

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTING STYLE  
AND LEARNED RESOURCEFULNESS

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## **ABSTRACT**

### **THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTING STYLE AND LEARNED RESOURCEFULNESS**

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The purpose of the present study is to investigate the relationships of different types of perceived parenting style and learned resourcefulness.

The sample of the study consisted of 834 (360 males, 474 females) volunteered high school students in Yenimahalle Alparslan High School in Ankara. The data were gathered by administering two instruments, namely Parenting Style Inventory (PSI) and Rosenbaum's Self-Control Schedule (SCS).

The results of ANOVA employed to learned resourcefulness scores of the students revealed a significant main effect for parenting style groups. Neither the main effect for gender nor the gender and parenting style interaction effect was significant. The results yielded that there were significant differences between those who perceived their parents as authoritative and those who perceived their parents as neglectful and authoritarian. Significant differences were also found between those who perceived their parent indulgent and those who perceived their parents as neglectful and authoritarian. These findings suggested that those who perceived their parents as authoritative had a relatively high level of learned resourcefulness as compared to those who perceived their parents as neglectful and authoritarian. Findings also

suggested that those who perceived their parents as indulgent had a higher level of learned resourcefulness than those who perceived their parents as neglectful and authoritarian.

Keywords: Parenting Style, Learned Resourcefulness, Adolescents.

## ÖZ

### ÇOCUK YETİŞTİRME STİLLERİ VE ÖĞRENİLMİŞ GÜÇLÜLÜK ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ

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Bu çalışmanın amacı ergenlerde çocuk yetiştirme stilleri ile öğrenilmiş güçlülük arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektir.

Çalışmanın örneklemini Ankara ilinde Yenimahalle Alparslan Lisesi'ne devam eden 834 (360 erkek, 474 kız) gönüllü öğrenciden oluşmaktadır. Veriler, Çocuk Yetiştirme Stilleri Envanteri ve Rosenbaum'un Kendini Denetleme Ölçeği'nin uygulanmasıyla elde edilmiştir.

Öğrencilerin öğrenilmiş güçlülük puanlarına uygulanan varyans analizi sonuçları, çocuk yetiştirme stilleri grubu temel etkisinin istatistiksel olarak anlamlı olduğunu göstermiştir. Cinsiyet temel etkisi ve cinsiyet-çocuk yetiştirme stilleri ortak etkisi anlamlı bulunmamıştır. Sonuçlar, anne-babalarını “demokratik” olarak algılayan öğrenciler ile “ilgisiz” ve “otoriter” olarak algılayan öğrenciler arasında anlamlı farklılıklar olduğunu göstermiştir. Bulgular, ayrıca, anne-babalarını “şımartan” olarak algılayan öğrenciler ile anne-babalarını “ilgisiz” ve “otoriter” olarak algılayan öğrenciler arasında da anlamlı farklılıklar ortaya çıkarmıştır. Elde edilen bu sonuçlar, anne-babalarını “demokratik” olarak algılayan öğrencilerin öğrenilmiş güçlülük düzeylerinin anne-babalarını “ilgisiz” ve “otoriter” olarak

algılayan öğrencilere göre daha yüksek olduğuna; anne-babalarını “şımartan” olarak algılayan öğrencilerin öğrenilmiş güçlülük düzeylerinin ise anne-babalarını “ilgisiz” ve “otoriter“ olarak algılayan öğrencilerden daha yüksek olduğuna işaret etmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Çocuk Yetiştirme Stilleri, Öğrenilmiş Güçlülük, Ergenler.

To my family

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1. Background of the Study

Adolescence is a period of transition from childhood to early adulthood and is characterized by experiencing dramatic changes both at the intrapersonal and interpersonal levels. During this period, adolescents, while struggling with physiological, psychological, and social changes, face with several stressful events in which they are expected to deal with effectively and make them a challenge for self-growth. One of the most effective ways of dealing with these stress sources might be the development of self-control, i.e., the exercise of internal control over one's own action by controlling emotions and behaviors (Wong, 2004).

In the psychology literature, the construct of self-control has covered several concepts such as self-regulation (Kanfer, 1977), coping skills (Folkman, 1984), self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977), locus of control (Rotter, 1966) and more recently, learned resourcefulness (Meichenbaum, 1977; Rosenbaum, 1980).

The concept of learned resourcefulness has been developed based on the concepts of self-regulation (Kanfer, 1977) and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). Kanfer (1977) explained the self-regulation process by three distinct stages; self-monitoring, self-regulation, and self-reinforcement stages. The self-monitoring stage involves deliberate and careful attendance to one's own behavior. The self-regulation stage consists of a comparison between the information acquired from self-monitoring and the person's standards for that given behavior. The self-reinforcement stage refers to the individuals'

reactions to the information obtained from self-evaluation process. The major function of self-reinforcement stage is motivational. Accordingly, Kanfer and Hagerman (1981) claimed that self-regulation begins with the individual's belief that he or she has the control for the given behavior.

Another concept, self-efficacy has been conceptualized by Bandura (1977) as one of the cognitive structures that direct behavior. He claimed that all behavioral change is interfered through changes in the self-efficacy. He also noted that expectation alone will not produce desired performance if the component capabilities, which might be considered as the behavioral repertoire, are lacking.

In the line of these two models, the concept of learned resourcefulness was first used by Meichenbaum (1977) in conjunction with his stress inoculation program. In this program, he trained individuals in the use of different skills and behaviors to self-control their behavior for coping with stressful events. He found that people who have acquired these skills developed a sense of "learned resourcefulness", the belief that they can deal with manageable levels of stress.

Based on Meichenbaum's (1977) model, Rosenbaum (1980) redefined the concept of learned resourcefulness as "an acquired repertoire of behaviors and skills (mostly cognitive) by which a person self-regulates internal responses (such as emotions, cognitions or pain) that interfere with the smooth execution of a desired behavior" (Rosenbaum, 1980). According to Rosenbaum (1980) self-control responses are (a) cued by any internal event (e.g., pain, anxiety) that disrupts effective performance of a target behavior, and (b) directed at reducing the interference caused by those events. Rosenbaum further suggested that his concept might include the following four main self-control behaviors: (a) the use of cognitions and self-instructions to control emotional and physiological responses, (b) the application of the problem-solving strategies (planning, problem definition, evaluating alternatives and anticipating consequences), (c) the ability to delay immediate gratification, and (d) perceived self-efficacy, a general belief in one's ability to self-regulate internal events.

Several theoretical arguments have been made regarding the overlappings of the concept of learned resourcefulness and some other relevant self-control concepts, one of which was learned helplessness. Rosenbaum (1983) noted that the concept of learned resourcefulness might be considered as an anti-thesis of the concept of learned helplessness in certain points. Both helplessness and self-control behaviors assumed to be triggered by the situations in which a well-established response fails to produce an expected outcome. However at this point, the similarity between these models ends. The learned helplessness model (Abramson, Seligman, & Teasdale, 1978; Seligman, 1975) focuses on individuals' actual or perceived control over external events whereas self-control models (Bandura, 1977; Kanfer, 1977; Kanfer & Hagerman, 1981; Meichenbaum, 1977) focus on individuals' actual or perceived control over their own behavior (Rosenbaum & Ben-Ari, 1985).

To illustrate, Rosenbaum and Ben-Ari (1985) designed two experiments examining the role of self-control processes in learned helplessness studies by assessing the differential reactions to uncontrollability of participants who presumably had either high-resourceful or low-resourceful repertoire of self-control skills. Based on these studies, it was generally concluded that high-resourceful people are most likely to struggle when they experience frustration, more task-oriented, and attribute success to their own efforts and abilities. On the other hand, low-resourceful people are more likely to give up when they are faced with difficulties, produce more negative self-evaluative statements, and attribute success to chance or luck and failure to lack of personal ability.

In order to understand the relationship between learned resourcefulness and self-efficacy, Rosenbaum and Ben-Ari Samira (1986) conducted another study with fifty-three dialysis patients who were continuously required to comply with a stringent regiment of fluid-intake to keep alive. Results revealed that high-resourceful patients were successful in fluid-intake compliance than low-resourceful patients. Results also showed that the efficacious patients who believed that they were more successful in the past in keeping up with the fluid-intake restrictions attributed their past success to their own efforts and were highly resourceful. It was concluded that, even though people have

the necessary skills to cope with certain situational demands, they would not apply these skills unless they think that they are efficacious in applying these skills. As mentioned by Bandura (1982), high resourceful people would certainly possess higher levels of self-efficacy and be more likely to persist longer in coping. In another study (Weisenberg, Wolf, Miltwoch, & Mikuliner, 1990), high resourcefulness was also found to be positively associated with perceived self-efficacy.

To conclude, as Rosenbaum (1983) argued, the conceptualization of learned resourcefulness was based on the cognitive-behavioral literature on self-control and self-regulation proposed by different theorists (Bandura, 1977; Kanfer, 1977; Meichenbaum, 1977). Rosenbaum further argued that learned resourcefulness can be considered as the complementary part of these models, deals with cognitive-behavioral skills that an individual might use to control or regulate internal events.

Rosenbaum (1980) developed the Self-Control Schedule (SCS) to assess one's general repertoire of learned resourcefulness skills. Using the SCS, learned resourcefulness has been the subject of many studies. High scores on the SCS (high resourcefulness) were found to be related to success in cognitive behavioral therapy for depression (Simons, Lustman, Wetzel, & Murphy, 1985), tendency to attribute success to one's own efforts, ability to tolerate unavoidable pain, to cope with epilepsy and helplessness (Edwards & Riordan, 1994; Rosenbaum & Ben-Ari, 1985; Rosenbaum & Palmon, 1984), attendance in educational and other self-control programs (Kennett, 1994; Kennett & Ackerman, 1995; Kennett & Stedwill, 1996), ability to delay immediate gratification (Wulfert, Block, Santa-Ana, Rodriguez, & Colman, 2002), perceived self-efficacy (Rosenbaum & Ben-Ari Samira, 1986; Weisenberg, Wolf, Miltwoch, & Mikuliner, 1990), adaptive coping efforts (Ginter, West, & Zarski, 1988), engaging less in addictive behaviors (Carey & Carey, 1990). Researchers (Kennett & Stedwill, 1996) indicated that high-resourceful people were better equipped to deal with challenging or threatening situations more constructively than low-resourceful people.

All these research findings seem to suggest that learned resourcefulness increases individuals' capacity to deal with the stressful events. As it was also defined by Rosenbaum (1983) learned resourcefulness is a behavioral repertoire that starts to develop at the moment of birth and provides a basis for coping with stressful situations. From this standpoint, learned resourcefulness has some similarities with Staats (1975) concept of "behavioral repertoire" that is developed through conditioning principles. However, Rosenbaum (1983) suggested that learned resourcefulness, as a behavioral repertoire is not only developed through conditioning principles, but also developed through all kinds of learning (e.g., conditioning, modeling, and training) in the context of one's environment. Rosenbaum (1980) also argued that learned resourcefulness is acquired throughout life, starting in early childhood and individuals may differ in the extent to which they have acquired an effective repertoire of self-control behaviors during their learning history. In addition, researchers (Zauszniewski, Chung, Chang, & Krafcik, 2002) emphasized that skills constituting resourcefulness are believed to be learned not in the traditional school system but in other environments, including the home and family.

Based on these suggestions, it becomes obvious that family environment, more specifically parenting style, might be considered as one of the most important determinants in the development of learned resourcefulness. Parents, through child-rearing practices, can accomplish a great deal in terms of instilling good self-control in their children by providing them a supportive learning environment to develop and expand their learned resourcefulness repertoire.

Parenting has been described as the most challenging and complex of all the tasks of adulthood (Arandell, 1997). Since parenting is a complex activity that includes many specific behaviors, most researchers who attempt to describe the pattern of parenting rely on the concept of parenting style proposed by Diana Baumrind (1966) who conceptualized parenting style as a constellation of parental values, beliefs, and behaviors. Baumrind's conceptualization of parenting style is based on a typological approach and focuses on the configuration of different parenting practices. Baumrind

described three types of parenting with regard to parental control; permissive, authoritarian, and authoritative. According to her conceptualization of parenting style, permissive parents attempt to behave in a nonpunitive, acceptant, and affirmative manner toward the child's impulses, desires, and actions. They act as a resource for children to use, but do not see themselves as being responsible for shaping or modifying their children's ongoing and future behavior. They make few demands on their children and avoid exerting control, but they provide love. The authoritarian parents, on the other hand, tend to shape, control, and evaluate the child's behaviors and attitudes by setting strict rules, restricting the child's autonomy. They value discipline and obedience. They are status oriented and expect their rules to be obeyed without explanation. Baumrind defined authoritative parents as attempting to encourage bidirectional communication, verbal give and take, share with the child the reasoning behind their policy and request the child's objections when he/she refuses to conform. They provide their children with clear standards and monitor their behaviors. They value both autonomy and disciplined conformity. These parents are assertive but not intrusive or restrictive, and they tend to discipline in a supportive rather than a punitive manner.

Maccoby and Martin (1983) subsequently transformed Baumrind's configurational typology by categorizing families according to their levels of parental demandingness (control, strictness, supervision, maturity demands) and responsiveness (acceptance, warmth, involvement). Redefining parenting styles in terms of the interaction between these two underlying dimensions produced a fourfold typology. A primary difference between Baumrind's earlier model and Maccoby and Martin's refinement is that the latter differentiates between two types of permissive parenting. Accordingly, parents characterized by low demandingness and high responsiveness engage in permissive indulgent style. They are tolerant, warm, and accepting. However, these parents exercise little authority, make few demands. Permissive neglectful parents are defined as low in both demandingness and responsiveness. These parents do not provide structured environment, do not monitor their children's behavior, and are not supportive of their children. They reject their children. Indulgent parents are committed to their children, whereas neglectful parents preoccupied with their own problems and neglect parental

responsibilities (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). This extended parenting style typology distinguishes authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles with regard to responsiveness dimension. Authoritative parents are high in both demandingness and responsiveness, but authoritarian parents are highly demanding and unresponsive (Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

In the same way, Steinberg and his colleagues (Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, Dornbusch, 1991; Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 1994; Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbusch, & Darling, 1992) have employed a fourfold typology of child rearing styles based on acceptance/involvement, and strictness/supervision dimensions; authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful. According to this typology which was also used in the present study, the acceptance/involvement dimension is related to the extent to which adolescents perceive their parents as loving, involved, and responsive. The strictness/supervision dimension has to do with parental control, monitoring, and supervision of the child. Authoritative parents are high on both dimensions, however neglectful parents are low in both dimensions. Authoritarian parents are low on acceptance/involvement but high on strictness/supervision. Finally, indulgent parents are high on acceptance/involvement but low on strictness/supervision. It is obvious that there are more similarities than differences in the parenting dimensions proposed by these researchers.

Studies provided consistent findings for parenting styles across the developmental spectrum, from early childhood through adolescence. That is, several studies investigated parenting styles as a predictor of developmental outcomes such as; school performance and academic success (Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts, & Fraleigh, 1987; Steinberg, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989; Steinberg et al. 1992; Steinberg, Mounts, Lamborn, & Dornbusch, 1991; Strage, 1998; Strage & Brandt, 1999), attributions for academic achievement (Glasgow, Dornbusch, Troyer, Steinberg, & Ritter, 1997), social, behavioral and emotional adjustment, and emotional and behavioral problems (Finkenauer, Engels, & Baumeister, 2005; Kaufmann, Gesten, Santa Lucia, Salcedo, Rendina-Gobioff, & Gadd, 2000; Lamborn et al. 1991; Slicker, 1998; Steinberg et al.

1994), locus of control orientation (Mcclun & Merrell, 1998), peer relations (Brown, Mounts, Lamborn, & Steinberg, 1993; Durbin, Darling, Steinberg, & Brown, 1993; Fligni & Eccles, 1993), coping efforts (Dusek & Danko, 1994; Mayseless, Scharf, & Sholt, 2003; McIntyre & Dusek, 1995).

Adolescents from authoritative homes were found to achieve more positive outcomes in areas of psychosocial, cognitive, and personality development (Wambach & Brothen, 2000). On the other hand, adolescents of neglectful parents were found most disadvantaged regarding measures indicating psychosocial, cognitive, and personality development (Glasgow et al. 1997). Adolescents whose parents were characterized as either authoritarian or indulgent demonstrated a mixture of negative and positive outcomes (Lamborn et al. 1991; Steinberg et al. 1994).

Although limited in number, studies specifically investigating the relationship between self-control related variables and different aspects of parenting indicated that maternal resourcefulness and child's automatic thoughts were predictors of child's resourcefulness (Zauszniewski, Chung, Chang, & Krafcik, 2002). In addition, parental approval and child's perception of parental approval were found to be related with learned resourcefulness of undergraduates (Brewin, Andrews, & Furnham, 1996). In another study, (Bynum & Brody, 2005) mothers' coping behaviors were reported as the predictor of parent-child relationship quality, child self-regulatory behavior, and behavioral and emotional difficulties in children.

Research on investigating the relationship between adjustment and coping efforts of children indicated that parental warmth (Chen, Liu, & Li, 2000), quality of parent-child interaction (Fish & Waldhart, 1984), predictable, organized family environment and maternal support (Hardy, Power, & Jaedicke, 1993), parental support (Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, & Lazarus, 1981), parents' coping behaviors, cohesion and expressiveness in the family (Kliewer, Fearnow, & Miller, 1996), maternal acceptance (Shell & Roosa, 1991), resourceful, positive and stable persons in the environment (Wahlsten, 1994)

were among the most important factors in developing adjustment and adaptive coping behaviors.

In the light of the findings of these two lines of research, i.e., learned resourcefulness and parenting style, it might be expected that parenting styles seem to have significant effects on adolescents' learned resourcefulness skills since these skills are developed throughout the life span starting from childhood and are basically learned in family environment and more specifically from parents through modeling.

## **1.2. Purpose of the Study**

Purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between parenting styles and learned resourcefulness levels of high school students.

## **1.3. Research Question**

Are there any significant differences in the learned resourcefulness levels of male and female high school students as a function of perceived parenting styles?

## **1.4. Definition of the Terms**

**Learned resourcefulness:** Learned resourcefulness is an acquired repertoire of behaviors and skills (mostly cognitive) by which a person self-regulates internal responses (such as emotions, cognitions or pain) that interfere with the smooth execution of a desired behavior (Rosenbaum, 1980).

**Parenting style:** Parenting style is defined as "...a constellation of attitudes toward the adolescent that creates an emotional climate in which the parents' behaviors are expressed" (Darling & Steinberg, 1993).

**Authoritative parenting style:** Authoritative parents encourage their children to be independent but have the ultimate responsibility for them and place limits and control their actions. Parents who have this kind of attitude are warm and nurturing toward their children. Authoritative parenting is associated with children's social competence (Hetherington & Parke, 1993).

**Neglectful parenting style:** A parenting style in which the parents are not involved in the child's life. Children have a strong need for their parents to care about them. Consequently, children whose parents are neglectful are dependent, socially incompetent and show poor self-control (Santrock, 1999).

**Authoritarian parenting style:** Authoritarian parents are restrictive and punitive and they favor obedience and conformity. Children of these parents are socially incompetent (Santrock, 1999).

**Indulgent parenting style:** Indulgent parents are highly involved with their children but place few demands. Children who are reared in an indulgent manner are socially incompetent and lack of self control (Santrock, 1999).

### **1.5. Significance of the Study**

The literature on various socialization practices provides consistent evidence that parental warmth, inductive discipline, nonpunitive punishment practices, and consistency in child rearing are associated with positive developmental outcomes in children and in adolescents' development and adjustment (Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Glasgow et al. 1997; Lamborn et al. 1991; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Research from developmental psychology strongly suggests that families, particularly their child-rearing practices play an important role in several developmental outcomes, including developing the process of self-regulation (Wambach & Brothen, 2000). Since self-regulation begins with the individuals' belief regarding having control over their behavior (Kanfer & Hagerman, 1981), developing self-control is expected to be

encouraged mostly by the parenting styles. Thus, parenting styles might be one of the most important determinants of self-control besides several other developmental outcomes.

Adolescence is characterized by various challenging and stressful situations. During this period of development, adolescents' struggles to form an "identity" make them to acquire an effective repertoire of self-control skills to deal with "identity crisis" and develop a new sense of self (Erikson, 1968). As stated by Rosenbaum (1980) a successful coping starts with the regulation of internal events, that is, learned resourcefulness is acquired through learning. As these skills are learned informally, the family environment and particularly parenting styles might be expected to play an important role in individual's acquisition of learned resourcefulness skills. More specifically, examining the effect of parents' child-rearing styles in the development of this repertoire of behavioral and cognitive skills in their children may help us to understand which of the parenting styles provides a supportive learning environment for the adolescents in developing or facilitating resourcefulness skills. However, in Turkey, although there are several studies on both parenting styles and learned resourcefulness separately, the lack of research on investigating the effect of parenting styles on learned resourcefulness is expected to make the present study significant.

Present study is of significance in counseling practices, too. The findings of the present study are expected to be helpful for the counselors to understand the learning history of the adolescents in the development of behavioral repertoires in coping with the stressful events. Counselors can not only develop some training programs for the students to help them to have appropriate cognitive and behavioral skills in their repertoire to cope with stressful events but also plan some parent education programs to promote more productive parenting styles that enhance resourcefulness skills in their children.

## **1.6. Limitations**

The present study has some limitations. First, the study was carried out with high school students in Yenimahalle Alparslan High School in Ankara. For this reason, the results cannot be generalized to other high school students in Ankara. In addition, the information on parenting styles was obtained from adolescents' self-reports based on their perceptions not through objective observations of parent-child interaction. They might over interpret or over represent their parents' attitudes towards them.

## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE**

In this chapter, a review of the relevant literature to this study is presented. Since no study could be found directly investigating the association between parenting style and learned resourcefulness, the studies separately examining these two concepts with some other related concepts were introduced in this chapter. Thus, the chapter includes three sections. The first section covers the review of the literature concerning learned resourcefulness. The second section introduces the research conducted on parenting styles. The last section presents the Turkish studies related to learned resourcefulness and parenting styles.

#### **2.1. Research on Learned Resourcefulness**

Learned resourcefulness refers to “a set of behavioral and cognitive skills used to self-regulate internal responses that interfere with the goal related behavior.” (Rosenbaum, 1980). As it was explained in the introduction chapter, according to Rosenbaum (1980), human beings are inherently goal-directed and constantly engage in self-control behaviors which include (a) the use of cognitions to control emotional and physiological responses, (b) the application of problem-solving strategies, (c) the ability to delay immediate gratification, and (c) perceived self-efficacy, a general belief in one’s ability to self-regulate internal events.

To investigate the role of self-control processes in learned resourcefulness studies, Rosenbaum and Ben-Ari (1985) designed two experiments to assess the differential reactions to uncontrollability of participants who presumably had either high-resourceful

or low-resourceful repertoire of self-control skills. Experiments were carried out with undergraduate psychology students who were divided into two groups according to their SCS scores. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the three experimental conditions according to the type of feedback (non-contingent success, non-contingent failure, and no feedback groups) they received. After assigning groups, participants were tested to assess their natural abilities to become a good psychotherapist. Non-contingent failure group received 80% negative feedback and 20% positive feedback from the experimenter whereas non-contingent success group received 80% positive feedback and 20% negative feedback from the experimenter for their choice on possible therapist response for given trials. Participants from no feedback condition group did not receive any feedback from the experimenter. After the experiment, participants checked 15 self-referent statements to appraise their own responses. Results revealed that, high-resourceful students checked fewer negative self-referent statements during non-contingent failure condition, and more positive ones during non-contingent success condition as compared with low-resourceful students. Furthermore, high-resourceful students used more positive self-referent statements than low-resourceful students in rewarding themselves for success whereas low-resourceful students used more negative ones for failure than high-resourceful students.

In the second experiment, participants were required to solve two insoluble puzzles. After puzzle task, they evaluated their motivation to perform best on each puzzle, how much helplessness they felt on each puzzle and their causal attributions to their performance of each task. Results indicated that low-resourceful students focused on causes for their failures but not their success while high-resourceful students checked statements that indicate reasons for their success but not their failure.

As a result of these two experiments, researchers, Rosenbaum and Ben-Ari (1985) concluded that high-resourceful people were most likely to struggle when they experienced frustration, more task-oriented, attribute success to their own efforts and abilities. On the other hand, low-resourceful people were more likely to give up when

they were faced with difficulties, produced more negative self-evaluative statements, and attributed success to chance or luck, and failure to lack of personal ability.

Several studies have been conducted to investigate the relationship between learned resourcefulness and some related concepts. For example, Rosenbaum (1983) proposed that the concept of learned resourcefulness might be considered as an anti-thesis of the concept of learned helplessness. Based on this proposition, Rosenbaum and Palmon (1984) investigated the relationship between helplessness and resourcefulness in coping with epilepsy. Fifty epileptic patients participated in this study. Patients were divided into three groups according to the frequency of seizures: high, medium, and low frequencies. Subjects were then, divided into high-resourceful and low-resourceful groups according to their scores on SCS. Researchers also evaluated patients' emotional adjustment levels and their beliefs in their ability to control their health and seizures. The results of the study demonstrated that in the medium and low categories of seizure frequency high-resourceful subjects were significantly less depressed and anxious and coped better with their disability than did the low-resourceful subjects. However, in the high frequency range of seizures high-resourceful and low-resourceful epileptics equally showed low levels of emotional adjustment. Regardless of the severity level of the epilepsy, high-resourceful epileptics maintained a stronger belief in their control over their health and their seizures. Seizure frequency had no effect on these beliefs.

Another study (Rosenbaum & Ben-Ari Samira, 1986) was carried out to examine the relationship between learned resourcefulness and self-efficacy based on the proposition that even though people have the necessary skills to cope with certain situational demands, they would not apply these skills unless they think that they are efficacious in applying these skills. The sample included fifty-three dialysis patients who were continuously required to comply with a stringent regiment of fluid-intake to keep alive. According to the hypothesis, patients' self-evaluations of their past compliance and their efficacy expectations would be associated with their actual delay behavior. Result of the study yielded a significant positive relationship between learned resourcefulness and self-efficacy. More specifically, results revealed that high-resourceful patients were

more successful in fluid-intake compliance than low-resourceful patients. Results also showed that the efficacious patients who believed that they were successful in the past in keeping up with the fluid-intake restrictions attributed their past success to their own efforts and were highly resourceful.

The result of a study conducted by different researchers (Weisenberg, Wolf, Miltwoch, & Mikuliner, 1990) also supported the positive relationship between high resourcefulness and perceived self-efficacy.

Apart from some theoretically relevant concepts, the concept of learned resourcefulness has been examined in relation to some other variables that imply personal control and achievement. For instance, Kennett (1994) studied the importance of learned resourcefulness skills to perseverance in an academic self-management program. Results revealed that students who dropped out of the self-management program scored low on SCS. In other words, high-resourceful people are most likely to persist, try hard, use effective problem solving strategies, think positively, set goals, and achieve their goals despite of the difficulties and challenges.

Ginter, West, and Zarski (1988) found that high-resourceful students decreased their problem-focused coping efforts from preparation (for an exam) week to waiting (for the results) week, whereas low-resourceful students did not. In contrast, low-resourceful students reported significantly more wishful thinking, self-blame, and distancing during waiting week.

Kennett and Ackerman (1995) examined the effect of learned resourcefulness skills on weight loss following a self-control program. Results indicated that low-resourceful women were more likely to drop out of the self-control program than high-resourceful women. Although both the high and low resourceful women who completed the program lost the same amount of weight, only the high-resourceful subjects continued to lose weight in the follow up. In contrast, the low resourceful women regained the lost weight.

In another study, Kennett and Stedwill (1996) investigated the effect of learned resourcefulness on workshop attendance and participation. The results showed that students having low SCS scores were more likely to drop out from the workshop than students having high SCS scores.

Research also demonstrated that learned resourcefulness was negatively correlated with some addictive behaviors. Carey and Carey (1990) found that low-resourceful individuals reported higher levels of alcohol consumption than high-resourceful individuals. On the other hand, never smokers scored slightly higher than ex-smokers and current smokers. The findings revealed no significant difference between ex-smokers and current smokers in learned resourcefulness.

In another study, high school students were offered a monetary incentive for participating in research. They were given a choice between a smaller fee immediately and a larger fee one week later. Compared to the students who delayed gratification, those who chose the immediate fee showed more self-regulatory deficits. They showed greater involvement with cigarettes, alcohol, and marijuana, had a poorer self-concept and underperformed academically (Wulfert, Block, Santa-Ana, Rodriguez, & Colman, 2002).

Learned resourcefulness was also found to be predictive to the response to cognitive behavioral therapy for depression. For example, Simons, Lustman, Wetzel, and Murphy (1985) randomly assigned 35 depressed outpatients to cognitive-behavioral therapy or treatment with an antidepressant. Results indicated that high-resourceful patients entering cognitive-behavioral therapy responded better than low-resourceful patients. In contrast, subjects with low initial scores on the SCS responded better to pharmacotherapy than the subjects with high SCS scores. The investigators stated that resourceful individuals may be good candidates for cognitive-behavioral therapy as they already have the most of the skills that a cognitive-behavior therapist suggests to a client to understand and alter his or her feelings and behaviors.

Burns, Rude, Simons, Bates, and Thase (1994) replicated the previous study but the results provided that high-resourceful individuals experienced somewhat recovery from depression. This effect appeared to be quiet modest and was present only among the more severely depressed patients.

Edwards and Riordan (1994) noted that the majority of South African Blacks have lived in conditions of poverty and social and political oppression that might be expected to induce learned helplessness and depression. However, research indicated that despite of the adverse conditions, they did not exhibit helplessness or low self-esteem, in contrast, these black people found to have higher levels of personal resourcefulness than the whites.

## **2.2. Research on Parenting Styles**

Parenting has attracted the attention of researchers in psychology to understand socialization processes (Collins, Maccoby, Steinberg, Hetherington, & Bornstein, 2000). To be precise, the role of parenting in children's socioemotional and cognitive development has been one of the central issues in developmental research.

Several studies have been conducted to examine the association between parenting style and social, behavioral, and emotional adjustment of both children and adolescents. For example, Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, and Dornbusch (1991) conducted a study in order to test Maccoby and Martin's revision of Baumrind's conceptual framework. Results indicated that adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritative scored highest on measures of psychological competence and lowest on measures of psychological and behavioral dysfunction; the reverse was true for adolescents who perceived their parents as neglectful. Adolescents whose parents are authoritarian scored reasonably well on measures of obedience and conformity but had relatively poorer self-conceptions than other adolescents. In contrast, adolescents from indulgent homes evidenced a strong sense of self-confidence and scored relatively high on measures of social competence but slightly lower than authoritatively reared adolescents in work

orientation and self-perception of academic ability. Adolescents who perceived their parents as indulgent also reported a higher frequency of substance abuse and school misconduct and were less engaged in school.

Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, and Dornbusch (1994) conducted a follow-up study in order to examine whether the observed differences that were reported in a previous study (Lamborn et al. 1991) as adolescents' adjustment varied as a function of their parents' child rearing style were maintained over time. Results indicated that differences in adjustment related to variations in parenting were either maintained or increased over time.

Slicker (1998) reported that parenting style was significantly related to older adolescents' behavioral adjustment. Children of authoritative parents were found to experience the most favourable adjustments.

Kaufmann, Gesten, Santa Lucia, Salcedo, Rendina-Gobioff, and Gadd (2000) investigated the relationship between parenting style and children's adjustment as reported from the parents' perspective. According to results of the study, authoritativeness was correlated negatively with emotional and behavioral problems in children and positively with healthy adjustment. Regression analysis revealed that authoritative parenting was a significant and strong predictor of children's adjustment.

Finkenauer, Engels, and Baumeister (2005) reported a negative relationship between authoritative parenting (high parental acceptance, strict control and monitoring, and little use of manipulative psychological control) and emotional (depression, stress, low self-esteem) and behavioral (delinquency, aggression) problems among adolescents. The researchers also stated that adolescents with low levels of emotional and behavioral problems perceived their parents as accepting, supportive, and warm.

In some studies, only the maternal parenting styles were examined. For example, Chen, Liu, and Li (2000) found that whereas maternal warmth had significant contributions to

the prediction of emotional adjustment, paternal warmth significantly predicted later social and school achievement in Chinese children. Similarly, Bynum and Brody (2005) examined the relationship between maternal education, maternal coping behavior and parent-child relationship quality, children self-regulatory behavior, and mental health difficulties. According to results mothers' use of active coping behaviors predicted more positive parent-child relationship quality, greater child self-regulatory behavior, and fewer perceived behavioral and emotional difficulties in children.

A vast amount of research on parenting styles was carried out in relation to academic success, attributions for academic achievement, school performance, and academic adjustment of students.

For example, Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts, and Fraleigh (1987) examined the relationship between parenting styles and school performance of adolescents. They found that both permissive and authoritarian parenting styles were negatively associated with the student's grades, whereas authoritative parenting style was positively associated with the grades of the students.

Steinberg, Elmen, and Mounts (1989) examined the relation between three aspects of authoritative parenting—acceptance, psychological autonomy, and behavioral control—and school achievement in a sample of 120 adolescents in order to test the hypothesis whether the authoritative parenting facilitates school success. The mediating role of adolescents' psychosocial maturity was also investigated. Results indicated that authoritative parenting facilitated adolescents' academic success. Adolescents who described their parents as treating them warmly, democratically, and firmly were more likely than their peers to develop positive attitudes toward, and beliefs about, their achievement, and as a consequence, they were more likely to do better in school.

Steinberg, Mounts, Lamborn, and Dornbusch (1991) examined whether the positive relation between authoritative parenting and adolescent adjustment was moderated by the ecological context in which adolescents live. For this reason, they conducted a study

on 10000 high school students differed in socioeconomic status, ethnicity, and family structure. Results showed that the positive correlates of authoritative parenting exceeded ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and family structure. In other words, regardless of their ethnicity, class, or parents' marital status adolescents whose parents were accepting, firm, and democratic got higher grades in school, reported less anxiety and depression, were more self-reliant and less likely to engage in delinquent behavior.

Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbusch, and Darling (1992) conducted a study on an ethnically and socioeconomically diverse sample to investigate the influence of authoritative parenting, parental involvement in schooling. Results revealed that authoritative parenting resulted in better adolescent school performance and stronger school engagement.

Glasgow, Dornbusch, Troyer, Steinberg, and Ritter (1997) examined the association between parenting styles and adolescents' attributions for their academic success and failure. According to results, adolescents from nonauthoritative homes were more likely than their peers to attribute success to external causes but attribute failure to low ability.

Strage (1998) reported that authoritative parenting style was positively related with success at school, general concern about preparation for the future, and positive adjustment to college. Strage and Brandt (1999) also reported that authoritative parenting style was positively related to college students' academic adjustment and success. These findings suggested that parenting style continues to play an important role in the academic lives of college students.

Some studies also carried out to understand the effect of parenting styles on children's peer relations. For example, Durbin, Darling, Steinberg, and Brown (1993) examined the association between peer group orientation and parenting style among European-American high school students. The results revealed that parenting style was related to adolescents' orientation toward particular peer groups. Specifically, adolescents of authoritative parents were more likely to be oriented toward well-rounded crowds that

rewarded both adult-and-peer-supported norms, whereas adolescents who characterized their parents as neglectful were more likely to be oriented toward crowds that did not endorse adult values. Furthermore, adolescents from indulgent parents were more likely to be oriented toward crowds that were characterized by a fun-culture orientation.

Brown, Mounts, Lamborn, and Steinberg (1993) found that specific parenting practices (monitoring, encouragement of achievement, joint decision making) were significantly associated with specific adolescent behaviors such as drug use, self-reliance, and academic achievement, which in turn were significantly related to membership in common adolescent crowds (jocks, druggies, etc.). The result of another study (Fligni & Eccles, 1993) also yielded an association between authoritative parenting and better peer relations.

In the light of all these studies, it can be concluded that parenting has a great impact on children's developmental outcomes and it continues to influence the development in the adolescence. Furthermore adolescents who have experienced different styles of parenting differ in their personality characteristics, social and academic skills (Baumrind, 2005).

During childhood, the development of self-control is a progressive realization of the limitation of one's own competence. Children's beliefs about self-efficacy and self-control are shaped by experiences and interpretations. The expectations of self-efficacy may be integrated to form a generalized perception of control that becomes the basis of individual identity (Skinner, 1995). If children do not develop appropriate cognitive-behavioral repertoires, they may develop a sense of helplessness, poor performance, negative thought patterns, or depression (Garber & Hilsman, 1992; cited in Zauszniewski, Chung, Chang, & Krafcik, 2002).

Learned resourcefulness which was proposed as a repertoire of behavioral and cognitive skills to self-regulate internal events may also be considered as an accessible coping skill that people use in a stressful situation. Several studies indicated that certain parenting

behaviors were likely to enhance individual's ability to be self-regulated and use adaptive coping skills. For example, Shell and Roosa (1991) found that maternal acceptance was associated with support-seeking coping in a sample of elementary-school age children, while maternal negativity was related to avoidance coping (Shell & Roosa, 1991; cited in Kliewer, Fearnow, & Miller, 1996).

Wahlsten (1994) also noted that resourceful, positive, and stable persons in the environment was found to be the most important factor in developing positive adjustment and effective coping behaviors. Moreover, Fish and Waldhart (1984) found that when a child had limited interaction with parents, he or she had difficulty in developing sufficient ego strength to solve emotional problems and develop coping mechanisms.

Additionally, Dusek and colleagues demonstrated that adolescents who perceived their parents as warm, supportive, firm, or authoritative reported higher levels of problem-focused coping and low levels of emotion-focused coping (Dusek & Danko, 1994; McIntyre & Dusek, 1995).

In another study with 60 school-age children and their mothers, Hardy, Power, and Jaedicke (1993) found that children who received high levels of structure (the degree to which parents provide a predictable, organized environment for the child) reportedly used fewer aggressive coping strategies— strategies that can be considered as maladaptive forms of emotion-focused coping. The researchers also reported that maternal support was associated with children's use of a greater variety of coping strategies with everyday problems and with greater use of avoidant strategies only in uncontrollable situations.

Zauszniewski, Chung, Chang, and Krafcik (2002) investigated the predictors of resourcefulness in school aged children and found evidence for maternal resourcefulness and child's automatic thoughts as predictors of child's resourcefulness. Results did not

reveal any evidence for the other variables which were family context (one or two parents, and number of siblings), gender, and mother's occupation.

Brewin, Andrews, and Furnham (1996) investigated parental correlates (parental self-cognitions, parental approval and offspring's perception of parental approval) of learned resourcefulness, optimism and positive self-evaluation in a cross-sectional study of undergraduates. Intergenerational effects were observed for learned resourcefulness and positive self-evaluation, but not for optimism. Both perceived parental approval and parental report of approval with the offspring positively correlated with learned resourcefulness level (SCS scores) and self-evaluation of the students.

Results of the study by Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, and Lazarus (1981) showed that daily hassles are often more strongly related to adaptation outcomes than are major life events. High levels of parental support were associated with child's repertoire of varied coping strategies.

Mayseless, Scharf, and Sholt (2003) examined whether authoritarian or authoritative parenting practices best prepare youth for coping with an authoritarian context. Findings demonstrated that authoritative parenting practices were advantageous with respect to coping and adaptation in an authoritarian context like the military and that this association was to some extent mediated through the adolescents' self-esteem.

Kliewer, Fearnow, and Miller (1996) reported that children's coping efforts were associated with family environment, quality of parent-child relationship, and parents' own coping. That is, parents' use of more adaptive coping strategies, a positive family environment (high levels of cohesion and expressiveness and low levels of conflict), and parental acceptance and coaching were positively associated with children's use of adaptive coping.

Mcclun and Merrell (1998) investigated the association between adolescents' perceived parenting styles, locus of control orientation, and self-concept ratings. Results showed

that adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritative had more internal locus of control scores than the adolescents who perceive their parents as either indulgent or authoritarian.

### **2.3. Studies in Turkey**

In Turkey, although there were some studies conducted separately on learned resourcefulness and parenting style, no research has been found investigating the relationship between these two concepts. Therefore, the studies on learned resourcefulness and parenting styles carried out in Turkey were presented separately in the following paragraphs.

Studies on learned resourcefulness investigated the concept in relation with depression (Siva, 1991; Uçman, 1990), stress level (Yılmaz, 1993), locus of control (Dağ, 1992; Demirci, 1998; Mizrahi, 1993), causal attributions (Yıldız, 1997), social adaptation (Sarıcı, 1999), institutionalization (Boyras, 2002), well-being (Cenkseven, 2004), academic achievement (Akgün & Ciarrochi, 2003; Sarı, 2004), burnout (Maraşlı, 2003), and coping responses (Akgün, 2004), automatic thought patterns (Güloğlu, 2006).

Uçman (1990) studied the relationship between coping and psychological disorders in working women. The result yielded a negative correlation between learned resourcefulness and depression. Siva (1991) who studied the ways of coping, learned resourcefulness and depression in infertility reported a negative relationship between depression and learned resourcefulness. Individuals who scored higher on SCS had lower depressive symptoms.

Yılmaz (1993) studied the relationship between stress levels, psychopathology, and coping behaviors of university students. Results revealed a significant negative correlation between stress levels and learned resourcefulness levels of the students.

Dağ (1992) studied the relationship between locus of control, learned resourcefulness and psychological symptoms. The researcher reported that internal locus of control had a positive relationship with high learned resourcefulness. He also found that locus of control and learned resourcefulness separately affected psychological symptoms.

Mizrabi (1993) searched the effects of trait anxiety, health locus of control orientation, pain duration and severity on learned resourcefulness and found that people with low trait anxiety, internal locus of control, low pain intensity and high commitment level emerged to employ a high range of self-control, cognitive strategies that result in high resourcefulness. In a similar vein, Demirci's study (1998) on psychometric properties of Need for Cognition Inventory revealed a positive relationship between high need for cognition, internal locus of control and high learned resourcefulness.

Yıldız (1997) examined the relationship between learned resourcefulness and causal attributions to successful and unsuccessful situations. She found that high-resourceful individuals attribute success to their own efforts and abilities, whereas low-resourceful individuals attribute success to chance or luck.

Sarıcı (1999) reported a significant relationship between learned resourcefulness and social adaptation. In her study, high resourcefulness was significantly related with higher levels of social adaptation among university students.

Boyras (2002) carried out a study on the level of learned resourcefulness in institutionalized and non-institutionalized adolescents. She reported significant differences in the level of learned resourcefulness of institutionalized and non-institutionalized adolescents in favor of non-institutionalized adolescents. The results also indicated no main effect of gender, but a significant interaction of gender and institutionalization. Accordingly, non-institutionalized male adolescents are more resourceful than the institutionalized males.

Cenkseven (2004) investigated the predictability of university students' subjective and psychological well-being by their level of extraversion, neuroticism, locus of control, learned resourcefulness, socio-economic status, gender, health situations and satisfaction of social interactions, recreation activities and academic situation. Findings indicated that people who had a high level of learned resourcefulness and internal locus of control reported to have better subjective and psychological well-being levels.

Sarı (2004) conducted a study on university students to examine the learned resourcefulness levels of the students in relation to some variables. Results of the study revealed that the students who had scholarship and high GPA scored higher in SCS than the students who did not have scholarship and the students who had low GPA. However, the results did not indicate any significant difference in learned resourcefulness levels of the students with regard to gender, place of residence, romantic relationship status, parents' marital status.

Maraşlı (2003) investigated the high school teachers' burnout levels in relation with some characteristics of teachers (gender, years spending in teaching, salary and being happy with the salary, marital status, having children, education level, branch, the way of choosing occupation, attendance to social activities) and their learned resourcefulness levels. Significant interaction was found between some characteristics of teachers (marital status, having children, education level, branch, the way of choosing occupation, and attendance in social activities) and their learned resourcefulness levels on their burnout levels.

Akgün (2003, 2004) carried out two studies on learned resourcefulness. Akgün and Ciarrochi (2003) reported that academic stress was negatively related with academic performance and this negative association was moderated by learned resourcefulness. In other words, high academic stress adversely impacted the grades of low-resourceful students but had no effect on high- resourceful students. Akgün (2004) also examined the effects of situation and learned resourcefulness on coping responses. Results revealed that high-resourceful students had higher self-efficacy expectancies, used more

problem-focused coping, more positive reappraisal, and they were more likely to seek social support and less likely to use escape-avoidance strategies during the examination situation.

In a recent study, Güloğlu (2006) reported a significant relationship between learned resourcefulness levels and automatic thought patterns of elementary school students. Accordingly, high resourceful children scored significantly higher in “Positive view of self, future and world” and lower in “Negative view of self, future and world” subscale scores of Cognitive Triad Inventory for Children.

In Turkish literature, there are several studies conducted on parenting style in relation to learned helplessness (Polat, 1986), adjustment (Bilal, 1984; Bostan, 1993; Öksüz, 1991), social anxiety (Erkan, 2002), identity status (Solmaz, 2002; Çakır, 2001), affective and behavioral disorders (Sipahioğlu, 2002), academic achievement and anxiety level (Gökçedağ, 2001), decision making strategies (Eldeleklioğlu, 1996), self esteem (Duru, 1995; Sümer & Güngör, 1999; Tunç, 2002), assertiveness (Saruhan, 1996), self-image (Aksaray, 1992), personality characteristics (Karadayı, 1994), and self-perception (Yılmaz, 2000).

Polat (1986) studied the relationship between parenting style and children’s learned-helplessness level. Results revealed that children who perceived their parents as authoritarian had higher levels of learned- helplessness than the children who perceived their parents as authoritative.

Three studies were conducted to examine the relationship between parenting style and adjustment. Bilal (1984) found a significant positive correlation between adjustment level and authoritative parenting style of the high school students. Öksüz (1991) reported that the students who had authoritative parents were higher on adjustment than those who had authoritarian parents. Bostan (1993) also examined the relationship between parenting styles and adjustment level of adolescents. Results showed that adjustment had

a positive relationship with authoritative parenting style whereas a negative relationship with authoritarian and neglectful parenting style.

Some researchers were interested in examining the relationship between parenting style and identity. Çakır (2001) found that identity status was significantly related to parenting styles. The students whose parents had authoritative parenting style scored significantly higher than did the students whose parents had neglectful style in both identity achievement and identity foreclosure subscales. On the other hand, students who perceived their parents indulgent scored significantly higher in identity foreclosure than did the ones who perceived their parents neglectful. Parallel to these findings, Solmaz (2002) found a significant positive relationship between authoritative parenting style and identity achievement and a significant negative relationship between authoritarian and neglectful parenting and identity achievement.

Sipahioğlu (2002) conducted a study on the association between parenting styles and affective and behavioral disorders. The findings revealed a significant negative correlation between authoritative parenting styles and affective and behavioral disorders.

Gökçedağ (2001) studied the relationship between academic achievement and trait anxiety and parenting styles. She reported that academic achievement had a negative relationship with authoritarian parenting and a positive relationship with authoritative parenting. On the contrary, trait anxiety had a positive relationship with authoritarian parenting.

Eldeleklioğlu (1996) reported a positive relationship between authoritative parenting style and reasonable and independent decision making. The researcher also found a negative relationship between authoritative parenting style and indecision.

The relationship between parenting style and certain personality traits like self-esteem, assertiveness, self-image, optimism, self-reliance and some social relationship variables

like close relationships, social anxiety has been investigated by some Turkish researchers.

Duru (1995) reported that self-esteem levels of children who perceived their parents as authoritative were higher than the children who perceived their parents as authoritarian. Sümer and Güngör (1999) found that authoritarian and indulgent parenting styles were more common than authoritative and neglectful styles among college students in Ankara. The results revealed that authoritative and indulgent styles were related with high level of self-esteem and self-concept, the secure attachment style and low level of trait anxiety. Furthermore, Tunç (2002) examined the relationship between parenting style and self-esteem in high school students and the results of the study yielded that those adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritarian had a relatively low level of self-esteem than those who perceived their parents as authoritative and indulgent.

Saruhan (1996) examined the relationship between assertiveness and parenting styles of high school students. She found that adolescents who were assertive perceived their parents as authoritative. However, adolescents who had negative assertive behaviors perceived their parents as authoritarian. In another study, Aksaray (1992) found that authoritative parenting style was positively related to self-images of the high school students whereas authoritarian parenting style was negatively related to self-images of them.

In social relationship field, Karadayı (1994), in her study with university students, found that fathers were perceived as more authoritarian, less democratic and distant in the relationship when compared with mothers. Results also indicated that joyfulness, optimism, calmness, force of struggle, self-reliance, self-esteem and dependency on parents were positively related to good and close relationships with parents. However, pessimism, shyness, skillfulness, and dependency on friends were found to be related with strict parental discipline.

Yılmaz (2000) found that behavioral conduct, close relationships, and self-perception of high school students were significantly predicted by the acceptance/involvement dimension of parenting style. Moreover, psychological autonomy dimension predicted academic competence, self-perception, and self-worth of high school students. Erkan (2002) reported that social anxiety was negatively correlated with authoritative parenting style, but positively correlated with authoritarian and indulgent parenting styles.

## CHAPTER III

### METHOD

The methodological procedures of the study are presented in this chapter. The major topics are the sampling, the data collection instruments, the data collection procedure and the data analysis techniques, respectively. The selection procedures and the demographic characteristics of the students are presented in the sampling section. The data collection instruments were introduced in the second section. In the third section, the data collection procedure was explained. Finally, the fourth section presents the statistical techniques used in analyzing the data.

#### 3.1. Sample

The sample of the study consisted of 834 (360 males, 474 females) high school students in Yenimahalle Alparslan High School in Ankara. All the volunteered students in the school participated in the study. The age of students ranged from 14 to 19, with the mean of 16.3 (SD=.87). The sample included 27 classes, 6 classes from 9<sup>th</sup> graders, 11 classes from 10<sup>th</sup> graders, 10 classes from 11<sup>th</sup> graders. The distribution of the students by gender and grade was presented in Table 3.1.1.

Table 3.1.1. The Distribution of the Students by Gender and Grade

| <b>Grade</b>           | <b>Female</b> | <b>Male</b> | <b>Total</b> |
|------------------------|---------------|-------------|--------------|
| <b>9<sup>th</sup></b>  | 95            | 77          | 172          |
| <b>10<sup>th</sup></b> | 178           | 141         | 319          |
| <b>11<sup>th</sup></b> | 201           | 142         | 343          |
| <b>Total</b>           | 474           | 360         | 834          |

### **3.2. Data Collection Instruments**

The data were gathered by administering two instruments, namely Self-Control Schedule (see Appendix B) and Parenting Style Inventory (see Appendix C) . Information regarding gender, age, grade, and GPA was also collected (see Appendix A). However, the GPA data was not used because of lots of missing values.

#### **3.2.1. Self Control Schedule (SCS)**

Self Control Schedule (SCS) was originally developed by Rosenbaum (1980) for the purpose of assessing individual tendencies to exert self-control methods to resolve behavioral problems. The SCS is a self-report instrument which covers the following content areas: (a) use of cognitions and self-instructions to cope with emotional and physiological responses, (b) application of problem solving strategies (e.g., planning, problem definition, evaluating alternatives, and preparing for consequences), (c) ability to delay immediate gratification, and (d) a general belief in one's ability to self-regulate internal events.

The original version of SCS consists of 36 Likert-type items using a 6-point scale. For each item participants indicate the degree to which the statement describes their behavior, ranging from extremely descriptive to extremely nondescriptive with no neutral response alternative. A higher composite score indicates greater resourcefulness. The possible score range of the original scale is between +108 and -108 where 11 items are scored in a reverse order (Rosenbaum, 1980).

The reliability of SCS was established in a number of studies involving more than 600 subjects (Rosenbaum, 1980). Test-retest reliability with four weeks interval indicated that the SCS was fairly stable over time ( $r = .96$ ). An alpha coefficient computed on six different samples of subjects ranged from .78 to .86, indicating a high internal consistency among items.

In the United States, Redden, Tucker, and Young (1983) administered the SCS to a sample of 1000 undergraduates and they obtained an alpha reliability of .82. The researchers also conducted factor analytic and correlational studies. Factor analysis yielded six factors which were named as planful behavior, mood control, and control of unwanted thoughts, pain control, impulse control and delay of immediate gratification. These factors corresponded to the content areas that previously pointed out by Rosenbaum (1980). In correlational study, same researchers found that the Self Control Schedule (SCS) and Croskey's Measure of Communication Apprehension was significantly but moderately and negatively correlated ( $r = -.37, p < .001$ ). Richards (1985) also reported a significant correlations between SCS and Rotter's (1966) Locus of Control Scale ( $r = -.37, p = .002$ ) and Manifest Anxiety Scale ( $r = -.56, p = .001$ ).

The Self Control Schedule (SCS) was translated and adapted to Turkish by Siva (1991). She also developed a new scoring system with a 5-point Likert scale in which highest and lowest possible score changed between 36 and 180, higher scores indicating high resourcefulness.

Dağ (1991) and Siva (1991) carried out the reliability and validity studies of SCS for Turkish population. In Siva's (1991) study, Cronbach alpha coefficient was found as .79 with a sample of 100 subjects. Following Siva (1991), Dağ (1991) reported a Cronbach alpha reliability of .79 with a sample of 532 subjects, and a test-retest correlation of .80, with a sample of 99 subjects. Dağ (1991) also reported two types of validity evidence for the Turkish version of SCS. He reported a criterion related validity coefficient of -.29 between the SCS and Rotter's (1966) Locus of Control Scale. The results of factor analysis yielded 12 factors with eigen values greater than 1, accounting for the 58.2% of the total variance.

In a more recent study, Boyraz (2002) reported Cronbach alpha coefficient of .78, and a correlation coefficient of -.24 between SCS and Rotter's Locus of Control Scale which were very similar to previous ones reported by Dağ (1991) and Siva (1991), revealing a satisfactory evidence of reliability and validity for the SCS.

### **3.2.1.1. The Reliability and Validity of the SCS for the Sample of the Present Study**

In the present study, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was found as .76. The results of factor analysis yielded 11 factors with eigen values greater than 1, accounting for the 55.6% of the total variance. Overall, it can be argued that these figures seem to be similar to the results of the previous studies and provide satisfactory evidence for the reliability and validity of the SCS.

### **3.2.2. Parenting Style Inventory (PSI)**

Parenting Style Inventory was originally developed by Steinberg and his colleagues (Lamborn et al. 1991; Steinberg et al. 1992, 1994). PSI is a multidimensional scale and it consists of 26 items. The original version of PSI measures 3 dimensions of parenting style, namely acceptance/involvement, strictness/supervision and psychological autonomy.

Acceptance/involvement subscale measures the extent to which the adolescent perceives his or her parents as loving, responsive, and involved (sample item: When I have problems, I am sure that my parents will help me). The strictness/supervision subscale assesses parental monitoring and supervision of the adolescents (sample item: Does your parent permit you to go out at night during the week?). Psychological autonomy subscale assesses the extent to which parents employ noncoercive, democratic discipline and encourage the adolescents to express individuality in the family (sample item: My father and mother tell me not to argue with the elderly).

The acceptance/involvement and psychological autonomy subscales consist of 9 items. In these subscales respondents are asked to indicate the extent of their agreement along a 4-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 “not alike at all” to 4 “very much like”. The possible total score obtained from each of the subscale change from 9 to 36. Strictness/supervision subscale includes 8 items. In the first two items of this scale, respondents are asked to indicate their agreement by choosing the alternatives “yes” or

“no”. If their answer is “yes” then they asked to choose one of the 6 alternatives scored from 1 to 6. In the rest of the items, respondents are asked to indicate their agreement along a 3-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 to 3. The possible score obtained from this subscale changes between 8 and 32.

Steinberg and his colleagues reported an alpha coefficient of .72 for acceptance/involvement scale; .76 for strictness/supervision scale; and .82 for psychological autonomy scale (Lamborn et al. 1991; Steinberg et al. 1992, 1994).

PSI was translated and adapted to Turkish by Yılmaz (2000). She carried out the reliability and validity studies of the instrument with a sample of 299 high school students. Cronbach alpha coefficients calculated for each subscale were .70 for acceptance/involvement, .69 for strictness/supervision, .66 for psychological autonomy subscales.

Çakır (2001) carried out a factor analysis and found 3 factors with Cronbach alpha coefficients of .73 for acceptance/involvement, .61 for strictness/supervision and .73 for psychological autonomy subscales.

A factor analysis was also conducted by Tunç (2002) and results revealed 3 factors with Cronbach alpha coefficients of .53 for acceptance/involvement, .63 for strictness/supervision and .53 for psychological autonomy subscales.

### **3.2.2.1. The Reliability and Validity of the PSI for the Sample of the Present Study**

In the present study, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was found as .66 for acceptance/involvement, .61 for strictness/supervision and .54 for psychological autonomy subscales. The results of factor analysis yielded 3 factors with eigen values greater than 1, accounting for the 34.4% of the total variance. Overall, it can be argued that these figures seem to be similar to the results of the previous studies and provide satisfactory evidence for the reliability and validity of the PSI.

### **3.3. Data Collection Procedure**

The necessary permission was taken from the related institution before the administration. Data was collected in the fall semester of 2005 in the classroom settings. Each classroom was visited and brief information about the study was given to the students. Those who volunteered were participated in the study. The administration of the instruments was taken approximately 30 minutes. Students' anonymity and the confidentiality were guaranteed.

### **3.4. Data Analysis Procedure**

As a result of data cleaning procedure, 9 cases were excluded from the analysis because of the uncompleted instruments, and 834 out of 843 cases were accepted as valid and included in the analysis. Before the data analysis, four parenting styles were identified by assigning students based on their scores obtained from acceptance/involvement and strictness/supervision dimensions.

The psychological autonomy dimension was found to be important in defining authoritative but less in differentiating among authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful parents (Lamborn et al. 1991; Steinberg et al. 1992, 1994). Consequently, scores on the acceptance/involvement and strictness/supervision dimensions were used in the present research to assign parents to one of the four groups.

The median was found 28 both for acceptance/involvement and strictness/supervision dimensions. Students whose scores were above the median both on acceptance/involvement and strictness/supervision dimensions were assigned to the group of authoritative parenting style. Students whose scores were below the median both on acceptance/involvement and strictness/supervision dimensions were assigned to the group of neglectful parenting style. Students whose scores were above the median on acceptance/involvement and below the median on strictness/supervision dimensions were assigned to the group of indulgent parenting style. Finally, students whose scores

were below the median on acceptance/involvement and above the median on strictness/supervision dimensions were assigned to the group of authoritarian parenting style.

In order to investigate the differences between learned resourcefulness scores of male and female students as a function of four parenting styles, a 2 (gender) x 4 (parenting styles) ANOVA was employed to SCS scores of the students.

The analysis was carried out by using the SPSS, version 13.0.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

In this chapter, the results related to the differences between learned resourcefulness scores of male and female students in terms of parenting styles are presented.

#### 4.1. Learned Resourcefulness and Parenting Styles

For the purpose of investigating the differences between learned resourcefulness scores of male and female students in terms of authoritative, neglectful, indulgent and authoritarian parenting styles a 2 (gender) x 4 (parenting styles) ANOVA was employed to the SCS scores of the students. Table 4.1.1 presents the means and standard deviations of the SCS scores of male and female students in terms of four groups of parenting styles.

Table 4.1.1. Means and Standard Deviations of the SCS Scores of the Students in terms of Gender and Four Groups of Parenting Styles.

| Parenting Style | Female |        |       | Male |        |       | Total |        |       |
|-----------------|--------|--------|-------|------|--------|-------|-------|--------|-------|
|                 | N      | M      | SD    | N    | M      | SD    | N     | M      | SD    |
| Authoritative   | 218    | 126.71 | 16.00 | 69   | 123.29 | 15.17 | 287   | 125.89 | 15.85 |
| Neglectful      | 59     | 112.68 | 15.51 | 126  | 112.49 | 14.52 | 185   | 112.55 | 14.80 |
| Indulgent       | 68     | 122.28 | 18.70 | 117  | 122.79 | 14.82 | 185   | 122.61 | 16.30 |
| Authoritarian   | 129    | 117.57 | 15.97 | 48   | 113.69 | 11.70 | 177   | 116.51 | 15.00 |
| Total           | 474    | 121.84 | 17.08 | 360  | 118.07 | 15.23 | 834   | 120.21 | 16.41 |

As seen in the Table 4.1.1, in females, the mean SCS scores were 126.71 in the group who perceived their parents as authoritative, 112.68 in the group who perceived their parents as neglectful, 122.28 in the group who perceived their parents as indulgent, 117.57 in the group who perceived their parents as authoritarian. The standard deviations were 16.00, 15.51, 18.70, 15.97, respectively. In males, the mean SCS scores were 123.29 in the group who perceived their parents as authoritative, 112.49

in the group who perceived their parents as neglectful, 122.79 in the group who perceived their parents as indulgent, 113.69 in the group who perceived their parents as authoritarian. The standard deviations were 15.17, 14.52, 14.82, 11.70, respectively. The results of the ANOVA that was applied to SCS scores of the students are presented in Table 4.1.2.

Table 4.1.2. The Results of the Analysis of Variance Applied to the SCS Scores of the Students in terms of Four Groups of Parenting Styles.

| Source                 | Type III Sum of Squares | df  | Mean Square | F         | Sig. | $\eta^2$ |
|------------------------|-------------------------|-----|-------------|-----------|------|----------|
| <b>Corrected Model</b> | 24724,301               | 7   | 3532,043    | 14,624    | ,000 | ,110     |
| <b>Intercept</b>       | 9449953,313             | 1   | 9449953,31  | 39126,798 | ,000 | ,979     |
| <b>GENDER</b>          | 506,419                 | 1   | 506,419     | 2,097     | ,148 | ,003     |
| <b>STYLES</b>          | 17708,745               | 3   | 5902,915    | 24,441    | ,000 | ,082     |
| <b>GENDER * STYLES</b> | 623,053                 | 3   | 207,684     | ,860      | ,461 |          |
| <b>Error</b>           | 199496,558              | 826 | 241,521     |           |      |          |
| <b>Total</b>           | 12276098,000            | 834 |             |           |      |          |
| <b>Corrected Total</b> | 224220,859              | 833 |             |           |      |          |

The results of the ANOVA that was applied to the SCS scores of the students in terms of perceived parenting styles indicated a significant main effect for parenting styles (  $F(3.826) = 24.44$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .08$ ). Neither the main effect of gender ( $F(1.826) = 2.097$ ) nor the gender X parenting styles interaction was found significant (  $F(3.826) = .860$ ).

Post hoc analyses to the ANOVA for learned resourcefulness scores consisted of conducting pair-wise comparisons to find the differences among four groups of parenting styles. Therefore, using the Bonferroni method, pair-wise comparison was tested at the .0125 (by dividing .05 by 4) in order to control Type I error. The results yielded significant differences between the students who perceived their parents as authoritative (M = 125.89) and those who perceived their parents as neglectful (M = 112.55) and, between the students who perceived their parents as authoritative (M = 125.89) and those who perceived their parents as authoritarian (M = 116.51). Significant differences were also found between the students who perceived their parents as indulgent (M = 122.61) and those who perceived their parents as neglectful (M = 112.55) and, between the students who perceived their parents as

indulgent ( $M = 122.61$ ) and those who perceived their parents as authoritarian ( $M = 116.51$ ). Differences between neglectful and authoritarian groups and, between indulgent and authoritative groups were not found as significant.

Overall, the results revealed significant differences in learned resourcefulness levels of the students in terms of perceived parenting styles.

## **CHAPTER V**

### **DISCUSSION**

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

#### **5.1. Discussion**

The purpose of this study was to examine whether learned resourcefulness levels of male and female adolescents changed as a function of parenting styles identified as authoritative, neglectful, indulgent, and authoritarian parents.

The results of the ANOVA yielded significant differences in SCS scores of the students as a function of four groups of perceived parenting styles. More specifically, the results revealed that the students who perceived their parents as authoritative had a relatively higher level of learned resourcefulness than those who perceived their parents as neglectful and authoritarian. Results also showed that the students who perceived their parents as indulgent had a relatively higher level of learned resourcefulness than those who perceived their parents as neglectful and authoritarian.

When these results are discussed from the theoretical perspective, it can be argued that since authoritative and indulgent parenting styles are high in acceptance/involvement dimension both have some common characteristics in terms of providing adolescents with responsive, warm, accepting, encouraging, supportive environment which facilitates the enhancement of their learned resourcefulness skills. On the other hand, authoritarian parenting style is high in strictness/supervision dimension and characterized by strictness, firm control, demandingness, lack of acceptance, and warmth. Neglectful parents are low in both

acceptance/involvement and strictness/supervision dimensions and characterized with lack of acceptance, warmth, supervision, and support. The results indicated that these characteristics might have negative affects on acquiring learned resourcefulness skills.

Besides, as it was supported by the findings of several studies (e.g., Baumrind, 1966; Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Glasgow et al. 1997; Lamborn et al. 1991; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Steinberg et al. 1992, 1994), authoritative parenting style promotes more positive developmental outcomes such as acquisition of specific skills and behaviors, adjustment, personal quality and better peer relations; and indulgent parenting style promotes self-confidence, social competence, work orientation, academic ability, adjustment, and positive self-evaluation. The results of several other studies also revealed that parental warmth and support facilitate students' adjustment (Chen et al. 2000), and adaptive coping strategies (Hardy et al. 1993; Kanner et al. 1981; Kliewer et al. 1996).

In the literature, there are few studies which examine the relationship between parenting styles and learned resourcefulness. Although the parenting styles were not described as in the present study, the results of these studies provide some indirect support for the findings of the present study. Brewin et al. (1996), for example, found that both perceived parental approval and parental report of approval were positively correlated with learned resourcefulness level (SCS scores) of the students. Zauszniewski et al. (2002) also investigated the predictors of resourcefulness in school aged children and found evidence for maternal resourcefulness and child's automatic thoughts as the predictors of child's resourcefulness.

Similarly, the lack of evidence in Turkish literature regarding the relationship between parenting style and learned resourcefulness made the researcher of the present study to rely on some indirect evidence to support her findings. Studies conducted in Turkey indicated strong association between authoritative and indulgent parenting styles and some positive developmental outcomes (Boyraz, 2002; Polat, 1986; Sümer & Güngör, 1999; Tunç, 2002). For example, considering that the concept of learned resourcefulness might be an anti-thesis of the concept of learned

helplessness (Rosenbaum, 1983), Polat (1986) found that children who came from authoritarian homes had significantly higher level of learned helplessness than children who came from authoritative homes. Sümer and Güngör (1999) found that authoritative and indulgent parenting styles were related with high level of self-esteem and self-concept, secure attachment style and low level of trait anxiety among college students. Furthermore, Tunç (2002) examined the association between parenting style and self-esteem in high school students and the results of the study revealed that adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritarian had a relatively low level of self-esteem than those who perceived their parents as authoritative and indulgent. Boyraz (2002) provided some evidence supporting the role of environmental determinants in individuals' learned resourcefulness and she reported significant differences in the level of learned resourcefulness of institutionalized and non-institutionalized adolescents in favor of non-institutionalized adolescents demonstrating the importance of family in adolescents' acquiring learned resourcefulness skills. The results of all these previous studies in the Turkish literature seem to provide some supports to the findings of the present study and confirm the parental influence in developing and improving self-control skills, as well as other outcomes in areas of psychosocial development.

In the present study, both the main effect for gender and the interaction of gender and parenting style were not found significant. These findings are also consistent with the previous research (e.g., Boyraz, 2002; Carey & Carey, 1990; Rosenbaum & Ben-Ari Samira, 1986; Sari, 2005; Zauszniewski et al. 2002) indicating no gender difference in learned resourcefulness.

In conclusion, the results of this study revealed the importance of parents' child-rearing practices in adolescents' acquisition of basic cognitive and behavioral skills to self-regulate their internal responses and provided support for Rosenbaum's (1980) theory of learned resourcefulness. More specifically, present study seemed to point out the role of authoritative and indulgent parenting styles in the enhancement of learned resourcefulness whereas the negative effect of authoritarian and neglectful parenting styles on reducing the possibility of advancing learned resourcefulness skills.

## **5.2. Implications**

Several implications may be drawn from the findings of this study for parents, counselors, and educators.

Since Rosenbaum (1980) suggests that people acquire resourcefulness skills through all kinds of learning throughout the life, school counselors might develop programs to teach learned resourcefulness skills and other self-control strategies to the students. Acquisition of learned resourcefulness skills might be possible through formal education if these skills are integrated into the curriculum.

Counselors might also prepare training programs for the parents in order to (a) enhance their child-rearing practices to promote most suitable family environment for adolescents to acquire and/or expand the repertoire of behavioral and cognitive skills to self-regulate internal events as well as to enhance their learned resourcefulness skills and (b) to develop their own learned resourcefulness skills since by using these skills they become role models for their children.

Considering the significant and positive relationship between learned resourcefulness and self-efficacy (Rosenbaum & Ben-Ari Samira, 1986), in the development of learned resourcefulness training programs, the enhancement of self-efficacy is also to be encouraged since it provides a base for applying the necessary skills to cope with certain situational demands. Thus, individuals who attend learned resourcefulness training program would also develop a belief that they are efficient in applying these skills.

## **5.3. Recommendations**

Since the SCS is a self-report instrument our understanding of adolescents' actual level of learned resourcefulness was restricted. Further research might use both self-report and observational data to examine additional factors that may contribute and influence the resourcefulness.

Similarly, the present study measured adolescents' perception of parenting styles. In the future, researchers might collect data directly from parents. Students also might be asked to respond to the Parenting Style Inventory separately for their mothers and fathers. In addition, parents' learned resourcefulness can be assessed.

Learned resourcefulness training programs might be developed and experimental studies might be carried out to examine the effect of the program on developing these skills.

Moreover, further research might explore resourcefulness issue in relation with different dimensions of family variables or environmental/contextual factors in larger and more diverse samples of adolescents.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A

Sevgili öğrenciler,

Lise öğrencilerinin anne ve babalarının çocuklarına yönelik tutumlarını çeşitli açılardan incelemeye yönelik olarak yürütülen bu çalışmada sizden istenen, bölümlerin başında bulunan yönergeleri dikkatle okuyarak soruları yanıtlamanızdır. Bu ankette doğru veya yanlış cevap yoktur. Önemli olan verdiğiniz cevabın sizin için doğru olmasıdır.

Sonuçlar, toplu olarak değerlendirileceği için, ölçek üzerine isimlerinizi yazmanız istenmemektedir. Verdiğiniz yanıtlarda samimi olmanız çalışmanın amacına ulaşması açısından büyük önem taşımaktadır. Lütfen her bir soruya içtenlikle cevap veriniz ve hiçbir soruyu boş bırakmayınız. Verdiğiniz yanıtlar gizli tutulacak ve yalnız araştırma amacıyla kullanılacaktır.

İlginiz ve katkılarınız için teşekkürler.

Yeşim Deniz Türkel

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi  
Eğitim Bilimleri Bölümü  
Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik  
Anabilim Dalı  
Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

#### **Kişisel Bilgiler:**

Cinsiyetiniz: K ( ) E ( )

Yaşınız: .....

Sınıfınız: 1. Sınıf ( ) 2. Sınıf ( ) 3. Sınıf ( )

Son dönem not ortalamanız: .....

## APPENDIX B

### KENDİNİ DENETLEME ÖLÇEĞİ

Aşağıda, kötü bir durum ya da olayla karşılaştığında kişilerin neler yapabileceğini anlatan 36 ifade vardır. Lütfen her maddeyi dikkatle okuyarak o maddede yer alan ifadenin size ne derece uygun olduğuna karar verin. Verdiğiniz karara göre aşağıdaki ölçeği dikkate alarak uygun olan kutucuğa (X) işareti koyunuz.

- 1: Hiç tanımlamıyor**  
**2: Biraz tanımlıyor**  
**3: İyi tanımlıyor**  
**4: Oldukça iyi tanımlıyor**  
**5: Çok iyi tanımlıyor**

|  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Sıkıcı bir iş yaparken işin en az sıkıcı yanını ve bitirdiğimde elde edeceğim kazancı düşünürüm.            |   |   |   |   |   |
| 2. Beni bunaltan bir iş yapmak zorunda olduğumda, bunaltımı nasıl yenebileceğimi hayal eder, düşünürüm.        |   |   |   |   |   |
| 3. Duygularımı düşüncelerime göre değiştirebilirim.  |   |   |   |   |   |
| 4. Sinirlilik ve gerginliğimi yardım almadan yenmek bana zor gelir.  |   |   |   |   |   |
| 5. Kendimi bedbin (üzüntülü) hissettiğimde hoş olayları düşünmeye çalışırım.                                   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 6. Geçmişte yaptığım hataları düşünmekten kendimi alamam.  |   |   |   |   |   |
| 7. Güç bir sorunla karşılaştığımda düzenli bir biçimde çözüm yolları ararım.                                   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 8. Birisi beni zorlarsa işimi daha çabuk yaparım.  |   |   |   |   |   |
| 9. Zor bir karar vereceksem bütün bilgiler elimde olsa bile bu kararı ertelerim.                               |   |   |   |   |   |
| 10. Okuduğum şeye kendimi veremediğimi fark ettiğim zaman, dikkatimi toplamak için yollar ararım.              |   |   |   |   |   |
| 11. Çalışmayı planladığımda, işimle ilgili olmayan her şeyi ortadan kaldırırım.                                |   |   |   |   |   |
| 12. Kötü bir huyumdan vazgeçmek istediğimde, bu huyumu devam ettiren nedir diye araştırırım.                   |   |   |   |   |   |
| 13. Beni sıkı bir düşünce karşısında, güzel şeyler düşünmeye çalışırım.  |   |   |   |   |   |
| 14. Günde 2 paket sigara içiyor olsam, sigarayı bırakmak için muhtemelen başkasının yardımına ihtiyaç duyarım. |   |   |   |   |   |
| 15. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde neşeli görünmeye çalışarak ruh halimi değiştiririm.                             |   |   |   |   |   |

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| 16. Kendimi sinirli ve gergin hissettiğimde, sakinleştirici ilacım varsa bir tane alırım.  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 17. Bedbin (üzüntülü) olduğumda, kendimi hoşlandığım şeylerle uğraşmaya zorlarım.  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 18. Hemen yapabilecek durumda bile olsam, hoşlanmadığım işleri geciktiririm.   |  |  |  |  |  |
| 19. Bazı kötü huylarımdan vazgeçebilmem için başkalarının yardımına ihtiyaç duyarım.   |  |  |  |  |  |
| 20. Oturup belli bir işi yapmam güç geldiğinde, başlayabilmek için değişik yollar ararım.  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 21. Beni kötümser yapsa da, gelecekte olabilecek bütün felaketleri düşünmekten kendimi alamam.   |  |  |  |  |  |
| 22. Önce yapmam gereken işi bitirip, daha sonra gerçekten hoşlandığım işlere başlamayı tercih ederim.  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 23. Bedenimin herhangi bir yerinde, ağrı hissettiğimde, bunu dert etmemeye çalışırım.  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 24. Kötü bir huyumu yendiğimde kendime olan güvenim artar.   |  |  |  |  |  |
| 25. Başarısızlıkla birlikte gelen kötü duyguları yenmek için, sık sık kendime bunun bir felaket olmadığını ve bir şeyler yapabileceğimi telkin ederim. |  |  |  |  |  |
| 26. Kendimi patlayacakmış gibi hissettiğimde, “dur, bir şey yapmadan önce düşün” derim.  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 27. Birine çok öfkelensem bile davranışlarımı kontrol ederim.  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 28. Genellikle bir karar vereceğim zaman, ani kararlar yerine, bütün ihtimalleri göz önüne alarak sonuca varmaya çalışırım.                            |  |  |  |  |  |
| 29. Acilen yapılması gereken şeyler olsa bile, önce yapmaktan hoşlandığım şeyleri yaparım.   |  |  |  |  |  |
| 30. Önemli bir işi elimde olmayan nedenlerle geciktirdiğimde, kendi kendime sakin olmayı telkin ederim.  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 31. Bedenimde bir ağrı hissettiğim zaman, ağrıdan başka şeyler düşünmeye çalışırım.  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 32. Yapılacak çok şey olduğunda genellikle bir plan yaparım.   |  |  |  |  |  |
| 33. Kısıtlı param olduğunda kendime bir bütçe yaparım.   |  |  |  |  |  |
| 34. Bir iş yaparken dikkatim dağılırsa işi küçük bölümlere ayırırım.   |  |  |  |  |  |
| 35. Sık sık beni rahatsız eden nahoş düşünceleri yenediğim olur.   |  |  |  |  |  |
| 36. Aç olduğum halde, yemek yeme imkanım yoksa, ya açlığımı unutmaya ya da tok olduğumu düşünmeye çalışırım.   |  |  |  |  |  |

## APPENDIX C

### ÇOCUK YETİŞTİRME STİLLERİ ENVANTERİ

Lütfen aşağıdaki soruları kendi anne ve babanızı düşünerek dikkatle okuyunuz. Aşağıdaki ifadelerin anne ve babanızın davranışına ne kadar benzediğini düşünün ve her cümlenin sonundaki kutunun içine

**Tamamen benziyorsa: 4**

**Biraz benziyorsa: 3**

**Benzemiyorsa: 2**

**Hiç benzemiyorsa: 1** yazınız.

|   |  |
|---|--|
| 1. Herhangi bir sorunun olduğunda, eminim annem ve babam bana yardım ederler.   |  |
| 2. Annem ve babam büyüklerle tartışmam gerektiğini söylerler.   |  |
| 3. Annem ve babam yaptığım her şeyin en iyisini yapmam için beni zorlarlar.   |  |
| 4. Annem ve babam herhangi bir tartışma sırasında başkalarını kızdırmamak için, susmam gerektiğini söylerler.         |  |
| 5. Annem ve babam bazı konularda “sen kendin karar ver” derler.   |  |
| 6. Derslerimde, ne zaman düşük not alsam annem ve babam kızar.  |  |
| 7. Ders çalışırken anlayamadığım bir şey olduğunda, annem ve babam bana yardım ederler.                               |  |
| 8. Annem ve babam kendi görüşlerinin doğru olduğunu, bu görüşleri onlarla tartışmam gerektiğini söylerler.            |  |
| 9. Annem ve babam benden bir şey yapmamı istediklerinde, niçin bunu yapmam gerektiğini de açıklarlar.                 |  |
| 10. Annem ve babamla her tartıştığımda bana “büyüdüğün zaman anlarsın” derler.  |  |
| 11. Derslerimden düşük not aldığımda, annem ve babam beni daha çok çalışmam için desteklerler.                        |  |
| 12. Annem ve babam yapmak istediklerim konusunda kendi kendime karar vermeme izin verirler.                           |  |
| 13. Annem ve babam arkadaşlarımı tanırlar.  |  |
| 14. Annem ve babam istemedikleri bir şeyi yaptığımda, bana karşı soğuk davranırlar ve küserler.                       |  |
| 15. Annem ve babam sadece benimle konuşmak için zaman ayırırlar.  |  |
| 16. Derslerimden düşük notlar aldığımda, annem ve babam öyle davranırlar ki suçluluk duyar ve utanırım.               |  |
| 17. Ailemle birlikte hoşça vakit geçiririz.   |  |
| 18. Annemi ve babamı kızdıracak bir şey yaptığımda, onlarla birlikte yapmak istediğim şeyleri yapmama izin vermezler. |  |

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

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

Evet

Hayır

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

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

20:00'den önce

|                          |
|--------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> |
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22:00-22:59 arası

|                          |
|--------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> |
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| <input type="checkbox"/> |

20:00-20:59 arası

23:00 ya da daha geç

21:00-21:59 arası

İstediğim saate kadar

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

Evet

Hayır

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

Cuma ya da Cumartesi akşamları en geç saat kaç kadar gece dışarıda kalmanıza izin verilir?

20:00'den önce

|                          |
|--------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> |

22:00-22:59 arası

|                          |
|--------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> |

20:00-20:59 arası

23:00 ya da daha geç

21:00-21:59 arası

İstediğim saate kadar

Annen ve baban aşağıdakileri öğrenmek için ne kadar çaba gösterirler?

21. Eğer gece bir yere gittiysen nereye gittiğini,

22. Boş zamanlarınızda ne yaptığını,

23. Okuldan çıktıktan sonra ne yaptığını

| Hiç çaba göstermez       | Çok az çaba gösterir     | Çok çaba gösterir        |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Annen ve babanın aşağıdakiler hakkında ne kadar bilgileri vardır?

24. Eğer gece bir yere gittiysen nereye gittiğini,

25. Boş zamanlarınızda ne yaptığını,

26. Okuldan çıktıktan sonra ne yaptığını

| Bilgileri yoktur         | Çok az bilgileri vardır  | Çok bilgileri vardır     |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |