen bu nem ve katkılar ıřıęında, bu alıřmanın kuramsal erevesi yapılandırmacı kariyer kuramına dayanmaktadır.

Yapılandırmacı kariyer kuramı yapı, stratejiler, hikyeler ve stil olmak zere drt temel unsura dayanır (Hartung ve Taber, 2008). İlk olarak, yapı; kiřinin mesleki rolleri, aile ve toplumdaki dięer rollerini gsterir. Kiřinin yařamının anlam ve amacını fark etmesi ynnde desteklenmesi, yařamının yapısal kısmından daha fazla doyum almasını saęlar (Bucassa, 2007; Hartung ve Taber, 2008). İkinci olarak, stratejiler; kiřinin geliřimsel grevleri, hayatındaki geiřleri ve deęiřimleri ele almada kullandıęı bařa ıkma becerilerini gsterir. nc olarak hikye anlatımı; kiřinin meslek seiminin altında yatan motivasyonları belirlemek iin kiřiyi etkileyen

hikâyelerin anlatılmasına dayanır (Savickas, 2005). Aslında kişinin hikâyelerinde, yaşamına yön ve anlam veren yaşam temaları gizlidir (Savickas, 2002). Bu süreçte danışana, hikayelerin geçmişte başladığını ancak kendi seçimlerine göre gelecekte yapılandırılacaklarını göstermek gerekir (Fabio, 2012). Son olarak, stil/tip ise kişinin ilgi, yetenek ve mesleki kişilik tiplerini gösterir (Savickas, 2005). Ancak bu yaklaşımda mesleki kişilik, değişmez ya da sabit özelliklerden ziyade yapılandırılabilir ve düzenlenebilir kimliği gösterir. Bu nedenle, yapılandırmacı kariyer danışmanlığı sürecinin birlikte yapılandırma basamağında kişinin mesleki kişilik tipleri ortaya çıkarılmaya çalışılır. Ayrıca Holland'ın Mesleki Tercih Envanteri de bu amaçla kullanılabilir (Savickas, 2010).

Yukarıda değinilen dört unsurdan hareketle, yapılandırmacı kariyer danışmanlığı kişideki üç noktayı ortaya çıkarmaya ve geliştirmeye çalışır. Bunlar yapının ortaya çıkarılması ve hikâyelerin analiz edilmesi aracılığıyla belirlenmeye çalışılan “yaşam temaları”, “mesleki kişilik tipleri” ve başa çıkma becerileri anlamına gelen “kariyer uyum yeteneği”dir. Üçüncü unsur olan kariyer uyum yeteneği bu çalışmanın da konusunu oluşturmaktadır.

Kariyer uyum yeteneği, kişinin iş yaşamına uyumunu sağlayan tutumlarını, yeterliliklerini ve davranışlarını içerir (Usinger ve Smith, 2010). Super'ın mesleki olgunluk kavramını geliştiren ve güncelleyen Savickas (1997) kariyer uyumu kavramını öne sürmüştür. Bu kavram, kişinin, meslek seçimi gibi gelişimsel görevlerin, okuldan üniversiteye, üniversiteden iş yaşamına veya bir işten diğer işe çeşitli geçişlerde ve mesleki travmaların üstesinden gelmede kullandığı başa çıkma becerileri anlamına gelen psiko-sosyal bir kavramdır.

Kariyer uyum yeteneği ergenlikte de önemli bir kavram olarak öne çıkmaktadır. Kariyer uyum yeteneği yüksek olan ergenlerin, bu süreçte karşılaşacakları gelişimsel ve mesleki görevleri ve geçişleri yönetebilmede daha başarılı olacakları belirtilmiştir (Creed ve ark., 2003; Patton ve Creed, 2007; Savickas, 1997). Özetle, kariyer uyum yeteneği kariyer gelişimi ve hazırlığı açısından önemli bir beceridir (Hirschi, 2009).

Kariyer uyumu dört boyuttan oluşur. Bunlar; ilgi, kontrol, merak ve güven olarak adlandırılabilir (Porfeli ve Savickas, 2012). İlk olarak kariyer ilgisi gelecekteki mesleki fırsatlar ve seçeneklerin farkında olunması ile ilgilidir (Fouad ve Bynner, 2008; Savickas, 2005). Ergenlerin kariyer ilgisini ortaya çıkarmaları yönünde desteklenmeleri, onların geleceğe bakmalarına ve geleceklerini şekillendirmelerine yardımcı olacaktır. İkinci olarak, kariyer kontrolü kişinin kariyeri ile ilgili konularda karar verebilme yeterliliğine ve kararlılığına sahip olması anlamına gelir (Koen ve ark., 2012). Ergenler kontrol becerisine sahip olduklarında mesleki karar verme süreçlerinin üstesinden daha kolay gelebileceklerdir. Kariyer merakı, kişinin kendisi ve kariyer fırsatları hakkında araştırmalar yapmasını içerir. Kariyer merakı olan kişi hem kendi ilgi, yetenek, değer vb. hem de işlerin gereklilikleri, özellikleri, rutinleri, ödülleri vb. hakkında daha fazla farkındalık kazanmaya yönelik çevresel ve deneyimsel fırsatları araştırmaya başlar (Savickas, 2013). Ergenler de meslek seçimi sürecine hazırlanabilmek için hem kendileri hem de iş dünyası hakkında daha fazla bilgiye ihtiyaç duyarlar. Son olarak kariyer güveni, kendine güveni, öz-yeterliliği ve kendini kabulü artırmak için harekete geçmeyi içerir (Savickas, 2013). Böylece kişiler mesleki problemlerin üstesinden gelmede kendilerini daha yeterli hissederler (Koen ve ark., 2012). Kariyer güvenine sahip ergenler geleceklerini şekillendirmede daha cesur adımlar atabilirler. Bütün bu boyutların kazanımı, kariyer ilgisinin kontrolü, kontrolün merakı, merakın güveni tetiklemesi yolu ile olur. Sonuç olarak kariyer uyumu, kariyer kararı verme süreçlerini yönetmede ve iş dünyasının getirdiği değişimlere ayak uydurmada gerekli, yaşam boyu ihtiyaç duyulacak bir beceridir (Savickas, 1997).

Kariyer uyumu pek çok kişisel ve çevresel değişkenlerle ilişkilidir. Örneğin, yüksek öz-yeterlik inancına sahip olma kariyer uyumunu artırmaktadır (Örn, Creed ve ark., 2007; Hirschi, 2009). Öz-yeterlik, kişinin performansını belirleyen, kendisi hakkındaki beklentileri ve inançları olarak tanımlanabilir. Bu beklenti ve inançlar, kişinin zorluklarla karşılaştığında bunların üstesinden gelmek için göstereceği çabanın miktarını ve sürekliliğini belirler (Bandura, 1977). Bir diğer deyişle, yüksek yeterlik inancı olan kişiler zorluklardan kaçmak yerine onlarla mücadele etmeyi göğüslerler (Farrar, 2009; Wentzel, 2013). Öz-yeterlik inancı, kişilerin seçimleri ve

kişisel gelişimleri üzerinde de etkiye sahiptir (White ve Bowers, 2008). Bu bağlamda, öz-yeterlik kariyer uyum yeteneğinin bir unsuru (Lent ve ark., 1994) ve ergenlerin mesleki karar verme süreçlerinde kolaylaştırıcı bir faktördür (Arbona, 2000).

Mesleki seçim ve karar verme süreçlerine giren ergenler için bu süreç stres yaratır (Shapiro, 2005) ve bu nedenle çevrelerinden alacakları sosyal desteğe ihtiyaç duyarlar (Viviano, 2014). Tree (2009) çevrelerindeki farklı kaynaklardan sosyal destek aldıklarını algılayan kişilerin kendilerini değerli ve kabul edilmiş hissettiklerini belirtmiştir. Ergenler ise sosyal desteği ailelerinden, arkadaşlarından, okuldan olduğu kadar eğitimsel ve mesleki kurum ve kuruluşlardan da almaktadırlar (Weisenberg ve Aghakhani, 2007). Destekleyici bir çevre ve ilişkiler, özellikle eğitimsel alanlarda ve kariyer gelişimi boyunca karşılaşılan güçlüklerin üstesinden gelmede uyum becerilerini geliştirici bir role sahiptir (Kenny ve Bledsoe, 2005). Ayrıca sosyal destek, kariyer hazırlığı için ergenlere bilgi ve tavsiye sunarak bir kaynak görevi görür (Kracke, 2002). Kariyer kararı verme süreçlerini inceleyen çalışmalarda, ergenlerin kararlarını kendilerinin verdikleri, ancak ailenin ve önemli diğer kişilerin nihai karar üzerinde etkileyici role sahip oldukları görülmüştür (Gati ve Saka, 2001). Özet olarak, kendi ve meslekler hakkında araştırmalar yapma, gelecek için hazırlanma ve kariyer kararı verme gibi konuların kariyer uyum becerilerini oluşturduğu göz önünde bulundurularak sosyal desteğin kariyer uyumu üzerinde etkili olduğu belirtilmiştir (Creed ve ark., 2009).

Kariyer uyum yeteneği ile ilişkili bir diğer değişken ise iyimserliktir. İyimserlik, kariyer yolculuğu boyunca kişilerin istekli ve sürekli bir şekilde öğrenmelerini, kariyer seçimleri konusunda doyum yaşamalarını ve kariyerlerinde başarılı olma konusunda kendilerine güven duymalarını sağlayan önemli bir değişkendir (McIlveen, Beccaria ve Burton, 2013). İyimserlik iyi şeylerin olacağına ve olumlu sonuçlar elde edileceğine dair inanç ve beklentileri içermektedir (Scheier ve Carver, 1985). İyimser kişilerin kariyerleri konusunda hedefler koydukları, bunlarla ilgili pozitif sonuçlar bekledikleri ve bunlara ulaşmak için harekete geçtikleri dikkat

çekmektedir (Patton, Bartrum ve Creed, 2004). Ayrıca, iyimser kişilerin kariyer değişimleri karşısında daha esnek olabildikleri belirtilmiştir (Chatterjee, 2013).

Bu üç değişkenin birbiri ile ilişkisi Greenglass'ın (2002) modelinde şu şekilde sunulmuştur: İçsel kaynaklar olan öz-yeterlik ve iyimserlik ile dış bir kaynak olan sosyal destek arasında olumlu bir ilişki vardır. Çeşitli araştırmalar da benzer bağlantıları öne sürmüşlerdir. İyimserliğin öz-yeterlik ile olumlu yönde ilişkisi belirtilirken (Kennedy, 2012), öz-yeterliğin sosyal destekle (Bandura, 1992, akt. Bruell, 2013) sosyal desteğin de iyimserlikle bağlantılı olduğu rapor edilmiştir (Allison ve ark., 2000).

Özetle, yapılandırmacı kariyer danışmanlığının ana hedeflerinden biri danışanın kariyer uyum yeteneğini geliştirmesine yardımcı olmaktır (Creed ve ark., 2008). Kariyer uyum yeteneği, ergenlerin mesleki gelişiminde önemli bir etkidir (Härtung, Porfeli ve Vondracek 2008). Kariyer uyumu yüksek ergenlerin kariyer geçişlerinin daha başarılı olduğu düşünüldüğünde (Hirschi, 2009), ergenlerin kariyer uyumunu artırmaya yönelik çalışmaların önemi daha iyi anlaşılabilir. Bu bağlamda, kariyer uyumu ile ilgili değişkenlerin belirlenmesinin kariyer uyumunu artırmaya yönelik programların ve kariyer danışmanlığının geliştirilmesine olumlu katkılar sağlayacağı umulmaktadır.

Bu çalışma kapsamında, algılanan sosyal destek ve iyimserlik kariyer uyum yeteneğinin yordayıcıları olarak düşünülmüştür. Öte yandan, genel öz-yeterliğin kariyer uyumunu artırmadaki rolü göz önünde bulundurularak, öz-yeterlik bu çalışmada önerilen modele ara değişken olarak eklenmiştir. Ayrıca, bu modelin okul türü değişkenine göre değişim gösterip göstermediği incelenmiştir. Hem Türkiye'deki hem de yurt dışındaki ilgili alan yazın incelendiğinde, kariyer uyum yeteneğini etkileyen bu değişkenleri ve ilişkilerini sıyan bir araştırmaya henüz rastlanmamıştır.

1.2 Araştırmanın Amacı

Çalışmada, yapılandırmacı kariyer kuramı çerçevesinde lise öğrencilerinin kariyer uyum yeteneğini yordayan bazı olası faktörleri araştırmak amaçlanmıştır. Çalışmanın amacı doğrultusunda, kariyer uyum yeteneğiyle algılanan sosyal destek, iyimserlik ve genel öz-yeterlik değişkenleri arasındaki yapısal ilişki ve bu değişkenlerin kariyer uyum yeteneğine katkıları araştırılmıştır. Araştırmada aşağıdaki sorulara yanıt aranmıştır.

1. Algılanan sosyal destek, iyimserlik ve genel öz-yeterlik değişkenleri ile oluşturularak önerilen model lise öğrencilerinin kariyer uyum yeteneğini ne ölçüde açıklamaktadır?
2. Önerilen model okul türüne göre farklılaşmakta mıdır?

1.3 Araştırmanın Hipotezleri

Yukarıda belirtilen sorulara cevap olması için aşağıdaki hipotezler test edilmiştir.

1. Algılanan sosyal destek ile iyimserlik arasında bir ilişki vardır.
2. Algılanan sosyal destek ile kariyer uyum yeteneği arasında bir ilişki vardır.
3. İyimserlik ile kariyer uyum yeteneği arasında bir ilişki vardır.
4. Algılanan sosyal destek ile genel öz-yeterlik arasında bir ilişki vardır.
5. İyimserlik ile genel öz-yeterlik arasında bir ilişki vardır.
6. Genel öz-yeterlik ile kariyer uyum yeteneği arasında bir ilişki vardır.
7. Algılanan sosyal destek ile kariyer uyum yeteneği genel öz-yeterlik aracılığı ile dolaylı olarak ilişkilidir.

8. İyimserlik ile kariyer uyum yeteneği genel öz-yeterlik aracılığı ile dolaylı olarak ilişkilidir.

1.4 Araştırmanın Önemi

Bugünün küresel ekonomisi ne çalışanlara iş garantisi sunmakta ne de işverenler için kalıcı çalışanın sürekliliğini garanti etmektedir (Spencer, 2011). Kişi ve mesleklerin eşleştirildiği geçmiş yaklaşımların aksine 21. yüzyılın yapılandırmacı paradigması, değişkenlik, belirsizlik ve süreklilik ile karakterize edilen iş dünyasının yeni koşullarını yönetebilme konusunda danışanlara yardım etmeyi amaçlar (Glavin ve Berger, 2012). Bu doğrultuda 21. yüzyılın gerçeklerinden yola çıkan yapılandırmacı kariyer yaklaşımı, kişilerin bu yüzyılın değişimleri ile başa çıkabilmelerine yardımcı olabilmek için, değişmeyen kişilik özelliklerinden ziyade yapılandırılabilir bir kimlik kavramına, karar vermek için hazır bulunuşluğu ifade eden olgunluk yerine hayat boyu gerekli olan uyum becerilerine, kararlılık yerine niyete, ölçme araçlarından elde edilen puanlar yerine psikodinamik yaklaşımla ele alınabilecek hikâyelere ve davranış yerine eyleme odaklanır (Savickas, 2011).

Gelişen ve değişen bu koşullar çerçevesinde ergenlikteki kariyer danışmanlığı çalışmalarının nasıl ele alınacağı da önemli bir konudur. Ergenlik dönemi yalnızca gelişimsel değişimlerin yaşanması açısından değil, aynı zamanda kişinin gelecekteki iyi-oluş halini ve yaşam kalitesini etkileyecek ilk mesleki kararların verilmesi açısından da önemlidir (Mann, Harmoni ve Power, 1989). Bu dönemde, gelişimsel görev olarak kimlik gelişimi öne çıkar (Erikson, 1968). Bütünsel kimliğin bir parçası olan mesleki kimlik ise, ergenin mesleki gelişim sürecinde kendini nasıl algıladığı ile ilgilidir ve bazı kritik geçişlerin yaşandığı ergenlik dönemi boyunca gelişimi devam eder (Stringer ve ark., 2011). Ergenlerin bu dönemde üstesinden gelmeleri gereken mesleki gelişim görevi ise ilgi, yetenek ve belirginleşen tercihlerine göre meslekler için hazırlanmaktır (Savickas, 2013). Bu noktada, ergenlerin kariyer hazırlıklarını destekleyici unsurlardan birisi de kariyer uyum yeteneğidir (Savickas, 1997).

Creed ve arkadaşları (2008) ergenlerin kariyer uyum yeteneğini desteklemenin, kariyer kararı verme süreçleri ile ilgili yaşayacakları kaygıyı azaltacağını belirtmişlerdir. Bu bağlamda, çocuk ve ergenlerin kariyer uyum yeteneğinin geliştirilmesi gençliğin topluma kazandırılması ve olumlu anlamda katkılarının sağlanması açısından önemlidir (Hirschi, 2009).

Türkiye’deki duruma bakıldığında, en önemli eğitimsel, mesleki kararların ve geçişlerin lise yıllarında yapıldığı görülebilir. Her ne kadar alan seçimi kaldırılmış olsa da, öğrenciler 10. sınıfta ağırlıklı olarak alacakları dersleri belirlemek için Türkçe-Matematik, Fen Bilimleri, Sosyal Bilimler ve Yabancı Diller arasından bir seçime gitmektedirler. Öğrenciler 12. sınıfta ise üniversite giriş sınavlarında aldıkları puana göre okuyacakları bölümü seçmektedirler ki, bu çoğu zaman ileride yapacakları mesleği seçmeleri anlamına gelmektedir. Geçmiş çalışmalar, kariyer uyum yeteneği desteklenen ergenlerin mesleki geçişlerin üstesinden gelmede daha başarılı olduklarını göstermiştir (Creed ve ark., 2003; Germeijs ve Verschueren, 2007; Patton, Creed ve Muller, 2002). Bu nedenle, ülkemizde lise öğrencilerinin kariyer uyum becerileri ile ilişkili değişkenlerin belirlenmesi, onlara sağlanacak kariyer danışmanlığı hizmetlerinin planlanması açısından önemlidir.

Aysan ve Totan (2009) Türkiye’de gençlerin gelecek odaklı danışma yaklaşımlarına ihtiyaç duyduklarını ve bu durumun da yapılandırmacı kariyer danışmanlığını daha etkili bir yaklaşım haline getirdiğini belirtmiştir. Türkiye’de yapılandırmacı kariyer danışmanlığı konusunda yapılan araştırmalar son derece sınırlıdır. Bunların arasında Aysan ve Totan’ın (2009) yapılandırmacı kariyer danışmanlığının Türkiye’de uygulanabilirliğine dair yaptıkları nitel bir çalışma bulunmaktadır. Ancak diğer araştırmaların çoğunluğu Kariyer Uyum Yeteneği Ölçeği’nin uyarlanmasına dayalı çalışmalardır (Büyükgöze-Kavas, 2015; Kanten, 2012; Öncel, 2014; Yücel ve Polat, 2015). Örneğin Öncel’in (2014) işletme, siyaset bilimi ve kamu yönetimi bölümlerinde okuyan üniversite öğrencileri ile gerçekleştirdiği uyarlama çalışmasında, kariyer uyum yeteneğinin ilgi alt-ölçeğinin gelecek zaman perspektifi ile, kontrol alt-ölçeğinin kontrol odağı ve öz kendilik değerlendirmesi ile, merak alt-ölçeğinin proaktif kişilik ile ve güven alt-ölçeği öz yeterlik inancı ile olumlu yönde

ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Büyükgöze-Kavas'ın (2015) yaptığı uyarlama çalışmasında ise hem kariyer uyum yeteneği toplam puanının hem de alt ölçeklerinin iyimserlik ve umut ile olumlu ilişkileri rapor edilmiştir. Ayrıca, Tuna ve ark. (2014) akademik danışmanlığın turizm ve otelcilik bölümünde okuyan üniversite öğrencilerinin kariyer uyum yeteneği üzerindeki etkisini bir model ile sınamıştır. Üniversite öğrencilerinde kariyer uyum yeteneği ile iş isteği ve iyi-oluş hali arasındaki ilişki (Büyükgöze-Kavas ve ark., 2015) incelenmiştir.

İlgili alan yazında, kariyer uyum yeteneğinin önemli öncüllerinin araştırılması ve bu amaçla oluşturulmuş modellerin sınanması önerilmiştir (Hartung ve ark., 2008). Öğrencilerin kariyer karar verme süreçlerindeki gelişimsel ihtiyaçlarının belirlenebilmesi ve kariyer gelişimi programlarının yapılandırılabilmesi için kültür, cinsiyet, ırk ve sosyo-ekonomik düzey gibi değişkenlerin incelenmesi vurgulanmıştır (Mau, 2000; McCollum, 1998). Bu doğrultuda, bu çalışmada lise öğrencilerinin kariyer uyum yeteneğini yordayan bazı olası faktörler araştırılmıştır. Bu çalışmanın bulgularının lise öğrencilerinde kariyer uyumunu artırmaya yönelik yapılacak çalışmalara ışık tutması beklenmektedir. Alanyazında bazı araştırmalar, çocuklarını özel okula gönderen ailelerin buradaki eğitimin devlet okulundakilere göre daha kaliteli olduğunu ifade ettiğini belirtmişlerdir (örn. Akça, 2002). Altun ve Canca (2011) da fiziksel koşullar, eğitim materyalleri, öğretmen yeterlilikleri, sınıflardaki öğrenci sayısı gibi değişkenler açısından özel okulların devlet okullarına göre daha avantajlı olduklarını belirtmişlerdir. Bu nedenle, önerilen kariyer uyum yeteneği modelinin okul türüne göre değişiminin incelenmesi de kariyer uyum yeteneği alan yazınına katkı sağlayacaktır. Araştırmadan elde edilen sonuçların, yapılandırmacı kariyer danışmanlığı açısından, yaşam biçimi hakkında farkındalık kazandırma ve yaşama anlam katma yönünde ergenleri destekleyerek geleceklerini şekillendirmelerine yardımcı olacak programların geliştirilmesine de katkı sağlayacağı umulmaktadır..

2. YÖNTEM

2.1 Araştırmanın Deseni

Bu çalışmanın amacı, algılanan sosyal destek, iyimserlik, genel öz-yeterlik ve kariyer uyum yeteneği arasındaki yapısal ilişkiyi ve bu değişkenlerin kariyer uyum yeteneğine katkılarını incelemektir. Ayrıca modelde önerilen ilişkilerin okul türüne göre farklılaşıp farklılaşmadığını da araştırmak amaçlanmıştır. Bu bağlamda, çalışma ilişkisel bir araştırma desenine sahiptir.

2.2 Örneklem

Bu araştırmanın örneklemine kolay ulaşılabilirlik yöntemiyle seçilmiş 1610 (862 devlet, okulu 748 özel okul) lise öğrencisi oluşturmuştur. Araştırmada 12. sınıf öğrencilerinden veri toplanmamıştır. Bunun nedenleri arasında, bu öğrencilerin üniversite sınavına hazırlandıkları için okulda bulunmamaları, ölçekleri yanıtlamaya gönüllü olmamaları ve okul yöneticilerinin 12. sınıflara yönelik çalışmalara çok sıcak yaklaşmamaları yer almaktadır. 9, 10 ve 11. sınıf öğrencilerini kapsayan çalışma grubunun okul türü, cinsiyet, sınıf düzeyi gibi özellikler açısından dağılımı Tablo 3.1’de görülebilir.

Ankara’ daki 6 devlet ve 6 özel liseden katılımcıya ulaşılmıştır. Devlet okulları Mamak, Keçiören, Sincan ve Etimesgut ilçelerinden seçilirken, özel okullar Çankaya bölgesinden alınmıştır.

2.3 Veri Toplama Araçları

Bu çalışmada, Çok Boyutlu Algılanan Sosyal Destek Ölçeği (ÇBASDÖ; Zimet ve ark., 1988), Gözden geçirilmiş Yaşam Yönelimi Testi (YYT-R, Scheiver ve Carver, 1985), Genel Öz-yeterlik Ölçeği (GÖYÖ; Schwarzer ve Jerusalem, 1995) ve Kariyer Uyum Yetenekleri Ölçeği (KUY; Porfeli ve Savickas, 2012) veri toplama aracı olarak kullanılmıştır.

2.3.1 Çok Boyutlu Algılanan Sosyal Destek Ölçeği (ÇBASDÖ)

Çok Boyutlu Algılanan Sosyal Destek Ölçeği (Zimet ve ark., 1988) aileden, arkadaşlardan ve önemli diğer kişilerden algılanan sosyal desteği ölçen, 12 maddelik bir ölçektir. 3, 4, 8 ve 11. maddeler aile alt boyutunu, 6, 7, 9 ve 12. maddeler arkadaş alt boyutunu ve 1, 2, 5 ve 10. maddeler önemli diğer kişiler alt boyutunu oluşturmaktadır. Önemli diğer kişiler ile kastedilen arkadaş, sevgili, öğretmen, psikolojik danışman vb. olabilir. 7'li Likert tipi kodlamaya sahip ölçekten en düşük 7, en yüksek 84 puan alınabilmektedir. Faktör analizi çalışmalarında üç faktörlü yapı bulunmuştur (Zimet ve ark., 1988). Doğrulayıcı faktör analizi çalışmaları da bu üç boyutlu yapıyı desteklemiştir (Clara ve ark., 2003). Güvenirlik çalışmaları kapsamında gerçekleştirilen çalışmalarda iç tutarlık katsayısı toplam ölçek için .93; alt boyutlar için ise sırasıyla .91, .89 ve .91 olarak bulunmuştur. Ölçeğin Türkçe 'ye uyarlaması, 1995 yılında Eker ve Arkar tarafından yapılmıştır. Sönmezay (2010) tarafından gerçekleştirilen çalışmada ölçeğin Türkçe formunun faktör yapısı, güvenilirliği ve yapı geçerliğinin ülkemizde kullanımı açısından tatmin edici olduğu belirtilmiştir. İç tutarlık katsayıları; ölçekten elde edilen toplam puan için .89, alt ölçekler için ise sırasıyla .85, .88 ve .92 olarak bulunmuştur.

Bu çalışma için ölçeğin yapı geçerliği araştırılmış ve 3 faktörlü yapı onaylanmıştır (bkz s. 59). Ölçeğin iç tutarlık katsayısı, tüm ölçek için .85, aile boyutu için .87, arkadaşlar boyutu için .88 ve önemli diğer kişiler boyutu için .91 olarak bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, devlet lisesi örnekleminde iç tutarlık katsayıları tüm ölçek için .83, aile boyutu için .88, arkadaşlar boyutu için .88 ve önemli diğer kişiler boyutu için .90 olarak hesaplanmıştır. Özel lise örnekleminde ise ölçeğin iç tutarlık katsayısı sırasıyla .83, .86, .88, ve .91 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

2.3.3 Gözden Geçirilmiş Yaşam Yönelimi Testi (YYT-GG)

Scheiver ve Carver (1985) tarafından geliştirilen Yaşam Yönelimi Testi'nin (YYT) ilk formu 4' ü dolgu maddesi olmak üzere 12 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Ölçek, yazarlar tarafından 1994' de gözden geçirilmiş, üç madde atılıp bir madde de

eklenerek 10 maddelik yeni bir form oluşturulmuştur. 0-Kesinlikle katılmıyorum' dan 4-Tamamen katılıyorum' a kadar 5' li Likert tipi bir ölçektir. Gözden geçirilmiş formun 3 maddesi olumlu yönde (1, 4 ve 10), 3 maddesi olumsuz yönde (3, 7 ve 9) puanlanmakta ve 4 maddesi de dolgu maddesi olarak puanlamaya katılmamaktadır. Olumsuz maddeler tersine puanlanarak olumlu maddelerden elde edilen puana eklenmekte ve ölçek toplam puanı elde edilmektedir. Bu şekilde ölçekten alınabilecek puan aralığı 0 ile 24 arasında değişmektedir. Öte yandan iyimserlik ve kötümserlik puanları ayrı ayrı hesaplanarak iki boyutlu bir puan da elde edilebilmektedir (Appaneal, 2012). İç tutarlık katsayısı .78, test-tekrar test ilişkisel katsayısı .79 ile .56 arasında bulunmuştur (Scheier ve ark., 1994). İlk ölçeğin uyarlaması, Aydın ve Tezer (1991) tarafından yapılmıştır. Beck Depresyon Ölçeği ile bakılan geçerlik çalışmasında korelasyon -.56 olarak bulunmuştur (Telef, 2013). İç tutarlık katsayısı orijinal form için .76, 4 hafta arayla incelenen test tekrar-test güvenilirliği .77 olarak bulunmuştur (Aydın ve Tezer, 1991).

Ölçeğin gözden geçirilmiş formunun psikometrik özellikleri 1610 katılımcının oluşturduğu bu çalışmanın örneklem grubunda incelenmiştir. Yaşam Yönelimi Testinin Gözden Geçirilmiş Formu' nun faktör yapısı önceki çalışmalarda da (Appaneal, 2012) önerilen biçimiyle iyimserlik ve kötümserlik alt boyutlarından oluşan ve her ikisinin toplamından elde edilen tek bir yapı ortaya koymuştur (bkz. s. 63). Ölçeğe ilişkin iç tutarlık katsayısı .67 olarak bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, devlet lisesi grubu için .65, özel lise grubu için .70 olarak hesaplanmıştır. Cronbach alpha değeri birden fazla faktöre sahip ölçeklerde düşük değer verebildiğinden alanyazında da önerilen doğrultuda (Raykov, 2004) Birleşik Güvenirlilik (Composite Reliability) değerleri de incelenmiştir. Birleşik Güvenirlilik katsayısı bütün örneklem için .78, devlet lisesi grubu için .75 ve özel lise grubu için .82 olarak bulunmuştur. Sonuçlar önceki çalışmalarla benzer doğrultuda olup (Aydın ve Tezer, 1991; Mavioğlu ve ark., 2015; Scheier ve ark., 1994), Gözden Geçirilmiş Yaşam Yönelimi Testi'nin Türk örnekleminde kullanılabilir olduğu söylenebilir.

2.3.4 Genel Öz-Yeterlik Ölçeği (GÖYÖ)

Schwarzer ve Jerusalem (1995) tarafından geliştirilen 10 maddelik Genel Öz Yeterlilik Ölçeği, 4'lü Likert tipi ölçektir. Puanlama “tamamen yanlış (1)” ile tamamen doğru (4) arasındadır. Ölçekten en düşük 10, en yüksek 40 puan alınabilmektedir. Yüksek puanların yüksek genel öz-yeterliliği gösterdiği ölçek, 12 yaş ve üzeri tüm kişilere uygulanabilmektedir. Scholz ve ark. (2002) tarafından ölçeğin 25 dildeki uyarlamaları kullanılarak gerçekleştirilen çalışmada faktör analizi çalışmaları sonucunda ise tek faktörlü yapı kabul edilmiştir. İç tutarlık katsayısı .86 bulunurken her ülke için ayrı ayrı gerçekleştirilen analizlerde iç tutarlık katsayılarının .75 ile .91 arasında değiştiği ifade edilmiştir. Ölçeğin uyarlama çalışmasını, 2007 yılında üniversite öğrencileri ile Aypay gerçekleştirmiştir. Benzer ölçekler geçerliği kapsamında Stresle Başa Çıkma Ölçeği'nin Soruna Yönelme Alt Ölçeği puanları arasında .40'lık bir ilişki ($p<.001$) ve ölçüt geçerliği için de ROSO puanları arasında .38'lik ($p<.001$) anlamlı ve pozitif yönde bir ilişki görülmüştür. İç tutarlık katsayısı .83, test-tekrar test güvenilirliği .80 olarak aktarılırken,

Bu çalışma kapsamında incelenen faktör yapısı, literatürle tutarlı olarak tek boyut göstermiştir (bkz. s. 67). Ayrıca iç tutarlık katsayısı bütün örneklem için .86, devlet lisesi grubu için .84 ve özel lise grubu için .87 olarak hesaplanmıştır. Elde edilen bu bulgular ışığında, ölçeğin geçerli ve güvenilir bir ölçme aracı olduğu söylenebilir.

2.3.5 Kariyer Uyum Yetenekleri Ölçeği (KUY)

Belçika, Brezilya, Çin, Fransa, İzlanda, İtalya, Kore, Hollanda, Portekiz, Güney Afrika, İsviçre, Tayvan ve Amerika olmak üzere 13 ülkede geçerlik ve güvenilirlik çalışmaları gerçekleştirilen Kariyer Uyum Yeteneği Ölçeği (Savickas ve Porfeli, 2012) 24 maddeden oluşmaktadır. İlgi, Kontrol, Merak ve Güven olmak üzere 6'şar madde içeren dört alt ölçeği vardır. Yanıtlanması “çok güçlü” ile “güçlü değil” seçenekleri arasında değişen 5'li Likert tipi bir ölçektir. Ölçekten alınabilecek puanlar 24 ile 120 arasında değişmektedir. Aşamalı, doğrulayıcı faktör analizi aracılığıyla gerçekleştirilen geçerlik çalışmaları ölçeğin bütün ülkelerde aynı faktör

yapısına sahip olduğunu göstermiştir (Savickas ve Porfeli, 2012). Ölçeğin toplam puanına ilişkin iç tutarlılık katsayısı .92, İlgi alt ölçeği için .83, Kontrol alt ölçeği için .74, Merak alt ölçeği için .79 ve Güven alt ölçeği için .85 olarak bulunmuştur. Ölçeğin ilk Türkçe uyarlaması (Kanten, 2012) üç farklı meslek yüksekokulundan 474 lisans ve önlisans öğrencisi ile yapılmıştır. Yanıtlanmasında 5’li Likert tipi ölçeklendirme (1 = kesinlikle katılmıyorum’ ve ‘5 = kesinlikle katılıyorum) kullanılmıştır. Yapısal eşitlik modeli (YEM) yardımıyla doğrulayıcı faktör analizi yapılmış ve İlgi alt ölçeğinden 3, Kontrol ve Merak alt ölçeklerinden birer olmak üzere toplam 5 madde ölçekten çıkarılmıştır. İç güvenirlik çalışmaları kapsamında Cronbach alpha değerleri ise İlgi alt ölçeği için .61, Kontrol için .77, Merak için .79 ve Güven için .81 olarak bulunmuştur. Ölçeğin Kanten (2012) tarafından uyarlamasının meslek yüksekokulu öğrencileri ile yapılması ve ölçekten 5 madde çıkarılmış olması nedeniyle ölçeğin yazarından gerekli izin alınarak lise öğrencileri için bu çalışma kapsamında uyarlama çalışmasına başlanmıştır. Ancak bu araştırmaya başladıktan sonra ölçeğin üç farklı çevirisi daha yayımlanmıştır (Büyükgöze Kavas, 2014; Öncel, 2014; Yücel ve Polat, 2015).

Bu çalışma kapsamında, 619 lise öğrencisi ile yapılan pilot çalışma ile ölçeğin uyarlaması gerçekleştirilmiştir (bkz. s. 68). Ölçeğin geçerliği, 13 ülkede ve Uluslararası Form üzerinde de yapılan biçimiyle aşamalı doğrulayıcı faktör analizi aracılığıyla sınanmıştır. Bu analiz sonuçlarına göre ölçek yeterli uyum indekslerine sahiptir: [$\chi^2(245) = 730.085, p=.00; \chi^2/df\text{-ratio}=2.98; RMSEA=.057, SRMR=.052; CFI=.90$]. Ölçek, önceki araştırmalarla benzer şekilde 4 faktörlü aşamalı yapıyı korumuştur. İç tutarlık güvenirlik katsayısı ölçeğin toplam puanı için .89, İlgi alt ölçeği için .69, Kontrol alt ölçeği için .71, Merak alt ölçeği için .82 ve Güven alt ölçeği için .80 olarak bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, 1610 katılımcıdan oluşan ana çalışma için iç tutarlılık katsayıları toplam ölçek için .89, İlgi alt ölçeği için .72, Kontrol için .73, Merak için .82, ve Güven alt ölçeği için .81 bulunmuştur. Devlet lisesi çalışma grubu için bu değerler sırasıyla; .88, .72, .71, .79, ve .79, özel lise grubu için ise sırasıyla; .91, .71, .76, .84, ve .83 bulunmuştur. Bu sonuçlardan hareketle ölçeğin geçerli ve güvenilir bir yapıya sahip olduğu söylenebilir.

2.4 İşlem

Bu çalışma için öncelikle Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulundan Etik Kurul izni alınmış, ardından Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı Eğitimi Araştırma Geliştirme Dairesi Başkanlığı'ndan liselerde uygulama yapabilmek için onay alınmıştır. Ayrıca her bir okul için okul yönetimlerinden onay alınmış ve okul psikolojik danışmanları ile işbirliği yapılmıştır. Veriler, pilot uygulama için 2013-2014 bahar döneminde, ana çalışma için 2014-2015 bahar döneminde, sınıf ortamında, gerekli açıklamalar yapılarak, gizlilik ve gönüllük esasına dayanarak toplanmıştır. Ölçekleri yanıtlanması bir ders saati (40 dakika) sürmüştür.

3.5 Veri Analizi

Bu çalışmanın amacı, lise öğrencilerinin kariyer uyum yeteneğini açıklayan bir model geliştirmek ve modelin geçerliğini sınamaktır. Bir diğer amaç, modelde önerilen ilişkilerin okul türüne göre farklılaşıp farklılaşmadığı da araştırmaktır. Bu amaçla AMOS 22.0 paket programı ile Yapısal Eşitlik Modeli (YEM) analizi yapılmıştır (Arbuckle, 2009). YEM sonuçları ki-kare, ki-kare/df, CFI, RMSEA, SRMR, Δ CFI gibi çeşitli uyum indeksleri göz önünde bulundurularak değerlendirilmiştir.

3.6 Çalışmanın Sınırlılıkları

Bu çalışmanın bazı sınırlılıkları vardır. İlk olarak, öz-bildirim ölçeklerinin kullanılmış olması, katılımcıların toplumsal beğenirlik yönünde cevap vermiş olma olasılığını taşımaktadır. Bu nedenle elde edilen sonuçlar, yanıtların doğruluğuna bağlıdır. İkinci olarak, katılımcıların Ankara'daki özel ve devlet liselerinden seçilmiş olması ve 12. sınıfların araştırmaya dahil edilmemiş olması nedeniyle çalışmanın lise öğrencilerine genellenebilirliği konusunun dikkatle ele alınması gerekmektedir. Üçüncüsü, bu çalışmanın bulgularının devlet ve özel lise öğrencilerine genellenmesi konusunda da dikkatli olunması gerekmektedir. Dördüncüsü, araştırmacı tarafından açık, anlaşılır ve aynı yönergeler bütün

uygulayıcılara verilmiş olmasına rağmen ölçeklerin uygulamasının sınıf ortamında yapılması ve bazı uygulamaların öğretmenler tarafından uygulamanın yapılmış olması bu çalışma için bir iç tehdit oluşturabilir.

3. BULGULAR

İlk olarak veri seti gözden geçirilmiş, eksik veya yanlış girilmiş veriler kontrol edilmiştir. Analizler için gerekli varsayımlar sağlandıktan sonra 1610 katılımcı (862'si devlet, 748'i özel liseden) ile analizlere devam edilmiştir.

Betimsel analiz yöntemi ile hesaplanmış olan değişkenlerin ortalamaları ve standart sapmaları ile değişkenler arası ilişkilere ilişkin korelasyon analizi sonuçları Tablo 4.2'de verilmiştir. Ayrıca, aynı sonuçlar okul türüne göre de incelenmiş ve sonuçlar Tablo 4.3'de gösterilmiştir.

Yapısal Eşitlik Modeli (YEM) analizinin sonuçlarını yorumlayabilmek için kullanılan uyum indeksleri Tablo 3.2'de verilmiştir. Ayrıca bootstrapping metodu ile elde edilmiş standardize edilmiş beta yükleri (path coefficient) de modeldeki ilişkileri test etmek amacıyla kullanılmıştır.

Öncelikli olarak yapılan ölçüm modeli karşılaştırmaları, modelin okul türüne göre incelenebilirliğini kanıtlamıştır (Tablo 4.5). Ardından, çok örneklemli yapısal eşitlik modellemesi yapılmış ve sonuçlar modelin okul türüne göre farklılaşmadığını ortaya koymuştur (bkz. s. 97). Bunun üzerine, tek örneklemli YEM analizi ile devam edilmiştir.

Tek örneklemli YEM analizi sonuçlarına göre; ki-kare/serbestlik derecesi 2.78, CFI değeri .96, SRMR değeri .03 ve RMSEA değeri .04 olarak bulunmuştur. Bu sonuçlar kabul edilebilir uyum indeksleri olduğundan, modelin veriye uyum sağladığını görülmüştür.

Modelde önerilen yollardan hepsi istatistiksel olarak anlamlı çıkmıştır. Modeldeki en yüksek ilişki genel öz-yeterlik ile kariyer uyum yeteneği arasında, en düşük ilişki ise algılanan sosyal destek ile kariyer uyum yeteneği arasında bulunmuştur. Çalışmadan elde edilen sonuçlar aşağıdaki gibidir:

1. İyimserlik ile algılanan sosyal destek arasında doğrudan istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki vardır ($r = .56$)
2. Algılanan sosyal destek, kariyer uyum yeteneği ile doğrudan ve istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişkiye sahiptir (.20).
3. İyimserlik, kariyer uyum yeteneği ile doğrudan ve istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişkiye sahiptir (.24).
4. Algılanan sosyal destek, genel öz-yeterlik ile doğrudan ve istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişkiye sahiptir (.21).
5. İyimserlik, genel öz-yeterlik ile doğrudan ve istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişkiye sahiptir (.37).
6. Genel öz-yeterlik ile kariyer uyum yeteneği arasında doğrudan ve istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki vardır (.39).
7. Algılanan sosyal destek ile kariyer uyum yeteneği arasında genel öz-yeterlik aracılığıyla dolaylı ve istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki vardır (.08).
8. İyimserlik ile kariyer uyum yeteneği arasında genel öz-yeterlik aracılığıyla dolaylı ve istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki vardır (.15).

Sonu olarak, R^2 (oklu korelasyon katsayısının karesi) deęerlerine gre, algılanan sosyal destek ve iyimserlik genel z-yeterlik zerindeki varyansın %27’nu aıkladırken, hepsi birlikte kariyer uyum yeteneęi zerindeki varyansın %46’sini aıklamıřtır.

4. TARTIřMA

4.1 Arařtırma Bulgularının Tartıřılması

Bu alıřmanın amacı, algılanan sosyal destek, iyimserlik, genel z-yeterlik ve kariyer uyum yeteneęi arasındaki yapısal iliřkiyi, bu deęiřkenlerin kariyer uyum yeteneęine katkılarını ve modelin okul trne gre farklılařıp farklılařmadıęını arařtırmaktır. Bu baęlamda, yapılandırmacı kariyer danıřmanlıęı yaklařımına dayalı kariyer uyum yeteneęi modelinin okul trne gre farklılařıp farklılařmadıęı ok rneklemli YEM kullanılarak analiz edilmiř, fark grlmemesi zerine analizlere tek rneklemli YEM ile devam edilmiřtir.

4.1.1 Okul Tr ve Modele İliřkin Tartıřma

Bu arařtırmanın amalarından biri nerilen modelin okul trne gre farklılık gsterip gstermedięini sınamaktır. Bulgular, algılanan sosyal destek, iyimserlik, genel z-yeterlik ve kariyer uyum yeteneęi arasındaki iliřkilerin okul trne gre deęiřim gstermedięine iřaret etmiřtir..

Eęitim Reformu Giriřimi 2012 PISA sonuları analizine gre Trkiye’deki eęitim sisteminde ęrenciler eřit fırsatlara sahip olamamaktadır. Bu raporda, ęrencilerin sosyo-ekonomik dzeylerine (SED) gre farklı okullara gittikleri belirtilmiřtir. Alanyazındaki arařtırmalarda, zel okullara giden ęrenciler hem eęitimin kalitesi hem de sunulan fırsatlar aısından daha ayrıcalıklı oldukları belirtilmiřtir (Akca, 2002; Altun ve Canca, 2011). Literatrde, benzer řekilde, kariyer geliřimi, mesleki olgunluk ve kariyer uyum becerilerinin farklı seviyelerden SED’e sahip bireyler arasında dengesiz daęılımına ynelik arařtırmalar rapor edilmiřtir (rn., Caro, 2009;

Kerka, 1998; Osa-Edoh & Alutu, 2011; Rojewski, 1994). Ancak, bu araştırmanın sonuçlarıyla paralel biçimde kariyer uyum yeteneğinin SED'e göre değişmediğini gösteren bazı başka araştırmalar da vardır (Diemer ve Hsieh, 2008; Eshelman, 2013). Örneğin, Eshelman'ın (2013) çalışmasında, SED kariyer uyum yeteneğini tamamen yordamakla birlikte mesleki ilgi ve beklentiler değişkenlerine katkısı görülmüştür. Benzer şekilde Tang ve arkadaşları (1999) tarafından Asya kökenli Amerikalı üniversite öğrencileri ile yapılan araştırmada, ailenin sosyo-ekonomik düzeyinin öğrencilerin kariyer kararı yetkinlik beklentisi üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi olmadığı saptanmıştır.

Türkiye'deki literatür incelendiğinde ise, her ne kadar okul türünün kariyer uyum yeteneği ile ilişkisine yönelik çalışmalar bulunmasa da, SED mesleki olgunluk ve kariyer kararına yönelik araştırmalarda sıklıkla incelenmiştir. Araştırma bulgularına göre sosyo-ekonomik düzey yükseldikçe kariyer gelişimi, mesleki olgunluk ve kariyer karar verme becerilerinin geliştiğini gösteren çalışmalar olduğu gibi (örn., Bacanlı ve ark., 2013; Sürücü, 2005; Yazar, 1997), SED ile mesleki olgunluk düzeyi arasında anlamlı bir ilişki saptayamayan çalışmalar da (örn., Akbalık, 1991; Şahin, 2007; Zeren,1999) mevcuttur.

Bu çalışmada önerilen modelin okul türüne göre anlamlı farklılık göstermemesi, Kuzgun (2000)'un da ifade ettiği, mesleğin kişinin kimlik göstergelerinden biri olarak görülmesi ve kişinin saygı görme aracı olarak değerlendirilmesi anlayışı ile açıklanabilir. Devlet okulunda okuyan öğrenciler geleceklerini şekillendirmek ve toplumda daha saygın bir yer edinmek amacıyla kariyer gelişimlerini önemsemeleri onların kariyer uyum yeteneği açısından özel okulda okuyan akranları ile farklılaşmalarını sağlamış olabilir.

Modelin okul türüne göre farklılaşmaması üzerine yapılan tek örneklemli YEM bulguları ise, yapılandırmacı kariyer danışmanlığı yaklaşımına dayalı kariyer uyum yeteneği modelinin lise öğrencileri örnekleminden elde edilen veriye uyduğunu göstermiştir. Modelde önerilen bütün yollar istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bulunmuştur. Algılanan sosyal destek ve iyimserlik ile kariyer uyum yeteneği arasında genel öz-

yeterlik aracılığıyla olumlu ve istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı ilişki görülmüştür. Model kariyer uyum yeteneğinin %46'sını açıklamıştır.

4.1.2 Hipotezlere İlişkin Tartışma

Bu çalışmanın bulguları, algılanan sosyal destek ile iyimserlik arasında olumlu yönde ve istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir (Hipotez 1). Alan yazında iyimserliğin çevre tarafından etkilenebilir olduğunu söyleyen ve tam aksine iyimserliğin bir kişilik özelliği olduğu ve çevresel koşullarla şekillenemeyeceğini söyleyen görüşler yer almaktadır. İkinci yaklaşım, birincinin öne sürdüğü sosyal desteği fazla olan kişiler daha iyimserdir görüşünden ziyade iyimser kişilerin algıladıkları sosyal destek fazladır görüşünü savunur. İlişkinin yönü bu araştırmanın kapsamı dışında olduğundan, bu iki değişken arasında bir ilişki bulunması her iki görüşün de bir ürünüdür. Bu bulgu, sosyal desteği fazla olan kişilerin daha iyimser olduklarına (Mavioğlu ve ark., 2015) dair bulgular ile iyimser kişilerin etrafını daha olumlu yönde algıladıkları (Scheier, Carver ve Bridges, 2000) ve dolayısıyla daha fazla sosyal destek algıladıkları (Dougall ve ark. 2001; Park ve Folkman, 1997) yolundaki bulgularla tutarlıdır.

Algılanan sosyal destek hem genel öz-yeterlik hem de kariyer uyum yeteneği ile olumlu yönde ve doğrudan ilişkidir (Hipotez 4 ve 2). Bir diğer deyişle, sosyal desteği daha fazla algılayan lise öğrencilerinin kendilerine yönelik yeterlik algıları ve kariyer uyum yeteneği daha yüksek bulunmuştur. Araştırmalar da aileden, arkadaşlardan, okuldan algılanan sosyal destek arttıkça öz-yeterliliğin de arttığını göstermiştir (Schunk ve Meece, 2005). Türkiye’de de Yalçın (2014) tarafından yapılan bir araştırmada sosyal desteğin öz-yeterlik ve iyi-oluş hali arasındaki ilişkisi vurgulanmıştır. Bütün bu araştırmalar algılanan sosyal destek ile öz-yeterlik arasındaki ilişkiye dair bulguyu destekler niteliktedir. Öte yandan, sosyal destek, kariyerle ilgili konularda da çalışılmıştır. Bu araştırmanın bulgularıyla benzer şekilde, algılanan sosyal desteğin ergenlerin mesleki kimlik, mesleki araştırma, meslek kararı verme ve mesleki olgunluk ile ilişkileri rapor edilmiştir (Flores ve O’Brien, 2002; Geijsendorpher, 2008; Ketterson ve Blustein, 1997; Olaosebikan ve

Olusakin, 2014; Ryan ve ark., 1996; Shin, 2010; Wall ve ark., 1999). Kariyer uyum yeteneği kavramının yaratıcısı Savickas (1997) ve ölçeğin yazarlarından olan Savickas ve Porfeli (2012), kariyer uyum yeteneğinin çevre tarafından şekillendirilebileceğini, gelişip değişebileceğini vurgulamıştır. Bu noktada çevre, sosyal çevreyi ve onların etkilerini de içerecektir. Kenny ve Bledsoe'ın (2005) yaptığı araştırmada da aile, öğretmenler ve arkadaşlardan algılanan sosyal desteği yüksek olanların daha yüksek kariyer uyum yeteneği düzeyine sahip oldukları ifade edilmiştir. Bütün bu araştırmalar da bu çalışmanın bulgularını destekler niteliktedir.

İyimserlik de hem genel öz-yeterlik hem de kariyer uyum yeteneği ile olumlu yönde ve doğrudan ilişkili bulunmuştur (Hipotez 5 ve 3). Başka bir deyişle, iyimser kişilerin öz-yeterlik algıları ve kariyer uyum yeteneği daha yüksek bulunmuştur. Bu ilişkiler alan yazında da desteklenmiştir. Öncelikle, iyimserlik ile öz-yeterlik arasındaki ilişkileri ortaya koyan oldukça fazla sayıda araştırma bulunmaktadır (Feldman ve Kubota, 2015; Hulberti ve Morrison, 2006; Luthans ve ark., 2007; Prokopčáková, 2015; Stanculescu, 2014; Zagórska ve Guszowska, 2014; Zenger ve ark., 2013). Türkiye'deki araştırmalar ise, psikolojik sermaye konusu kapsamında çalışılmış olan ölçekle birlikte iyimserlik ve öz-yeterlik boyutları arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi ile sınırlıdır (Bitmiş, 2015; Erkmen ve Esen, 2012, 2013). Araştırma bulgularının sınırlılığı bu ilişkinin tartışılmasını da daraltmaktadır. İyimserliğin kariyer uyum yeteneği ile arasındaki ilişki ise, iyimserlerin uyum yeteneklerinin daha yüksek olması ve yeni durumlar karşısında esnek olabilmeleri ile açıklanabilir. Bu açıdan araştırmanın bulguları önceki çalışmalarla da desteklenmiştir (Aspinwall ve ark., 2001; Curbow ve ark., 1993; Fontaine ve ark., 1993). Yapılandırmacı kariyer danışmanlığı yaklaşımı içinde, öğrencilerin uyum yeteneklerinin artırılması için iyimserliklerinin artırılması yönünde çalışmalar yapılması önerilmiştir (Perera ve McIlveen, 2014). Türkiye'deki çalışmalar ise, (Büyükgöze-Kavas, 2014) iyimserlik ile kariyer uyum yeteneği arasındaki olumlu ilişkiyi vurgulamıştır.

Genel öz-yeterlik ile kariyer uyum yeteneği arasındaki ilişki de olumlu ve anlamlı bulunmuştur (Hipotez 6). Bir diğer ifadeyle, öz-yeterlilik inancı yüksek olan öğrencilerin kariyer uyum düzeylerinin de yüksek olduğu söylenebilir. Öz-yeterliliğin,

kişinin bir görevin üstesinden başarıyla geleceğine dair bir inanç olarak düşünüldüğünde ve bu inancın kişinin atacağı adımların ve zor durumların üstesinden gelmede ne kadar çaba göstereceğinin belirleyicisi olduğu göz önünde bulundurulduğunda, kariyer uyum yeteneği ile arasındaki ilişki daha da anlaşılabilir. Çünkü kariyer uyum yeteneğinin kariyer gelişimi, geçişleri ve mesleki travmalarla başa çıkma becerileri olduğu düşünüldüğünde, kendi yeterliliklerine inancı yüksek olan kişilerin hem gelişimsel görevlerde hem de geçişlerin getirdiği değişimlerde ve stresli koşullarda başa çıkabilmeleri daha kolay olacaktır. Bu iki değişken arasındaki ilişkiyi Duffy (2010) de, genel öz-yeterliğin kariyer uyum yeteneğinden kontrol ve güven boyutlarıyla ilişkili olabileceğini vurgulayarak göstermiştir. Ayrıca, Kenny ve Bledsoe (2005) da öz-yeterlik inancı yüksek olanların, mesleklerle ilgili beklentilerinin, eğitimsel ve kariyer hedeflerine ve hayallerine ulaşabileceklerine dair beklentilerinin yüksek olacağını vurgulamıştır. Bu noktada gelecek yönelimli ve hedeflere sahip olmanın da kariyer uyum yeteneğinin göstergelerinden olduğu göz önünde bulundurularak bu araştırma bulgusunun dolaylı olarak da olsa bu çalışmanın sonucunu destekler nitelikte olduğu düşünülebilir. Alanyazındaki öz-yeterlik inancının kariyer uyum yeteneği üzerindeki rolüne işaret eden çeşitli araştırmalar (Angel, 2012; Hirschi, 2009) bu çalışmanın bulgularını desteklemektedir. Türkiye’de ise, Öncel’in (2014) kariyer uyum yeteneğinin güven boyutu ile öz-yeterlik arasındaki olumlu ilişkiye dair bulgusunun, bu çalışmanın sonuçlarıyla benzerlik taşıdığı söylenebilir.

Hipotez 7 ve 8, bu çalışmadaki dolaylı ilişkilerle ilgilidir. Araştırma bulgularına göre, genel öz-yeterlik hem algılanan sosyal desteğin hem de iyimserliğin kariyer uyum yeteneği ile arasındaki ilişkiye kısmi olarak aracılık etmiştir. Alanyazında bu ilişkileri inceleyen bir çalışmaya henüz rastlanmamıştır. Ancak değişkenler arasındaki doğrudan ilişkiler bu bulguya dair fikir verebilir. Yukarıdaki tartışmalarda da vurgulandığı gibi, algılanan sosyal desteğin ve iyimserliğin öz-yeterlik ve kariyer uyum yeteneği ile doğrudan ilişkileri alanyazında da sıkça vurgulanmıştır. Buradan hareketle, daha fazla sosyal destek algılayan öğrencilerin kendi yeterliliklerine dair inançları daha yüksek ve dolayısıyla kariyerle ilgili konularda karşılaşılabilecek stres durumları, değişimler ve gelişimsel görevlerde de başa çıkma becerileri daha yüksek

olacaktır (Hipotez 7). Bu sonucun Keller ve Whiston'un (2008) araştırmasında geçen, aileden algıladıkları sosyal destek ile kariyer kararı verme öz-yeterliği inancı arasındaki ilişkinin mesleki olgunluktaki varyansın bir kısmını açıkladığına dair bulgu ile benzer ve tutarlı olduğu söylenebilir. İyimser öğrencilerin bir görevin veya role ilişkin davranışların başarıyla üstesinden gelebileceklerine dair inançları yüksektir. Dolayısıyla kariyerle ilgili geçişler, görevler, değişimler ve gelişmeler karşısında da başa çıkma becerileri yüksektir. Bu bulgunun da, öz yeterliğin iyimserlik ile kariyer ilgileri (Nauta, 2004), (Hirschi, 2014) arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık ettiği çalışmalarla bir şekilde benzerlik taşıdığı söylenebilir.

4.2 Uygulamaya Yönelik Çıkarımlar

Bu çalışmada, Savickas (2005) tarafından kuramsal çerçevesi ortaya konan Yapılandırmacı Kariyer Danışmanlığına dayalı kariyer uyum yeteneği modeli sınanmıştır. Çalışmanın bulguları, algılanan sosyal destek ve iyimserliğin kariyer uyum yeteneği ile genel öz-yeterlik inancı üzerinden dolaylı olarak ilişkili olduğunu göstermiştir.

Uygulama açısından ise, bu çalışmanın bulgularının okul psikolojik danışma ve rehberlik servislerinin kariyer danışmanlığı çalışmalarına ışık tutacağı düşünülmektedir. Kariyer uyum yeteneği Türkiye'de yeni çalışılan bir konudur. Bu nedenle, bu çalışma boyunca vurgulandığı gibi, lise öğrencilerinin ihtiyaç duyacağı becerilerden biridir. Bu bağlamda, öğrencilerin kariyer uyum düzeylerinin belirlenmesine ve geliştirilmesine yönelik çalışmaların planlanmasında, bu çalışmanın bulgularının katkı sağlayacağı beklenmektedir.

Çalışmanın ampirik bulguları göz önünde bulundurulduğunda öncelikle genel öz-yeterliğin kariyer uyum yetenekleri üzerinde yüksek bir etkiye sahip olduğu görülmüştür. Bu bağlamda, okul psikolojik danışmanları öğrencilerin özellikleri ile meslekleri eşleştirdikleri yaklaşımlar, meslek tanıtımları, üniversite gezileri gibi mesleki bilginin artırılmasına yönelik çalışmaların yanı sıra, öğrencilerin becerilerinin değerlendirildiği ve geliştirildiği kariyer eğitim programlarına da yer

verebilirler. Bu programlar kapsamında genel öz-yeterliđi geliştirici eğitimler ve psikolojik danışma hizmetleri öğrencilerin kariyer uyum becerilerini de artıracaktır. Ayrıca bu araştırmanın sonuçlarına göre iyimserliđin, genel öz-yeterlik aracılığıyla kariyer uyum yeteneđi üzerindeki etkisi, algılanan sosyal desteđin etkisinden daha fazla olmuştur. Bu bulgu, iyimserliđin de lise öğrencilerinde çalışılması gereken bir diđer önemli deđişken olduđunu gösterebilir. Öte yandan, sosyal desteđin kariyer gelişimi ve meslek seçimi üzerindeki etkisi alanyazında (Bozgeyikli ve ark., 2010; Yıldırım, 2006) da vurgulanmaktadır. Bu nedenle, algılanan sosyal destek de dikkate alınması gereken bir deđişkendir.

Ayrıca, okul psikolojik danışmanları ve kariyer danışmanları bu çalışmanın bulgularını temkinli bir şekilde ele alarak kariyer uyum yeteneđini artıracak programlar geliştirebilir ve etkisini sınavabilirler. Ayrıca, kariyer uyum yeteneđinin her bir boyutuna –ilgi, kontrol, merak ve güven- ve iyimserlik ve öz-yeterlik inancını geliştirmeye yönelik etkinlikler ve uygulamaları içeren programlar geliştirilebilir. Bu programa katılacak öğrencilerin herhangi bir kaynaktan sosyal destek algılayıp algılamadıkları incelenebilir ve sosyal destekten yoksun öğrenciler uygulama süreci boyunca bu konuda da desteklenebilir.

Son olarak, bu çalışma kapsamında adaptasyon çalışmaları gerçekleştirilen Kariyer Uyum Yetenekleri Ölçeđi'nin ve Yaşam Yönelimi Testi Gözden Geçirilmiş Formu'nun psikolojik danışma ve kariyer danışmanlığı çalışmaları kapsamında okul psikolojik danışmanlarına katkı sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir.

4.3 Gelecekteki Araştırmalar için Öneriler

Bu çalışma kapsamında elde edilen bulgulara yönelik bazı öneriler sunulacaktır. Öncelikle, yukarıda da deđinildiđi gibi kariyer uyum yeteneđi Türkiye'de yeni çalışılmaya başlanılan bir konudur. Bu nedenle, bulguların gelecekteki çalışmalarla da desteklenmesi önerilir.

İkinci olarak, bu çalışma kapsamında modele dahil edilen deęişkenler ilk kez çalışılmıştır. Ancak, modelin geliştirilmesi ve kariyer uyum yeteneęinin daha iyi anlaşılabilmesi için umut, kişilik, kariyer iyimserlięi gibi başka deęişkenlerin ve kariyer kararı verme yetkinlięi, kendini düzenleme, planlı davranma gibi başka aracı deęişkenlerin dahil olduęu çalışmaların da yapılması önerilebilir. Okul türünün etkisinin daha geniş ve farklı okul türlerini de kapsayan (Fen Lisesi, Anadolu Lisesi, Meslek Lisesi, Güzel Sanatlar Lisesi vb.) örneklem grupları ile de araştırılması önerilebilir.

Kariyer uyum yeteneęinin etkileyeceęi kavramlar da çalışılabilir. Örneęin, boylamsal olarak kariyer uyumu yüksek ve düşük olan öğrencilerin liseden üniversiteye, üniversiteden-iş hayatına geçiş sürecindeki uyum becerileri izlenebilir; iş bulma durumları, iş başarıları, iş ve yaşam doyumları incelenebilir.

Appendix L: Curriculum Vitae

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Surname, Name: Karacan Özdemir, Nurten

Nationality: Turkish (TC)

Date and Place of Birth: 14 October 1982, Denizli

Marital Status: Married

Phone: +90 0312 210 11 82

Email: karacan.nurten@gmail.com

EDUCATION

Degree	Institution	Year of Graduation
PhD	Middle East Technical University, Psychological Counseling and Guidance, Ankara	2009-Present
M. S.	Middle East Technical University, Psychological Counseling and Guidance, Ankara	2006-2009
B. S.	Hacettepe University, Psychological Counseling and Guidance, Ankara	2001-2005

WORK EXPERIENCE

Year	Place	Enrollment
2006-2008	Kavaklı Dershane	Psychological Counselor
2008-Present	METU Development Foundation Schools	Psychological Counselor

FOREIGN LANGUAGE

English (Advanced), Spanish (Limited proficiency)

PUBLICATIONS

Karacan, N. & Yerin Güneri, O. (2009). The effect of self-esteem enrichment bibliocounseling program on self-esteem level of 6th grade students, Master Thesis. Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Karacan, N. & Yerin Güneri, O. (2010). The effect of self-esteem enrichment bibliocounseling program, *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 5, 318-322.

Karacan Özdemir, N. (2015). An Experimental Study: The Impact of Bibliocounseling on Self-esteem of Sixth Grade Students (In Turkish). *Ilköğretim Online*, 15(1), 136-147.

VOLUNTARY EXPERIENCES

Parent educations- Ataköy Primary School (2015), Bucuk Primary School (2015)

Philosophy for children-3: "Respect to nature" through a character education program (Program creating and implementing), Aktif Felsefe Association, June, 2014

Philosophy for children-2: "Leaving together" through a character education program (Program creating and implementing), Aktif Felsefe Association, June, 2013

Philosophy for children-1: "Learning Cooperation" through a character education program (Program creating and implementing), Aktif Felsefe Association, March, 2012

HOBBIES

Outdoor activities, travelling, writing stories, home designing, cooking, dancing

Appendix M: Tez Fotokopisi İzin Formu

TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

ENSTİTÜ

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

YAZARIN

Soyadı :
Adı :
Bölümü :

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) :

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans ☐ Doktora ☐

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

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ: