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MASTER THESIS

**Comparison of privacy between German and
Turkish adolescents and its outcome on parent-child-
relationship and depressive symptoms**

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ABSTRACT

Comparison of privacy between German and Turkish adolescents and its outcome on parent-child-relationship and depressive symptoms

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The aim of this study is to find out whether privacy reveals to have an effect on the parent-child-relationship and depressive symptoms in an adolescent population from Germany and Turkey. $N=100$ German and $N=90$ Turkish adolescents between the ages of 14 to 18 answered an online questionnaire which included a *Privacy Scale* based on Parental Control subscale from Stattin & Kerr (2000) and the Perceived Intrusiveness subscale of *Level of Expressed Emotions* (LEE; Cole & Kazarian, 1988).

Reliability of this scale, *Autonomy-Relatedness* scale (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005) as well as the *Children's Perceptions of their Parents* questionnaire (POPS; Grolnick, Ryan & Deci, 1991) and *Depressive Mood Scale* by Kandel & Davies (1982), the latter two were both translated into German and/or Turkish, was high.

An analysis of group difference showed that both groups were comparable on SES level and that there was no difference in the father-child-relationship between groups. Therefore, a regression analysis was conducted with Privacy and having an own room predicting either Mother Warmth, Mother Involvement or Depression. The regression was significant for the German adolescent population but not for the Turkish one, thereby confirming the hypotheses.

Keywords: privacy, parent-child-relationship, depression, culture, adolescents

ÖZ

Ergenlik çağındaki Alman ve Türk ergenlerin mahremiyetlerinin ve bunun ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkileri ile depresif belirtiler üzerindeki sonuçlarının karşılaştırılması

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2019

Bu çalışmanın amacı, mahremiyetin Almanya’da ve Türkiye’de ergenlik çağındaki bulunan nüfusun ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkileri ve depresif belirtileri üzerinde bir etkisi olup olmadığını bulmaktır. Ergenlik çağındaki bulunan 14-18 yaş arası N=100 Alman ve N=90 Türk ergen, Stattin & Kerr (2000)’in Ebeveyn Kontrol alt ölçeği ve İfade Edilen Duygu Seviyesi’nin Algılanan Müdahale alt ölçeğini (LEE; Cole & Kazarian, 1988) temel alan bir Mahremiyet ölçeğini çevrimiçi olarak cevaplandırdı.

Hem Almancaya hem de Türkçeye çevrilen, *Otonomi-İlişkili Ölçek* (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005) ile birlikte *Çocukların Ebeveynlerine İlişkin Algıları Ölçeği* (POPS; Grolnick, Ryan & Deci, 1991) ile Kandel ve Davies (1982) tarafından geliştirilen Depresif Ruh Hali Ölçeğinin güvenilirliği yüksektir.

Grup farklılığı analizi her iki grubun da SES seviyesinde karşılaştırılabilir olduğunu ve gruplar arasında baba-çocuk ilişkilerinde bir farklılık olmadığını göstermiştir. Anne Katılımı, Anne Yakınlığı ve Depresyon’dan birini yordayan bir Regresyon analizi Mahremiyet ve Kendi Odasına Sahip Olma değişkenleri ile birlikte yapılmıştır. Regresyon analizi, hipotezi destekleyen bir şekilde, Alman ergen nüfusu için anlamlı bir sonuç verirken Türk ergenler için anlamlı sonuç bulunamamıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Mahremiyet, çocuk-ebeveyn ilişkisi, bunalım, kültür, ergenlik çağındaki çocuklar

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Special thanks goes to my family, especially my partner BARIŞCAN, for their eternal support.

Maxi Gülay
İzmir 2019

TEXT OF OATH

I declare and honestly confirm that my study, titled “COMPARISON OF PRIVACY BETWEEN GERMAN AND TURKISH ADOLESCENTS AND ITS OUTCOME ON PARENT-CHILD-RELATIONSHIP AND DEPRESSIVE SYMPTOMS” and presented as a Master’s Thesis, has been written without applying to any assistance inconsistent with scientific ethics and traditions. I declare, to the best of my knowledge and belief, that all content and ideas drawn directly or indirectly from external sources are indicated in the text and listed in the list of references.

Maxi Gülay
Signature

.....
January 22, 2020

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A-R	: Autonomy-Relatedness
CPM	: Communication Privacy Management Theory
I-C	: Individualism-Collectivism
LEE	: <i>Level of Expressed Emotions</i>
POPS	: <i>Parent's Perception of their Parents</i>
SDT	: Self-Determination Theory
UN	: United Nations



CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

What is the difference in privacy perceptions among German and Turkish adolescents? The perceived amount of privacy of adolescents may have a connection with the emotional quality of the parent-child-relationship just as with mental health indicators like depressive symptoms. This invokes the question: What different outcomes do different privacy perceptions have in different cultures?

The goal of this thesis is to tackle this question and investigate the concept of privacy among adolescents in Germany and Turkey. This thesis therefore aims to include a cultural angle. Under the assumption that privacy for adolescents has a positive connection to the parent-child-relationship and a negative relationship with depressive symptoms, this thesis asks whether there is a difference in this relationship depending on the culture.

Based on the fact that Germany is usually considered a rather individualistic country and Turkey is usually considered a rather collectivistic country (Hofstede, 2001 & 2011) as well as the fact that unlike in Germany where privacy exists on the level of the individual while in Turkey privacy is more important outside family boundaries (Tang & Dong, 2006), it is possible that Turkish adolescents are fine with less privacy than German adolescents are. That means that in case Turkish adolescents express to have less privacy or else either do not have their own room or share their room with a sibling, they do not necessarily report to have a negative parent-child-relationship or depressive symptoms. For German adolescents in turn it

could be that if they express to have less privacy or else either do not have their own room or share their room with a sibling, they rather report to have a negative parent-child-relationship or depressive symptoms. Hence a small extend of privacy might have a different outcome on parent-child-relationships and depression depending on the group, either German or Turkish adolescent population.

1.2. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

For several reasons this study constitutes a substantial contribution to research. Foremost, privacy is considered a universal human right which is why it is of great importance to study the concept further, especially considering the question what the concept of privacy means in different cultures of the world.

The United Nations (UN) have addressed the need for privacy in Article 12 of the Declaration of Human Rights where privacy is protected as a human right (UN General Assembly, 1948): “No one shall be subjected to arbitrary interference with his privacy, family, home or correspondence, nor to attacks upon his honour and reputation. Everyone has the right to the protection of the law against such interference or attacks” (p. 4).

The reason why privacy constitutes a human right is its influence on health as research has connected privacy to psychological well-being (Evans, Lepore & Allen, 2000; Margulis, 2003; Tang & Dong, 2006). Studies have pointed out positive outcomes for adolescents’ upraising as well (Stattin & Kerr, 2000; Rorty et al., 2000; Hawk, Keijsers, Hale & Meeus, 2009; Keijsers, Frijns, Branje & Meeus, 2009).

The cited studies come from a Western background mostly so it will be interesting to include an Eastern culture like Turkey. For example, Altman (1977) hypothesizes that the need for privacy is universal with cultural differences when it comes to concrete privacy behaviors. Thus, it is important to study privacy from a

cross-cultural perspective to shed more light on to the cultural variations in the endorsement and consequences of this universal need.

Secondly, there are not many studies concerning privacy in Germany and Turkey. While studies on Germany are especially rare, there are a few studies considering privacy of Turkish students (Rustemli & Kokdemir, 1993; Kaya & Weber, 2003). Therefore, it is beneficiary to add the current study to the subject matter.

Thirdly, so far no comparison of privacy among adolescents between Germany and Turkey exists when it comes to privacy matters. The comparison of these two countries is especially interesting because of the history of immigration between both and because of all the adolescents who grow up between those two cultures.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. WHAT IS PRIVACY?

Privacy is a wide-ranging concept so that it is certainly necessary to go afield to explain it further. Privacy is the subject of study in many different scientific fields that explain perspectives of privacy. E.g. in Social Sciences privacy is mostly defined based on values and viewed as a human right (Smith, Dinev & Xu, 2011). The argument is that the state has the responsibility to guarantee this right (Rosen, 2000). In contrast, there are theories in Economic Studies that state that privacy has become a commodity in consumer society in which privacy is not an absolute right, but subject to economic trade (Campbell & Carlson, 2002).

These theories from different scientific fields have in common that they apprehend privacy as a value that serves as a benefit to every human being. Psychology involves thoughts of these different theories, but concentrates on the thought that privacy ultimately serves as a source of (re)gaining mental and emotional resources (Pastalan, 1970; Pedersen, 1997; Evans, Lepore & Allen, 2000).

In psychology, Irwin Altman and Leon Pastalan did a lot of conceptual groundwork in the seventies to approach the definition of privacy (Altman, 1977; Pastalan, 1970; Marshall, 1972; Vinsel, Brown, Altman & Foss, 1980). In the nineties privacy came up in connection with research about adolescent's perceptions of their parents (Grolnick, Ryan & Deci, 1991) which lead to privacy issues being included in research about parent-child relationship in the early two thousands

(Stattin & Kerr, 2000; Hawk, Hale, Raaijmakers & Meeus, 2008; Hawk, Keijsers, Hale & Meeus, 2009).

What is privacy? Social Psychologist Altman (1977) established a broad theory of privacy. He defines privacy as selective control to access of the self or one's group. The three key aspects of Altman's theory shed explain further on what that means:

First, privacy is a dynamic dialectic process that includes withdrawing as well as opening the self to others, meaning that the individual has control over when and with whom they want to interact. This process includes boundary management which communication theorist Sandra Petronio later picks up in her Communication Privacy Management Theory (CPM; Petronio, 2008): Which kind of information does an individual want to share or not share with which persons? CPM is especially useful to apply in the context of family communication problems (Petronio, 2013). This is why this aspect is important when it comes to adolescents. Adolescents and their parents need to negotiate which information they share with each other and which information they keep a secret.

Second, privacy is an optimization process. There can be too much and too little privacy, both of which is unsatisfactory for the individual (crowding vs. social isolation) (Pedersen, 1997). Even early research about privacy mentions that not providing not enough privacy becomes problematic for individuals e.g. in elderly care, hospitals or prisons (Pastalan, 1970; Newell, 1995). It is important to note at this point that the perception of how much privacy someone needs or wants is up to every person and influenced by other factors like culture.

Third, Altman (1977) considers privacy a multi-mechanism process. This means that there are different "tools" that an individual can use to achieve the desired

amount of privacy. Tools can be simple physical tools like a key to a door or a password, but also psychological mechanisms like abstaining oneself. Therefore, privacy is a self-other boundary control process.

These thoughts of Altman (1977) are the basis for the definition of privacy in this study. Privacy constitutes an ability to moderate the access of the self to others. It does not mean that one must reclude themselves from others, but simply that an individual has control over this (Pedersen, 1997).

Petronio's CPM (2008) takes as a starting point that everyone has a right to control private information about themselves. An individual sets up specific privacy rules about the circumstances of which information to share with whom. Whoever learns about private information of someone is then considers a co-owner of this information and as a co-owner they need to apply to these privacy rules as well. In the context of families, CPM found a use in studying privacy invasion of parents (Hawk, Keijsers, Hale & Meeus, 2009; Petronio, 2013). If parents do not accept their children's wish for privacy boundaries that can be a source of conflict.

In times of internet and social media, it is important to draw a distinction between physical and informational privacy (Smith, Dinev & Xu, 2011; Roessler, 2019). Physical privacy concerns the access to an individual. An example for physical privacy would be that adolescents have their own room in which they can be alone. Informational privacy concerns access to individually identifiable information, e.g. one's browser history or health information. This thesis concerns physical and informational privacy, but related to family relationships of adolescents and does not concern Social Media.

2.2. PRIVACY AND DEVELOPMENT

2.2.1. PRIVACY AND AUTONOMY

In the context of development, the need for privacy increases along with the need for autonomy. Gaining autonomy is considered one of the biggest developmental tasks during adolescence (Hurrelmann & Quenzel, 2010). This is why children often renegotiate privacy rules with their parents when they reach their teenage years (Petronio, 2008). Therefore, privacy, especially during adolescents, has a tight connection to autonomy. Parallel to privacy, autonomy is considered a universal value with diverse cultural displays (Ryan & Deci, 2006).

How do privacy and autonomy relate to each other? One way to understand personal autonomy is as being free from manipulation of others (Margulis, 2003). Pastalan (1970) has stated that there is no individuality without privacy and individuality in turn is a human need for autonomy. What he means is that everyone needs private time to integrate their personal experiences, emotions and feelings into meaningful patterns. When adolescents experience private time, they feel free to express themselves in whatever way they want, test out experimental behavior and managing impressions towards others (Pedersen, 1997; Hawk et al., 2013). As adolescents have time and space in private times, they feel greater self-efficacy in dealing with their experiences. This is necessary for achieving the developmental task of autonomy and separation from parents.

As a result, research has connected privacy behaviors to the increasing need of autonomy for adolescence. As children get older they are in need of more privacy, physically and informational alike. Teenagers use more physical privacy markers and rules, like closed doors, and privacy rules, like knocking on the door or access restriction from the bathroom (Parke & Sawin, 1979). Additionally, privacy in

adolescence is about information management: A cross-sectional study was able to connect keeping secrets from parents during adolescence to increasing emotional autonomy (Finkenauer, Engels & Meeus, 2002).

In this context, it is necessary to think about how adolescents growing up in different cultures may have a different need for autonomy. The individualism-collectivism (I-C) model (Hofstede, 2001 & 2011) insinuates that people in more individualistic countries, like Germany, value autonomy more than people in collectivistic countries, like Turkey. This may have an influence on privacy needs of adolescents. A way to approach this subject is the model of autonomy-relatedness (A-R) by Kağıtçıbaşı (2013) who describes that these two seemingly opposite concepts are manifested in everyone's self. She especially connects A-R into the family context and calls these concepts essential in describing family lives all around the world.

“Based on growing research evidence, we can say that neither the interdependent family model, which does not grant autonomy adequately, nor the independent family model, which does not provide close relationships to adolescents adequately, are optimal for healthy self development,” Kağıtçıbaşı (2013, p. 232) states and thereby describes the dilemma of adolescents all over the world. Kağıtçıbaşı (2013) proposes a model of the autonomous-related self to describe self-description apart from culture. This means that every individual adolescent child has special demands when it comes to privacy and autonomy needs. The environment they live in influences these needs as well as the way their parents behave, which in turn is also shaped by the environment they live in.

As mentioned before a lot of the cited literature comes mostly from a Western background, still it is necessary to have a look at specific behaviors that display the

need for autonomy of adolescents in the family context. While growing up, children can use self-concealment or self-revelation as strategies towards their parents. By keeping secrets from parents and controlling which information to share, adolescents gain a sense of autonomy. Sharing information of their own choosing with their parents can be considered a strategy of adolescents to achieve this goal.

Teenagers fluctuate between their need for autonomy and their wish of connectedness in the relationship with their parents (Altman, 1977; Masche, 2010), also characterized as a dialectical relationship of openness vs. closeness (Hawk, Keijsers, Hale & Meeus, 2009). This is how during adolescence, the dialectic characteristics of privacy become more obvious.

This is behavior of the adolescents, but how can parents react? Parents in contrast need information about what their children do in order to protect them. Parental knowledge is a factor that influences adolescents' privacy behaviors. In fact, the situation is complex: There is constant tension between promoting autonomy and including the adolescents in the family decision-making process (Sharko, Wilcox, Hing & Ancker, 2018).

Parental knowledge declines during adolescence compared to childhood. Masche (2010) has described the decrease in parental knowledge as normative because of the adolescent's growing autonomy. In accordance to this, a longitudinal study has found out that 10- to 14-year-old's perceived parental privacy invasion predicts less parental knowledge one year later (Hawk et al., 2013). A meta-analysis by Lionetti et al. (2019) confirms a normative decline in parental control and adolescent disclosure along with an increase in adolescent secrecy. This result suggests that parents do well with allowing their children some secrets if they still want them to reveal some information about themselves.

Research has revealed that parental knowledge has a positive effect on behavioral outcomes. One study showed that parental knowledge serves as a protective factor for externalizing behavior like delinquency or norm breaking (Stattin & Kerr, 2000; Keijsers, Frijns, Branje & Meeus, 2009). In contrast to what their parents might expect from their children, adolescents perceive themselves less and less obligated to disclose personal issues. A decline in parental knowledge beginning with adolescence is mostly explicable by a decline of child's disclosure (Masche, 2010). This decline in disclosure goes along with defiance and the creation of a private sphere, e.g. spending more time alone in the bathroom or being able to lock the door of their room, on the adolescents' side.

This means, while privacy and growing autonomy is important for the development of the adolescents, a good relationship to their parents that includes parental knowledge creates positive outcomes for the adolescents as well. In order to keep their children away from trouble, parents can choose between either controlling their children or trusting them. Previous research has shown that the two factors, using either trust or control, influence the parent-child-relationship as an outcome in the way that privacy invasion has a negative effect by triggering conflicts (Hawk, Keijsers, Hale & Meeus, 2009; Keijsers et al., 2010). The dialectical process of control vs. trust is therefore another important spectrum when considering privacy among adolescents.

Studies on privacy from developmental perspective have mostly looked into the consequences of too little privacy during adolescence, e.g. perceived intrusiveness by parents or parental monitoring (Butzlaff & Hooley, 1998; Rorty et al., 2000). Nonetheless, privacy minimizing behaviors by parents do not just play a role in adolescent's pathological development, but also in externalizing behavior

during adolescents: For example, negotiated unsupervised time in contrast to parental monitoring predicted increased sexual health risk behaviors and drug use, but also more sex protective behavior (Borawski, Ievers-Landis, Lovegreen & Trapl, 2003).

Furthermore, a four wave longitudinal study showed that a decrease in parent- and child-reported disclosure during adolescence relates to an increase in adolescent delinquency behaviors (Keijsers, Frijns, Branje & Meeus, 2009). This relationship was especially strong for families with high parental support. Parental support means that parents approve and endorse their children's decisions and actions. Likewise, another large longitudinal study was able to identify keeping secrets from parents as a risk factor for adolescents' psychological well-being in terms of aggression, stress, depressive mood, self-esteem and self-control (Frijns, Finkenauer, Vermulst & Engels, 2005).

It is noteworthy here that this challenge does not just lay in the responsibility of parents but also depends on the interaction with the adolescent. For example, Kerr, Stattin & Trost (1999) found out that children's spontaneous disclosure of daily activities triggers parents using trust. This in turn means that parents are more willing to allow their children privacy if they still maintain a close relationship.

These examples of studies demonstrate that on the one hand privacy invasion behavior by parents associates with negative outcomes for the adolescents. On the other hand giving adolescents too much leeway can have negative behavioral effects as well. This is why parents need to find the right amount of trust vs. control in order to enable the necessary amount of privacy and independent behavior for their children.

2.2.2. PRIVACY AND PARENT-CHILD-RELATIONSHIP

Up to that point, the argumentation has outlined the connection between autonomy and privacy. Reaching autonomy is a developmental task during adolescence that requires practices of privacy. Parents play a role in helping their children to gain more autonomy by allowing them privacy. Accordingly, the quality of the parent-child relationship seems to relate with privacy practices (Hawk, Keijsers, Hale & Meeus, 2009). Adolescence is a time where the individual becomes interested and willing to try new experiences such as sex, drugs, new friends etc. Parents try to monitor their children and protect them from possible harmful consequences of these new experiences while recognizing that making experiences is part of growing up (Petronio, 2008).

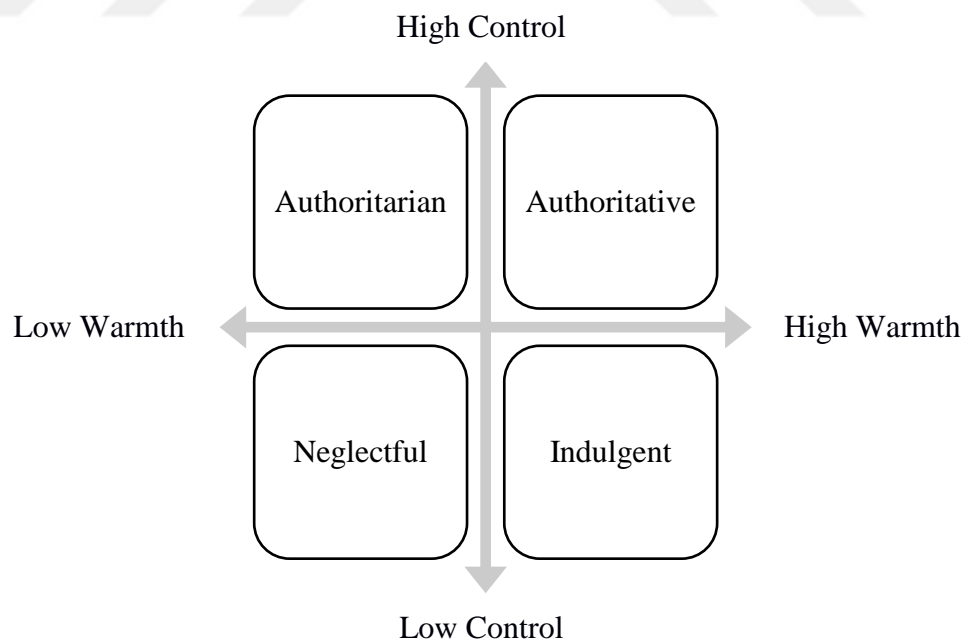
In order for parents to monitor and support their children at the same time, they use trust and control as strategies in their child rearing. In view of that, Baumrind (1967) proposed in her classic model of parenting styles, that parents' child rearing depends on two dimensions: control and warmth. Based on their standing in these dimensions, four different parents' child-rearing styles are defined: authoritarian (high control, low warmth), authoritative (high control, high warmth), neglectful (low control, low warmth) and indulgent (low control, high warmth). Generally speaking the authoritative parenting style is seen as the most beneficial for the child's development, but recent research has emphasized the importance of cultural background in the family as well as the consideration of children's need and situation specific parent's goals (Smetana, 2017).

According to Baumrind (1967), parental control behavior includes manipulating, enforcing and influencing the child's behavior. Parental control in the context of privacy for adolescents can be understood as intrusiveness and monitoring

their behavior. More specifically, intrusiveness is understood as parental behaviors of interfering in the private life of their children against their wishes (e.g. “having to know everything”) or checking up on them more than the adolescents are comfortable with (Cole & Kazarian, 1988; Baumrind, 2013). Parental behaviors like tracking children’s life constitute parental monitoring (Stattin & Kerr, 2000).

In this study, the *Children’s Perceptions of their Parents questionnaire* (POPS; Grolnick, Ryan & Deci, 1991) comes to use in order to assess the parent-child-relationship. This scale includes the three subscales Warmth, Involvement and Autonomy Support. In accordance with Baumrind’s theory, Warmth alludes to the emotional dimension of parenting style while Involvement alludes to the control dimension. This is why these two variables are especially important when we want to predict parent-child-relationship with the use of privacy indicators.

Figure 1. *Baumrind’s Parenting Styles*



While it is important to keep in mind that in Baumrind’s model, the combination of emotional warmth and control underlies a parenting style, it is also noteworthy that studies were able to connect parental control with negative

outcomes. A large longitudinal study associated parental control, which is defined as rules, restrictions of freedom and coldness-rejection, with depressive symptoms, norm breaking and decreased self-esteem. Feelings of being over-controlled and feeling belongingness to the family moderate this relationship (Kakihara, Tilton-Weaver, Kerr & Stattin, 2010).

It is also important to note here that parenting styles have cultural specific ways of display (Sorkhabi & Mandara, 2017). Therefore, it is important to study how the dimensions of warmth and control in different cultures influence adolescent's privacy perceptions. It is certainly true that this means managing a balancing act for parents. All the same, in this study warmth in the parent-child-relationship is considered an outcome influenced by how much control by parents adolescents perceive.

Early developmental research understood monitoring as a qualitative parenting skill that saves children from risk behavior and maladjustment, another large longitudinal study has shown that indeed child's disclosure is the main source of parental knowledge and child's disclosure is negatively associated with delinquency (Stattin & Kerr, 2000). Thus, it is important to study not only parental control but also children's self-concealment when examining privacy during adolescence.

The parent-adolescent relationship can be either rather warm or conflicting in nature depending on the privacy predictors. Children feel comfortable to talk with their parents, if their relationship is full of warmth and support. Dotterer & Day (2019) were able to connect warmth in parent-child-relationship with child disclosure, which in turn leads to fewer discrepancies in parental knowledge. Furthermore, a large longitudinal study over four years from the ages of 13 to 17

connects child-disclosure to more pro-social behavior via parental warmth (Padilla-Walker, Son & Nelson, 2018).

For parents, it is certainly not easy to decide how much privacy to allow their children. This is because research reports perceived controlling behaviors by parents to have a negative influence on the relationship (Rorty et al., 2000). In a two-year longitudinal study with 12 to 15 year olds, there was a positive relationship between perceived privacy invasion and adolescent-parent conflict. The relationship is bidirectional with conflict fostering perceived invasion (Hawk, Keijsers, Hale & Meeus, 2009). At the same time, maintaining parental knowledge seems to be a protective factor for internalizing and externalizing behavior problems (Masche, 2010).

These findings point at the importance of maintaining a close relationship with parents, despite independence and autonomy wishes, for positive adolescent outcomes (Stattin & Kerr, 2000; Keijsers, Frijns, Branje & Meeus, 2009). A close relationship here means an emotional one where adolescents can address their parents whenever they are in distress. Previous research has shown that when it comes to privacy the two factors warmth and conflict influence the parent-child-relationship (Hawk, Keijsers, Hale & Meeus, 2009; Keijsers et al., 2010).

This is why the prediction is that the amounts of privacy parents allow adolescents lead to a rather warm or conflicting relationship, but differently depending on whether the adolescents live in Germany or Turkey.

2.3. PRIVACY AND MENTAL HEALTH

The reason why the UN has declared privacy a human right is its influence on health. Ancient cultures like Greek and others already knew the concept of privacy. They saw it as source for the civilized man to create social interaction by controlling

personal boundaries (Newell, 1995). Therefore, over history and across cultures people know privacy as a source for recreating psychological strength.

Privacy can have a therapeutic function on mental health (Werner, Altman & Brown, 1992; Pedersen, 1997). In this context, Pedersen (1997) defined nine psychological functions of privacy by letting subjects rate their privacy needs:

1. Contemplation
2. Autonomy
3. Rejuvenation
4. Confiding
5. Creativity
6. Disapproved consumptions
7. Recovery
8. Catharsis
9. Concealment

Most of these functions refer to taking a rest from social interaction. When withdrawing from social interaction an individual is able to have the freedom to think/be creative. When an individual is alone, they have the chance to contemplate about things that happened to them or problems they have and include this into a meaningful pattern. An individual can do this, e.g. by writing a diary or simply having the time to think in many ways. Being on their own, individuals also have the chance to try out new things without judgment by others, for example singing and dancing around. To engage in this kind of leisure activity is also relaxing and therefore helps to regain mental resources. In accordance with this, Evans et al. (2000) have identified social withdrawal as a coping mechanism to the stress that comes along with chronic crowding.

Too little privacy during adolescence associates to serious mental health problems in adult life. Researchers who apply CPR consider setting up of privacy boundaries as healthy within a family (Caughlin & Petronio, 2004). For example, research groups found intrusiveness by parents to link to eating disorders in later life (Rorty et al., 2000) as well as schizophrenia and depression (Butzlaff & Hooley, 1998). For example, Bulimic women report intrusive behaviors and invasion of privacy, especially by mothers, more than a control group (Rorty et al., 2000).

This thesis intends to study a connection between privacy and depression in specific. Barber (1996) has linked parental psychological control theoretically and empirically to internalizing problems, namely depression, in youths. This is because parental psychological control restricts adolescent's autonomy by coercing adolescents into compliance. By psychological control, Regoeczi (2008) was able to connect household density, so crowdedness in living conditions, with depressive symptoms in women. Supporting this finding, a large longitudinal study associated parental control, defined as rules, restrictions of freedom and coldness-rejection, with depressive symptoms, norm breaking and decreased self-esteem in adolescents (Kakihara, Tilton-Weaver, Kerr & Stattin, 2010).

2.4. PRIVACY AND CULTURE

In preparation interviews for conducting this study, both German and Turkish adolescents report that privacy is very important to them, but they highlight different facets of the concept. When asking German teenagers what privacy means for them, the first thing they answered among other things was that it means to be able to lock the door of their rooms. When asking Turkish teenagers what privacy means for them, the first thing they answered among other things was that it means that they can share secrets with another person. Both answers are a part of the privacy concept

presented in this thesis and these two statements taken together equal academic conceptions of privacy as a dialectical process (Altman, 1977; Petronio, 2008).

A Chinese research group has asked students of different age groups and their parents about how important privacy is for them and what they perceive as privacy (Tang & Dong, 2006). While there were differences found between the age groups, between gender and in the perception of parents in comparison to their children when it comes to what privacy means, e.g. if privacy is understood as a right or secrets, all parties agree on the importance of privacy for the development of the children. This revealed in the fact that parents and children alike found statements like “you knock before entering the room” self-evident. While these findings hint that privacy and autonomy are universally necessary for adolescents, privacy practices are different depending on the cultures in which they exist.

In the third aspect of his privacy stating that privacy is a multi-mechanism process, Altman (1977) highlights that this process especially includes culturally specific ways of responding. He gives examples of apparently maximum and minimum privacy cultures that both practice cultural ways that balance out the more or less of culture. For example, Balinese people have high walls and security around their houses (high privacy culture) but invite friends and guests very welcoming into their homes (counteracting behavior). The warm hospitality is a regulating behavior for the high privacy conditions. The Mehinacu Indians in Brazil on the other hand live with little privacy in their villages, because the houses and roads are located so that everyone can face each other (minimum privacy culture). In turn, individuals sometimes leave the village for several days or have gardens in the woods secluded from the village (counteracting behavior). To have the social permission to take time off from the village is a regulating behavior for the minimum privacy conditions.

In the context of this study, it is possible to consider Germany a minimum privacy culture and Turkey a maximum privacy culture when it comes to housing conditions. Because housing conditions are much more relaxed in Germany as opposed to Turkey where thick curtains are supposed to shield the inside of the house from looks from outside. “Nazar” is an example for this; it is an eye shaped amulet supposed to protect people from the evil eye. It is supposed to protect people from jealousy of others which leads them to use more privacy towards others (Kaya, Singh & Dua, 2009). This clearly shows that Turkish people like to shield the family away from outsiders. In contrast to this, Germans may not be afraid of other people’s looks but they consider spontaneous guests that come without a clear invitation as rude whereas Turkish houses always welcome also to uninvited guests. On the other hand, when it comes to sharing personal information of yourself with doctors or in the internet Germany is much more privacy aware than Turkey (Öğütçü, Testik & Chouseinoglou, 2016; Schomakers, Lidynia, Müllmann & Ziefle, 2019).

A hypothesis of Altman (1977) states that the need or existence of privacy is universal but that there are culturally specific behaviors and norms that regulate the privacy process. Incidentally, Ryan & Deci (2006) propose the same hypothesis for the autonomy concept. Studies have indeed shown that the lack of privacy during adolescence has negative effects across various cultural groups. A study among White Americans, African Americans, Vietnamese Americans and Mexican Americans has found that crowding (density of persons living in a home) has negative effects in all cultural groups in the form of psychological distress (Evans, Lepore & Allen, 2000). This research group also notes that different cultural groups have a different perspective on what crowding means with Latin Americans generally perceiving higher housing density as less crowded than Anglo Americans.

Few studies so far have connected cultural concepts to privacy issues. For example, a study comparing Turkish and American students has found out that American students desire privacy more and have more problems with crowding in dorms than Turkish students (Kaya & Weber, 2003). Another study examined that Turkish adolescents in contrast to Americans prefer mostly solitude and intimacy with friends from Pedersen's (1997) modes of privacy and reserve and isolation were least desired (Rustemli & Kokdemir, 1993). The authors connect these findings to the high desire of social interaction in Turkish culture that the original research on privacy modes does not reflect. In sum, there is scarce cross-cultural research on privacy and there is no direct comparison of Turkey and Germany.

For that reason, it is important to note that the privacy definitions by Altman (1977), Pastalan (1970) or Petronio (2008) cited in this proposal can be mainly applied to Western cultures because it is consistent with sociopolitical autonomy and independence values (Margulis, 2003). Other cultures may conceptualize privacy in a different way. For example, Tang & Dong (2006) argue that people in Chinese culture do not know the Western concept of individual privacy within a family context. They understand privacy as an ethical term that describes the distinction between family and non-family members. This example underlines that in Eastern countries like China, people often understand privacy in connection with the non-family/the other, while in Western countries, people often understand privacy as having time for oneself as well as the family life.

To understand the concept of privacy in cross-cultural context, it is important to explain A-R theory by Kağıtçıbaşı (2005). This theory ties in with Markus & Kitayama (1991) who have described the self, not the culture, as either leaning towards independency or interdependency. Both approaches have managed to

describe differences not from the large cultural level but from a personal level by explaining what characteristics inspire an individual. Kağıtçıbaşı (2005) understands autonomy and relatedness not as oppositions but as two dimensions that underlie the understanding of self, self-other relation and social behavior. It is important to note here that these two dimension do not exclude one another, but are both together a human need. Every individual has the need to act as an agent in their own decisions and feelings, but they also have the need to feel connected to others. In this way, it is possible that an individual scores high on both autonomy and relatedness.

Developing this theory is as an answer to Western and very polarizing views of cultural comparison like Hofstede (2001, 2011) who categorizes countries among the spectrum of individualism and collectivism (I-C) among other variables (Otyakmaz & Kağıtçıbaşı, 2016). This comparison has proven to be simplistic and arbitrary because this distinction bases on geographical borders that include a variety of people and therefore cultures. For example, every country has big cities as well as rural areas. The people who live in these different areas lead very different lives with different values and priorities from people living in big cities.

Indeed, research has found a link between I-C and socioeconomic development of a country, suggesting that any differences found between two countries might be due to SES difference rather than culture (Santos, Varnum & Grossmann, 2017). For example, a meta-analysis by Oyserman, Coon & Kimmelmeier (2002) has reviewed levels of I-C in the US American society and has not found expected differences between the different cultural groups, meaning that European Americans were not more individualistic than African Americans and not less collectivistic than Asian Americans.

Accordingly, the present study takes into account that cultural differences have a connection to socioeconomic status. This is why both populations compared in this study come from a similar SES background so that it will be possible to trace back any differences found to cultural grounds.

For this study, it is also necessary to consider whether German and Turkish people understand privacy in the same way. To make sure that the questionnaire asks the same questions to adolescents from both cultures, the participants answered items that do not ask for an ambivalent concept. The items in the questionnaire ask for concrete actions and behaviors, e.g. one item specifically asks if the adolescents have a room for their own or if they have to share their room with a sibling. This constitutes a physical marker of privacy that the adolescents can easily answer from the background of both cultures. Another example is the question whether they need to report to their parents with whom they are friends. The adolescents are able to answer this question from whatever cultural background they come from.

One main interest of this study are mental health outcomes, namely depressive symptoms that will be measured with *Depressive Mood Scale* (Kandel & Davis, 1982). The research cited above indicates that lack of privacy has a negative connection to the quality of the parent-child-relationship and depressive symptoms. Based on the fact that privacy in Turkey privacy among family members seems to be less important than in Germany (Tang & Dong, 2006), I expect that this relationship is more pronounced in the German population than the Turkish one.

2.5. AIM OF THIS STUDY

This study first approaches the concept of privacy and makes assumptions about how adolescents from these two cultures act within this concept. The main aim of this study is to find out whether there is a group difference between German and

Turkish adolescents when it comes to a relationship between privacy and the parent-child-relationship or depressive symptoms. Furthermore, as many of the scales used in this study are first time translations to German or Turkish it is important to make a reliability analysis beforehand. Especially, it is necessary to check reliability and validity of the *Privacy Scale* as it is a combination of pre-existing scales and essential to the study.

2.5.3. HYPOTHESES

The previous lines of thought lead to the following hypotheses:

1. Privacy and having their own room has a positive relationship with fewer depressive symptoms for German adolescents, but for Turkish adolescents having an own room has no such specific relationship on depressive symptoms.
2. Privacy and having their own room has a positive relationship with involvement in the parent-child-relationship for German adolescents, but for Turkish adolescents having an own room has no such specific relationship on involvement in the parent-child-relationship.
3. Privacy and having their own room has a positive relationship with warmth in the parent-child-relationship for German adolescents, but for Turkish adolescents having an own room has no such specific relationship on warmth in the parent-child-relationship.
4. Privacy and having their own room has a positive relationship with warmth in the parent-child-relationship for German adolescents, but for Turkish adolescents having an own room has no such specific relationship on autonomy support in the parent-child-relationship.



CHAPTER 3

METHODS

3.1. PARTICIPANTS

Data collection happened between July and December 2017 via online questionnaire. Adolescents between the ages of 14 to 18 years in high schools received the questionnaire. The participants were selected from an urban, medium socioeconomic background to prevent SES playing a confounding role in the findings. To make sure that the participants come from this background, students of higher education schools (Gymnasium/Lise) in the West of Germany (Cologne and the Ruhr area) and in the region of İzmir and Aydın received the link via their teachers. These teachers are friends and colleagues that agreed to help collecting the data.

3.1.4. GENDER

The sample includes German ($N=100$) and Turkish ($N=90$) adolescents. In the German sample, $N=56$ participants were female (56%) and $N=44$ male (44%). In the Turkish sample, $N=45$ participants were female (50%) and $N=45$ male (50%). The Chi-Square test shows no significant difference in the distribution of gender between the groups ($\chi^2(1)=.685, p=.408$).

3.1.5. AGE

In the German sample, $N=4$ of the participants were 14 year-olds (4%), $N=11$ were 15 year-olds (11%), $N=16$ 16 year-olds (16%), $N=28$ 17 year-olds (28%) and $N=41$ 18 year-olds (41%). In the Turkish sample, $N=2$ participants were 14 year-olds

(2.2%), $N=1$ was 15 years old (1.1%), $N=18$ were 16 year-olds (20%), $N=32$ 17 year-olds (35.6%) and $N=37$ 18 year-olds (41.1%). The independent t-Test shows no significant difference in the distribution of age between the groups ($t(184.741,189)=-1.393, p=.165$).

3.1.6. SOCIOECONOMIC BACKGROUND

Monthly income

Concerning SES, the questionnaire asks about the monthly family income on a 5-point Likert-scale with corresponding incomes of Germany and Turkey. The basis for creating a Likert-scale of comparative income was the GDP per capita which in Germany is 44,469.91 USD which equals approximately 3,224 € per month. GDP per capita in Turkey is 10,540.62 USD that equals approximately 5,100 TL per month (World Bank, 2019).

In the German sample, $N=5$ participants give the monthly family income as less than 1,000 € (5%), $N=11$ participants gave 1,000-3,000 € (11%), $N=33$ give 3,000-5,000 € (33%), $N=17$ gave 5,000-10,000 € (17%) and $N=3$ gave more than 10,000 € (3%). $N=30$ participants answered “I don’t know” concerning the monthly family income (30%) and $N=1$ participant did not answer the question (1%) at all.

In the Turkish sample, $N=7$ participants gave the monthly family income as less than 1,400 TL (7.8%), $N=26$ give 1,400-3,000 TL (28.9%), $N=24$ give 3,000-5,000 TL (26.7%), $N=11$ give 5,000-10,000 TL (12.2%) and $N=5$ give more than 10,000 TL (5.6%). $N=16$ participants answered that they do not know about the monthly family income (17.8%) and $N=1$ participant did not answer this question (1.1%).

Table 1. *Descriptives of SES background of the sample*

			Germany	Turkey
			<i>N</i> =100	<i>N</i> =90
Gender	Female	<i>N</i>	56	45
	male	<i>N</i>	44	45
Age		<i>M</i>	16.9	17.1
		<i>SD</i>	1.173	0.922
Siblings		<i>M</i>	1.38	1.40
		<i>SD</i>	1.162	1.005
Family Income	minimum wage	<i>N</i>	5	7
	low		11	26
	medium		33	24
	high		17	11
	above average		3	5
Mother's education	no degree	<i>N</i>	1	4
	primary school		-	22
	middle school		9	14
	vocational school		39	4
	high school		22	19
	university		27	24
Father's education	no degree	<i>N</i>	1	1
	primary school		-	15
	middle school		11	11
	vocational school		22	2
	high school		20	16
	university		36	26
Marital status of parents	married/relationship	<i>N</i>	78	80
	divorced/separated		21	9

As the scale of family income is an ordinal scale and not interval scaled, I expect the distribution of the variables to be not normal. This is why the Mann-Whitney U test finds usage in this study. The Mann-Whitney U test to compare two independent samples on an ordinal variables shows no significant difference in the distribution of family income between the two groups ($U=4340.5$, $p=.858$).

Educational background of the parents

Another important factor for SES is the educational background of the parents. The participants indicated on a 5-point Likert-scale in Germany (1=no degree, 3=Hauptschule, 4=Realschule, 5=Abitur, 6=university) and on a 6-point Likert-scale in Turkey (1=no degree, 2=primary school, 3=ortaokul, 4=meslek lisesi, 5=lise, 6=university) the corresponding educational qualifications of their mothers and fathers.

The highest educational degree of $N=9$ German mothers is received by a lower secondary school (9%) which corresponds to ten years of education. $N=39$ mothers have a degree from a middle secondary school (39%) which corresponds to ten years of more qualitative education. For $N=22$ of the mothers the highest educational degree is the university entry degree (22%) which corresponds to 13 years of education and a qualification for studying at a university. $N=27$ mothers have a university degree (27%) and $N=1$ mother did not graduate at all (1%) and $N=2$ participants did not answer this question (2%).

For the Turkish mothers, the highest degree for $N=22$ is primary school (24.4%) which corresponds to five years of education. $N=14$ finished middle school (15.6%) which corresponds to eight years of education. $N=4$ finished technical high school (4.4%) which corresponds to nine years of education. $N=19$ mothers received a degree from high school (21.1%) which corresponds to twelve years of education

and $N=24$ mothers have a university degree (26.7%). $N=4$ mothers did not graduate at all (4.4%) and $N=3$ participants did not answer this question (3.3%).

Just like the income, the educational backgrounds of the parents is measured on an ordinal scale and therefore it is not expected to be normally distributed. The Mann-Whitney U test to compare two independent samples on an ordinal variables shows a significant difference in the distribution of mother's education between the two groups ($U=3387.0$, $p=.014$). In both groups, there are many university graduates but the Turkish mothers in this study obtained lower educational degrees than the German mothers did.

Table 2. Results of Mann-Whitney U-test to compare group differences between the ordinal scaled variables monthly income, mother and father education

	Mean rank		<i>U</i>	<i>P</i>
	Germany	Turkey		
Monthly income	93.84	95.23	4340.5	.858
Mother education	101.94	82.93	3387.0	.014*
Father education	86.40	74.15	3387.0	.085

Note: * $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, *** $p<.001$

Of the German fathers $N=11$ finished lower secondary school (11%) and $N=22$ middle secondary school (22%). $N=20$ received university entry degree (20%) and $N=36$ have a university degree (36%). $N=1$ father never graduated at all (1%) and $N=10$ participants did not answer this question (10%). Of the Turkish fathers, $N=15$ finished primary school (16.7%), 11 middle school (12.2%), $N=2$ technical high school (2.2%) and $N=16$ high school (17.8%). $N=26$ fathers gained a university degree (28.9%). $N=1$ father did not graduate at all (1.1%) and $N=19$ participants did not answer this question (21.1%). The high amount of participants not answering this

question in both groups might be explainable by the fact that fathers play a smaller role in raising their children in this particular sample.

The Mann-Whitney U test to compare two independent samples on an ordinal variables shows no significant difference in the distribution of father's education between the two groups ($U=2709.0, p=.085$).

3.1.7. FAMILY BACKGROUND

Marital status of parents

The participants indicated the marital status of their parents on a 4-point Likert-scale (1=married, 2=in a relationship, but not married, 3=divorced, 4=separated). In the German sample, $N=74$ couples are married (74%) while in the Turkish sample, $N=80$ are married (88.9%). Of the German parents $N=4$ are in a relationship but not married (4%), no one gave this answer in the Turkish sample. Of the German parents, $N=16$ are divorced (16%) while $N=9$ of the Turkish parents are divorced (10%). In the German sample, $N=5$ indicated that the parents are separated (5%) but in the Turkish sample no one gave this answer.

Table 3. Independent χ^2 -test results of the group comparison between the nominal scaled variables gender and marital status

	df	X^2	p
Gender	1	0.685	.408
Marital status of parents	3	10.692	.014*

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

The marital status of the parents is measured on a nominal scale which is why group difference needs to be analyzed with Chi-Square test. The Pearson Chi-Square

test to compare different of nominal values between two independent samples shows a significant difference in the distribution of the parents' marital status between the two groups ($\chi^2(3,186)=10.692, p=.014$). This difference is explainable by the cultural difference in acceptance of divorce. The crude divorce rate (divorces per 1000 persons per year) in Germany in 2017 was 1.9 while it was 1.6 in Turkey. In 2010, around the time most of the parents of the participants must have been married, the crude divorce rate in Germany was 2.3 and 1.6 in Turkey (Eurostat, 2019). Unlike in Turkey, in Germany it is common to have children and live together without getting married.

Table 4. Independent t-Test results of group comparison between the interval scaled variables age and number of siblings

	<i>M</i>		<i>SD</i>		<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	Germany	Turkey	Germany	Turkey			
Age	16.91	17.12	1.173	0.922	188	-1.376	.17
Siblings	1.38	1.40	1.162	1.005	185	-0.139	.90

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Siblings

The German participants have $M=1.38$ ($SD=1.162$) siblings in average while the Turkish participants had $M=1.40$ ($SD=1.005$) siblings in average. The Levene-test for variance homogeneity was not significant ($F(2,185)=1.683, p=.196$) which is why a t-Test could be carried out. The t-Test comparing the means of number of siblings between the groups shows no significant difference ($t(2,185)=-.139, p=.889$).

3.1.8. SUMMARY OF DESCRIPTIVES

To sum up, the descriptive data and the statistical comparison thereof show that these two samples are comparable. Recent research has warned that SES rather than culture explains differences found between populations of two countries because SES has similar effects across cultures (Grossmann & Varnum, 2011; Hoffman, 2003). To give an example, families with a low income are able to provide less space to their children than families with high income in both cultures. SES consists of income, education and occupation (Hoffman, 2003). The significant marital status of parents is understandable through the difference in divorce rates in the two countries. Except for educational backgrounds of mothers and marital status of parents, there was no significant difference in SES background found which is why any difference found in further analysis might be assumed to be cultural.

3.2. INSTRUMENTS

The questionnaire for this study includes a small section that asks about the socioeconomic background, a *Privacy Scale* that includes combined questions from the Parental Control subscale from Stattin & Kerr (2000) and the Perceived Intrusiveness subscale of *LEE* (Cole & Kazarian, 1988) as well as *Children's Perceptions of their Parents questionnaire (POPS)*; Grolnick, Ryan & Deci, 1991), *Autonomy-Relatedness scale* (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005) and *Depressive Mood Scale* by (Kandel & Davies, 1982).

3.2.9. SOCIOECONOMIC FORM

The first $N=13$ items ask about age, gender, nationality, the origin of the parents and Socio economic status (See Appendix C for German and Appendix D for Turkish). SES consists of income, education and occupation (Hoffman, 2003).

So, the items ask for income on a 6-point-Likert scale that ask for the corresponding incomes in Germany and Turkey. Then, the items ask for education of mother and father on a Likert scale ranging from no degree to university graduate with the education levels in accordance to the Turkish and German education system.

For occupation of mother and father, the items are asked as open-ended questions. This section also asks about siblings and marital status of parents.

3.2.10. PRIVACY SCALE

The second part of the questionnaire consists of privacy questions (See Appendix E for German and Appendix F for Turkish). Participants answered $N=12$ items that combine questions from the Parental Control subscale from Stattin & Kerr (2000) and the Perceived Intrusiveness subscale of *LEE* (Cole & Kazarian, 1988). These two scales are suitable because they are widely used in this field of study as well being approved in adolescent populations and prove to have good reliability.

The Parental Control subscale from Stattin & Kerr (2000) shows good reliability with Cronbach's $\alpha=.82$ for children's report and Cronbach's $\alpha=.77$ for parent's report. The subscale of Perceived Intrusiveness of the *LEE* (Cole & Kazarian, 1988) reaches good reliability in an adolescent population with Cronbach's $\alpha=.83$ (Hale, Raaijmakers, Gerlsma & Meeus, 2007).

By combining them, the goal is to both add information that both scales cover into one questionnaire as well as avoiding repetitiveness. Furthermore, some questions were reformulated in a shorter way. To give an example, items like "My parents go through my stuff" or "My parents are nosing into my business" cover intrusiveness. Items that ask whether the adolescents need permission to go out or items like "My parents require that I check in with them" cover monitoring behavior.

The *Parental Control Subscale* by Stattin & Kerr (2000) includes the following items:

- Do you need to have your parents' permission to stay out late on a weekday evening?
- Do you need to ask your parents before you can decide with your friends what you will do on a Saturday evening?
- If you have been out very late one night, do your parents require that you explain what you did and whom you were with?
- Do your parents always require that you tell them where you are at night, who you are with, and what you do together?
- Before you go out on a Saturday night, do your parents require you to tell them where you are going and with whom?

The Intrusiveness scale of LEE includes the following items:

- My parents are always nosing into my business.
- My parents have to know everything about me.
- My parents are always interfering.
- My parents butt into my private matters.
- My parents often check up on me to see what I'm doing.
- My parents insist on knowing where I'm going.
- My parents don't pry into my life.
- My parents are critical of me.

The combined subscale contains $N=12$ items that are rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1=never to 5=always. This scale will be called *Privacy Scale* and includes the following items:

- My parents trust me in general.
- My parents have to know everything about me.
- I need my parents' permission to go out during the day.
- I need my parents' permission to go out at nights.
- My parents require knowing what I am doing when I go out during the day.
- My parents require knowing what I am doing when I go out at nights.
- My parents demand to know whom I am friends with.
- My parents require that I check in with them.
- My parents go through my personal stuff.
- My parents tell me what clothes to wear.
- My parents are nosing into my business.
- My parents ask a lot of personal questions.

As well, this section includes additional items that serve as indicator variables of privacy. One is "Do you have your own room?" (0=no, 1=shared with siblings, 2=yes), called Own room. High values on this variable mean more privacy than low levels. Another item asks about how many people live in the house ("Crowdedness"). A last item asks on a 5-point Likert-scale if the adolescents have an area of retreat (0=never to 4=always) ("Retreat").

Reliability of the Privacy Scale

The *Privacy Scale* in this study with $N=12$ items shows Cronbach's $\alpha=.84$ for Germany and Cronbach's $\alpha=.81$ for Turkey which lies within the range of reliability that was reported for the original scales. This means that the merging of the two scales was successful.

Factor Analysis of the Privacy Scale

Three underlying factors could be identified that have the description Parental Trust, Parental Permission and Intrusiveness, which corresponds to elements of the original scales. The communalities range between .427 and .761 demonstrating that the factors represent the variables well. The KMO criteria with .762 also indicates that the correlations between the items are not too high and therefore it is possible to conduct a principal component analysis. The Bartlett test of sphericity is significant as well ($\chi^2(1,66)=920.467, p<.001$).

The twelve items regarding privacy were analyzed with principal component analysis with Varimax (orthogonal) rotation. The analysis yields three factors that explain 64.3% of the total variance for the entire set of items.

The first factor named Parental Control includes $N=6$ items that explain 34.5% of the variance:

- I need my parents' permission to go out during the day.
- I need my parents' permission to go out at nights.
- My parents require knowing what I am doing when I go out during the day.
- My parents require knowing what I am doing when I go out at nights.
- My parents demand to know with whom I am friends.
- My parents require that I check in with them.

Table 5. *Factor analysis table for Privacy Scale*

	Loadings			Communalities
	Factor 1/ Control	Factor 2/ Invasion	Factor 3/ Knowledge	
My parents trust me in general.	.024	.358	-.748	.688
My parents have to know everything about me.	.186	.135	.820	.725
I need my parents' permission to go out during the day.	.678	.129	.241	.535
I need my parents' permission to go out at nights.	.805	.046	-.013	.650
My parents require knowing what I am doing when I go out during the day.	.821	-.017	-.183	.721
My parents require knowing what I am doing when I go out at nights.	.816	-.017	-.183	.699
My parents demand to know with whom I am friends.	.723	.101	.191	.570
My parents require that I check in with them.	.572	.306	.080	.427
My parents go through my personal stuff.	.137	.801	-.073	.666
My parents tell me what clothes to wear.	.162	.715	.290	.622
My parents are nosing into my business.	.118	.847	-.175	.761
My parents ask a lot of personal questions.	.100	.795	-.089	.651
Eigenvalue	4.141	2.242	1.334	
% of total variance	34.511	18.679	11.113	
Total variance		64.303 %		

The second Factor named Parental Invasion includes $N=5$ items that explain 18.7% of the variance:

- My parents trust me in general.
- My parents go through my personal stuff.
- My parents tell me what clothes to wear.
- My parents are nosing into my business.
- My parents ask a lot of questions.

The last factor includes one item about Parental Knowledge and explains 11.1% of the variance: My parents have to know everything about me.

3.2.11. CHILDREN'S PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR PARENTS (POPS)

By using the *Children's Perceptions of their Parents questionnaire (POPS;* Grolnick, Ryan & Deci, 1991), the aim is to shine light on the parent-child-relationship. There are $N=21$ items measuring three subscales autonomy support, warmth and involvement by mothers and fathers each, so there are $N=42$ items in total and the six subscales (See Appendix G for German and Appendix H for Turkish):

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| - Mother Autonomy Support | - Father Autonomy Support |
| - Mother Warmth | - Father Warmth |
| - Mother Involvement | - Father Involvement |

Participants rate on a 7-point-Likert scale ranging from 0=not at all true to 6=very true (e.g. "Some mothers are always telling their children what to do but other mothers like their children to decide for themselves what to do").

While there was no *POPS* in German language, a Turkish language version existed beforehand (Kocayörük, 2012). After adjusting some items from the original scale, the Turkish language *POPS* shows a significant model fit for the Turkish population of 14-18 year olds with Cronbach's $\alpha=.91$ for the mother's scale and Cronbach's $\alpha=.93$ for the father's scale.

Reliability of POPS

POPS consists of $N=21$ items in total for mothers and fathers each, so $N=42$ in total. Cronbach's α of *POPS* in this study is $\alpha=.887$ for German mothers and $\alpha=.960$ for German fathers. For the Turkish mothers Cronbach's $\alpha=.857$ and $\alpha=.930$ for Turkish fathers in this research. These findings show that the reliability of this scale in the present study is even higher than in the original research.

These results are pleasing for two reasons. First, the Turkish translation of *POPS* was confirmed with the finding of high reliability. Second, the first German translation of *POPS* reaches high scores of reliability.

3.2.12. AUTONOMY-RELATEDNESS

The scale for measuring A-R contains $N=20$ items (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005) with two subscales: Autonomy and Relatedness (See Appendix I for German and Appendix J for Turkish). The questions are answered on a five-point Likert-scale ranging from 1=absolutely do not agree to 5=absolutely agree (e.g. "I need the support of persons to whom I feel very close.").

Initial use of the questionnaire reports Cronbach's $\alpha=.89$ (Kağıtçıbaşı, Baydar & Cemalcılar, 2006). This questionnaire has been translated to Turkish (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1996) and is widely used. For the present study, the scale was translated into German.

Reliability of A-R scale

The *Autonomy-Relatedness* scale of Kağıtçıbaşı (2005) with $N=20$ items in total reached Cronbach's $\alpha=.937$ for the German participants and Cronbach's $\alpha=.942$ for the Turkish participants in the present study. These results lie above the original findings of reliability for this scale.

3.2.13. DEPRESSIVE MOOD

The absence of depressive symptoms is measured as an indicator for psychological well-being (See Appendix K for German and Appendix L for Turkish). The 6-item *Depressive Mood Scale* by Kandel & Davies (1982) is originally established for an adolescent population and divulges good reliability with Cronbach's $\alpha=.80$. The participants are asked about the frequency of depressive mood symptoms like feeling nervous or tensed on a 5-point scale ranging from 0=never to 4=always.

Reliability of the Depressive Mood Scale

Table 6. *Reliability of the scales in the questionnaire*

Scale	N of items	Cronbach's α	
		Germany	Turkey
Privacy	12	.84	.81
POPS mothers	21	.89	.86
POPS fathers	21	.96	.93
Culture	20	.94	.94
Depression	6	.88	.76

Reliability for *Depressive Mood Scale* by Kandel & Davies (1982) with $N=6$ lies above the original one with Cronbach's $\alpha=.880$ for Germany and Cronbach's

$\alpha=.763$ for Turkey in the present study. Nevertheless, it is noteworthy that this scale shows slightly lower reliability in the Turkish population than in the German population. Concerning validity issues, as Western researchers created the scale it seems that the German population can relate to the questions better than the Turkish population.

3.3. PROCEDURE

Teachers who collaborated in this study shared the link to the online questionnaire with their students. They had the permission of their headmasters to do that. They were teachers at different high schools in North Rhine-Westphalia in the West of Germany and teachers at different high schools in the area of İzmir and Aydın in the West of Turkey. All the participants were students at either a Gymnasium or lise, which are high schools of a comparative level of education in Germany and Turkey.

Then, the participants filled out the questionnaire online. It was totally in their hands where and when to answer the questionnaire. They could use their phone or a computer.

First, the participants were able to choose in which language they want to answer the questionnaire. Before beginning, the participants also had to click a box that indicated they consent to participate in the study. Additionally before starting, the participants were asked if they are between the ages of 14 to 18 and if they lived in either Germany or Turkey in order to make sure the right population participated (See Appendix A for German and Appendix B for Turkish).

The participants had the chance to skip items that they felt were not suitable for them. They could stop before finishing the whole questionnaire.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1. GROUP DIFFERENCES

To begin with, it will be examined whether there are group differences among the variables that are used in this study. The variables are grouped based on content because so there will be four separate analyses of group differences based on privacy variables, parent-child-relationship variables, culture and depression.

4.1.14. PRIVACY VARIABLES

Initially, the privacy variables (Privacy, Crowdedness, Retreat and Own room) are further examined. Although these variables all belong to the content of privacy they are differently scaled so that group differences will be analyzed with independent samples t-tests for the variables Privacy, Crowdedness and Retreat and with Mann-Whitney U-test for the ordinal scaled variable Own room. This is necessary because these variables are not considered to be correlated with each other due to their different scaling. This is why assumptions for conducting a MANOVA are not met.

First, a significant difference was found in the scores for the *Privacy Scale* of German ($M=3.323$, $SD=0.656$) and Turkish adolescents ($M=3.103$, $SD=0.633$); $t(1,183)=2.317$, $p=.021$. Note that higher values mean that the adolescents have more privacy.

Second, no significant difference was found for the number of people living in the home (Crowdedness) with the adolescents between Germany ($M=3.07$, $SD=1.003$) and Turkey ($M=3.10$, $SD=1.041$); $t(1,183)=-0.226$, $p=.822$.

Third, no significant difference was found for the evaluation of how much the adolescents have an area of retreat between Germany ($M=1.88$, $SD=2.211$) and Turkey ($M=1.53$, $SD=1.437$); $t(1,162.848)=1.296$, $p=.197$ (Table 7).

Fourth, the Mann-Whitney U-test concerning a group difference of the central tendency of having an own room revealed a significant result for Germany and Turkey ($U=2931.500$, $p<.001$) with German adolescents having an own room $N=92$ and a room shared with siblings $N=7$. None of the German participants reported to not have an own room. Within the Turkish population $N=49$ reported to have an own room, $N=39$ a shared room with a sibling and $N=2$ reported to not have a room at all.

As a consequence of these results the variables Privacy and Own room will be used as privacy indicators in the further analysis and the remaining variables will not be included.

Table 7. Independent t-Test comparisons of privacy variables and Depressive Mood Scale

	<i>M</i>		<i>SD</i>		<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	Germany	Turkey	Germany	Turkey			
<i>Privacy Scale</i>	3.32	3.10	0.66	0.63	183	2.317	.02*
<i>Crowdedness</i>	3.07	3.10	1.00	1.04	183	-0.226	.82
<i>Retreat</i>	1.88	1.53	2.21	1.44	162.9	1.296	.20
<i>Own room</i>	-	-	-	-	$U=2931.5$		<.001***
<i>Depressive Mood Scale</i>	1.95	2.23	0.60	0.42	187	-3.775	<.001***

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

4.1.15. PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIP

Next, it is analyzed whether there is a group difference between Germany and Turkey concerning parent-child relationship. Therefore, a MANOVA with the six *POPS* variables (Involvement, Autonomy Support and Warmth each for mother and father) as dependent variables was conducted. The MANOVA is appropriate in this case because the *POPS* variables all come from the same scale and hence are considered to be moderately correlated with each other. Thereby, conducting a MANOVA protects against an inflating type one error.

Beforehand, the assumption of equality of the covariance matrices between the groups was tested with the Box-M test. The value of $M=34.687$ with $p=.042$ indicates that assumption is met based on Huberty & Petoskey's (2000) guideline that requires $p>.005$.

The only variables that show a significant group difference are Mother Involvement ($F(1,174)=9.164$, $p=.003$) and Mother Warmth ($F(1,174)=4.971$, $p=.027$) (Table 8).

These results mean that the father variables will not be included in further analysis. Furthermore, the variables Mother Warmth and Mother Involvement will be especially important as indicator variables for the mother-child-relationship as these variables suit to describe the quality of the emotional relationship.

4.1.16. CULTURE

Then, group differences in the cultural variables are examined. Therefore, a MANOVA with the culture variable Autonomy and Relatedness as dependent variables was conducted. The MANOVA is appropriate in this case because the cultural variables come from the same scale and are therefore considered to be

moderately correlated with each other. Thereby, this analysis protects against conducting an inflating type one error. Three different MANOVAs, one for mother POPS, one for father POPS and one for A-R.

Table 8. MANOVA results of POPS and A-R

		<i>M</i>		<i>SD</i>		<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
		Germany	Turkey	Germany	Turkey			
Mother	Involvement	5.39	5.92	1.17	1.15	172	9.164	.003**
POPS	Autonomy	5.22	5.40	1.17	1.07	172	1.114	.293
	Support							
	Warmth	5.53	5.94	1.28	1.13	172	4.971	.027*
Father	Involvement	4.81	5.06	1.42	1.66	172	1.153	.284
POPS	Autonomy	4.91	4.93	1.27	1.23	172	0.009	.924
	Support							
	Warmth	5.18	5.26	1.41	1.38	172	0.165	.685
A-R	Autonomy	3.99	4.05	0.66	0.77	184	1.318	.270
	Relatedness	4.00	4.14	0.76	.82	184	1.318	.270

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Beforehand, the assumption of equality of the covariance matrices between the groups was tested by the Box-M test. The value of $M=2.570$ with $p=.468$ indicates that assumption is met based on Huberty & Petoskey's (2000) guideline that requires $p < .005$.

The MANOVA shows no significant group differences in the culture variables neither in Autonomy ($F(1,184)=1.318, p=.270$) nor Relatedness ($F(1,184)=1.318, p=.270$). As no significant differences in SES were found and

cultural differences are often related to SES differences, this is not surprising. Thus, the cultural variables will not be included in further analysis.

4.1.17. DEPRESSIVE SYMPTOMS

Lastly, a comparison of means of the depression values reveal a significant difference between German ($M=1.951$, $SD=0.599$) and Turkish adolescents ($M=2.234$, $SD=0.425$) ($t(1,178.370)$, $p<.001$) with higher values indicating higher levels of depression.

4.2. MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION

To test the hypotheses that privacy has a different outcome on mother-child-relationship and depression in the two groups, linear regression with Own room and Privacy as independent variables to predict the dependent variables of either Depression, Mother Warmth, Mother Involvement or Mother Autonomy Support was conducted for both groups separately. Therefore, a multiple linear regression was calculated to either predict Mother Warmth, Mother Involvement or Depression based on Privacy and Own room for the population of German and Turkish adolescents separately.

4.2.18. ASSUMPTIONS OF MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION

Before conducting the multiple linear regression, it is important to check if the data meets the assumptions for this analysis. Therefore, it is necessary to test normal distribution, multicollinearity, sample size and that the values of the residuals are independent (Field, 2017).

Multiple regression will be conducted for the German and the Turkish population separately. This is why the test for assumptions will also be tested for both populations separately.

Normal distribution

Normal distribution is tested with Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. In the German population, the variables *Privacy Scale* ($Z=0.950, p=.327$), *Mother Involvement* ($Z=1.148, p=.143$) and *Depression* ($Z=1.175, p=.126$) are not significant indicating that both variables are normally distributed. In the Turkish population, the variables *Privacy Scale* ($Z=0.940, p=.340$) and *Depression* ($Z=1.089, p=.186$) are also not significant, indicating that both variables are normally distributed.

The variable *Mother Warmth* ($Z=1.480, p=.025$) in the German population as well as *Mother Warmth* ($Z=1.993, p<.001$) in the Turkish population are significant, indicating that this variable is not normally distributed. Furthermore, the variable *Mother Involvement* ($Z=1.579, p=.014$) is significant in the Turkish population, this is why it is also not normally distributed.

The variable *Own room* as an originally ordinal scaled variable that is treated as an interval scaled variable for this analysis is not normally distributed anyway, but this will not be the only privacy predictor variable.

Independence of residuals

By making sure that the residuals are independent, the intention is to avoid predictions errors. By using the Durbin-Watson test it is possible to detect autocorrelations, meaning it test whether the correlation between two following residuals in a regression analysis is zero.

The statistic of the Durbin-Watson test should lay between 1.0 and 3.0. Field (2017) suggests that a value very close to 2.0 gives assurance that the data meets this assumption. The present data fulfills this demand:

- The value of the Durbin-Watson statistic for the first regression of Privacy and Own room predicting Mother Involvement in the German population is 1.896 and 2.137 in the Turkish population.
- The value of the Durbin-Watson statistic for the second regression of Privacy and Own room predicting Mother Warmth in the German population is 1.929 and 2.032 in the Turkish population.
- The value of the Durbin-Watson statistic for the third regression of Privacy and Own room predicting Depression in the German population is 2.104 and 2.034 in the Turkish population.

Collinearity

Multicollinearity means that the predicting variables in a multiple regression correlate highly with each other. There should be no perfect multicollinearity for the multiple regression to make sense. By looking at the collinearity statistics, a tolerance of less than 0.2 coupled with a variance inflation factor of more than 10 indicates multicollinearity (Ménard, 1995).

The data in the present study fulfills this demand:

- In the first regression of Privacy and Own room predicting Mother Involvement tolerance shows a value of 0.992 with a VIF of 1.008 for both predictor variables in the German population. In the Turkish population, the tolerance is 0.997 with a VIF of 1.003 in both variables.
- In the second regression of Privacy and Own room predicting Mother Warmth tolerance shows a value of 0.990 with a VIF of 1.010 for both predictor variables in the German population. In the Turkish population, the tolerance is 0.997 with a VIF of 1.003 in both variables.

- In the third regression of Privacy and Own room predicting Depression tolerance shows a value of 0.992 with a VIF of 1.008 for both predictor variables in the German population. In the Turkish population, the tolerance is 0.997 with a VIF of 1.003 in both variables.

The predictor variables Privacy and Own room show a small correlation of $r^2=0.1$ in the German population and $r^2=-0.06$ in the Turkish population anyway. Therefore, multicollinearity in the present data is not likely.

Sample size

According to Tabachnik, Fidell & Ullman (2007) the sample size for multiple regression should be $N > 50 + 8m$ with m being the number of IVs. Each multiple regression in the present study has two IVs. This means that the sample size should be at least 66 in order to make sure that a multiple regression analysis can be conducted accurately. The sample sizes in both populations are higher.

4.2.19. HYPOTHESIS 1

The first hypothesis states that privacy and having their own room has a positive relationship with fewer depressive symptoms for German adolescents, but for Turkish adolescents having an own room has no such specific relationship on depressive symptoms. To test this hypothesis a multiple linear regression with Depression as dependent variable and Privacy and Own room as independent variables was conducted.

Results of the multiple linear regression indicates that there is a collective significant effect between the variables Privacy, Own room and Depression for the German adolescents ($F(2,94)=5.725, p=.004, R^2=.111$). The individual predictors

were examined further and analysis shows that both Privacy ($t(1,94)=-2.540, p=.013$) and Own room ($t(1,94)=2.007, p=.013$) are significant predictors in the model.

On the other hand, the same analysis for the Turkish population reveals neither a significant effect for the overall model with Depression as an outcome ($F(2,87)=0.737, p=.482, R^2=.017$) nor for the single predictors Privacy ($t(1,87)=-0.150, p=.237$) and Own room ($t(1,87)=-1.190, p=.881$).

Table 9. Multiple Regression analysis summary for Privacy and Own room predicting Depression

Country	Predictor	B	95% CI	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Germany	Overall	3.719	[2.69; 4.75]	-	-	.004**
	Privacy	-0.190	[-0.38; -0.00]	-.198	-2.007	.048*
	Own room	-0.574	[-1.02; -0.13]	-.251	-2.540	.013*
Turkey	Overall	2.478	[1.95; 3.01]	-	-	.485
	Privacy	-0.087	[-0.23; 0.06]	-.128	-1.190	.237
	Own room	0.013	[-0.15; 0.18]	-.016	0.150	.881

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

4.2.20. HYPOTHESIS 2

The second hypothesis states that privacy and having their own room has a positive relationship with involvement in the parent-child-relationship for German adolescents, but for Turkish adolescents having an own room has no such specific relationship on involvement in the parent-child-relationship. In order to test this

hypothesis a multiple linear regression with Mother Involvement as dependent variable and Privacy and Own room as independent variables was conducted.

Results of the multiple linear regression indicates that there is a collective significant effect between the variables Privacy, Own room and Mother Involvement for German adolescents ($F(2,93)=3.257, p=.043, R^2=.067$). The individual predictors were examined further, but both Privacy ($t(1,93)=1.944, p=.055$) and Own room ($t(1,93)=1.452, p=.150$) are not significant predictors in the model.

Table 10. Multiple Regression analysis summary for Privacy and Own room predicting Mother Involvement

Country	Predictor	B	95% CI	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Germany	Overall	2.754	[0.66; 4.85]		-	.043*
	Privacy	0.382	[-0.01; 0.77]	.198	1.944	.055
	Own room	0.665	[-0.25; 1.58]	.148	1.452	.150
Turkey	Overall	5.593	[4.18; 7.01]		-	.853
	Privacy	0.052	[-0.33; 0.43]	.029	0.271	.787
	Own room	0.114	[-0.33; 0.56]	.055	0.511	.611

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

On the other hand, the same analysis for the Turkish population reveals neither a significant effect for the overall model with Mother Involvement as an outcome ($F(2,87)=0.160, p=.853, R^2=.004$) nor for the single predictors Privacy ($t(1,87)=-0.271, p=.787$) and Own room ($t(1,87)=0.511, p=.611$).

4.2.21. HYPOTHESIS 3

The third hypothesis states that privacy and having their own room has a positive relationship with warmth in the parent-child-relationship for German adolescents, but for Turkish adolescents having an own room has no such specific relationship on warmth in the parent-child-relationship. In order to test this hypothesis a multiple linear regression with Mother Warmth as dependent variable and Privacy and Own room as independent variables was conducted.

Table 11. Multiple Regression analysis summary for Privacy and Own room predicting Mother Warmth

Country	Predictor	B	95% CI	<i>B</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>p</i>
Germany	Overall	1.836	[3.02; 6.67]	-	-	.004**
	Privacy	0.513	[0.10; 0.93]	0.245	2.473	.015*
	Own room	-1.002	[-1.96; -0.04]	0.205	2.070	.041*
Turkey	Overall	5.143	[4.31; 7.04]	-	-	.509
	Privacy	0.206	[-0.18; 0.58]	0.116	1.071	.287
	Own room	0.115	[-0.68; 0.22]	0.056	0.516	.607

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Results of the multiple linear regression indicate that there is a collective significant effect between the variables Privacy, Own room and Mother Warmth for German adolescents ($F(2,93)=5.766, p=.004, R^2=.112$). The individual predictors were examined further and analysis shows that both Privacy ($t(1,93)=2.473, p=.015$) and Own room ($t(1,93)=2.070, p=.041$) were significant predictors in the model.

On the other hand, the same analysis for the Turkish population reveals neither a significant effect for the overall model ($F(2,86)=0.988, p=.377, R^2=.022$) nor for the single predictors Privacy ($t(1,86)=1.071, p=.287$) and Own room ($t(1,86)=-0.516, p=.607$).

4.2.22. HYPOTHESIS 4

The fourth hypothesis states that privacy and having their own room has a positive relationship with warmth in the parent-child-relationship for German adolescents, but for Turkish adolescents having an own room has no such specific relationship on warmth in the parent-child-relationship. In order to test this hypothesis a multiple linear regression with Mother Autonomy Support as dependent variable and Privacy and Own room as independent variables was conducted.

Table 12. Multiple Regression analysis summary for Privacy and Own room predicting Mother Autonomy Support

Country	Predictor	B	95% CI	<i>B</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>p</i>
Germany	Overall	1.485	[-0.44; 3.41]	-	-	.001**
	Privacy	0.567	[0.21; 0.93]	0.304	3.131	.002**
	Own room	0.925	[0.09; 1.76]	0.213	2.191	.031*
Turkey	Overall	4.392	[3.05; 5.73]	-	-	.305
	Privacy	0.272	[-0.09; 0.64]	0.161	1.494	.139
	Own room	0.105	[-0.32; 0.53]	0.053	0.496	.621

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Results of the multiple linear regression indicates that there is a collective significant effect between the variables Privacy, Own room and Mother Autonomy Support for the German adolescents ($F(2,91)=8.066, p=.001, R^2=.151$). The

individual predictors were examined further and analysis shows that both Privacy ($t(1,92)=3.131, p=.002$) and Own room ($t(1,92)=2.191, p=.031$) are significant predictors in the model.

On the other hand, the same analysis for the Turkish population reveals neither a significant effect for the overall model with Mother Autonomy Support as an outcome ($F(2,84)=1.205, p=.305, R^2=.028$) nor for the single predictors Privacy ($t(1,84)=1.494, p=.139$) and Own room ($t(1,84)=0.496, p=.621$).

In conclusion, the data supports all four hypotheses.



CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1. SUMMARY

All in all the results of the study indicate a confirmation of the hypotheses.

To begin with, the descriptive variables show that the two populations are comparable on a socioeconomic level. This is important in advance to exclude common confounding variables as economic situation or education often influences the results.

Nevertheless, in one SES variable a significant difference between the groups was found. The only significant difference between the groups in this data is mother education. In both populations, there are many mothers with a degree from Lise/Gymnasium or a university degree, although in the Turkish population many mothers have no degree or a primary school degree. In this aspect, it is noteworthy that the German and Turkish education systems are hard to compare. In Germany, it is very rare to receive no degree at all and not possible to have a primary school degree after only five years, which is why it did not make sense to compare the parents based on years of education. Still, most of the German mothers in the sample have a degree from Realschule, which is the second lowest degree in Germany. Therefore, it is necessary to keep in mind that even while the mothers in the present study are comparable in distribution of high and low education, the Turkish population still includes more uneducated mothers compared to the German population in the present study.

Statistically speaking, the total number of participants is sufficient. With the German population including ten participants more than the Turkish population, the sample size is roughly the same. Yet, it is challenging for the statistical analysis that the participants had the chance to skip questions in case they were not able to answer some of the items. For that reason, the sample sizes for subtests happen to be lower. Furthermore, the questionnaire included a large amount of questions and it took around 30 minutes or more to answer everything. This is why some participants quit towards the end.

Many of the scales used in this study needed to be translated from English into German and Turkish. Native speakers of both languages helped to achieve that via the back-translation method. This is why it is important to check the reliability of these translated items before making any further in-depth analysis. The reliability analysis shows good results with Cronbach alpha results being generally high across the scales. This is important for two reasons: First, it proves consistency of answers in the present study and second, it shows that the translations of the several scales have been successful.

The *Privacy Scale* in this study was built together out of two scales from two different research groups, namely from the Parental Control subscale from Stattin & Kerr (2000) and the Perceived Intrusiveness subscale of *LEE* (Cole & Kazarian, 1988). Initial worries that these two scales might be hard to combine turn out needless because reliability with Cronbach's $\alpha=.84$ for Germany and Cronbach's $\alpha=.80$ for Turkey is good. The scales originate in different decades with research groups from different countries, USA and Sweden, as well as different purposes. While Stattin & Kerr (2000) were interested in parent-child-relationships during adolescence, Cole & Kazarian (1988) were interested in a scale describing the

emotional climate of a relationship between two persons, originally in a clinical setting. Western researcher groups created both scales, which is why there was a chance that they are not suitable for a Turkish sample. Indeed, the Turkish population in this study shows lower but still high reliability.

This in turn does not just mean that the combination of the scales in order to create a *Privacy Scale* for adolescents was prosperous but also that the translation into German and Turkish carries the meaning of the scale.

A factor analysis that was carried out additionally to test further variability of the *Privacy Scale* revealed three factors (Parental Control, Parental Invasion and Parental Knowledge) that in total explain 64.3% of the variance. These factors can be associated with factors in the original scales and make sense when it comes to describing privacy of adolescents concerning their relationship with their parents. It is therefore possible to use this scale in other studies concerning privacy of adolescents and it would be interesting to test it in other cultures as well.

The variable Crowdedness gathered the number of people that live in the home with the adolescents. This item was included because in Turkey there are possibly larger families than in Germany. This data finds no such difference, which is probably because both samples come from an urban background and therefore have similar living conditions. The same holds true for the variable Retreat, as the participants from both groups come from similar backgrounds they live under similar conditions and as a result have similar feelings about having an area of retreat. Although, it should be noted in this context that there is a group difference in having an own room with German adolescents having an own room more often than Turkish adolescents. That means that Turkish adolescents might have other areas of retreat or think differently about what an area of retreat is.

The *Children's Perception of their Parents* scale (*POPS*; Grolnick, Ryan & Deci, 1991) is an established scale to measure the parent-child-relationship and is widely used among teenage populations. This scale originates in Self-Determination Theory (SDT), which is a very Western concept, but an adaptation into Turkish already existed. High Cronbach's α affirm both a successful translation into German and the previously good results of the Turkish translation. This is a pleasing result because it means that this translation of *POPS* is suitable in German populations.

Even though the *Autonomy-Relatedness Scale* by Kağıtçıbaşı (2005) was excluded from the main analysis, it was very insightful to use it in the first place. As Kağıtçıbaşı's construct does not come from a place of culture in the sense of arbitrary boundaries of countries but from the place of the self, it is beneficial for the present study to see that the scale reveals very high Cronbach's α for both populations. This finding is even above reliability from the initial research by Kağıtçıbaşı, which only proves that this scale is very useful for research with different cultures. Moreover, it confirms that these two populations are comparable in the sense of self-construal that indirectly means that the adolescents from both countries come from a similar background.

The *Depressive Mood Scale* by Kandel & Davies (1982) is a rather old scale yet widely used and very viable because of its shortness. The scale with its translations into both languages shows good and acceptable reliability with sufficient reliability. Nevertheless, the reliability for Turkish adolescents lies clearly underneath the one for German adolescents. As this scale was created by Western researchers and originally for an adult population, it might not be fully applicable for Turkish adolescents.

Overall, the reliability analysis confirms that these scales are applicable for the adolescent populations of both cultures as well as that the translation was successfully.

In the next step, group analyses were conducted in order to find out whether there are any differences at all between the groups. The difficulty here was that some of the variables are not easy to compare because they were measured on different scales. For example, the variables in the *Privacy Scale* were measured on a 5-point Likert-scale while the variable Own room is based on a 3-point ordinal scale. It is definitely a weakness of this study that the variable Own room was treated as an interval scaled variable in order to be included into the multiple regression analysis. For future research it should be taken into account from the beginning that interval scaled variables are needed.

It is interesting that the group analyses showed no significant difference on several parent-child-relationship variables as well as autonomy-relatedness. It would have been interesting to compare the father-child-relationship between the countries but as there was no significant group difference, it makes no sense to do any further analysis with it. This result could be due to the fact that fathers seem to be less involved in the children's upbringing than mothers are. The POPS mother variables were then used as indicator variables for the mother-child-relationship.

The insignificant group difference of the autonomy-relatedness scale in a way confirms that the two populations are comparable on levels of the self and SES. Cultural differences are often found to be differences in SES and the fact that Kağıtçıbaşı's approach shows no difference between the groups confirms that the adolescents of both populations have similar views of themselves. SES does not confound that view.

Lastly, the regression analysis was conducted with the aim of finding out if the extent of privacy predicts Mother Involvement, Mother Warmth and Depression as an outcome differently depending on the groups. The hypotheses claim that the Turkish adolescents might be able to deal with less privacy better than the German population does. Indeed, the results of the regression analyses show exactly that.

Both the overall models as well as the models for the two predictors Privacy and Own room are significant for Mother Warmth and Depression in the German population but not in the Turkish population. The overall model for Mother Involvement as dependent variable was significant with the two predictors Privacy and Own room in the German population, but not in the Turkish population.

A look at the means of the *Privacy Scale* shows that the Turkish population exhibits lower values than the German one, indicating that Turkish adolescents express to have less privacy than the German ones. In addition, Turkish adolescents more often do not have an own room or need to share it with siblings compared to the German population. Importantly though, the overall low values of the *Privacy Scale* in the Turkish population does not predict the overall lower values in Mother Warmth, Mother Involvement and Depression while it does in the German population.

5.2. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESULTS

In the framework of CPM, Petronio (2013) describes privacy rules that fulfill the demand of the adolescent's need for autonomy are necessary in healthy family relations. The present study confirms that high privacy values go along with a positive relationship with mothers. At least in the German population this relationship showed significant results, although the relationship in the Turkish population also showed a positive tendency. A longitudinal study with Dutch

teenagers found that especially between the ages of 15 and 16 years old perceived privacy invasion is accompanied with problems in parent-child-relationship (Hawk, Keijsers, Hale & Meeus, 2009).

The results also prove that the growing need for autonomy of adolescents has to be met with privacy rules across cultures, even if specific cultures have specific needs. A study by Sinha & Nayyar (2000) of elderly people in India showed that elderly people living in high-density households reduced their requirements for personal space because they appreciate the social support that comes along with crowding.

Studies from Western populations show that perceived privacy invasion by parents can trigger conflicts. Another Dutch study with adolescents found that an increase in secrecy of adolescents goes along with a poorer parent-child relationship (Keijsers et al., 2010). Stattin & Kerr (2000) in their study with Swedish adolescents also conclude that parental monitoring behaviors are not beneficial for a positive parent-child-relationship.

The present study confirms these findings. It seems that for adolescents in Western countries higher privacy norms are important for the parent-child-relationship, as in this study the relationship between perceived privacy by German adolescents and Mother Warmth and Mother Involvement was positive and significant. The same relationship was not significant for Turkish adolescents, which might not just be sign of a higher tolerance for crowdedness or intrusiveness by parents, but that lesser privacy rules serve a function in Turkish culture. Like Rustemli & Kokdemir (1993) have stated that there is a high desire for social interaction in Turkish society and it makes sense that it also shows in mother-child-relationship.

This still does not mean that Turkish adolescents do not desire autonomy. CPM states that privacy boundaries rules are based on autonomy desires by the individuals in a family, and this holds true for both populations in the presents study. Autonomy is a developmental task for adolescents across cultures (Hurrelmann & Quenzel, 2018). Results of the A-R scale show no difference between the two groups examined in this study. This only allows the conclusion that both Turkish adolescents desire autonomy just as German adolescents do and that German adolescents desire relatedness just as Turkish adolescents do. It will be beneficial for future cross-cultural studies about privacy to run along the A-R scale.

Moreover, the results of the present study show a negative relationship between perceived privacy by adolescents and depressive symptoms. Although this relationship was only significant for the German population, but not for the Turkish one. Other studies from Western populations have showed a similar relationship. For example, studies of Dutch teenagers have found a connection between adolescent's secrecy and depressive mood (Finkenauer, Engels, & Meeus, 2002; Frijns, Finkenauer, Vermulst & Engels, 2005). In addition, Evans, Lepore & Allen (2000) have showed negative effects of crowding on psychological health among White Americans, African Americans, Vietnamese Americans and Mexican Americans. There is no similar study for an Eastern culture, but the results of the present study suggest the same explanation as for the relationship between privacy and mother-child-relationship. For German adolescents, perceived privacy is beneficial when it comes to depressive mood. The same relationship seems to be present for Turkish adolescents as the multiple regression shows the same direction of the variables for this population, this certainly only holds true to a lesser extent.

It is a question in how far the relationship between all variables is more interconnected. The adolescent's need for privacy is certainly a reason why less privacy can lead to depressive mood and in turn, a negative relationship to their parents will influence the psychological health of an adolescent as well.

One interesting result is that the group difference analysis of this study shows no significant result for father variables but for mother variables. A reason for this could be that fathers in both cultures are less involved in the upbringing of their adolescents than mothers are. As SES group comparison showed no difference between German and Turkish fathers, it makes sense to assume that they apply similar child bearing practices.

A more specified scale than *POPS* might show a difference all the same and this is an interesting topic for future research. Hechler, Beijers, Riksen-Walraven, & De Weerth (2019), for example, found that prenatal care giving behavior towards a crying simulator predicted the quality in care giving after birth in mothers and fathers across cultures. Nevertheless, this research group also worried that fathers have less practice with child caring practices. This is an environmental factor. Although fathers can take care of babies if they have the chance, cultural circumstances may often predict that fathers are not very involved. In accordance with this, Curtiss et al. (2019) report that the role of the father as a provider for the family is dominant in most cultures. Interestingly, fathers themselves indicate that the reason why they are less involved in child bearing than mothers is due to cultural barriers.

5.3. LIMITATIONS

The main limitation of this study is that the data is based on self-assessment and that these results are quantitative as there was no experimental intervention.

In general, the online questionnaire contains danger of imprecision. This is because the participants answer the items anytime and anywhere they want. On the one hand, this is an advantage because online measurement that is available on the phone is very suitable for adolescents. On the other hand, there is no way to control whether the participants pay enough attention to the questions. Furthermore, they have no immediate chance to ask for clarification if they do not understand a question. In spite of everything, reliability analysis does not indicate any problems. The participants also had a chance to give feedback in the end but abstained from doing so.

In this sense, this study serves as an interesting addition to the longitudinal studies that already exist because this study can produce self-assessments of adolescents. While self-assessment is on the one hand a limitation, it is on the other hand also an advantage. The anonymous questionnaire gave adolescents the opportunity to answer questions about the sensitive subjects of privacy and relationship with their parents freely and without pressure.

In order to control for biases in SES differences, the selection of the participants happened with the help of teachers. Although teachers sent the link to the online questionnaire specifically to their students, the questionnaire was still public. The students were able and asked to distribute the URL link to friends and family members as well. This way it is hard to track back if all of the participants came from an urban area. Nevertheless, statistical analysis could not detect a substantial SES difference between the groups. Next time it would be more thorough to ask for permission to hand out the questionnaires in school directly for the students to answer the questionnaire in pen and paper, so that the selection of participants happens more carefully.

Another bias could be that especially in the German population, many participants have an immigrant background. Although Turkish-German participants were specifically excluded from the data, there are still participants in the German study who have parents from other parts of the world. Actually, there is no way to define what would constitute “a real” German background coupled with the fact that a large percentage of juveniles in big cities of Germany have an immigrant background, it is impossible to exclude these participants. In future research, it would be especially interesting to include Turkish-German adolescents as a third group.

Another limitation of this study is certainly the fact that the sample size, although sufficient, could still be larger in order to make better predictions, maybe even a prospective longitudinal study. Statistically it messes with the data that the different variables in the study were measured on different scales.

5.4. FUTURE RESEARCH ON THE SUBJECT

First, it would be very interesting to take a closer look at Baumrind’s parenting styles (1967) in the future. The results of this study insinuate just along with theories like CPM and SDT that during adolescence autonomy needs should be met with parent’s trying to use less control on their children. This is challenging when it comes to the level of control in Baumrind’s theory of parenting styles. Nonetheless, the positive relationship between Privacy and Mother Warmth and Privacy and Mother Involvement shows that a positive emotional relationship as well as an engaging relationship are important for the adolescent’s wellbeing. This makes it possible to hypothesize that a parenting style that is consisted on rules as well as warmth is beneficial in privacy matters as well.

Second, gender of adolescents and parents should be included as a control variable because research has shown that gender of the parent as well as gender of

the child makes a difference in privacy matters. For example, parental monitoring had a stronger effect on boys while trust had a stronger effect on girls in preventing adolescent's health risk behavior (Borawski, Ievers-Landis, Lovegreen & Trapl, 2003). Likewise, Keijsers et al. (2010) have found out that boys started keeping secrets from parents much earlier than girls did. Additionally, the linkage between secrecy and poor parental-child-relationship was significantly smaller for boys than for girls.

Furthermore, Hawk et al. (2013) have found a mediating role of mothers but not of fathers in their model of privacy invasion and parental knowledge. For example, mother's perception of adolescent's secrecy mediated the association between adolescent-reported secrecy and maternal knowledge. In general, mothers share closer relationships to adolescents than fathers do which is why children disclose more to them leading to different quantity of father's and mother's parental knowledge (Hawk, Keijsers, Hale & Meeus, 2009; Hawk et al., 2013).

Although it is hard to influence privacy matters of adolescents, especially in a natural setting, it would be interesting to conduct an experimental setting of the subject matter. Maybe it would be possible to divide adolescents into two or more groups and put one group under stricter privacy rules than the other. Furthermore, prospective longitudinal studies on the subject matter would give a great insight. It would be interesting to repeat the exact same scale of *Privacy* at different age points, for instance four times from the ages of 14 and 18 to measure the development of the effect of privacy on parent-child-relationship and depression.

5.5. PROSPECT

The present studies has given interesting insights into how similar and different at the same time German and Turkish adolescents tend to be. In times of

social media and an interconnecting world, privacy matters gain increasing importance amongst adolescence which is why it needs to be addressed further in future studies.



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APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

Fragebogen über Privatsphäre

Von Maxi Gülay

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Willkommen zum Fragebogen!

Was verstehen deutsche und türkische Jugendliche unter Privatsphäre? Im Rahmen meiner Masterarbeit im Bereich cross-kulturelle Entwicklungspsychologie an der Yaşar University, İzmir, suche ich Antworten auf diese Fragen.

Deine Daten werden vertraulich behandelt und bleiben anonym.

Bitte beantworte dazu die folgenden Fragen so ehrlich wie möglich. Falls einige Fragen nicht auf dich zutreffen, lass sie einfach aus. Der Fragebogen dauert ca. 30 Minuten.

Ich erkläre mich bereit, teilzunehmen.

- Ja
- Nein

Bist du zwischen 14 und 18 Jahren alt?

- Ja
- Nein

Lebst du in Deutschland oder der Türkei?

- Ja
- Nein

APPENDIX B

Özel Hayat Anketi

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İletişim adresi: maxi.guelay@gmail.com

Ankete hoşgeldiniz!

Türk ve alman gençlerinin özel hayat anlayışı nedir? Yaşar Üniversitesi kültürler arası gelişimsel psikoloji alanında hazırladığım yüksek lisans tezim için, bu soruya cevaplar arıyoruz.

Cevaplarınız güvenilir veri olarak kabul edilecektir. Anketi cevaplayan kişinin kimliği gizli kalacaktır.

Lütfen soruları dürüstçe cevaplayınız. Sizin için uygun olmayan soruları lütfen cevaplamayınız. Anketi cevaplamak 30 dakikanızı alacaktır. Zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederim.

Katılmak istiyorum.

- Evet
- Hayır

14 – 18 yaş arasındasınız?

- Evet
- Hayır

Almanya’da yada Türkiye’de oturuyor musunuz?

- Evet
- Hayır

APPENDIX C

Soziodemographische Daten

Alter:
Geschlecht: <input type="checkbox"/> männlich <input type="checkbox"/> weiblich

Eigene Nationalität:

Herkunft der Mutter:

Herkunft des Vaters:

(Mehr als eine Antwort ist möglich.)

Deutsch

Deutsch

Deutsch

Türkisch

Türkisch

Türkisch

Andere: _____

Andere: _____

Andere:

Was ist das monatliche Einkommen deiner Familie?

- < 1.000 €
- 1.000-3.000 €
- 3.000-5.000 €
- 5.000-10.000 €
- > 10.000 €
- Ich weiß es nicht.

Was ist der höchste Bildungsabschluss deiner Mutter?

- Kein Abschluss
- Hauptschule
- Realschule
- Abitur
- Universität

Was ist der höchste Bildungsabschluss deines Vaters?

- Kein Abschluss
- Hauptschule
- Realschule
- Abitur

- Universität

Welchen Beruf hat deine Mutter? _____

Welchen Beruf hat dein Vater? _____

Wie viele Geschwister hast du? Ich habe _____ Geschwister

Wie lautet der Beziehungsstatus deiner Eltern?

- verheiratet
- in einer Beziehung, aber nicht verheiratet
- geschieden
- getrennt

APPENDIX D

Sozioekonomik veriler

Yaşınız:
Cinsiyetiniz: <input type="checkbox"/> kadın <input type="checkbox"/> erkek

Uyruğunuz:

Annenizin uyruğu:

Babanızın uyruğu:

(Birden fazla seçeneği işaretleyebilirsiniz.)

Türk

Türk

Türk

Alman

Alman

Alman

Diğer: _____

Diğer: _____

Diğer: _____

Ailenizin aylık geliri nedir?

< 1.500 TL

1.500-4.500 TL

4.500-7.500 TL

7.500-10.000 TL

< 10.000 TL

Bilmiyorum

Annenizin eğitim seviyesi nedir?

Babanızın eğitim seviyesi nedir?

İlkokul bitirmedi

İlkokul bitirmedi

İlkokul

İlkokul

Ortaokul

Ortaokul

Meslek Lisesi

Meslke Lisesi

Lise

Lise

Üniversite

Üniversite

Annenizin mesleği nedir? _____

Babanızın mesleği nedir? _____

Kaç kardeşiniz var? _____

Anne- babanızın medeni hali nedir?

- Evli
- Birlikte fakat evli değil
- Boşanmış
- Ayrı yaşıyorlar



APPENDIX E

Privatsphäre

Wie viele Personen leben in deinem Zuhause? _____

Ich habe mein eigenes Zimmer. ja nein

Ich teile mir ein Zimmer mit Geschwistern. ja nein

Ich habe einen Rückzugsort.

- Nie
- Selten
- Manchmal
- Meistens
- Immer

	Nie	Selten	Manchmal	Meistens	Immer
Im Allgemeinen vertrauen mir meine Eltern.					
Meine Eltern müssen alles über mich wissen.					
Ich brauche die Erlaubnis meiner Eltern, um tagsüber rauszugehen.					
Ich brauche die Erlaubnis meiner Eltern, um nachts rauszugehen.					
Meine Eltern wollen					

wissen, was ich tagsüber draußen mache.					
Meine Eltern wollen wissen, was ich nachts draußen mache.					
Meine Eltern wollen wissen, mit dem ich befreundet bin.					
Meine Eltern verlangen, dass ich mit ihnen Rücksprache halte.					
Meine Eltern durchsuchen meine persönlichen Sachen.					
Meine Eltern bestimmen, welche Anzihsachen ich anziehen soll.					
Meine Eltern mischen sich in meine Angelegenheiten ein.					
Meine Eltern stellen viele persönliche Fragen.					

APPENDIX F

Özel hayat

Evinizde toplam kaç kişi yaşıyor (sen hariç)? _____

Kendi odam var. evet hayır

Evdeki odamı kardeşlerimle paylaşıyorum. evet hayır

	Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Çoğunlukla	Her zaman
Kendi köşem çekilebileceğim bir alanım var.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Çoğunlukla	Her zaman
Anne-babam genel olarak bana güvenir.					
Anne-babam hakkımdaki her şeyi bilmek zorunda.					
Gün içinde dışarı çıkmak için anne-babamdan izin almam gerekir.					
Akşamları dışarı çıkmak için anne-babamdan izin almam gerekir.					
Anne-babam gün içinde dışarı çıktığımda ne yaptığımı bilmek ister.					
Anne-babam akşam dışarı çıktığımda ne yaptığımı bilmek ister.					

Anne-babam kimlerle arkadaşlık yaptığımı bilmek ister.					
Anne-babam onlara yapıp ettiklerimi bildirmemi ister.					
Anne-babam kişisel eşyalarımı karıştırır.					
Anne-babam bana hangi kıyafetleri giymem gerektiğini söyler.					
Anne-babam benim işlerime burnunu sokar.					
Anne-babam çok fazla kişisel soru sorar.					

APPENDIX G

Wahrnehmung Kinder ihrer Eltern (POPS)

Beantworte bitte diese Fragen über deine Mutter.

	Stimmt gar nicht	Stimmt nicht	Stimmt eher nicht	Nicht richtig, nicht falsch	Stimme eher zu	Stimmt	Stimmt voll und ganz
01. Meine Mutter spürt, wie ich mich fühle.							
02. Meine Mutter versucht mir vorzuschreiben, wie ich mein Leben führen soll.							
03. Meine Mutter nimmt sich Zeit, um mit mir zu reden.							
04. Meine Mutter akzeptiert und mag mich so, wie ich bin.							
05. Meine Mutter erlaubt mir, wann immer möglich, Dinge zu entscheiden.							
06. Meine Mutter scheint nicht sehr oft an mich zu denken.							
07. Meine Mutter vermittelt mir deutlich ihre Liebe.							
08. Meine Mutter hört sich meine Meinung oder Perspektive an, wenn ich ein Problem habe.							
09. Meine Mutter verbringt viel Zeit mit mir.							
10. Meine Mutter gibt mir das Gefühl, etwas Besonderes zu sein.							
11. Meine Mutter erlaubt mir, selber Entscheidungen zu treffen.							
12. Meine Mutter ist zu beschäftigt, um sich um mich zu kümmern.							
13. Meine Mutter ist oft missbilligend und intolerant mir gegenüber.							
14. Meine Mutter besteht darauf, dass ich meine Sache so mache, wie sie es möchte.							
15. Meine Mutter interessiert sich nicht sonderlich für meine Sorgen.							

16. Meine Mutter freut sich normalerweise, mich zu sehen.							
17. Meine Mutter ist meistens bereit, Dinge von meinem Standpunkt aus zu betrachten.							
18. Meine Mutter verwendet Zeit und Energie, um mir zu helfen.							
19. Meine Mutter hilft mir dabei, meine eigene Richtung einzuschlagen.							
20. Meine Mutter scheint oft enttäuscht von mir zu sein.							
21. Meine Mutter geht nicht sehr sensibel auf meine Bedürfnisse ein.							

Beantworte bitte diese Fragen zu deinem Vater.

	Stimmt gar nicht	Stimmt nicht	Stimmt eher nicht	Nicht richtig, nicht falsch	Stimme eher zu	Stimmt	Stimmt voll und ganz
01. Mein Vater spürt, wie ich mich fühle.							
02. Mein Vater versucht mir vorzuschreiben, wie ich mein Leben führen soll.							
03. Mein Vater nimmt sich Zeit, um mit mir zu reden.							
04. Mein Vater akzeptiert und mag mich so, wie ich bin.							
05. Mein Vater erlaubt mir, wann immer möglich, Dinge zu entscheiden.							
06. Mein Vater scheint nicht sehr oft an mich zu denken.							
07. Mein Vater vermittelt mir deutlich seine Liebe.							
08. Mein Vater hört sich meine Meinung oder Perspektive an, wenn ich ein Problem habe.							
09. Mein Vater verbringt viel Zeit mit mir.							

10. Mein Vater gibt mir das Gefühl, etwas Besonderes zu sein.							
11. Mein Vater erlaubt mir, selber Entscheidungen zu treffen.							
12. Mein Vater ist zu beschäftigt, um sich um mich zu kümmern.							
13. Mein Vater ist oft missbilligend und intolerant mir gegenüber.							
14. Mein Vater besteht darauf, dass ich meine Sache so mache, wie er es möchte.							
15. Mein Vater interessiert sich nicht sonderlich für meine Sorgen.							
16. Mein Vater freut sich normalerweise, mich zu sehen.							
17. Mein Vater ist meistens bereit, Dinge von meinem Standpunkt aus zu betrachten.							
18. Mein Vater verwendet Zeit und Energie, um mir zu helfen.							
19. Mein Vater hilft mir dabei, meine eigene Richtung einzuschlagen.							
20. Mein Vater ist oft enttäuscht von mir.							
21. Mein Vater geht nicht sehr sensibel auf meine Bedürfnisse ein.							

APPENDIX H

POPS Turkish

Lütfen aşağıda annenizin hakkındaki soruları cevaplayınız...

	Tamamen Yanlıs	Nadiren Yanlıs	Kısmen Yanlıs	Ne Doğru Ne Yanlıs	Nadiren Doğru	Kısmen Doğru	Tamamen Doğru
Annem, herhangi bir konuda benim neler hissettiğimi anlar.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Annem, bana sıklıkla nasıl bir yaşam sürdürmem gerektiğini anlatır.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Annem benimle konuşmak için zaman ayırır.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Annem beni olduğum gibi kabul eder ve sever.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Annem mümkün oldukça kendi seçimlerimi yapmama izin verir.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Annemin beni çok fazla düşünmediği kanısındayım.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Annem bana olan sevgisini açıkça ifade eder.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Herhangi bir sorun yaşadığımda annem benim düşüncelerimi ve görüşlerimi dinler.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Annem benimle birlikte olmak için yeterince zaman ayırır.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Annem bana kendimi özel hissettirir.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Annem kendim için kararlar almama izin verir.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Annem genellikle benimle ilgilenmeyecek kadar meşguldür.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Annem, genellikle benim düşünceleri mi kabul etmez ve onaylamaz.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Annem, bir şeyi onun istediği şekilde yapmam konusunda ısrarcı davranır.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Annem, yaşadığım sorunlarla pek ilgili değildir.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Annem, genellikle beni gördüğünde mutlu olur.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Annem, genellikle benim bakış açımdan olaylara bakmaya çalışır.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Annem, bana yardımcı olmak için zaman ve enerji harcar.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Annem, kendi kararlarımı almamda bana yardımcı olur.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Annemin benimle ilgili hayal kırıklığı yaşadığını düşünüyorum.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Annem, benim birçok ihtiyacıma yeterince duyarlı değildir.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Şimdi, lütfen aşağıda babanızın hakkındaki soruları cevaplayınız...

	Tamamen Yanlış	Nadiren Yanlış	Kısmen Yanlış	Ne Doğru Ne Yanlış	Nadiren Doğru	Kısmen Doğru	Tamamen Doğru
Babam, herhangi bir konuda benim neler hissettiğimi anlar.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Babam, bana sıklıkla nasıl bir yaşam sürdürmem gerektiğini anlatır.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Babam benimle konuşmak için zaman ayırır.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Babam beni olduğum gibi kabul eder ve sever.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Babam mümkün oldukça kendi seçimlerimi yapmama izin verir.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Babamın beni çok fazla düşünmediği kanısındayım.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Babam bana olan sevgisini açıkça ifade eder.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Herhangi bir sorun yaşadığımda babam benim düşüncelerimi ve görüşlerimi dinler.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Babam benimle birlikte olmak için yeterince zaman ayırır.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Babam bana kendimi özel hissettirir.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Babam kendim için kararlar almama izin verir.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Babam genellikle benimle ilgilenmeyecek kadar meşguldür.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Babam, genellikle benim düşünceleri mi kabul etmez ve onaylamaz.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Babam, bir şeyi onun istediği şekilde yapmam konusunda ısrarcı davranır.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Babam, yaşadığım sorunlarla pek ilgili değildir.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Babam, genellikle beni gördüğünde mutlu olur.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Babam, genellikle benim bakış açımdan olaylara bakmaya çalışır.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Babam, bana yardımcı olmak için zaman ve enerji harcar.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Babam, kendi kararlarımı almamda bana yardımcı olur.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Babamın benimle ilgili hayal kırıklığı yaşadığını düşünüyorum.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Babam, benim birçok ihtiyacıma yeterince duyarlı değildir.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

APPENDIX I

Autonomie und Verbundenheit

In diesem Teil finden sich Aussagen, die sich auf dich und deine (familiären/freundschaftlichen Beziehungen beziehen. Bitte gebe deine persönliche Meinung zu diesen Aussagen an, indem du auf der angegebenen Skala jeweils ein Kästchen ankreuzt.

	Stimme gar nicht zu	Stimme eher nicht zu	Teils teils	Stimme eher zu	Stimme absolut zu	Stimme absolut zu
01. Ich vertraue darauf, dass ich selber Dinge erledigen kann.						
02. Ich kann meine eigenen Entscheidungen treffen.						
03. Selbst wenn ich Meinungen von anderen mit einbeziehe, sind meine Entscheidungen meine eigenen.						
04. Ich übernehme Verantwortung für meine Entscheidungen.						
05. Ich habe meine eigenen Prinzipien.						
06. Ich kann leicht Entscheidungen treffen.						
07. Ich treffe meine eigenen Entscheidungen.						
08. Ich handle in Einklang mit meinen Entscheidungen.						
09. Ich kann meine Probleme überwinden.						
10. Ich bestimme mein eigenes Schicksal.						
11. Es ist wichtig für mein Wohlbefinden mit mir nahen Personen zusammen zu sein.						
12. Mir bereitet es Freude, mit Menschen, die mir nahstehen, Zeit zu verbringen.						
13. Ich fühle mich gut, wenn ich mit anderen um mich herum kooperiere.						

14. Ich wohne gerne nah bei den Menschen, die mir nahe stehen.						
15. Wenn ich zu jemanden eine Verbindung fühle, dann fühlt es sich so an, als sei diese Person ein wichtiger Bestandteil von dem, was ich bin.						
16. Wenn jemand einer Person, die mir nahe steht, weh tut, dann bin auch ich persönlich verletzt.						
17. Meine Beziehungen zu anderen, die mir nahe stehen, geben mir ein friedvolles und sicheres Gefühl.						
18. Was mir nahe stehende Personen glücklich macht, macht mich auch glücklich.						
19. Ich Sorge mich um persönliche Angelegenheiten von anderen.						
20. Ich fühle mich dafür verantwortlich, mit anderen in meiner Umgebung eine gute Beziehung zu führen.						

APPENDIX J

Autonomy-Relatedness

Aşağıdaki ifadeler hakkındaki düşüncelerinizi söyleyin...

	Kesinli kle katımı	Katıl- mıyoru	Kararsı zım	Katıl- yorum	Kesinli kle
İşleri yapabileceğime inanırım.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Aldığım kararları gerçekleştirebilirim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Etrafımdaki kişilerin fikirlerini dikkate alsam da, kararlarım kendime aittir.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kararlarımın sorumluluğunu üstlenirim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kendi ilkelerim vardır.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kolayca seçim yapabilirim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kendi kararlarımı kendim veririm.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tercihlerime uygun olarak hareket ederim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Problemlerimin üstesinden gelebilirim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kendi kaderimi kendim belirlerim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Bana yakın insanlarla birlikte olmak mutluluğum için önemlidir.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Bana yakın insanlarla vakit geçirmek benim için keyiftir.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Etrafımdaki insanlarla işbirliği içinde olunca iyi hissederim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Bana yakın olan insanlara yakın bir yerde yaşamayı severim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Birisine yakın hissettiğim zaman, o kişi benliğimin önemli bir parçası gibidir.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Eğer birisi yakınım olan bir kişiyi üzerse, ben de kişisel olarak incitilmiş hissederim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Yakınlarımla olan ilişkilerim beni huzurlu ve güvende hissettirir.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Yakınlarımı mutlu eden şeyler beni de mutlu eder.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Etrafımdaki kişilerin kişisel sorunlarını önemserim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Etrafımdakilerle iyi ilişkilerimi sürdürme sorumluluğunu hissederim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

APPENDIX K

Kandel Depressive Mood Inventory

Wie oft hast du dich von Folgendem während des letzten Jahres beunruhigt oder bedrückt gefühlt? (Bitte eine Antwort pro Aussage ankreuzen.)

	GAR NICHT	ETWAS	VIEL
Sich zu müde fühlen, etwas zu tun			
Probleme haben, ein- oder durchzuschlafen			
Sich unglücklich, traurig oder deprimiert fühlen			
Hoffnungslos in die Zukunft sehen			
Nervös oder angespannt sein			
Sich zu viele Sorgen machen			

APPENDIX L

Depressive Mood Scale

Geçtiğimiz yıl boyunca ne kadar sıklıkla aşağıdaki durumlardan rahatsız oldunuz?
(Her madde için tek bir cevabı işaretleyiniz.).

	ASLA	ARA SIRA	SIKIKLA
Bir şey yapmak için çok yorgun hissetmek			
Uykuya dalmakta ya da uyumada zorlanmak			
Mutsuz, üzgün, morali bozuk hissetmek			
Gelecekle ilgili ümitsiz hissetmek			
Sinirli ya da gergin hissetmek			
Bazı konular hakkında çok endişelenme			