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THE EFFECTS OF MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT
ON ADOLESCENT ADJUSTMENT

by

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A B S T R A C T

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of maternal employment on the sex-typed characteristics, perception of the family environment and adjustment of adolescents from a sample of intact Turkish families.

The sample was composed of 107 adolescent students whose mothers were employed full-time and 107 students whose mothers were full-time homemakers. The measurement instruments were the Sex-Trait Stereotype Measure, the Family Environment Questionnaire and the Minnesota Counseling Inventory.

It was hypothesized that adolescents whose mothers were working would have less sex-typed characteristics than adolescents whose mothers were full-time homemakers. Also, no difference was expected in perception of the family environment between adolescents whose mothers were working and those whose mothers were full-time homemakers. It was also hypothesized that there would be no differences in level of adjustment between adolescents whose mothers were working and adolescents whose mothers were full-time homemakers.

The findings revealed that maternal employment status by itself was not a significant factor affecting adolescents' sex-typed characteristics, perception of the family environment and adjustment. However, interaction of maternal employment by gender was a significant factor affecting adolescents' adjustment, as were perceived family environment, sex-typed characteristics and gender.

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I N T R O D U C T I O N

The aim of the present study was to investigate the effects of maternal employment on the sex-typed characteristics, perception of the family environment, and adjustment of adolescents from a sample of intact Turkish families.

Since the family has always been considered the major element affecting child development (Zigler & Child, 1973), psychologists have explored what kinds of families foster positive growth. Up to the 1960's and 1970's the traditionally "best" family pattern for childrearing has been seen as a married couple with complementary roles; the husband has an occupation outside the household that provides for the family's economic needs, while the wife has primary responsibilities for the household, children and the emotional well-being of all (Bernard, 1981).

Recently structural changes in the economy and women's wishes for self-fulfillment or self actualization have strongly altered this family pattern, mainly through the increased participation of women in the labor force. In the U.S.A 61 percent of all women with children under age 18, and 48 percent of all women with children under age 6 are in the labor force (Alexander 1984).

The continued increase in the rate of mothers' participation

in the labor force has stimulated growing research interest on this subject. This interest includes the effects of employment on the mother's psychological and physical health, on the father, on the marital relationship, and on child development. Hoffman (1989), in her review of the relevant research, claims that employment enhances a mother's life-satisfaction and self-esteem, and provides a psychological support in stressful periods. On the other hand, it has a stress effect since combining marriage, motherhood and full-time commitment to work lead to role conflicts and role overload. The effects of maternal employment on the father and the marital relationship depend on the family's socioeconomic status, the husband's attitude toward the wife's employment, and his participation in household tasks and child care.

In terms of child outcomes, social and personality adjustment, mental attitude, school functioning, and sex role have been among common factors measured in studies comparing children with employed and nonemployed mothers. The literature has presented inconsistent results, with reports of harmful, nonsignificant, and favorable effects of maternal employment on children's development.

Some researchers have hypothesized that maternal employment may result in negative effects that emerge in childhood and adolescence. According to this perspective, for healthy development a child needs two parents, and requires the time, energy, emotional support and attention of a parent who stays at home with the child (preferably mother). Therefore, children of working mothers do not receive proper parenting and are likely to suffer psychologically.

For example, Saxena, Mehrotra, and Singh (1986) studied psychosocial characteristics of children of 30 working mothers and 30 nonworking mothers. They found that maternal employment accompanied by maternal separation resulted in deficiencies in mothering and resultant changes in children.

Mody, Murthy and Vinoda (1988) investigated the mental health of 50 children with working mothers and 50 whose mothers did not work. As compared to the children of non-working mothers, children of working mothers showed poorer intelligence scores at the 12 year old level. They were careless in the early years and emotionally slightly unstable but independent at later years. In another study, (Martin, Burgess and Crnic, 1984) 488 health professionals' beliefs regarding the effects of maternal employment on children was surveyed. Results showed that 40% of the subjects felt that it was better if the mother did not work outside the home. 74 % preferred part-time work to full-time employment. Male respondents were less favorable than female respondents toward maternal employment.

On the other hand, some investigations revealed that maternal employment had neither negative nor universally predictable effects on children (Abbott, 1991; Kiger, 1984). Kiger's review of child development research showed that children of working mothers were not less attached to their mothers, and were not negatively affected in their intellectual or social development (1984). Similarly Etaugh (1974) concluded from a review of research that young children can form as strong an attachment to a working mother as to a nonworking one and maternal employment did not influence

negatively the adjustment of elementary-school aged children and adolescents. The child's adjustment more importantly depended on the mother's satisfaction with her situation rather than employment. When she was satisfied with her life she had the best adjusted child, regardless of her employment status. According to Scarr (1984) the school achievement, IQ test scores, and emotional and social development of working mothers' children were similar to children whose mothers were not employed. Other studies have also found no differences in child outcomes such as psychological adjustment, behavioral problems, social relationships or delinquency (Berndt, 1983; D'Amico, Haurin & Mott, 1983; Heyns, 1982; Hoffman, 1974).

Furthermore some research showed that when mothers were employed mother-child interaction tends to be more intense and of a higher quality than when they were not employed (Abbott 1991). Also some studies of children of working mothers have found them to have higher self-esteem, and academic scores, better social and personality adjustment, and to exhibit more equalitarian sex-role attitudes than children of nonworking mothers (Amato, 1987; Bal, 1988; Etaugh, 1974; Gold & Adres, 1978; Hoffman, 1989). Lamb's (1982) review of research in the 1980s showed that school-aged children and adolescents of employed mothers had less stereotyped conceptions of male and female roles, and the daughters were more achievement oriented.

Montemayor and Clayton (1983) stated that child-outcomes research on maternal employment generally focused on kindergarten

and elementary school aged children since many people believe that younger children may have the risk of a variety of psychological problems as a result of repeated separations from their mothers. However, studies on the 10-17 year old age group, in others words on adolescents, were less common because of the widely held belief that once children reach adolescence they need less contact with their mothers, and that their autonomy and independence from parents protect them from the influences of maternal employment, whether positive or negative. But adolescents continue to interact with their mothers, and variation in the family system as a result of maternal employment may still have important influences on adolescent development.

In Turkey, although compared to many countries, women working as wage earners are a minority, the percentage of gainfully employed women over the age of 15 went from 5.2% in 1955 to 22.0% in 1985 (Özbay, 1989). In the Turkish literature there are few studies that examine the relationship of maternal employment to family and child outcomes. There are, on the other hand some investigations of women's employment and it will be useful to mention very briefly some of them.

Kuyaş (1982) stated that rather than being employed or nonemployed, women's status in their families is determined by their SES and that employment influences middle and lower class women differently. According to her while employment has positive effects for middle class women, for lower SES women, employment increases their responsibilities without providing any power to

them in the their families.

According to Bolak (1988) although lower class women usually have to work for financial reasons, they prefer to stay at home and look after their children and they evaluate employment as a trouble rather than a gain. Özbay (1989) in her study mentions that in a countrywide survey in 1973 it was found that a majority of married women of child-caring age were not happy about working outside the home. She declares that when a married woman stays at home it is evaluated as an indicator of higher status. Kağıtçıbaşı (1986) states that women's employment is considered to have importance in urban areas rather than in rural areas. Even in urban areas, the intra-family status of working women depends on the social class factor. Educated women in professional jobs have higher status in their families, whereas uneducated women in menial jobs gain no status by working. In another study it is found that for nonemployed women and for those who do not have university education, marital satisfaction is determined by the amount of confirmatory communication they receive from their husbands. However for employed women and university graduated women satisfaction does not importantly depend on their husbands' communicative behavior (Bahar, 1982).

Since Turkey as a society is moving from being a traditional, agricultural, patriarchal society towards being an urbanized, industrial, modern, egalitarian one (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1981) the number of working women can be expected to increase significantly in the near future. Therefore investigations related to maternal

employment and its effects on family life and children outcome would be very significant both theoretically and in terms of social policy.

In the following chapter, the literature on the effects of maternal employment on children's sex-typed characteristics, family relationships and personality development are reviewed, then the scope of the study and the hypotheses are presented.

L I T E R A T U R E R E V I E W

Maternal Employment and Adolescents' Sex-Typed Characteristics.

In almost all societies there is consensus that some personality traits are more characteristic of men than women and that some personality traits are more characteristic of women than men. For example, men are likely to be perceived as more independent, more logical, and more dominant than women; or women are likely to be perceived as more emotional, more passive, and more intuitive than men. These differences can be explained in terms of socialization processes that may have differential influences on the personality development of the two sexes. Some personality traits are emphasized in the development of boys but are discouraged in girls and some personality traits are emphasized in girls but are discouraged in boys. By confronting the cultural definitions of sex appropriate behaviors and attitudes, the children develop a set of sex-stereotypes (Block, 1973).

Research on sex-trait stereotypes has demonstrated that males are portrayed as more instrumental, more active and less expressive whereas females are portrayed as more communal and more expressive. Studies on university students in the United States and many Western countries also revealed that achievement, dominance,

exhibition, autonomy and aggression were referred to as more masculine characteristics, whereas affiliation, abasement, nurturance, deference and succorance were referred to as more feminine characteristics (Williams and Bennett, 1975; Williams et al., 1977, Williams et al., 1979). Sex-typed differences are seen in household tasks as well. In general girls are assigned the tasks traditionally carried out by the mother in the house and boys are assigned the tasks that are carried out by the father (Hoffman, 1974).

The feminist movement in Western societies, especially in American society, and increased employment rates for women challenged these sex-typed differences and motivated the development of the concept of psychological androgyny. It has been argued that sex typing is neither adaptive nor functional in modern society, thus men and women should be encouraged to have both feminine and masculine qualities that are equally important for human development. In other words, both sexes should be encouraged to be androgynous (Gürbüz, 1988).

In addition to the formation of identity and autonomy, the adolescent years are considered to have particular importance for the development of sex roles. As an extensive literature indicates that the adolescent years are critical in the development of sex-typed behaviors and attitudes (Huston 1985), the question of whether maternal employment during these years has effects on adolescent sex-typed beliefs and attitudes comes up (Morgan & Grube 1987). The sex typing of children and adolescents of employed

mothers is of special concern, because the employed mother has gone beyond what was typically expected of a woman, namely being a homemaker (Galombos, Petersen, Leneff, 1988).

In many studies comparisons of daughters and sons with employed and nonemployed mothers demonstrated that maternal employment was associated with lower levels of sex-stereotyping, although this relationship appears to be stronger and more pervasive for daughters than for sons.

Gold and Andres (1978) discovered that, compared to adolescents with nonemployed mothers, adolescent boys and girls with employed mothers differentiated less between the sexes regarding the attribution of personality traits. In another study, the relationship of maternal employment to the sex role perceptions held by male and female college students was examined. Morgan and Grube (1987) found that adolescents with working mothers rejected traditional sex role attitudes to a greater extent than did the children whose mothers worked exclusively in the home. Similarly, it was found that both male students and female students with employed mothers perceived significantly smaller differences between men and women, with the women being more affected by maternal employment than the men (Vogel, Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson, and Rosenkrantz (1970). In the same direction, Zaslow (1987) found that children with employed mothers indicate less stereotyped views of males and females although the finding is more consistent for daughters than for sons. It was also found that according to MMPI, daughters of employed mothers were higher in

masculinity than daughters of nonemployed mothers (Dixit, Vishnoi, 1980). Nelson and Keith (1990) contrasted female and male early adolescent sex role attitudes and behavioral development and they found that maternal employment was one of the factors that significantly influenced the level of traditionalism of female sex role attitude development.

Hoffman (1974) in her review of research findings indicated that the children of employed mothers are less stereotyped in their view of what each sex is like, they see women as more competent than do the children of non-working mothers, and they are somewhat more androgynous in their views without devaluing either sex. She also added that in the working mother's home there is a less traditional division of labor between husband and wife. Though the woman maintains the larger share, the husband of a working woman participates more in household work and child care. The children in the later part of middle childhood and in adolescence are more likely to have household responsibilities. These findings were also supported in Gardner and LaBrecque's study (1986). They investigated whether maternal employment affected overall adolescent sex-role orientation and attitudes towards the division of household labor. It was found that adolescents of employed mothers had a more liberal sex role orientation and attitude towards the division of household tasks than adolescents of homemaker mothers. In another study, middle-class high school girls with employed versus nonemployed mothers were compared. According to the Bem Sex Role Inventory, girls with employed mothers were

more likely to be androgynous, and show a lower fear of success (Gilroy, Talierco and Steinbacher, 1981). It was also found that undergraduate females who were androgynous were more likely to have employed mothers (Hansson, Chernovetz, and Jones, 1977). Stephan and Corder (1985) demonstrated that adolescents from high-prestige dual-career families had more egalitarian sex-role attitudes than adolescents from single-earner families in which the father was employed in a high status position.

Dellas, Gaier and Emihovich's (1979) comparison of 109 9-12 year olds and 67 13-18 year olds children regarding the effect of maternal employment on children's sex-role ideology showed a significant difference only for the preadolescent. Children with working mothers more frequently approved the working mother idea. Also, daughters of employed mothers compared with sons, more frequently supported this notion, as did children of employed mothers from managerial and working class, but not professional class families.

Hoffman's (1987) review of studies on maternal employment suggests that children of employed mothers, from kindergarten age through adulthood, have less restricted views of sex roles. They are more likely to reject the restricting aspects of traditional sex role ideology and more likely to believe that women can be competent like men. In an interesting study, Baruch (1972) asked college women to read and judge the quality of a number of journal articles. Half of the articles were given feminine author names and half were given masculine names. Baruch found that daughters of

employed mothers were less likely to devalue articles written by women than were the daughters of nonemployed mothers. This was interpreted as evidence that daughters with employed mothers had learned that women were competent.

In summary, the studies cited above all indicate that maternal employment tends to decrease children's sex-typed characteristics. However there are some studies which do not follow this trend.

Rice and Bernstein (1983) examined single and two parent families regarding children's sex-role types. No significant differences were found between children reared in a nuclear family home and those reared in a single-parent environment on scales measuring androgyny. It was also found that neither maternal employment nor age were significant factors determining androgyny. Likewise Seegmiller (1980) investigated the influence of maternal employment on preschoolers' sex-role differentiation and found that regardless of children's sex, maternal employment was unrelated to sex-role differentiation. Additionally Weeks, Wise, and Duncan (1984) found no evidence of a relationship of between maternal work status and sex role attitudes in high-school girls.

In Turkey, Şimşek (1989) found that, compared to children of nonemployed mothers, children of employed mothers had only slightly less traditional attitudes towards the division of simple household tasks. No differences were found between the two groups in terms of other sex-role attitudes and behaviors. In a study of perceived sex-role and behavioral types Şimşek (1990) contrasted students with employed vs. nonemployed mothers regarding the division of

household tasks, vocational choices, spare time activities, interest in the opposite sex, personality and talent. She found two significant differences between these two groups in terms of interest in the opposite sex and personality. The children of employed mothers were less traditional in their view of friendship and emotional relationships. In terms of personality characteristics children of employed mothers were again definitely less traditional in their views on using power and influence over others, being easily influenced, and they were somewhat less traditional regarding independence. In the same study she also compared daughters of employed vs nonemployed mothers concerning the above mentioned dimensions. Results revealed that daughters of nonemployed mothers had more traditional views towards friendship and emotional relationships. No differences were found between the two groups regarding the other dimensions.

Overall the weight of the evidence indicates that the children of working mothers tend to be less traditional in sex-typed characteristics.

Maternal Employment and Adolescent's Family Environment

A number of studies have demonstrated a significant relationship between perceived family environment and children's/ adolescents' psychological functioning (Bell & Bell, 1982; Billing & Moos, 1983; Felner, Aber, Primavera, & Cauce, 1985; Farber, Felner & Primavera, 1985; Friedrich, Reams, & Jacobs, 1982; Slatter

& Haber, 1984). Moos (1974) and Fowler (1980) described family environment as the interpersonal atmosphere in the family structure with respect to its relationships and organizational features. The relationship and organization dimensions of the family environment are clarified by concepts like cohesion vs. conflict and organization vs. control. Cohesion refers to the emotional concern that family members show each other and the extent to which family members actively participate, e.g. a sense of belongingness and togetherness. Conflict refers to the degree of disagreement among family members. Organization-control is the second dimension. It refers to the degree of orderliness of the family setting and the degree of control that the family keeps over its members (Moos, 1974).

In general, perceived family cohesiveness, expressiveness, independence, and organization are positively related to children's /adolescents' adjustment, whereas perceived family conflict and control are negative predictors, regardless of whether children's or parents' family perceptions are measured (Burt, Cohen & Bjorck 1988). An investigation of the relationship between family environment and 196 seventh and eight grade students' self concept found that adolescents in supportive, cohesive and organized families had high self concepts (Nelson, 1984). Another study supports these findings and confirms the importance of the family environment for the development of the adolescent. Bell and Bell (1982) compared two groups of families to assess the effects of family climate on the child's development. In one group each family

contained an adolescent girl who scored high on a number of psychological and social measures; in the second group each family contained an adolescent girl who scored low on these measures. They found that families which reported being more cohesive, more expressive of feelings, more independent, and less organized and controlled tended to have an adolescent girl who scored high on the psychological and social measures.

Forman & Forman (1981) investigated the relationship between family environment and adolescents' personality development, and they found that families in which cohesion, independence, and achievement were emphasized tend to have more assertive and self-sufficient children. Children in families emphasizing organization and control were seen as relaxed and genial, suggesting that clear rules and well defined limits can have a positive effect. Similarly, Fowler's (1982) study of the relationship between family environment and personality characteristics showed a positive relationship between family cohesion and the student personality characteristics of extraversion, intrapunitiveness and sentient-analytic tendency. This is explained by the investigator as a result of the maintenance of intimacy and integration among family members. The family organization-control dimension was positively related to extrapunitiveness and reflectivity. This showed the exercise of influence and power.

Farber, Felner and Primavera (1985) examined the relationship between differences in adaptation and a number of personal and situational variables for a group of adolescents, age 17-23, all of

whom had experienced parental separation or divorce between the ages of 12 and 21. It was found that adolescents' perceptions of several dimensions of family interaction significantly related to adjustment. In general, the levels of family cohesion and conflict proved to be the most important predictors of adaptive outcome. Subjects who rated their family environment as less cohesive and more conflict filled reported higher levels of anxiety and those who viewed their families as more controlling had greater feelings of anger and hostility.

According to Usluer's (1989) review of studies that were carried out abroad, cohesive, expressive, culturally oriented family environments emphasizing independence and moderate levels of organization control tend to provide a context for better emotional and behavioral development. Children and adolescents in such family environments are high in extraversion, self esteem and self concept, have fewer emotional and behavioral problems and better psychological functioning and adjustment. On the other hand less cohesive, less organized but more controlling families provide unfavorable environments and children/adolescents in such family environment tend to be more introverted, anxious, depressed and lower in self concept.

Since maternal employment is one of the factors leading to structural changes in family life, the question arises as to how the frequency and quality of parent-child relations and children's well-being have been affected by maternal employment. Nock and Kingston (1988) reported that dual earner parents spent

considerably less time with their children than traditional families in which only husbands work. However the amount of time employed mothers spend interacting directly with their children, and the quality of care they provide, are comparable to nonemployed mothers. Further, both employed women and their husbands spend more time with their children on the weekends than families where the wife was not employed. Similarly, Hill and Stafford (1980) and Hoffman (1987) reported that although working mothers spent less time with their children, especially more educated mothers try to compensate for it at the expense of sleep and leisure.

Amato (1987) compared 402 children and adolescents whose mothers were not in the paid labor force, were employed part-time, or were employed full-time. The results showed that mother's employment status was not related to the amount of support children reported receiving from mothers or fathers. In other words, children at both age levels whose mothers were employed outside the home reported as much interest, time, and help from parents as did children whose mothers were not employed.

In one study 63 adolescent girls from middle and upper middle class two-parent families were compared regarding the effects of maternal employment status on satisfaction with family life and with emotional support from peers and adults; mother-child communication; mothers' and daughters' perception of family adaptability and cohesion; and academic achievement (Abbott, 1991). The results of the study showed no differences in adolescent outcomes for girls whose mothers were employed or not employed. In

another study, MacKinnon and et al. (1986) examined home environments of preschool children whose mothers were married/working, married/nonworking, or divorced/working across an 18-month period. The home environments of children from married families with and without working mothers were found to be very similar.

Moreover, Colangelo, Rosental and Dettmann (1984) examined 179 mothers and their 7-9 grade children regarding the impact of maternal employment and job satisfaction on children's perceptions and behaviors. The results revealed that neither maternal employment nor job satisfaction was related to children's perceptions and behaviors. The researchers concluded that maternal employment and job satisfaction may not have an influence on family environment.

Propper (1972) researched the relationship of maternal employment to adolescent roles, activities, and the parental relationships of 229 secondary school adolescents. It was found that adolescent students with employed mothers had only slightly more responsibilities for household chores and their degree of participation in social activities did not differ consistently from adolescents with nonemployed mothers. Adolescents whose mothers were working reported more common parent-child disagreement over a wide range of issues but their degree of closeness to parents, perceptions of parental interest, and help with school and personal problems were similar to those children whose mothers were not employed outside the home. However, to the question "What man do you know that you admire the most" sons of nonemployed mothers were

significantly more likely to say "father" than sons of employed mothers.

In another study the impact of maternal employment on 30 male and 34 female 10th grade adolescents' relations with parents, siblings and peers were explored (Montemayor, 1984). Male subjects whose mothers were working had more arguments, which were of longer duration and greater intensity, with their mothers and siblings than those with nonemployed mothers. No relation was found between female conflict behavior and employment status of mother. Adolescents of both sexes with employed mothers spend less time with their parents than adolescents with nonemployed mothers.

Jensen and Borges (1986) examined the effects of maternal employment on adolescents and the frequently cited hypothesis that there is no difference between the adolescents of employed and nonemployed mothers. Analysis of personal relationships within the family context showed that daughters of nonemployed mothers had a closer relationship with their fathers, perceived them as happier and more friendly, and experienced less anger and tension in the home. The results suggest that nonemployment of mothers coincides with less perceived anger, stress, and tension between parents.

Douvan and Adelson (1966) examined adolescents with full-time, part-time and non-employed mothers and found that in terms of family relations, maternal employment status had more impact on girls than boys. As compared to daughters of full-time employed and nonemployed mothers, daughters of part-time employed mothers had closer relations with their parents, such as spending the highest

percentage of their leisure time with their family, most often choosing their mothers as their adult ideal, and reporting the strongest emotional bond with their parents. They showed greater involvement in family rule making and more numerous disagreements with parents, which was considered an indicator of independence. The researchers concluded that daughters with part-time employed mothers had the most mature relationships with their parents. Daughters of full-time employed mothers had less mature relationships with their parents than did daughters of nonemployed mothers.

Paulson, Roman and Hill (1990) examined 100 girls and boys in grade 7 and their families in terms of the influences of maternal employment and maternal job satisfaction on parent-child relations. When mothers were not employed or were part-time employed, daughters had greater closeness with both parents. Sons with employed mothers were found to have greater closeness with their fathers. Employed mothers had closer relations with their sons but reported greater closeness to their daughters when they were not employed or employed part-time. Maternal employment status was found to have no effect on father's report on closeness with either sex. Maternal employment status also had no impact on activities or rules.

Knaub's (1986) study of 93 adolescents and young adults in dual-career families showed that they wanted more time from their parents. When mothers interrupted their careers, their children perceived it as an indication that they were concerned about them

although the mothers did not see it that way. Although there were some problems, the children rated the dual-career family life-style positively.

Bose (1985) investigated child-rearing attitudes of 30 working and 30 nonworking mothers with school age-children in India. When compared to nonworking mothers, working mothers had less dominant, less aggressive and less suppressive attitudes in relation to their children.

In Turkey, although there is a great deal of cultural transformation, close family ties are still very important. The family is still the most significant support institution and there is a mutual support among family members (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982). Generally the father, as the head of the family, dominates the other family members, and the mother is overprotective and regressive. Intrafamilial relationships are based on clear role definitions, emphasizing mostly the economic survival aspects of the family rather than mutual fulfillment or emotional support. Emotional expressiveness and communication are infrequent. The focus is on economic or childrearing concerns (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982). Fişek's (1982) review of the literature finds evidence for high cohesion in the Turkish family environment. She described the social context of the family as involving a somewhat fused, undifferentiated system of emotional relationships. She described the family system as more or less enmeshed with diffuse boundaries, and defines the individual as one having a high need for a sense of belonging but as not being as aware of a need of separateness.

However the roles and functions of any individual are predetermined on a normative level. In other words the system is highly differentiated and the boundaries are clear with regard to normative roles and expectations.

The Turkish family seems to foster the development of passive, dependent, constricted and somewhat frustrated individuals without a sense of autonomy and who depend largely on external sources of control and reinforcement (Fişek, 1982). Geçtan (1973) and Yörükoğlu (1978) indicate a strong impact of parental attitudes on the psychological characteristics of children.

In Western families love often goes with permissiveness and the use of control usually implies an insufficiency of love. However in the Turkish families love and control go together in the parent-child relationship. Parental attitudes toward children are controlling, protecting and warm (Fişek, 1982, Kağıtçıbaşı, 1972).

Due to rapid social change, modernization, and recent technological advancements, many Western values and attitudes have penetrated this culture, especially with education. The ideal human interaction has begun to be conceptualized as egalitarian and democratic. The right of the individual to verbalize feelings and ideas has begun to be highly regarded by the educated middle class Turkish parents (Öner, LeCompte, 1985). A study showed an increased tendency to favor a democratic, egalitarian approach to discipline and avoidance of corporal punishment among urban, middle and upper class parents (LeCompte, LeCompte, and Özer, 1978). LeCompte (1978) investigated the anxiety level of children, age 6-11, with low and

high SES families. She found that low SES families, in which mothers maintain extreme mothering, overprotection, and strict discipline had children with higher anxiety problems than children of high SES families, in which mothers have democratic and equalitarian child-rearing attitudes. Kağıtçıbaşı (1982) investigated changing families with regard to control and affection, and found that an upward shift in the socioeconomic status of the family, or a move from a rural to an urban area, decreased control but increased warmth and affection in the family environment.

Fişek (1992) examined the relationship of maternal employment to family interaction patterns and to children's behavioral problems. According to her results maternal employment did not have a direct effect on family interactions reflecting interpersonal proximity, i.e., level of closeness and sharing. However, the interaction of maternal employment with SES had an effect on the proximity level of the family such that being a low SES family and having a working mother reduced the proximity level. No relationship was found between maternal employment and children's behavioral problems. The results on the relationship between maternal employment, family interaction patterns, and children's problems showed that families with working mothers, which also displayed higher levels of closeness and sharing, had children with higher problem scores. However children from families with moderate closeness scores did not have high problem scores even when the mother worked.

Although they were not directly related to maternal employment, Tunalı's (1983) and Fışiloğlu's (1984) studies provide some valuable results on this subject. Tunalı (1983) examined the need for affiliation and its relation to the level of cohesiveness in the families of 15-17 year old, middle SES, female students and she found a significant positive correlation between cohesion in the family and individuals' need for affiliation. Moreover the factor of "working mother" was significantly correlated with the need for affiliation and cohesion. She indicated that the families with working mothers seemed to be more cohesive, with members relatively higher in need for affiliation. Fışiloğlu's (1984) study of the relationship between the perceived family cohesion level and the ego-strength level of late adolescents revealed no significant differences among the different levels of cohesion in terms of the ego-strength of the adolescents. In addition he found that mother's employment had no significant relation with either perceived family cohesion level, or the ego-strength of the subjects.

In general, both Western and Turkish studies indicate that children's perceptions of family environment are not significantly influenced by mothers' employment status. In other words, children of both employed versus nonemployed mothers report a similar degree of closeness, support and satisfaction with family life.

Maternal Employment and Adolescent's Development and Adjustment

There is no research on the effects of maternal employment on adolescents' personality structure and problems as was investigated in the present study. However there are many studies, some of which focused on the mother's employment as it relates to adolescent development and others which investigated maternal employment both in terms of children's development and family relationships, and it will be useful to mention some of them.

Reviews of the effects of maternal employment on children demonstrated that maternal employment per se had very few adverse effects; there were, in fact, some positive effects on children such as better social and personality adjustment scores on various standard measures, and sometimes higher academic scores. Hoffman (1979) found that the daughters of working mothers were more outgoing, independent, active, highly motivated, scored higher on a variety of indices of academic achievement and appeared better adjusted in social and personality measures. Gold & Andres (1978) examined the relation of maternal employment to the development of adolescent children of different sex and social class backgrounds. Both the sons and the daughters of working mothers showed better social and personality adjustment, and reported a greater sense of personal worth and personal freedom, higher feeling of belonging, and better family relations. Children with employed mothers also reported better interpersonal relations at school.

Etaugh's (1974) review of the research showed that there was

no relationship between maternal employment and female juvenile delinquency. Nelson (1971) investigated the personality adjustment of adolescents and he found that the majority of females whose mothers were nonemployed had better social adjustment scores than those females whose mothers were working full-time or part-time. However, sons with full-time employed mothers were reported to be better socially adjusted than the sons of non-working mothers, as evidenced by scores of the Minnesota Counseling Inventory.

Joy and Wise (1983) examined 185 undergraduate psychology students, from intact families whose mothers were either employed or nonemployed during their childhood, to determine whether there was a relationship between maternal employment, anxiety and gender differences. The results showed that maternal employment status was not related to anxiety in either sex. However sex was found to be an important factor in anxiety as females had significantly higher anxiety scores than males.

Asha (1983) investigated whether there was a relationship between maternal employment and children's creativity. The sample consisted of 590 females (mean age 14.43 years) and 510 males (mean age 14.66 years). Maternal employment was found to have a promoting effect on the development of creativity. In another study 60 adolescent sons and daughters of working mothers with 60 children of nonworking mothers were compared to assess the differential impact of maternal employment on achievement motivation of sons and daughters. The results revealed that daughters of employed mothers scored highest in composite scores, achievement, recognition

behavior, and aspiration level (Bal, 1988).

Amato and Ochiltree (1986) investigated children's performance of practical skills and they found that among adolescents, life skill competence was significantly associated with maternal employment, family size, the frequency of family activities and parental education. In another study of Amato (1987) it was found that although maternal employment status had little effect on the self-esteem of sons, girls levels had higher self-esteem when mothers were employed full-time than when mothers were employed part-time or were not employed. Adolescents whose mothers were employed scored highest on a variety of measures of competence.

Joebgen and Richards (1990) administered the Beck Depression Inventory, the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale and a self-report measure of affect to 52 mothers and their adolescent children. Findings revealed that when mothers were less educated and unemployed, or were highly educated and employed, and experiencing high affect, their children also experienced higher daily affect in addition to higher self-esteem and lower depression. The researchers concluded that maternal employment affected adolescent adjustment but the effects were indirect and their relationship was complex.

Galambos and Maggs's (1990) research on 96 early adolescents and their mothers from dual earner families showed that mothers' work related stress was not associated with mother-adolescent relations or adolescent adjustment. In another study, 84 2-parent families who were referred to a mental health clinic were examined

in terms of the relationships among maternal employment, paternal involvement with the child, and the child's mental health. The children were aged 6-18, 38 of the mothers were housewives and the remaining 46 mothers were employed. The severity of the children's problems were rated by a psychotherapist and teachers and no differences were found between children with employed vs nonemployed mothers (Soliman & Maysless, 1982).

Louw's (1989) study compared adolescent daughters of working and nonworking mothers in terms of personality and adjustment, interests and career choices, intelligence and academic performance, work motivation and study orientation, mother-daughter relationship, and attitudes toward maternal employment. No significant differences could be found in any of the measures between daughters of working and non-working mothers.

A study of 900 secondary school students (aged 12-14) about the relationship between maternal employment status and perception of maternal acceptance revealed that children of employed mothers perceived their mothers as more warm, accepting, and kind, and reported feelings of positive self-esteem and self adequacy more than the children of nonemployed mothers (Imouokhome, 1987).

Wise and Joy (1982) studied the self descriptions of 82 male and 103 female undergraduates from intact families and found that maternal employment had no relation to the self-esteem of either sex. Rather sex was the important factor affecting self-esteem, as males reported significantly more favorable levels of self-esteem than females.

Armisteads, Wierson and Forehand's (1990) examination of 63 adolescents with employed vs nonemployed mothers showed that maternal employment did not have harmful effects on adolescent cognitive or social competence, behavior problems, or amount of communication/conflict between mother and child. The researchers also examined the relationship between the functioning of adolescents with the prestige ratings of maternal jobs and they found that neither mother's employment status nor, if employed, her job prestige related to adolescent functioning or the mother-adolescent relationship.

Morgan and Grube (1987) investigated behaviors, attitudes and self images of 2029 adolescent students whose mothers were employed outside the home or worked exclusively in the home. The results showed that adolescents with working mothers had higher academic aspirations and they perceived their mothers as adequate as the children of nonemployed mothers. It was also found that maternal employment was not related to the children's anti-social behaviors or low self-images.

Dellas, Gaier and Emihovich (1979) studied 109 9-12 year olds and 67 13-18 year old children in terms of the relationship between maternal employment and behavior and attitudes including parental relationship, personal problems, educational/career aspirations, and future life. The findings suggested that full-time maternal employment has few influences on the behaviors and attitudes of school-age children from intact families and these influences decrease with developmental continuum. Gold and Andres (1980)

examined the sex role concepts, personality adjustment, and academic achievement of 379 10 year old children from working or middle class families with employed vs. nonemployed mothers. Results showed that, although patterns of family functioning and parental role satisfaction were different in families with employed and nonemployed mothers, maternal employment was not related to the development of children.

Gottfried and others (1985) examined the role of mothers' employment with respect to young children's cognitive and social development, children's home environment and mothers' attitudes toward employment. According to their results, maternal employment status did not significantly predict children's development or home environment whereas family structure variables were significant predictors. Most of the mothers reported a positive influence of employment on their child's development and family relationship. Findings on the home environment indicated that the experiences to which children were exposed were important for development, regardless of maternal employment status.

Rosenthal and Hansen (1981) also examined the influence of maternal employment on children. They investigated maternal employment in terms of its effect on 555 seventh, eighth and ninth grade young adolescents' self-concept, school achievement, vocational development, and the perceptions of their parents in both intact and nonintact families. They found that there were no significant developmental or perceptual differences between children of full-time employed vs non-employed mothers. Children

from both groups scored similarly in their perceptions of their parents, self concept, school achievement, occupational aspiration and vocational maturity. They contrasted children in terms of mother's full-time, part-time or nonemployment status as well and the findings showed no relationship between maternal employment and dependent variables. Additionally no interaction effects were found between sex, grade, school, level of mother's education and maternal employment. Further investigation indicated no interaction effects between maternal employment and intactness of family. In other words, even in nonintact homes, in which one parent is absent, mother's employment had no significant impact on the children's self-concept, their perceptions of parents, school achievement, occupational aspiration, and vocational maturity.

Goodwin and Newman (1986) investigated the relationship between maternal employment during three periods in the child's life, the child's family orientation and self-concept. In this study it was hypothesized that there were significant differences in the family orientation and/or self-concept of high school students according to whether their mothers worked or never worked, but it was found that both family orientation and self-concept were not significantly related to maternal employment.

Chambliss et al. (1991) studied the influences of maternal employment status on college students' adjustment, perception of childhood and evaluations of parents. Maternal employment status (part-time, full-time, or nonemployment) was not found to affect the majority of childhood appraisal items such as social

adjustment, relationship with parents, intelligence, success, self-esteem, happiness or perception of life satisfaction. However, it was found that maternal employment status was significantly associated with students' perception of childhood freedom, and beliefs about the quality of the parent's marriage. Students whose mothers had worked full-time or had been nonemployed when they were infants were more likely to perceive a loss of freedom as a result of their mothers' work status. Students whose mothers worked full-time when they were infants were more likely to report the belief that their mother's work status negatively affected the quality of her marriage.

Gottfried, Gottfried, and Bathurst (1988), in a longitudinal study from infancy through the early school years, examined the effects of maternal employment from many respects such as its effects on the home and family environment, children's cognitive functioning, academic achievement, and behavioral adjustment. They found that maternal employment had a significant impact on educational attitudes which were related to higher cognitive development, academic achievement, social development and fewer occurrences of behavior problems in girls. As a result of the study they proposed that whereas maternal employment plays no direct role in children's development, it is through the provision of differential proximal home environments that children's development is influenced.

Orther's (1990) review of research on the relationship between maternal employment and early adolescent adjustment revealed mixed

or no association for academic, emotional, social, or cognitive well-being. She concluded that failure to find significant differences between children of employed vs nonemployed mothers could be explained as a result of adaptation of families to increasing rates of maternal employment.

In Turkey, Razon (1983) found that maternal employment had a negative effect on nine year old children's family relations, school achievement and especially on the children's perception of the mother figure and emotional development. However, Fişek's (1992) study of the relationship of maternal employment to family interaction patterns and to the behavioral problems of children ranging from 4 to 16 years old, showed that there was no direct relationship between maternal employment and children's problems. Similarly Fışıloğlu's study (1984) indicated no relationship between maternal employment and the ego-strength levels of adolescents.

In summary, the above mentioned studies may seem to be contradictory as some of them show that maternal employment is beneficial for children's development while others indicate that maternal employment has no influence on children adjustment. However, in general, these studies agree that children's adjustment is not effected adversely by maternal employment.

RATIONALE OF THE STUDY AND HYPOTHESES

One aim of the present study is to investigate the relationship between maternal employment and adolescent sex-typed characteristics. Since there is little related research in Turkey to draw upon, the predictions of this study will be parallel with investigations reported in the Western literature, namely that adolescents with employed mothers have less sex-typed characteristics.

A second aim is to investigate the relationship between maternal employment and adolescent perception of family environment. In the light of investigations that were carried out abroad and the studies on Turkish family system, it is expected that maternal employment by itself will not make important differences in the perception of the family environment.

Finally, the relationship between maternal employment and adolescent adjustment is investigated. Similar to the second prediction, maternal employment by itself is expected not to have an influence on adolescents' adjustment.

The specific hypotheses to be tested are as follows:

1- Adolescents whose mothers are working will have less sex-typed characteristics than adolescents whose mothers are full-time homemakers.

2- There will be no differences between adolescents whose mothers are working and those whose mothers are full-time

homemakers in their perception of their family environment.

3- There will be no differences between adolescents whose mothers are working and adolescents whose mothers are full-time homemakers, in their adjustment levels (family relationship, leadership, emotional stability, social relationship, adjustment to reality, mood and conformity).

In addition to the hypotheses the effects of various demographic characteristics on the dependent variables will be examined as well.

M E T H O D

S U B J E C T S

A total of 650 students made up the sample of the study. They were grade 9 and 10 students in Saint Benoit, Işık Lisesi and Şişli Terakki Lisesi. These schools are private high schools in İstanbul which accept students through a central entrance examination system. 515 students completed test batteries were collected at the end of the administration period. 32 of them were discarded due to the following reasons: mothers were working in part-time jobs, parents were divorced, or one of the parents was dead.

The remaining 468 test batteries were divided into two groups according to the mothers' employment status. The first group consists of 115 students with full-time employed mothers. Of these the batteries of 8 students were also discarded because their scores on the validity scale of the MCI protocols exceeded the number allowed in the manual of the MCI. Thus 107 students were left in the first group at the end of the elimination.

To provide an approximately equal distribution between the three schools in the selection of 107 students from the remaining 368, 54 students from 167 in Saint Benoit, 40 students from 98 in Işık Lisesi, and 13 students from 36 in Şişli Terakki Lisesi were

selected randomly. Thus the second group also consisted of 107 students whose mothers were full-time homemakers.

Table I. The distribution of students in the final sample according to school and mother's employment status.

	Mother Employed	Mother Not Employed
Saint Benoit	51	54
Isik Lisesi	44	40
Sisli Terakki	12	13

Table II. The distribution of students in the final sample according to sex and mother's employment status.

	Mother Employed	Mother Not Employed
Male	47	43
Female	60	64

MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENTS

SEX-TRAIT STEREOTYPE MEASURE (STSM)

The Sex-Trait Stereotype Measure was developed by Gürbüz (1988) in Turkey and patterned on Bem's Sex-Role Inventory (SRI, Bem, 1974). Gürbüz's study of the validity of the Bem Inventory in Turkish society was found to be less than satisfactory, therefore following Bem's methodology, she developed a new measure to assess the degree of stereotyping in an individual's self description. It includes 18 socially desirable and undesirable masculine and feminine characteristics. Feminine qualities consist of four socially desirable and five socially undesirable items.

The socially desirable qualities are "loves children", "thrifty", "elegant", "dependent" and the undesirable qualities are "insecure", "cowardly", "submissive", "weak", and "naive". Masculine qualities consist of six socially desirable and three undesirable items. The socially desirable items are "enterprising", "insists on one's rights", "analytical", "ambitious", "rash" and "forceful". The socially undesirable items are "jealous", "autonomous" and "dominant". A person is asked to indicate on a 7 point scale ranging from 1 (Not at all applicable to me) to 7 (Highly applicable to me) how well each of the masculine and feminine items describes himself or herself. On the basis of her or his self-rating, positive masculinity (M+), positive femininity

(F+), negative masculinity (M-), negative femininity (F-), total masculinity (M), and total femininity (F) scores are calculated for each person.

FAMILY ENVIRONMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (FEQ)

The Family Environment Questionnaire (FEQ) (Fowler 1980) is a shortened 30-item version of the 90 item Family Environment Scale (FES) originally developed by Moos (1974, 1986). It attempts to describe the interpersonal atmosphere in the family with respect to its relationship and organizational features.

The FEQ assesses family structure on two dimensions, interpersonal relationship (cohesion vs. conflict) and organization-control. The interpersonal relationship subscale consists of 15 items which center around the interpersonal relationship dimension or the degree to which family members are concerned about and support each other. This subscale measures the degree of commitment, openness and disagreement among family members. The organization-control subscale also consists of 15 items and measures aspects such as family rules, the rigidity of the family order and the overall plan of organization within the family structure.

The Turkish adaptation of the Family Environment Questionnaire was accomplished by Usluer (1989). Since the adaptation findings revealed that four items had low item-total correlation, they were

deleted from the questionnaire. Thus the adapted questionnaire has 16 cohesion and 10 organization-control items, a total 26 items. Items are scored on a Likert-type scale with " I strongly disagree" assigned a score of 1, "I sometimes agree" a score of 2, " I agree" a score of 3, and "I strongly agree" a score of 4. Therefore the minimum and maximum scores vary between 16-54 for cohesion vs. control subscale and between 10-40 for the organization-control subscale. No specific reliability information is available for the original form. Usluer investigated the internal reliability of the shortened FEQ and she found alfa coefficients were .82 for cohesion and .74 for organization-control subscales. Test-retest reliability coefficients were .61 for cohesion subscale and .73 for organization-control subscale.

MINNESOTA COUNSELING INVENTORY (MCI)

The Minnesota Counseling Inventory (MCI) was developed by Berdie and Layton (1953). It provides information about the personality dynamics and the adjustment problems of school age youth. It has nine scales and scores. The first two are a question score which is the number of omitted items and a validity score which helps to identify students who might be overly eager to obtain socially acceptable and desirable results. The other seven scales identify several areas of adjustment. The Turkish adaptation of the shortened form of MCI, which consists of 212 items, was

accomplished by Akdağ (1979) and a study on the validity of the shortened form of the MCI was conducted by Pektaş (1985). The following general description of the seven scales is based on the MCI manual.

1- Family Relationships (FR):

This score refers to the relation between the student and his/her family. Students who get a low score are likely to have healthy and friendly relations with parents, brothers and sisters. They feel affection towards the members of the family and the members of their family feel affection towards them. They spend much time at home and participate in activities with the members of their family. They feel that their parents give independence to them and make reasonable demands.

High scores are obtained by students who have difficulties with the members of their family. They spend little time at home and express a wish to leave home. They feel that their parents make unreasonable demands and that they are very strict.

2- Social Relationship (SR):

The score on this scale refers to the nature of the students' relationship with other people. Students with low scores usually appear to be happy and comfortable when with groups of students or adults. They enjoy talking with others and are interested in what others say. In groups they introduce people to one another. These students like other people and are well-liked by them. In general they have good social skills, have acceptable manners, and behave appropriately in social situations.

Students with high scores are likely to be socially inept. They often seem to be unhappy and uncomfortable when with groups of students and adults. They do not enjoy talking and associating with others. Other people, in return, do not enjoy being with them. These students may refuse to attend school functions. They may not answer questions in class when called upon even if they know the answers.

3- Emotional Stability (ES):

Students with low scores are emotionally stable. They seldom worry and are relaxed and calm most of the time. They rarely ask for advice, they are capable of making their own decisions. They do not show fear in new and strange situations and behave efficiently in emergencies.

Students with high scores are emotionally unstable and frequently unhappy. They often overreact emotionally and may lose their tempers easily. They often feel tense and anxious under stress and cry. In new situations they may be fearful, timid or aggressive.

4- Conformity (C):

The score on this scale gives information about the type of adjustment a student makes in situations that require conforming or responsible behavior. Students with low scores are usually reliable and responsible, conforming to rules even when they may not agree with them. They attempt to change rules with orderly procedures. They are not rebellious, they show respect to persons in authority. Although they are not overly submissive, they understand the need

for social organization. These students seldom cause disturbances in school, seldom have unexcused absences and usually complete assignments on time.

Students with high scores are likely to be impulsive, irresponsible and rebellious. They learn little from experience and they repeat the same offense even though verbally warned. They are individualistic and self-centered. They may cause disturbances in school, have unexcused absences, and fail to complete assignments.

5- Adjustment to Reality (R):

This scale gives information about the student's way of dealing with reality, whether he masters threatening situations or withdraws. Students with low scores seem to deal rather effectively with reality. They are able to make friends and establish satisfactory relationships with groups and have very little difficulty in communicating with them. They share their emotional experiences and they are not afraid of competition.

Students with high scores have difficulties in making friends and establishing relationships with a group. They are often shy, secretive, withdrawn, sensitive and show little emotion. They may work on odd themes and have peculiar hobbies. Although they do not like competition they dream of success. Since they are withdrawn and cause little trouble they usually escape from the teacher's or counselor's attention.

6- Mood (M):

This scale refers to a student's usual emotional state or morale. Students with low scores have good morale, and they are

cheerful most of the time. They frequently smile and are enthusiastic about subjects, activities and friends. They are self-confident. They get over depression or discouragement very quickly. They are optimistic about the future and make long-range plans.

A high score refers to poor morale. Students with a high score are depressed. They lack self-confidence and feel useless. They are pessimistic about the future and become easily discouraged.

7- Leadership (L):

This scale indicates personality characteristics related to leadership behavior. Students with a low score have fine leadership skills and know how to work with others. They readily assume responsibilities and initiate ideas and carry them out. Others frequently recognize these qualities and place these students in positions of leadership.

However, high scores do not refer to good followership. Students with high scores are often inept in social situations and avoid participating in groups.

P R O C E D U R E

The questionnaire battery consisted of the Family Environment Questionnaire (FEQ), the Sex-Trait Stereotype Measure (STSM), and the Minnesota Counseling Inventory (MCI). Additionally each student also filled out a questionnaire on some demographic variables. The inventories were administered in the three different high schools

over a period of two months. The selection of the classes, time of day, and day of the week were arranged by the school administrations and a schedule was prepared together with the counselors, taking into account their priorities.

Due to the heavy school program in each school, only one hour was allowed for administration. Therefore the FEQ, the STSM and demographic variables question sheet were filled out in the classes. Information on how to fill out the MCI was given to the students after the collection of above mentioned inventories and they were asked to fill out the MCI at home and bring it back the next day.

In order to eliminate probable effects, students were not informed that this study was concerned with the comparison of maternal full-time employment vs. nonemployment. Instead they were told that the study aimed to investigate adolescents' perception of family environment, perception of feminine and masculine roles and some personality characteristics. Students were also asked not to write their names on the question sheets so as to encourage them to respond frankly.

They were further told that if they had questions, they would be answered on an individual basis. The questions were about the items they did not understand, about the wording, about writing their names on their sheets and about the MCI.

R E S U L T S

This chapter is divided into two parts involving the evaluation of the hypotheses and additional findings. First, the result of the t-tests performed to investigate the direct effect of maternal employment on the dependent variables, in other words, the hypotheses are presented. Secondly, the results of the analyses of variance assessing the effects of maternal employment and gender on adolescents' adjustment, sex-typed characteristics, and perceived family cohesion and control scores are presented. Stepwise multiple regressions computed to examine the relative contributions of maternal employment, gender, cohesion, control, total femininity, and total masculinity on students' personality structure and problems are presented next. Finally, t-tests and Chi-squares comparing adolescents with employed versus nonemployed mothers in terms of the demographic variables are also given.

Hypothesis I predicted that adolescents whose mothers are working would have fewer sex-typed characteristics than adolescents whose mothers are full-time homemakers. The means, standard deviations and results of the Sex-Trait Stereotypes Measure (STSM) scores for the two groups of adolescents are given in Table III.

The results indicated that there were no significant differences between adolescents with employed vs. nonemployed mothers in terms of sex-typed characteristics. However, there was a trend for positive femininity, indicating that students with

employed mothers had fewer positive feminine characteristics than students with nonemployed mothers ($p < .07$). Thus in general Hypothesis I was not supported.

Table III. The means, standard deviations and t-tests of the Sex-Trait Measure (STSM) for two groups of adolescents.

Variables *	Moth. Employed		Moth. Not Emp.		t	df	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
M (+)	32.42	5.02	32.50	4.62	-.11	210.58	.91
M (-)	12.49	3.82	11.70	4.08	1.45	211.11	.15
F (+)	18.78	4.16	19.79	3.82	-1.85	210.42	.07
F (-)	12.42	5.30	12.32	4.84	.18	210.26	.86
Tot M	44.81	7.18	44.17	7.26	.65	211.97	.51
Tot F	31.08	6.80	32.10	6.93	-1.09	211.92	.28

* M (+) = Masculine positive

* M (-) = Masculine negative

* F (+) = Feminine positive

* F (-) = Feminine negative

* Tot M = Total masculinity

* Tot F = Total femininity

Hypothesis II predicted that there would be no differences between adolescents whose mothers were working and whose mothers were full-time homemakers in their perception of the family

environment. The means, standard deviations and results of the Family Environment Questionnaire (FEQ) are presented in Table IV. The results indicated that there were no significant differences between the two groups in terms of their perception of the level of cohesion and control in their families. Thus the hypothesis was supported.

Table IV. The means, standard deviations and t-tests of the two groups of adolescents on the cohesion and control subscales of Family Environment Questionnaire (FEQ).

Variables	Moth. Employed		Moth. Not Emp.		t	df	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Cohesion	46.58	6.53	47.53	6.76	-1.27	211.75	.21
Control	25.06	5.46	25.67	4.28	-.92	200.60	.36

Hypothesis III stated that there would be no differences between adolescents whose mothers were working and adolescents whose mothers were full-time homemakers in their adjustment, namely family relationship, leadership, emotional stability, social relationship, adjustment to reality, mood and conformity. In this case, a higher score on each subscale indicates more problems. The means, standard deviations, and t-tests of the differences between

the two groups on these subscales are displayed in Table V. The results indicated that there were no significant differences in the adjustment of students with employed vs nonemployed mothers. Thus Hypothesis III was supported.

Table V. The means, standard deviations, and t-test results of the seven MCI scales scores for the two groups of adolescents.

Variables	Moth. Employed		Moth. Not Emp.		t	df	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Soc. R	13.56	8.69	13.69	9.23	-.11	211.06	.96
Leader	9.04	3.55	8.93	3.77	.22	211.25	.82
Confor	8.24	4.54	7.96	4.35	.46	211.60	.65
Fa.Re.	9.42	5.13	8.65	5.02	1.10	211.90	.27
Mood	9.49	3.85	8.77	3.81	1.37	211.98	.17
Em.St.	14.36	4.81	14.02	4.80	.53	212.00	.60
Reali.	14.24	6.18	12.87	6.18	1.63	212.00	.11

* Soc. R= Social Relationship

* Leader= Leadership

* Confor= Conformity

* Fa. Re.= Family Relationship

* Mood= Mood

* Reali.= Reality

* Em. St.= Emotional Stability

The Effects of Maternal Employment and Gender on Adolescent Adjustment

Two way Analyses of Variance was performed to examine whether maternal employment status and gender had an effect on the adolescents' adjustment.

Conformity: There were no direct effects of maternal employment status or gender. However, the interaction of maternal employment by gender revealed a trend indicating that being a daughter of an employed mother tends to increase conformity problems ($F=3.3$, $P<.07$).

Family Relationship: There were no significant effects. However, females tended to report more problems in families ($F=3.18$, $p<.08$).

Mood: Gender had a significant direct effect on mood such that females had significantly higher scores indicating mood problems ($F=4.74$, $p<.03$). Neither the direct effect of maternal employment nor the interaction of maternal employment by gender were found to be significant.

Emotional Stability: Gender significantly affected emotional stability, with females having significantly higher emotional problem scores ($F=12.79$, $P<.001$). However, the direct effect of maternal employment and the interaction of maternal employment by gender showed no significant results.

Adjustment to Reality: Maternal employment status and gender showed trends. The adolescents of employed mothers tended to have

more problems with reality adjustment than the children of nonemployed mothers ($F=2.9$, $p<.09$) and females reported more reality problems than males ($F=2.94$, $p<.09$). The interaction of maternal employment by gender was found to be non-significant.

The analyses did not reveal any significant direct or interaction effects of maternal employment or gender on adolescents' **social relationship** and **leadership** scores.

The Effects of Maternal Employment and Gender on Perceived Family Environment

Two way Analyses of Variance were conducted to test the effects of maternal employment and gender on perceived family environment. The results were as follows.

Cohesion: There was no direct effect of maternal employment on family cohesion and the interaction of maternal employment by gender were not significant. However, females tended to perceive their families as being less cohesive ($F=3.06$, $p<.08$).

Control: Although the analyses did not show a direct effect for maternal employment or gender, the interaction of maternal employment by gender indicated a significant effect on perceived family control ($F=4.7$, $p<.03$). Male adolescents whose mothers were not employed perceived their families as being more controlling.

The Effects of Maternal Employment and Gender on Sex-Typed Characteristics

In addition to testing the effects of maternal employment and gender on total femininity and total masculinity scores, two way analyses of variance were also performed on positive femininity scores since t-test results showed a near significant trend for this score.

Positive Femininity Score: Gender had a highly significant direct effect on positive femininity score ($F=11.66$, $p<.001$). Females' positive femininity scores were significantly higher than were males' scores. In terms of the direct effect of maternal employment, there was a trend indicating that the feminine positive scores of the adolescents with nonemployed mothers tended to be higher than those with employed mothers ($F=3.1$, $p<.08$). The interaction effect of maternal employment by gender was found to be non-significant.

Total Femininity: The direct effect of gender on total femininity was found to be highly significant ($F=19.52$, $p<.001$). Females' total femininity scores were significantly higher than were males' scores. The effects of maternal employment on total femininity scores and the interaction of maternal employment by gender were not significant.

Total Masculinity: Neither direct nor interaction effects of maternal employment status and the gender of adolescents showed significant results.

The Contribution of Maternal Employment, Family Environment and Sex-Stereotypes to Adolescent Adjustment.

Stepwise Multiple Regression Analyses were performed to examine the relative contributions of maternal employment status, gender of children, scores on cohesion, control, total femininity and total masculinity, as independent variables, to students' scores on social relationship, leadership, conformity, family relationship, mood, emotional stability, and reality, representing adjustment, as dependent variables.

Social Relationship: The results of the multiple regression analysis evaluating the contribution of the independent variables to Social Relationships (SR) are displayed in Table VI. In this analysis only three variables, namely total masculinity, total femininity and cohesion contributed significantly to the Social Relationship scores and these three variables explained 33% of the variance in social relationship scores. The first variable entered into the equation was total masculinity with a negative effect, and it was found to explain 19% of the variance in social relationship ($F= 49.4, p<.0001$). As the total masculinity score increased the Social Relationship scores decreased, indicating that having more masculine stereotypes was associated with better social relationships for the students. Secondly, total femininity was entered and it explained an additional 10% of the variance ($F=43.96, p<.0001$), indicating that as the total femininity score

increased the Social Relationship scores increased which shows that having more feminine characteristics increased the social relationship problems of the students. Thirdly, cohesion was entered and with a negative effect it was found to explain an additional 4% of the variance ($F=34.4, p<.0001$), indicating that as perceived family cohesiveness increased the social relationship problems of the adolescents decreased.

Table VI. Results of the Multiple Regression Analysis of the Effects of the Independent Variables on Social Relationships.

DV	IV	R	Beta	f	df	p
Social Relationships	Tot.Mas	.18888	-.43	49.37	1, 212	.0001
	Tot.Fem	.29412	.34	49.96	2, 211	.0001
	Cohesi.	.32931	-.19	34.37	3, 210	.001

Leadership: The results of the multiple regression analysis for Leadership are presented in Table VII. Only three variables contributed significantly to the Leadership score, namely total femininity, total masculinity and cohesion, and they accounted for 26% of the variance in leadership. The first variable entered into the equation was total femininity and it explained 18% of the variance in leadership ($F=48.1, p<.0001$). As the total femininity

score increased, leadership scores increased which shows that having more feminine characteristics was associated with more leadership problems. Secondly, total masculinity was entered and with a negative effect it was found to explain an additional 4% of the variance ($F=30.59$, $p<.0012$), indicating that having more masculine characteristics decreased the leadership problems of the students. Thirdly cohesion was entered and with a negative effect it explained an additional 3% of the variance ($F=24.25$, $p<.003$) which shows that as the perceived family cohesion increased the leadership problems decreased.

Table VII. Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of the Effects of the Independent Variables on Leadership.

DV	IV	R	Beta	f	df	p
Leader-ship	Tot.Fem	.18490	.43	48.1	1, 212	.0001
	Tot.Mas	.22477	-.21	30.59	1, 211	.0012
	Cohesi.	.25726	-.18	24.25	1, 210	.0027

Conformity: The results of the multiple regression analysis of Conformity are presented in Table VIII. This analysis showed that only three variables, cohesion, total masculinity, and control, accounted for 23% of the variance in conformity. The first variable

entered into the equation was cohesion with a negative effect, and it explained 18% of the variance in conformity ($F=45.42$, $p<.0001$), indicating that as perceived family cohesion increased, conformity problems of the adolescent decreased. Secondly, total masculinity was entered and it explained an additional 3% of the variance ($F=27.54$, $p<.0048$). As the total masculinity score increased, the conformity score increased which shows that having more masculine sex-typed characteristics was associated with more conformity problems for the adolescent. Thirdly, control was entered and it was found to explain an additional 3% of the variance ($F=21.26$, $p<.0083$), indicating that as perceived family control increased the conformity problems of adolescents increased.

Table VIII. Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of the Effects of the Independent Variables on Conformity.

DV	IV	R	Beta	f	df	p
Conformity	Cohesi.	.17644	-.42	45.42	1, 212	.0001
	Tot. Ma	.20700	.18	27.54	2, 211	.0048
	Control	.23293	.16	21.26	3, 210	.0083

Family Relationships: The results of the multiple regression analysis of Family Relationships are presented in Table IX. In the

analysis only three variables, namely cohesion, total masculinity, and control contributed significantly to the family relationships scores and they accounted for 34% of the variance. First, cohesion was entered into the equation with a negative effect and it explained 25% of the variance in family relationships ($F=72$, $p<.0001$). As perceived family cohesion increased, family relationships scores decreased. Secondly, total masculinity was entered and it was found to explain an additional 5% of the variance ($F= 45.37$, $p<.0002$), indicating that as total masculinity scores increased, the family relationship problems of adolescents also increased. Thirdly, control was entered and it explained an additional 4% of the variance ($F=35.5$, $p<.0009$) which indicates that perceived high family control increased family relationship problems.

Table IX. Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of the Effects of the Independent Variables on Family Relationships.

DV	IV	R	Beta	f	df	p
Family Relationships	Cohesi.	.25353	-.50	72.00	1, 212	.0001
	Tot. Ma	.30074	.22	45.37	2, 211	.0002
	Control	.33650	.19	35.50	3, 210	.0009

Mood: The results of the multiple regression analysis of Mood are presented in Table X. This analysis showed that only two variables, cohesion and total femininity contributed significantly to the mood scores and they accounted for 13% of the variance. The first variable entered into the equation was cohesion with a negative effect and it explained 7% of the variance in mood ($F=17.03$, $p<.0001$) which indicates that as perceived family cohesion increased mood problems of the adolescent decreased. Secondly, total femininity was entered and it explained an additional 5% of the variance ($F=15.38$, $p<.0004$). This result shows that as total femininity scores increased, mood scores also increased, in other words, having more feminine sex-typed characteristics was associated with more mood problems for adolescents.

Table X. Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of the Effects of the Independent Variables on Mood.

DV	IV	R	Beta	f	df	p
Mood	Cohesi.	.07436	-.27	17.03	1, 212	.0001
	Tot.Fem	.12721	.22	15.38	2, 211	.0004

Emotional Stability: The results of the multiple regression analysis of Emotional Stability are presented in Table XI. This analysis showed that five variables, namely total femininity,

cohesion, control, sex and total masculinity contributed significantly to the emotional stability scores and they accounted for 19% of the variance. The first variable entered into the equation was total femininity and it explained 7% of the variance in emotional stability ($F=16.76$, $p<.0001$) which indicates that as total femininity scores increased, emotional problems increased. Secondly, cohesion was entered and with a negative effect it explained an additional 6% of the variance ($F=15.73$, $p<.0003$), indicating that increased perceived family cohesion was associated with decreased emotional stability problems. Thirdly, control was entered and it explained an additional 2% of the variance ($F=12.75$, $p<.0148$), which shows that as perceived family control increased the emotional problems also increased. Fourthly, gender was entered and it was found to explain an additional 2% of the variance ($F=10.91$, $p<.0313$), indicating that being female seemed to be associated with more emotional stability problems. Fifthly, total masculinity was entered and it explained an additional 2% of the variance ($F=9.70$, $p<.04$). These results indicate that as masculinity scores increased, emotional stability problems also increased.

Table IX. Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of the Effects of the Independent Variables on Emotional Stability.

DV	IV	R	Beta	f	df	p
Emotio- nal Stabi- lity	Tot.Fem	.07327	.27	16.76	1, 212	.0001
	Cohesi.	.12977	-.24	15.73	2, 211	.0003
	Control	.15410	.16	12.75	3, 210	.0148
	Sex	.17270	.14	10.91	4, 209	.0313
	Tot.Mas	.18915	.13	9.70	5, 208	.0412

Adjustment to Reality: The results of the multiple regression analysis of Adjustment to Reality are presented in Table XII. This analysis showed that three variables, cohesion, control, and total masculinity contributed significantly to adjustment to reality and they accounted for 17% of the variance. The first variable entered into the equation was cohesion with a negative effect and it explained 11% of the variance in adjustment to reality ($F=27.42$, $p<.0001$) which shows that as perceived family cohesion increased the adolescent's adjustment to reality problems decreased. Secondly, control was entered and it explained an additional 4% of the variance ($F=18.69$, $p<.0031$), indicating that as perceived family control increased, the adolescent's adjustment to reality

problems also increased. Thirdly, total masculinity was entered and it was found to explain an additional 2% of the variance ($F=14.43$, $p<.02$) which indicates that having more masculine sex-typed characteristics increased the adolescent's adjustment to reality problems.

Table XII. Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of the Effects of the Independent Variables on Adjustment to Reality.

DV	IV	R	Beta	f	df	p
Adjust- ment to Reality	Cohesi.	.11454	-.34	27.42	1, 212	.0001
	Control	.15048	.19	18.69	2, 211	.0031
	Tot.Mas	.17089	.14	14.43	3, 210	.0240

Maternal Employment and Demographic Variables

Adolescents with working versus homemakers mothers were also contrasted in terms of their ages, fathers' ages, mothers' ages and family member living at home by performing t-tests. The results are presented in Table XIII. While the parents' ages did not differ, the children's ages and family size did. First, the results indicated that children of working mothers were significantly younger than children of non-working mothers ($p<.02$). Second, the number of family members was significantly lower in working

mothers' families than in the non-working mothers' families ($p < .003$).

Table XIII. The means, standard deviations and t-tests of the adolescents' and parents' ages, and family size for two groups.

Variables *	Moth. Employed		Moth. Not Emp.		t	df	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
St.Age	16.06	.93	16.10	.95	2.35	210.93	.02
Fa.Age	47.03	5.38	47.46	5.13	-.59	205.06	.56
Mo.Age	42.44	4.02	41.92	4.12	.92	205.00	.361
Fa.Me.	3.86	.75	4.16	.68	-3.01	202.66	.003

* St. Age= Students' Age

* Fa. Age= Fathers' Age

* Mo. Age= Mothers' Age

* Fa. Me.= Family Member

A Chi-square analysis was performed to test the association of the fathers' education level and mothers' employment status. The results of Chi-square are presented in Table XIV. The findings showed that husbands with less than university education had more homemaker wives, while husbands with university or postuniversity education had more employed wives, this differences being highly significant ($X=33.94$, $p < .0001$).

Table XIV. Results of Chi-Square on the Association of the Fathers' Education Level and Mothers' Employment Status.

Father Education	Mother Employed	Mother Not Employed
Primary School	-	8
Secondary School	2	8
High School	8	31
University	93	58
Post University	4	2

A Chi-Square analysis was performed to test the association of the mothers' education level and the mothers' employment status. The results of this analysis are presented in Table XV. The results revealed that mothers with less than university education were housewives, whereas mothers with university or postuniversity education were employed ($X=93.56$, $p<.0001$).

Table XV. Results of Chi-Square on the Association of the Mothers' Education Level and Maternal Employment Status

Mother Education	Mother Employed	Mother Not Employed
Primary	1	10
Secondary	1	15
High School	18	65
University	85	17
Post University	2	-

Additional Results

Since previous analyses revealed that in addition to family environment and sex-typed characteristics, gender was one of the factors affecting adolescent adjustment more than maternal employment, further multiple regression analyses were conducted for both genders separately to evaluate the relative contribution of the variables on adjustment. In this section the results of the regression analyses are presented, first of males then female adolescents.

The Contribution of Family Environment and Sex-Typed Characteristics to Male Adolescents' Adjustment.

Social Relationships: The results of the multiple regression analysis for Social Relationships are presented in Table XVI. In this analysis three variables, namely total masculinity, cohesion and control contributed significantly to the social relationship scores and these three variables explained 32% of the variance in social relationship scores. The first variable entered into the equation was total masculinity with negative effect, and it was found to explain 20% of the variance in social relationship ($F=22.5, p<.0001$). This shows that having more masculine qualities was associated with better social relationships for male adolescents. Secondly, cohesion was entered with a negative effect, and it explained an additional 8% of the variance ($F= 17.3, p<.002$), indicating that as perceived family cohesiveness increased the social relationship problems of male adolescents decreased. Thirdly, control was entered and it explained an additional 4% of the variance ($F= 13.7, p<.03$), indicating that as perceived family control increased the social relationship problems of the male adolescents also increased.

Leadership: The results of the multiple regression analysis for Leadership are presented in Table XVI. All variables contributed significantly to the leadership scores and they accounted for 24% of the variance in leadership. The first variable

entered into the equation was total masculinity with a negative effect, and it explained 9% of the variance in leadership ($F= 9.62$, $p<.003$), indicating that having more masculine qualities decreased the leadership problems of male students. Secondly, total femininity was entered and it explained 5% of the variance ($F= 7.71$, $p<.03$). As the total femininity score increased, leadership scores increased, which shows that having more feminine sex-typed characteristics was associated with more leadership problems. Thirdly, cohesion was entered with a negative effect, and it explained an additional 5% of the variance ($F= 6.99$, $P<.03$), indicating that as perceived family cohesion increased the leadership problems of male students decreased. Fourthly, control was entered and it explained an additional 5% of the variance ($F= 6.76$, $p<.02$) which shows that as perceived family control increased the leadership problems also increased.

Conformity: The results of the multiple regression analysis of conformity are presented in Table XVI. In the analysis only two variables, namely cohesion and total masculinity, contributed significantly to conformity scores and they explained 18% of the variance. The first variable entered into the equation was cohesion with a negative effect, and it explained 12% of the variance in conformity ($F= 12.32$, $p<.0007$), indicating that as perceived family cohesion increased, the conformity problems of male students decreased. Secondly, total masculinity was entered and it was found to explain an additional 6% of the variance ($F= 9.53$, $p<.02$) which shows that having more masculine qualities was associated with more

conformity problems for male adolescents.

Family Relationships: The results of the multiple regression analysis of family relationships are presented in Table XVI. The analysis showed that only one variable, cohesion, contributed significantly to the family relationship scores with a negative effect, and it accounted for 18% of the variance ($F= 18.76$, $p<.0001$), indicating that as perceived family cohesion increased, family relationship problems of male adolescents decreased.

Mood: The results of the multiple regression analysis of mood are presented in Table XVI. In the analysis only one variable, total masculinity, was entered with a negative effect, and it explained 5% of the variance in mood ($F= 4.43$, $p<.04$), indicating that having more masculine sex-typed characteristics was associated with decreased mood problems of male adolescents.

Emotional Stability: The results of the multiple regression for emotional stability are presented in Table XVI. This analysis showed that control and cohesion contributed significantly to emotional stability scores and they accounted for 13% of the variance. Firstly, control was entered into the equation and it explained 5% of the variance ($F= 4.90$, $p<.03$) which shows that as perceived family control increased the emotional problems of male adolescents also increased. Secondly, cohesion was entered with a negative effect and it was found to explain an additional 8% of the variance ($F= 6.77$, $p<.005$), indicating that perceived high cohesion was associated with decreased emotional problems.

Adjustment to Reality: The results of the multiple regression

for adjustment to reality are presented in Table XVI. In this analysis two variables, cohesion and control, contributed significantly to the adjustment to reality and they accounted for 11% of the variance. Firstly, cohesion was entered into the equation with a negative effect and it explained 6% of the variance ($F= 5.83, p<.02$), indicating that as perceived family cohesion increased the male adolescents' adjustment to reality problems decreased. Secondly, control was entered and it was found to explain an additional 5% of the variance ($F= 5.39, p<.03$) which shows that as perceived family control increased, the male students' adjustment to reality problems also increased.

Overall higher family cohesion was associated with better adjustment in almost all domains whereas higher family control was associated with problems in social relationships, leadership, emotional stability and adjustment to reality. Feminine qualities were associated with more leadership problems. While masculine qualities were associated with better adjustment in social relationships and leadership qualities, it increased conformity problems of male adolescents.

Table XVI. Results of the Multiple Regression Analysis of the Effects of the Independent Variables on Adjustment Scores of Males.

DV	IV	R	Beta	f	df	p
Social Relationships	Tot.Mas	.20397	-.45	22.55	1, 88	.0001
	Cohasi.	.28466	-.29	17.31	2, 87	.0024
	Control	.32267	.20	13.66	3, 86	.031
Leadership	Tot.Mas	.09858	-.31	9.62	1, 88	.0026
	Tot.Fem	.15050	.23	7.71	2, 87	.0235
	Cohesi.	.19610	-.21	6.99	3, 86	.0299
	Control	.24143	.22	6.76	4, 85	.0268
Conformity	Cohesi.	.12285	-.35	12.32	1, 88	.0007
	Tot. Ma	.17976	.24	9.53	2, 87	.0160
Fa. Re.	Cohesi.	.17575	-.42	18.76	1, 88	.0001
Mood	Tot.Mas	.04798	-.22	4.45	1, 88	.0381
Emotional St.	Control	.05278	.23	4.90	1, 88	.03
	Cohesi.	.13461	-.29	6.77	2, 87	.005
Adjust. to Re.	Cohesi.	.06218	-.25	5.83	1, 88	.02
	Control	.11028	.23	5.39	2, 87	.03

The Contribution of Family Environment and Sex-Typed Characteristics to Female Adolescents' Adjustment.

Social Relationships: The results of the multiple regression analysis of social relationships are presented in Table XVII. This analysis showed that three variables, namely total femininity, total masculinity and cohesion contributed significantly to the social relationship scores and they accounted for 38% of the variance. The first variable entered into the equation was total femininity and it explained 29% of the variance in social relationships ($F= 48.82, p<.0001$), indicating that having more feminine qualities was associated with more social relationship problems for the female adolescent. Secondly, total masculinity was entered with a negative effect and it explained an additional 7% of the variance ($F= 33.83, p<.0003$) which shows that having more masculine qualities decreases social relationship problems of the female adolescent. Thirdly, cohesion was entered with a negative effect and it was found to explain an additional 2% of the variance ($F=24.43, p<.05$) indicating that as perceived family cohesion increased the social relationship problems of female students decreased.

Leadership: The results of the multiple regression analysis of leadership are presented in Table XVII. In this analysis two variables, total femininity and cohesion, contributed significantly to the leadership scores and they accounted for 29% of the variance. First, total femininity was entered into the equation and

it explained 25% of the variance in leadership ($F=41.73$, $p<.0001$) which shows that as total femininity increased leadership scores also increased, in other words, having more feminine qualities was associated with more leadership problems for female students. Secondly, cohesion was entered with a negative effect, and it explained an additional 3% of the variance ($F= 24.18$, $p<.02$) which indicates that as perceived cohesion increased leadership problems of the female adolescent decreased.

Conformity: The results of the multiple regression analysis for conformity are presented in Table XVII. This analysis showed that only one variable, cohesion, contributed significantly to conformity scores with a negative effect and it accounted for 20% of the variance in conformity ($F= 31.29$, $p<.0001$) which indicates that as perceived family cohesion increased, conformity problems of the female adolescent decreased.

Family Relationships: The results of the multiple regression analysis of family relationships are presented in Table XVII. In this analysis three variables, cohesion, total masculinity and control, contributed significantly to the family relationship scores and they explained 39% of the variance. First, cohesion was entered into the equation with a negative effect and it was found to explain 29% of the variance ($F= 50.18$, $p<.0001$) which shows that perceived high family cohesion was associated with decreased family relationship problems for female adolescents. Secondly, total masculinity was entered and it explained an additional 7% of the variance ($F= 33.56$, $p<.0006$) which shows that as total masculinity

scores increased, the family relationship problems of the female adolescent also increased. Thirdly, control was entered and it was found to explain an additional 3% of the variance ($F= 25.64$, $p<.01$), indicating that as perceived family control increased the family relationship problems of female student increased.

Mood: The results of the multiple regression analysis for mood are presented in Table XVII. Two variables, cohesion and total femininity contributed significantly to the mood scores and they accounted for 16% of the variance. The first variable entered into the equation was cohesion with a negative effect and it explained 8% of the variance ($F= 11.29$, $p<.001$) which shows that as perceived family cohesion increased mood problems of the female adolescent decreased. Secondly total femininity was entered and it was found to explain an additional 8% of the variance ($F= 11.67$, $p<.001$), indicating that having more feminine qualities was associated with more mood problems for female adolescents.

Emotional Stability: The results of the multiple regression analysis are presented in Table XVII. In this analysis two variables, namely total femininity and cohesion, contributed significantly to the emotional stability scores and they accounted for 11% of the variance. Total femininity was the first variable entered into the equation and it was found to explain 6% of the variance ($F= 7.67$, $p<.007$), indicating that having more feminine qualities was associated with more emotional stability problems for female adolescents. Secondly, cohesion was entered with a negative effect and it explained an additional 5% of the variance ($F= 7.68$,

$p < .008$) which shows that as perceived family cohesiveness increased, emotional stability problems of female students decreased.

Adjustment to Reality: The results of the multiple regression analysis for adjustment to reality are presented in Table XVII. This analysis showed that only one variable, cohesion, contributed significantly to reality adjustment scores with a negative effect and it explained 14% of the variance ($F = 20.13$, $p < .0001$), indicating that increased family cohesion was associated with decreased reality adjustment problems for female adolescents.

Overall feminine qualities increased adjustment problems in social relationships, leadership, mood and emotional stability. While masculine qualities were associated with better social relationships, they were also associated with increased family relationship problems. Higher family cohesion was associated with better adjustment of female adolescents in all domains whereas higher family control was associated with increased family relationship problems.

Table XVII. Results of the Multiple Regression Analysis of the Effects of the Independent Variables on Adjustment Scores of Females.

DV	IV	R	Beta	f	df	p
Social Relationships	Tot.Fem	.28579	.53	48.82	1, 122	.0001
	Tot.Mas	.35860	-.28	33.83	2, 121	.0003
	Cohesi.	.37918	-.14	24.43	3, 120	.05
Leadership	Tot.Fem	.25486	.50	41.73	1, 122	.0001
	Cohesi.	.29556	-.18	24.18	2, 121	.02
Confor.	Cohesi.	.20414	-.45	31.29	1, 212	.0001
Family Relationships	Cohesi.	.29145	-.54	50.18	1, 122	.0001
	Tot.Mas	.35680	.26	33.56	2, 121	.0006
	Control	.39063	.18	25.64	3, 120	.01
Mood	Cohesi.	.08469	-.29	11.29	1, 122	.001
	Tot.Fem	.16173	.27	11.67	2, 121	.001
Emotional St.	Tot.Fem	.05917	.24	7.67	1, 122	.007
	Cohesi.	.11260	.23	7.68	2, 121	.008
Ad.to R	Cohesi.	.14160	-.38	20.13	1, 212	.0001

D I S C U S S I O N

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the effects of maternal employment on adolescents' sex-typed characteristics, perception of family environments and adjustment. The overall results of this study indicate that maternal employment did not have a significant influence on adolescents' sex-typed characteristics. However, the findings showed a trend for positive feminine qualities, indicating that the children of employed mothers had fewer feminine positive qualities than the children of nonemployed mothers. Maternal employment by itself was found to have no significant effects on adolescents' perception of family environment and on their adjustment. It seems that, at least for high SES samples, maternal employment is not a negative influence.

In this section each hypothesis will be presented and the results discussed. Hypothesis I stated that adolescents whose mothers are working would have fewer sex-typed characteristics than adolescents whose mothers are full-time homemakers. Since there is little research in Turkey on this subject, the predicted relationship was based on investigations reported in the Western literature. Although there are some controversies, as a result of many investigations, maternal employment was considered among the

most consistent and best predictors of a lower level of sex-typed characteristics among children, particularly females. In general, the influence of maternal employment on children's sex role attitudes and beliefs is explained as being a result of changes in the roles of the father and mother. In dual-earner families, although mothers still maintain the larger share, fathers are said to help in household tasks including child care more than the husbands of nonworking mothers. Therefore the traditional family pattern and the models of sex roles that the parents present to the children are claimed to be different in working mothers' families.

However, this was not the case according to the results of the present study. Maternal employment was found to have no significant direct effect on adolescents' sex-typed characteristics. This finding is consistent with some other studies. For example, Rich and Bernstein (1993) found that maternal employment was not a significant factor in determining androgyny. Similarly, Seegmiller's (1980) investigation showed that regardless of children's sexes, maternal employment was unrelated to sex-role differentiation. Weeks, Wise and Duncan (1984) found no relationship between maternal employment status and sex-role attitudes in high-school girls.

One can think of two alternative explanations why no relationship was found between maternal employment and children's sex-typed characteristics. The first possible reason may be the age of the children. In this study the mean age of Ss was above 17. Generally, the relationship between maternal employment and

children's sex role perceptions is found to be stronger for elementary school children and the strength of this relationship decreases during early adolescence. Gold and Andres (1978) reported that this relationship was stronger for 10-year olds than 14 to 16-year olds. Dellas, Gaier, and Emihovich (1979) found that more 11-year olds girls whose mothers were employed believed that it was acceptable for women with children to work than did those with nonemployed mothers, while no differences were found for 16-year olds. In two other studies a relationship between maternal employment and nontraditional sex role beliefs were found during middle childhood, but not during early adolescence (Chandler, Sawicki and Stryffeler, 1981; Marantz and Mansfield, 1977). All these studies point out the weakening relationship between maternal employment and adolescents' sex role attitudes and beliefs with the child's increasing age. Montemayor and Claton (1983) explain the decrease in the strength of the relationship between maternal employment and adolescents' sex role perceptions as a result of peer pressure for homogeneity and adolescents' wishes to be current with the expectations of their friends.

The second possible reason may have to do with the cultural differences between Western and Turkish societies. Therefore it requires a close look at Turkish society and the traditional family system. In Turkish society, although there are variations mostly associated with rural/urban and social class differences, gender differences turn around one basic concept, that is male domination. Gender differences start from birth; as in all patriarchal

societies, sons are preferred over daughters (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982; Kıray, 1976; Yörükoğlu, 1978).

Although both genders are brought up with an emphasis on obedience, dependency, conformity and quietness, without encouragement of initiative, autonomy and curiosity (Kağıtçıbaşı & Sunar, 1992; Öztürk, 1969), gender differences in expectations of boys and girls are still traditional as boys are expected to be more aggressive and allowed more freedom of movement whereas girls are expected to be less assertive and obedient, especially in rural areas (Yörükoğlu, 1978).

Traditional sex-role expectations are reflected in family life. The man as the head of the family is responsible for being the provider and has certain rights over his wife and children whether they be rural or urban (Gökçe, 1976).

Until recently, the husband had the right to decide whether his wife could work, thus it is clearly seen that women rank behind men in value, prestige and power (Fişek, 1993) regardless of differences in urban/rural residence, educational level, or employment status. The only exceptions in some areas are highly educated, professional, urban women (Çanakcı, 1992; Kandriyoti, 1974; Kağıtçıbaşı, 1986; Kuyuş, 1982).

Although well educated, urban dual-career couples show a trend toward a more egalitarian division of labor this trend still moves very slowly for men (İmamoğlu, 1991) and in general there is no decrease in the traditional domestic expectations of women because of employment, regardless of the status of the job (Erkut, 1982;

Özkalp, 1989). Therefore these women feel pressure to reduce standards of professional performance, and otherwise balance workplace and home responsibilities (Acar, 1989). As a result it is not surprising that maternal employment status was not found to be a significant factor affecting children's sex-typed characteristics since women's employment does not significantly increase their status in their families or society, and they are still expected to be primarily responsible for their children and household tasks.

However, the findings revealed a trend indicating that adolescents of employed mothers had fewer positive feminine qualities (i.e. loves children, thrifty, elegant and dependent) than those with nonemployed mothers. In this society these qualities, especially dependency are regarded as positive qualities but children with working mothers tended to believe that these characteristics were not as typically feminine qualities as they were socially described. In addition gender was found to be a significant factor determining sex-typed characteristics. Females had more positive femininity and total femininity qualities than males which clearly shows the traditional role expectation of society.

Şimşek's (1989) study of the effects of maternal employment on children's sex-role attitudes revealed that children of employed mothers had less traditional attitudes than those with nonemployed mothers only in terms of the division of "simple" household tasks. Her further study (1990) showed that children of employed mothers were less traditional in their view of friendship and emotional

relationships. However, no differences were found between the two groups of children regarding the division of household tasks, vocational choice, spare time activities, talent and personality stereotypes, except three stereotypes, namely independence, being easily influenced and on using power and influence over others.

Although women's increased participation in the labor force seems to be associated with a somewhat decreased sex-typed characteristics tendency for children of employed mothers, this study shows that this sample of children are still affected by strong traditional socialization patterns which reflect sex-differentiated role expectations. These sex-typed characteristics differences may be expected to diminish as more women participate in the labor force and as socialization practices accommodate to the reality of the new adult roles.

Secondly it was hypothesized that there would be no differences between adolescents whose mothers are working and those whose mothers are full-time homemakers in their perception of their family environment. As the results revealed that the family environment variables of cohesion and control were not affected by maternal employment directly, the hypothesis was supported. A study of Gottfried, Gottfried and Bathurst (1988) showed similar results. In a longitudinal study they examined the effects of maternal employment on children from infancy through the school years. They found no significant differences in the home environments of employed and nonemployed mothers at any age as measured by the FES which is the longer version of the FEQ used in

this study. Fişek's (1992) study also showed that maternal employment did not have a direct effect on family interactions reflecting interpersonal proximity, i.e., level of closeness and sharing or generational hierarchy, i.e., nurturance and control. Fıfıloğlu (1984) found that mothers' employment had no significant relation to perceived family cohesion level. Furthermore Amato (1987) and Propper (1972) found that children of employed mothers reported a similar degree of closeness to parents, similar interest, time and support they received from their parents to children whose mothers were not employed. Abbot's (1991) investigation revealed that daughters of employed mothers were not different from those with nonemployed mothers in their satisfaction with family life, mother-child communication, and perception of family adaptability and cohesion. Thus it appears that the factors influencing family environment and interactions are independent of maternal employment.

Further analysis revealed that maternal employment, interacting with sex, had a significant influence on perceived family control. The sons of nonemployed mothers were found to perceive their families as being more controlling than the sons of employed mothers. This finding is not surprising as Hoffman (1989) states that while children's growing independence is welcomed in dual-wage families, nonworking mothers of children may overinvest in the mother role because it is the only one from which they derive a sense of self-worth. Therefore nonworking mothers may see the children's movement toward independence as a threat to

their major role and source of self-esteem. When one looks at the parent-child relationship in Turkish families this description seems to be meaningful. In the Turkish family although the mother and daughter are close and share much time together, the boy's relationship with the mother is more intense and more important. Since a woman gains status through giving birth to a son, a son means a lot to a woman in terms of her own personal prestige and status within the family. When one considers the distance of the woman from her husband, and her relative isolation in the domestic arena, it is natural to expect the woman to turn to her children, and especially her valued sons (Fişek, 1982). Therefore nonworking mothers' overinvestment in their sons may lead to less encouragement of independence, which is then perceived as high control by male adolescents.

It was found that females tended to perceive their families as being less cohesive. This finding is not consistent with the results of Fıfılođlu (1984) who found that females perceive a significantly higher cohesion level in their families than do males. Since in this study the sample consisted of adolescent students attending Lise I and II while, university students participated in Fıfılođlu's study this inconsistency could be the result of age differences between subjects. Adolescence is the transitional period from childhood to adulthood physically and psychologically. Girls are more handicapped than boys in this transitional period to adulthood especially in Turkish society as parents tend to encourage their daughters' dependency (Erbeş, 1983)

and as girls are more restricted than boys. Since female adolescents have been shown to talk more and engage in more verbal conflict than males (Hauser, et.al., 1987), and as they are influenced more easily by internal family dynamics, the restricted freedom of female adolescents may increase their conflicts with their families in adolescence (i.e., more family relationship problems, more conformity problems). As a result they may tend to perceive less cohesion in their families than male adolescents.

Finally it was hypothesized that there would be no differences between adolescents whose mothers are working and adolescents whose mothers are full-time homemakers, in their personality adjustment including family relationship, leadership, emotional stability, social relationship, adjustment to reality, mood and conformity. As it was predicted, maternal employment status was found to have no direct effect on adolescent adjustment. This finding is consistent with many studies. For example, Armisteads, Wierson and Forehand (1990) found that maternal employment did not have a harmful influence on adolescent cognitive or social competence and behavior problems. Lerner and Galambos (1988) also found that maternal employment status does not have any direct effect on child outcomes in adolescence and young adulthood. Morgan and Grube's (1987) investigation revealed that maternal employment was not related to adolescents' anti-social behaviors or low self-images. Similarly Gold and Andres (1978) found that maternal employment was not related to children's personality adjustment. Fişek's (1992) study showed that there was no direct relationship between maternal

employment and children's problems.

However adolescents of employed mothers tended to have more adjustment to reality problems than the adolescents of nonemployed mothers. The interaction of maternal employment with gender showed a trend indicating that daughters of employed mothers tended to be less conforming which refers to individualistic and rebellious tendencies in these girls. Girls are encouraged to be conforming, dependent and cooperating (Rubovit, 1975) especially in this society. In addition, in Turkish society independence and individuality are negatively evaluated for both sexes (Gürbüz, 1988). But according to these results daughters of employed mothers tended to be independence oriented, and rebellious against the restrictions of rules. This also supports the finding that daughters with employed mothers tended to have less stereotyped views about one of the positive feminine qualities called "dependent".

Gender by itself was found to be an important factor influencing adolescents' adjustment. In the case of emotional stability and mood, females were less emotionally stable and had more mood problems than males. In terms of family relationships and adjustment to reality there was a trend, with females tending to report more family and adjustment to reality problems.

These findings are consistent with the Turkish literature which indicates that female adolescents report being lower on ego-strength, more anxious and pessimistic, more helpless and nervous than males (Fişek, 1982; Yanbastı, 1990). Kutluğ (1992) who also

used the MCI found that adolescent females are less emotionally stable and less conforming than males. For females, restrictions of freedom of movement increases with age (Başaran, 1974) and may lead to negative reactions. Tunalı's (1984) study revealed that adolescent females indicated a high degree of affiliative concern but did not show a similar degree of initiative, and instead focused on external blocks to their needs. All these phenomena are most likely associated with the general low value and prestige and restricted lives of women in society. However these findings are not restricted to Turkey, and are typical of the psychological literature. As one example, Joy and Wise (1983) found that maternal employment status was not related to anxiety level, but gender is the important factor in anxiety as females score significantly higher in anxiety than males. They also found that maternal employment had no relation to the self-esteem of either sex but again sex was the important factor affecting self-esteem, males reporting higher self esteem than females.

Results on the relative contribution of maternal employment status, gender, family environment, and masculine and feminine sex-typed characteristics on adolescents' adjustment showed that children's adjustment is affected by perceived cohesion and control, masculine and feminine characteristics and gender but not by maternal employment. Better social relationships and leadership qualities are associated with higher family cohesion, more masculine qualities and less feminine qualities. The domains of family relationships, adjustment to reality and conformity which

together could be said to reflect overall adjustment are all associated with higher family cohesion and lower family control. However having more masculine qualities is associated with problems in these domains. In the case of mood, cohesion again increases adolescents' adjustment while having more feminine qualities is associated with more mood problems. Emotional stability is positively affected by higher cohesion whereas higher control, being female and having more masculine and feminine qualities are associated with problem in this domain.

Results regarding the relative contribution of family environment showed that for both genders higher family cohesion and lower control are always associated with better adjustment. The results regarding control are interesting in that previous studies in the Turkish literature found that the Turkish home tends to combine high affection/closeness with high control (Fişek, 1991; Kağıtçıbaşı, 1972, Kağıtçıbaşı and Sunar, 1992). However there is little information as to whether these high levels are associated with good or bad adjustment.

Fişek's (1992) study with elementary school children indicated that the degree of proximity had no effect on parents' ratings of children's behavioral problems, while strong hierarchy was associated with more problems for children without clinically identified symptoms. In this study it appears that, at least in middle or high SES samples, higher cohesion is associated with good adjustment and strong control may not be so good for children, at least as far as the subjects' perception goes. It should not be

forgotten that these Ss are adolescents and therefore may be more sensitive to control than other age groups.

The results regarding sex-role characteristics indicated that masculine qualities are associated with better adjustment in the case of social relationships for both genders; leadership and mood for males; problems with conformity for males; and family relationships for female adolescents. Feminine qualities are always associated with adjustment problems for both genders. It is possible to conclude that a well adjusted adolescent has relatively more masculine qualities and has a home which she/he perceives as close, warm, with a relatively low degree of control and restriction.

The results showed that mothers with less than university education were usually homemakers while mothers with university and post university education were mostly employed. Hoffman (1989) states that women are more likely to be working if they educated, as education provides both motivation and an ability to obtain employment. Gold and Andres (1978) in their study found that employed mothers had higher education than their nonemployed controls. The results of this study also revealed that husbands with university and post university education had more employed wives. In Turkey, high SES families encourage both their daughters and sons to pursue professional education (Erkut, 1982). In addition highly educated, high SES urban couples show more egalitarian attitudes regarding spousal relationships and intrafamily status (Bahar, 1982; Kağıtçıbaşı, 1986; Kuyaş, 1982).

Therefore it is not surprising to find that the number of employed women increased as both husbands' and wives' educational level increased.

Although number of children did not differ in mother employed vs. nonemployed families, children of working mothers were found to be younger than children of not working mothers. This finding probably indicates that dual working couples postpone having children as a result of wives' employment. It was also found that the number of family members living at home was lower in working mothers' families than in the non-working mothers' families. Since the number of children was not affected by maternal employment status this difference may refer to the presence of other people such as grandparents in the family. As detailed information was not gathered about people living at home, further interpretation is not possible.

Overall, the results show that within the limits of this study adolescents' sex-typed characteristics, perceived family environment and adjustment were not significantly related to maternal employment. This study supports the conclusion that maternal employment by itself does not have much impact, beneficially or adversely, on children across a variety of measures, and that gender and family environment are powerful intermediate variables.

There is a considerable homogeneity in the socioeconomic status of the total sample since the students are the children of high SES families. This homogeneity limits the generalizability of

the results to other SES levels. As upper class women are more likely to be employed for personal fulfillment rather than economic reasons, effects of maternal employment on child outcomes may differ from lower SES families where mothers are employed for economic reasons. Therefore future studies on maternal employment should include different SES levels in order to find out whether the effects of maternal employment on child outcomes vary according to SES level.

In this study one dimension of sex-typing was examined. In future studies regarding the relationship between maternal employment and children's sex-role, sex-typing should be assessed as multidimensional (e.g., vocational aspiration, sex role attitudes and sex-stereotyping).

Since both this study and other current research showed that maternal employment is not a robust variable that can be related directly to child outcomes, future studies should take into consideration family processes that mediate child outcomes such as age and gender of children, parent-child interaction, SES, education, timing and stability of the employment, both husband's and wife's attitudes and feelings towards maternal employment, their marital relationship, and husband's contribution to housework and child care.

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A Ç I K L A M A

BU ARAŞTIRMA BOĞAZİÇİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ PSİKOLOJİ BÖLÜMÜNDE YAPTIĞIM YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİNİN LİSE ÖĞRENCİLERİ İLE YAPILAN ÇALIŞMASININ BİR BÖLÜMÜDÜR. ARAŞTIRMA; GENÇLERİN AİLELERİNE İLİŞKİN GÖRÜŞLERİ, KENDİ KİŞİLİK ÖZELLİKLERİNE İLİŞKİN GÖRÜŞLERİ, VE KENDİ SOSYAL VE KİŞİSEL DURUMLARINA AİT GÖRÜŞ VE DÜŞÜNCELERİ KONULARINDA BİRTAKIM SORULARI İÇEREN ÜÇ ANKETTEN OLUŞMAKTADIR.

CEVAPLAR TAMAMIYLA GİZLİ TUTULACAĞI İÇİN ADINIZI YAZMAYINIZ.

LÜTFEN HİÇ SORU ATLAMADAN VE HİÇ BİR SORU ÜZERİNDE FAZLA DÜŞÜNMEYİNİZ.

BU ANKETİ CEVAPLANDIRDIĞINIZ İÇİN TEŞEKKÜR EDERİM.

OKULUNUZUN ADI :

SINIFINIZ:

DOĞUM TARİHİNİZ:

CİNSİYETİNİZ:

BABANIZIN YAŞI:

BABANIZIN EĞİTİM DÜZEYİ:

BABANIZIN MESLEĞİ / İŞİ :

ANNENİZİN YAŞI:

ANNENİZİN EĞİTİM DÜZEYİ:

ANNENİZİN MESLEĞİ / İŞİ:

ANNENİZ ÇALIŞIYOR MU: HAYIR EVET

ANNENİZ ÇALIŞIYOR İSE : TAM ZAMANLI (HERGÜN)

YARI ZAMANLI (ÖRNEĞİN HAFTADA İKİ GÜN,
HERGÜN YARIM GÜN VS)

EVDE YAŞAYAN KİŞİ SAYISI:

TEK ÇOCUK MUSUNUZ: EVET HAYIR

CEVABINIZ HAYIR İSE; AİLENİZDEKİ TÜM ÇOCUKLARI CİNSİYET VE

YAŞLARINI BELİRTEREK SIRALAYIN VE HANGİSİNİN SİZ OLDUĞUNUZU
BELİRTİN:

ÖRNEĞİN:

BURAYI DOLDURUNUZ

SAYI	CİNSİYET	YAŞ	SAYI	CİNSİYET	YAŞ
1	ERKEK	23	1		
2	KIZ	20	2		
3	KIZ	16 (ben)	3		
4	ERKEK	13	4		
5	ERKEK	9	5		

ANNE VE BABANIN EVLİLİK DURUMU:

- EVLİ

- BOŞANMIŞ

- DUL ANNE ----- BABA -----

- AYRI YAŞIYORLAR

- EVLİ / ANNE ÜVEY

- EVLİ / BABA ÜVEY

Aşağıda bir dizi sıfat yazılıdır. Kendi özelliklerinizi düşününüz.

Y Ö N E R G E

Bu anket formunda aileler hakkında 26 ifade yer almaktadır. Sizden istediğimiz, bunların herbirini okuyarak, ailenizi en iyi tanımlayan ifadenin sağındaki şıklardan uygun olanını işaretlemenizdir.

Bazı ifadeleri cevaplamak sizin için zor olabilir. Bu tür ifadelerle karşılaştığınız zaman karar verebilmek için, size yakın gelen şıkkı işaretleyiniz. Burada öğrenmek istediğimiz ailenizi nasıl gördüğünüzdür (algıladığınızdır). Ailenizden diğer kişilerin bu soruları nasıl cevaplayacaklarını tahmin etmeye çalışmayınız. Lütfen, yalnız kendi duygu ve düşüncelerinize göre cevaplayınız.

	Hiç katıl- mıyorum (1)	Biraz katı- lıyorum (2)	Katılı- yorum (3)	Kuvvet- le katı lıyorum (4)
	-----	-----	-----	-----
1. Ailemizde faaliyetler oldukça dikkatli planlanır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
2. Aile üyeleri duygularını açıkça ifade ederler.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
3. Ailemizde kurallara uymaya çok önem verilir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
4. Ailemizle ilgili kararlar, daha çok büyükler tarafından verilir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
5. Bizim ailede bireyler, kendi meselelerini kendileri halleder.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
6. Bizim evde işler belirli bir düzene göre yapılır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
7. Evde birbirimize kişisel sorunlarımızı anlatırız.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
8. Aile üyelerinin "doğru ve yanlışlar" hakkında kesin düşünceleri vardır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
9. Aile üyeleri gerçekten birbirine destek olur.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
10. Birbirimizle konuşurken ne dediğimize dikkat ederiz.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)

	katıl- mıyorum	katı- lıyorum	Katılı- yorum	le katı lıyorum
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	-----	-----	-----	-----
11. Bizim ailede herkese verilecek bol zaman ve ilgi vardır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
12. Bizim ailede canımız ne isterse yapabiliriz.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
13. Ailemizde birlik, beraberlik duygusu vardır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
14. Ailemizde uyulması gereken kurallar vardır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
15. Ailemizde kararlaştırılmış birşeyin tam zamanında yapılması (dakiklik) çok önemlidir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
16. Bizim evde kurallar oldukça katıdır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
17. Ailemizde üyelerin, sormadan karar değiştirmesi olumsuz karşılanır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
18. Aile üyeleri, kızgınlıklarını açıkça gösterir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
19. Ailece temiz ve düzenli insanlarız.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)

	Hiç katıl- mıyorum (1)	Biraz katı- lıyorum (2)	Katılı- yorum (3)	Kuvvet- le katı lıyorum (4)
20. Ailemiz bizi kendi kendimize yeterli olmaya teşvik eder.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
21. Ailemizde, sesimizi yükselterek birşey elde edemeyeceğimize inanırız.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
22. Ailemizde her bireyi görevi açıkca belirlenmiştir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
23. Ailemizde bir anlaşmaz olduğunda, bunu çözümlmek ve huzuru sağlamak için çaba sarfederiz.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
24. Birbirimizle gerçekten iyi geçiniriz.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
25. Bizim evde aradığımız bir şeyi, yerinde bulmak zordur.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
26. Aile üyeleri, karşılaştıkları sorunları kendi kendilerine hallederler.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)

Y Ö N E R G E

Kitapçıktaki cümleleri okuyunca bunun sizin için uygun olup olmadığına karar verin ve cevabınızı ayrı cevap kağıdına işaretleyin. Eğer cümle sizin için uygun veya genellikle uygun ise cevap kağıdında bu maddenin karşılığı olan numaranın yanındaki ve D harfinin altına gelen boşluğu karalayın. Eğer cümle size göre uygun değil ise veya genellikle uygun değil ise, cevap kağıdında bu maddenin karşılığı olan numaranın yanına Y harfinin altına gelen boşluğu karalayın.

Aşağıda bir cevap kağıdı örneği verilmiştir. Madde 1'e cevabın "uygun" olduğu kabul edilmiş, 1 rakkamının yanındaki ve D harfinin altına gelen boşluk karalanmıştır. Madde 2'ye cevabın uygun olmadığı belirtilecek şekilde 2 rakkamının yanındaki ve Y harfinin altındaki boşluk karalanmıştır.

Cevap Kağıdının bir kısmı

D	Y	D	Y
1.	// //	51.	// //
2.	// //	52.	// //
3.	// //	53.	// //

Eğer bir cümle sizin için geçerli değil ise veya kararsızsanız, cevap kağıdına hiç bir işaret koymayın. Cevaplandırabileceğiniz bütün soruları cevaplandırın ve mümkün olduğu kadar az boş bırakın.

Kendiniz hakkında düşüncelerinizi vermeyi unutmayın. Soruları çabuk cevaplayın ve herhangi bir cümle üzerinde fazla vakit sarfetmeyin.

Cevap kağıdına cevabınızı işaretlediğiniz zaman maddenin numarası ile cevap kağıdındaki numaranın aynı olmasına dikkat edin. Koyu renk kurşun kalem ile işaretleyin ve değiştirmek istediğiniz cevabı tamamen silin.

HER SORUYU CEVAPLANDIRMAYA ÇALIŞIN.

BU KİTAPCIĞA HIÇ BİR İŞARET KOYMAYIN.

Şimdi sayfayı çevirin ve başlayın.

1. Geen birkaç yılda sađlıđım genellikle iyi idi.
2. Diđer insanlar kadar abuk arkadař edinirim.
3. Kolaylıkla heyecanlanırım.
4. Bazen fkelenirim.
5. Zihnimi bir iř üzerinde tutmak benim iin zordur.
6. İlerde olabilecek kt olayları dřnerek zlrm.
7. Bir oyunda kazanmayı kaybetmeye tercih ederim.
8. İnsanlar kolaylıkla sabrımı tketer.
9. Bir topluluđun neře kaynađı olmak benim iin kolaydır.
10. Ailem sık sık beraber dolařtıđım insanlara karřı ıkmıřtır.
11. Bazen biraz dedikodu yaparım.
12. Birka önemli kiři tanımak isterim, cnk bu kendimi önemli hissettirir.
13. Eđer bir topluluk sıkıcı ise onu canlandırmakta nclk ederim.
14. Fikirlerimi kolaylıkla aıklarım.
15. Yeni insanlarla tanışırken utanırım.
16. İlk tepki onlardan gelmezse uzun sredir grřmediđim kimseleri ya da okul arkadařlarımı grmemezlikten gelirim.
17. Bařkalarına sylemeyi istemeyeceđim bazı řeyleri sık sık ryamda grrm.
18. Grltler beni kolaylıkla uykumdan uyandırır.
19. Okuldaki dřk notlarımdan dolayı kendimi kt hissettiđim olmuřtur.
20. Kolaylıkla fkelenirim.
21. Zihnimi tek bir řey üzerinde tutamıyorum.
22. Bazen kfretmek isterim.
23. Kendime olan gvenimi kolaylıkla kaybederim.
24. Bir topluluđun nnde konuřmak benim iin ok zordur.
25. Hayatın bana adil davranmadıđına eminim.
26. Yaptıđım řeylerden piřman olurum.

27. Flört etmeyi severim.
28. Eğer bir sinemaya bilet almadan girebileceğim ve yakalanmayacağıma emin olsam herhalde bunu yapardım.
29. Tanımadığım herkesi sevmem.
30. Başkalarından daha sinirli olmadığımı inanırım.
31. Oyunlar ya da diğer organize faaliyetlere katılmak için gönüllü olduğumda utangaçlık hissederim.
32. Evde iyi huylu davranmak benim için zordur.
33. Sokaktaki insanların beni gözetlediğini sanır ve rahatsız olurum.
34. Eğer bir grup insan arasında bir konuşma başlatmam gerekirse çok tedirgin olurum.
35. Sosyal durumlarda tecrübesiz olduğum için utanırım.
36. Ailem bana karşı bir yetiştikenden çok bir çocukmuşum gibi davranır.
37. Çevremdeki birçokları kadar yetenekli ve zeki olduğuma inanırım.
38. Bir kriz veya zor durumla karşılaşmaktan kaçınırım.
39. İnsanlarla birlikte olsam bile çoğu zaman kendimi yalnız hissederim.
40. Dış görünüşüm yüzünden rahatsız olurum.
41. Başına bir iş gelmesin diye hemen herkesin yalan söyleyebileceğine inanırım.
42. Gözlerim ışığa karşı çok hassastır.
43. Kolaylıkla üzülürüm.
44. Sık sık "Keşke yine küçük bir çocuk olsaydım" diye düşünürüm.
45. Arada sırada konuşulmayacak kadar kötü şeyler düşünürüm.
46. Sınıfta derse kalktığım zaman rahatsız olurum.
47. Evdeki sofrada adabım başkalarının yanında olduğum zamanlar kadar iyi değildir.

48. Kimse beni anlamıyor.
49. Hemen her gün beni korkutan bir şey olur.
50. Yabancıların yanında kendimi kötü hissederim.
51. Partilerde oldukça iyi vakit geçiririm.
52. Büyüdüğüm halde ailem sık sık kendilerine itaat etmemi bekler.
53. Yabancılarla karşılaşmaktan çekinmem.
54. Birisi benim kötülüğümü istiyor.
55. Sık sık sebepsiz yere cezalandırıldığımı hissederim.
56. Bazen burnuma tuhaf kokular gelir.
57. Küçük düşürücü olaylar beni çok uzun süre üzer.
58. Çoğu zaman kendimi dermansız hissederim.
59. Aşırı derecede sıkılganım.
60. Sabahları kalktığımda kendimi yorgun hissediyorum.
61. Kolaylıkla ağlarım.
62. Trenlerde, otobüslerde vs. sık sık yabancılarla konuşurum.
63. İşler kötüye gitmeye başlayınca içimden hemen pes etmek gelir.
64. Çoğu zaman hayat benim için zorlukla doludur.
65. Bazen olayların gerçekliğinden şüphe ederim.
66. Bir sorunun cevabını bilmeme rağmen, sorulduğu zaman, sınıf önünde konuşma korkusuyla yanlış cevap verebilirim.
67. Ailem bende gereğinden fazla kusur buluyor.
68. Bazı zamanlar o kadar iyi işitirim ki rahatsız olurum.
69. Eğer fırsat verilse dünya için çok yararlı şeyler yapabilirdim.
70. Büyük bir gerginlik altında çalışırım.
71. Başkalarının yaşadığını sandığım mutluluğa özen duyarım.
72. Okuduğumu eskisi kadar iyi anlayamıyorum.
73. Bazen bir türlü toparlanıp işlerime bakamadığım öyle dönemler olmuştur ki bunlar günler, haftalar ya da aylarca sürebilir.
74. En zor mücadelelerim kendimle olanlardır.
75. Evde sinirli olurum.

76. Başkaları bakarken elimden gelenin en iyisini yapmak benim için zordur.
77. Kafam düşüncelerle o kadar doludur ki uyuyamam.
78. Bazen kontrol edemediğim gülme ve ağlama krizlerim tutar.
79. Günün sonuna doğru kendimi çok yorgun hissederim.
80. Hayatımı gerektiği şekilde sürdüremedim.
81. Kimse beni anlamıyor.
82. Bazen hiç sebepsiz yere hatta işler yolunda değilken bile kendimi çok mutlu hissederim.
83. Annem veya babam (veya her ikisi) çok sinirlidirler.
84. Bazen soğuk almadığım halde sesim kısılır.
85. Çevremde olanların farkında olmadığım ve yaptığım işin bir an için durduğu kopukluk nöbetleri geçirmiştir.
86. Arkadaş edinmede ilk adımı atmaktan hoşlanırım.
87. Eleştirilmek beni çok rahatsız eder.
88. Kendimi sinirli addederim.
89. Kolaylıkla cesaretim kırılır.
90. Çoğu zaman ölmek isterim.
91. Bazen evi terketmeyi çok istedim.
92. Yeni tanıştırıldığım bir kimseyle konuşacak bir konu bulmakta güçlük çekerim.
93. Ailemin fertleriyle çok az kavga ederim.
94. Gazetede her makaleyi her gün okumam.
95. Çoğu zaman kendimi üzgün hissederim.
96. Arada sırada bugün yapmam gereken işi yarına bırakırım.
97. Bir işe başlamakta güçlük çekerim.
98. Even çıktığım zaman kapının iyi kilitlenmemiş ve pencerelerin kapanmamış olduğunu düşünüp üzülmem.
99. Dansa gitmeye bayılırım.
100. Bir grup insanın önünde konuşmak hoşuma gider.

101. Eleştirilmek ya da azarlanmak beni çok kırar.
102. Hiç nöbet ve havale geçirmedi.
103. Görebileceğim her türlü ilgiyi görüyorum.
104. Lüzumsuz bir düşünce durmadan aklıma gelip beni tedirgin ediyor.
105. Eğer fırsat verilse iyi bir lider olabilirim.
106. Oldukça bağımsız ve aile baskısından özgürüm.
107. Çok kuruntu yaparım.
108. Bazı zamanlar kendimi kesinlikle lüzumsuz hissederim.
109. Sağduyum bugünlerde her zamankinden daha iyi.
110. Hislerim kolaylıkla incinir.
111. Benim suçum olmadığı halde işlerim ters gider.
112. Annem-babam artık olgun bir insan olduğumu anlamıyorlar ve bana çocuk muamelesi yapıyorlar.
113. Çoğu kimseyle konuşmakta zorluk çekerim.
114. Diğer evlere oranla bizim evde çok az sevgi ve arkadaşlık var.
115. Çoğu geceler fikirler ve düşünceler beni rahatsız etmeden uyurum.
116. Bir grup insan içinde bildiğim bir konuda konuşma başlatmaktan veya fikrimi söylemekten çekinmem.
117. Günlük yaşantım bana ilginç gelen şeylerle doludur.
118. Çocukken bir ara bazı şeyler çalardım.
119. İnsanlar beni sık sık düş kırıklığına uğratar.
120. Ailem meslek olarak sevdiğim işi veya seçmeye niyetlendiğim işi sevmiyor.
121. Bana zararı dokunmayacağını bildiğim şeyler ve kimselerden korktuğum olmuştur.
122. Ailem benden çok fazla şeyler bekler.
123. Kendime hiç güvenim yok.
124. Hayal kurarım.

125. Davranışlarım başkaları tarafından kolaylıkla yanlış anlaşılabilir.
126. Sosyal faaliyetlerde herhangi bir insan kadar başarılıyım.
127. Dilencilere sadaka verilmesine karşıyım.
128. Bazen kendimi iyi hissetmediğim zaman aksi olurum.
129. Bazen aşağılık duygusu çekerim.
130. Benim hakkımda konuşulduğuna eminim.
131. Kolaylıkla utanırım.
132. Ailem birlikte gezdiğim arkadaşlara itiraz etmiştir.
133. Bazen şaşırtıcı veya zarar verici bir şeyler yapmak için dayanılmaz bir istek duyarım.
134. Bir grup arasındaki konuşmalarda söylenecek uygun bir laf bulmakta güçlük çekerim.
135. Aşkta düş kırıklığına uğradım.
136. Başkalarının bana kini olmasaydı çok daha başarılı olurdu.
137. Hareketlerimi veya konuşmamı kontrol edemediğim fakat etrafımda olup bitenlerin farkında olduğum türden nöbetler geçirdim.
138. İştahım iyidir.
139. Evde diğer yerlerde olduğumdan daha az anlayış görürüm.
140. Babam benim için ideal bir insandır.
141. Tanıdığım birinin başarısını duymak benim başarısız olduğumu hissetmeme yol açar.
142. Bir yabancı ile konuşmayı zor bulurum.
143. Ne annem ne de babam kolaylıkla öfkelenir.
144. Topluluklarda kalabalığa katılmaktansa, kendi kendime ya da tek bir kişiyle oturmam daha olağandır.
145. Yabancılarla kolaylıkla tanışırım.
146. Arada sırada ailemin sevdiğim fertlerine karşı bir nefret duyarım.

147. Acaip ve kendime özgü düşüncelerim vardır.
148. Akrabalarımın hemen hemen hepsi bana yakınlık gösterirler.
149. Başkalarının toplanmış ve konuşuyor oldukları bir odaya girmekten çekinmem.
150. Yalnız olduğum zamanlar acaip şeyler işitirim.
151. Ne annem ne de babam istekleri makul olsa da olmasa da itaat etmemde ısrar etmezler.
152. Uykum rahatsız ve intizamsızdır.
153. Meslek seçiminde anne ve babamla aynı fikirde değilim.
154. Sık sık yanlış ve kötü bir şey yaptığım hissine kapılıyorum.
155. Hastalığa yakalanmaktan korkmam.
156. Yeni insanlarla tanışınca konuşacak konu bulmak zoruma gider.
157. Aklımı kaçırmaktan korkuyorum.
158. Bazen sevdiğim insanları incitmekten zevk alırım.
159. Her zaman doğruyu söylemem.
160. Dikkatimi toplamakta başkalarından daha fazla zorluk çekerim.
161. Öyle anlarım olmuştur ki bazı faaliyetlerde bulunduğum halde sonradan ne yaptığımı hatırlayamamışımdır.
162. Bazı şeylerin ve olayların gerçek olmadığı kuşkusundan rahatsız oluyorum.
163. Hayatın bana adil davranmadığından eminim.
164. İyi beceremediğimden bazı oyunları oynamayı reddederim.
165. Herhangi bir hastalık için doktora gitmek zorunda kaldığım zaman korkarım.
166. Başkalarının görüldüğü kadar mutlu olmayı isterdim.
167. Anne ve babam çok modası geçmiş fikirlere sahiptirler.
168. Haftada en az bir kez heyecanlanırım.
169. Annemin, babamın veya her ikisinin beni sinirlendiren kişisel alışkanlıkları var.
170. Bazı konularda o kadar hassasım ki onlardan bahis bile edemem.

171. Beni rahatsız edici gürültü olmamasına rağmen uyumakta güçlük çekerim.
172. Duygularım nedenleri belli olmadan iyiye ya da kötüye yönelir.
173. Anne ve babamdan birisinin davranışları bende büyük korku uyandırmıştır.
174. Yeteneğimi küçümsediğim için bir kaç kez bir şeyler yapmaktan vazgeçmişimdir.
175. Başım ağrır.
176. Ailemden bazılarının yaptıkları şeyler beni korkutmuştur.
177. Başkalarıyla çabuk ve iyi kaynaşırım.
178. Çoğunlukla başka bir şey yapmaktansa oturup hayal kurmayı yeğlerim.
179. Kolaylıkla sıkılğanlaşıyorum.
180. Sağlığımı dikkatle izleme gereğini duyuyorum.
181. Açık saçık hikayelerden utanırım.
182. Okulda sınıfın önünde konuşmayı çok güç bulurum.
183. Ev hayatım diğer insanlarınki kadar hoştur.
184. Önemli bir yemekte masadaki bir şeyi uzatmalarını istemektense o şeysiz yaparım.
185. Başkaları yapmaya değmez derlerse, yapmak istediğim şeyden vazgeçebilirim.
186. Partileri ve toplantıları severim.
187. Başımдан çok acaip ve tuhaf olaylar geçmiştir.
188. Sosyal topluluklarda son derece iyi vakit geçiririm.
189. Çoğu kimsenin yanında tedirgin ve sıkılğan olurum.
190. En çok evimde mutlu ve rahat olurum.
191. Ne annem ne de babam davranışımда bir hata bulmuyorlar.
192. Bir çok arkadaşımın benimkinden daha mutlu bir ev hayatları olduğunu hissettim.
193. Karşıcinsle arkadaşlık temaslarında bulunmak benim için

kolaydır.

194. Bir partide doğal davranmak benim için kolaydır.
195. İnsanlarla temaslarımda çekingenim.
196. Sosyal ilişkilerin benim hoşlanacağım kadar ciddi olmadığını hissettim.
197. Ne annem ne de babam kolaylıkla kızmaz.
198. Düşünceler açısından bakılırsa ailem ve ben ayrı dünyalarda yaşıyoruz.
199. Toplantı yada partilerde arka planda kalırım.
200. Ne annemin ne de babamın beni anlamadıklarını hissettim.
201. Umumi bir toplantıya herkes yerini aldıktan sonra girmekten utanırım.
202. Gündelik sosyal temaslara karşı kayıtsızım.
203. Partilerdeki eğlencelerde aktif rol oynarım.
204. Yakın akrabalarım arasında bir çok münakaşalar olmuştur.
205. Sosyal faaliyetler beni sıkar.
206. Bir grup insanın arasından ayrılmak için izin isterken utanırım.
207. Annem ve babamla evdeki işlerin nasıl yapılması gerektiği konusunda anlaşmazlığımız olmuştur.
208. Bir partide iyi vakit geçirmek benim için kolaydır.
209. Bir odada bir grup insan oturmuş konuşuyorsa tek başıma içeri girmekte tereddüt ederim.
210. Ne annem ne de babam beni haksız yere eleştiremezler.
211. Zamanında gereken şeyleri söylemekte güçlük çekerim.
212. Bir öğretmen umulmadık bir anda bana bir şey sorunca telaşlanırım.