

AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE EFFECTS OF MOOD AND
AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL MEMORY ON RISK APPRAISAL IN ADOLESCENTS

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



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ABSTRACT

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Risk-taking behaviors and identity is two of the biggest concerns in adolescence and emerging adulthood. In the current study, risk-taking behaviors were focused in the frame of self-concept which is a crucial part of identity. The primary aim of the study was to investigate both direct relationship of the positive and negative self-concept via self-defining memories (SDM) on risk-taking behaviors and indirectly through risk appraisal while the mood after recalling these memories moderating these two relationships. Beside of the main aim, there were few research questions that the study investigated. The present study investigated predictive roles of sensation-seeking and impulsivity on risk-taking. Moreover, the differences between positive and negative SDMs in terms of phenomenological characteristics and the emotions were other research questions that were focused. The data was collected from 113 students whose age range was between 17 and 23 from different universities in Ankara, Turkey. The results showed that there is no relationship between SDM and risk-taking either directly or indirectly through risk appraisal. Moreover, the study did not find any relationship between mood and risk-taking. For research questions, the results showed that sensation-seeking is a better predictor than impulsivity. Furthermore, results showed that there are several differences between positive and negative SDM both in terms of phenomenological characteristics and emotions.

Keywords: Risk-taking, risk appraisal, self-defining memories, emerging adulthood, sensation-seeking

ÖZ

AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE EFFECTS OF MOOD AND AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL MEMORY ON RISK APPRAISAL IN ADOLESCENTS

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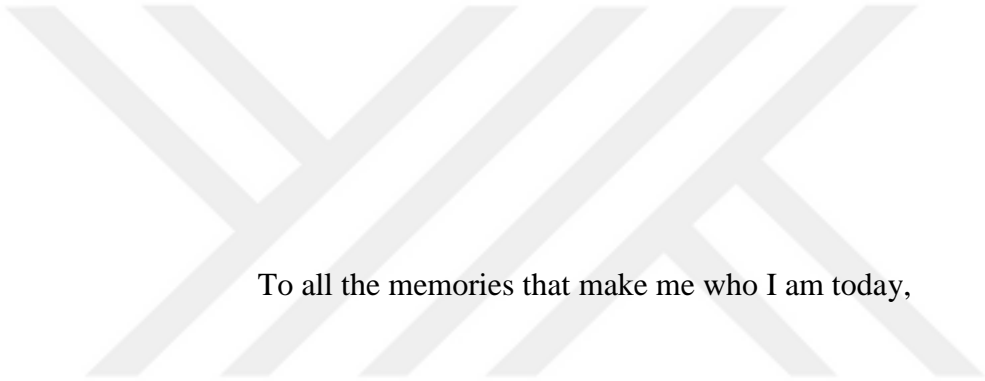
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Riskli davranışlar ve kimlik oluşumu ergenliğin ve beliren yetişkinlik dönemlerinin en mühim iki konusudur. Bu çalışmada, risk alma davranışları öz kimlikle yakından ilişkili olan benlik kavramı çerçevesinde ele alınmıştır. Çalışmanın birincil amacı olumlu ve olumsuz benlik kavramlarının risk alma davranışları üzerindeki etkisini hem doğrudan hem de risk algısı üzerinden dolaylı bir biçimde öztanımlayıcı anılar aracılığı ile incelenmesidir. Ayrıca, olumlu ve olumsuz öztanımlayıcı anıların hatırlanmasından sonra oluşacak duygudurumun benlik, risk alma davranışları ve risk algısı arasındaki ilişkiler üzerindeki moderatör rolü de araştırmanın birincil amaçlarındandır. Çalışmanın ana hipotezinin yanı sıra heyecan arayışı ve dürtüsellik risk alma üzerindeki yordayıcı rolü ve olumlu-olumsuz öztanımlayıcı anılarda fenomenolojik karakteristikler ve uyandırdığı duyguları ele alan araştırma soruları da incelenmiştir. Veriler yaşları 17 ile 23 arasında değişen Ankara'nın farklı üniversitelerinde okuyan 113 öğrenciden toplanmıştır. Çalışmanın bulgularına göre öztanımlayıcı anılar ile risk alma ve risk algısı arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmamaktadır. Literatürün aksine analiz sonuçlarına göre duygudurum ve risk alma davranışları arasında da bir ilişki bulunamamıştır. Ancak, araştırma sorularına odaklanan diğer analizlerin bulgularına göre heyecan arayışı risk alma davranışlarını yordamada dürtüsellikten daha iyi bir değişken olduğu ortaya çıkarılmıştır. Ayrıca, olumlu ve olumsuz öztanımlayıcı anılar karşılaştırıldığında bazı fenomenolojik karakteristikler ve duygular arasındaki anlamlı farklılıklar araştırmanın önemli bulgularındadır.

Keywords: Riskli davranışlar, risk algısı, öztanımlayıcı anılar, beliren yetişkinlik, heyecan arayışı



To all the memories that make me who I am today,

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

PLAGIARISM	II
ABSTRACT.....	v
ÖZ	vi
DEDICATION	VII
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	VIII
LIST OF FIGURES	XII
LIST OF TABLES	XIII
CHAPTER I.....	1
1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. ADOLESCENCE AND EMERGING ADULTHOOD	2
1.2. RISK-TAKING BEHAVIORS	6
1.3. RISK APPRAISAL.....	8
1.4. SELF-DEFINING MEMORY AND SELF-CONCEPT.....	9
1.5. MOOD	12
1.5.1. POSITIVE MOOD.....	13
1.5.2. NEGATIVE MOOD	14
1.6. IMPULSIVITY AND SENSATION-SEEKING.....	15
1.7. THE CURRENT STUDY.....	17
CHAPTER 2	20
2. METHOD	20

2.1.	PARTICIPANTS	20
2.2.	INSTRUMENTS.....	20
2.3.	PROCEDURE.....	24
CHAPTER 3		25
3.	RESULTS	25
3.1.	DATA ANALYSIS.....	25
3.2.	DATA EXCLUSION.....	25
3.3.	DEMOGRAPHICS	25
3.4.	CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE VARIABLES OF MAIN MODEL	27
3.5.	IMPULSIVITY AND SENSATION-SEEKING.....	29
3.6.	SELF-DEFINING MEMORIES AND MOOD	32
3.7.	PHENOMENOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF SELF-DEFINING MEMORIES	35
CHAPTER 4		39
4.	DISCUSSION	39
4.1.	RISK APPRAISAL AND RISK-TAKING	39
4.2.	SENSATION-SEEKING, IMPULSIVITY, RISK APPRAISAL AND RISK- TAKING	41
4.3.	SELF-DEFINING MEMORIES AND THE MOOD	43
4.4.	SELF-CONCEPT, SELF-DEFINING MEMORIES AND RISK-TAKING.....	45
4.5.	MOOD, RISK APPRAISAL AND RISK-TAKING	46
4.6.	PHENOMENOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF SDM AND RISK-TAKING	47
4.7.	LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY.....	49

4.8.	CLINICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE PRESENT STUDY	50
4.9.	SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES	51
	REFERENCES	52
	APPENDIX.....	63
A.	INFORMED CONSENT	63
B.	DEMOGRAPHICS FORM.....	64
C.	MOOD RATING	65
D.	POSITIVE SELF-DEFINING MEMORY TASK	66
E.	NEGATIVE SELF-DEFINING MEMORY TASK.....	67
F.	AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL MEMORY CHARACTERISTICS QUESTIONNAIRE	68
G.	RISK SCENARIOS	73
H.	BENTHIN RISK PERCEPTION MEASURE AND RISK-TAKING QUESTION..	75
I.	BARRATT IMPULSIVENESS SCALE	77
J.	BRIEF SENSATION SEEKING SCALE	79
K.	ETHICAL COMMITTEE APPROVAL.....	80
L.	THESIS COPY PERMISSION FORM	81

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Moderated Mediation Model of Risk-Taking, Risk Appraisal, Self-Defining Memory Valence and Mood	18
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LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Demographics of Participants	26
Table 2: Means, Standard Deviations and Bivariate Correlations between Measured Variables of the Study	28
Table 3: Unstandardized and Standardized Regression Coefficients	30
Table 4: Bivariate Correlations between Dimensions of Sensation Seeking, Risk Appraisal and Risk-Taking	31
Table 5: Unstandardized and Standardized Regression Coefficients	30
Table 6: Means, Standard Deviations and Paired T-test Scores of Mood and Six Emotions Before and After Positive Self-Defining Memory	33
Table 7: Means, Standard Deviations and Paired T-test Scores of Mood and Six Emotions Before and After Negative Self-Defining Memory	34
Table 8: Means, Standard Deviations and Independent T-test Scores of Memory Characteristics Comparing Positive and Negative Self-Defining Memory	36
Table 9: Bivariate Correlations of Phenomenological Characteristics of Negative and Positive Self-Defining Memory Groups	37

CHAPTER I

1. Introduction

The years spent from mid-adolescence to mid-twenties (the decade from the age of 14-15 to age of 24-25), are considered as a different era of human life due to its nature in many aspects. This period is different than the childhood which biological changes are the primary focus and also different than the adulthood which is relatively stable. Adolescents and emerging adults experience many changes and developments in terms of their biological and physiological structure, cognitive abilities and brain, self-concept and identity, family relations and peers, and cultural structure as well. Within favorable conditions, these changes may end up developing the youth into a well-functioning adult in school, social relationships and in occupational settings. Yet, adolescence may be a vulnerable period as well as it can be the phase of healthy transitions. In spite of increasing maturity in emerging adulthood, these changes and the transition process may lead the emerging adult to encounter risky situations more than the early years of adolescence. When the presence of the stronger will to be with peers than the family, the curiosity for new experiences, the need for autonomy, specific personality traits such as sensation-seeking or impulsivity and many more different personal, environmental or biological characteristics in adolescence and emerging adulthood are combined with unsafe climate and environment, the youth may result in committing risky behaviors (Conger & Galambos, 1997).

There are many more factors that may lead adolescents and emerging adults toward risk-taking behaviors. While some of the relationships between risk-taking and these factors are clearer in the literature, some of them are still in the shadows. Therefore, in the current study, we chose to study more ambivalent or unspoken aspects of risk-taking rather than the others. Thus, risk appraisal, autobiographical memories and the mood that are some of the controversial agents, is focused to explore their relationship with risk-taking in Turkish emerging adults' context.

1.1. Adolescence and Emerging Adulthood

Throughout the life span from womb to death, humans experience a common developmental pathway. These common pathway includes universal periods, milestones, processes, transitions that creates unique features of each individual. Most of these transitions and processes happens in the first two decades of life. Starting with infancy through early childhood, middle childhood and then pre-adolescence, adolescence, late adolescence/emerging adulthood phases and the transitions to and from these phases occupy these first two decades (Santrock, 2005). In the current study, our focus will be on the second decade of life through its connection to twenty-something years, which concerns adolescence through emerging adulthood within the context of risk-taking behaviors.

Adolescence is roughly starts around 10-12 years of age with certain biological changes as a sign of the beginning, however, where it ends is not that clear. In majority of the countries, after 18 years of age, individuals are counted as adults and they gain some rights such as buying alcohol, getting a driver license and voting, that is not allowed for under 18. However, in developmental science's perspective, the

age of 18 does not mean to be become an adult all of a sudden. The line between adulthood and adolescence is not as clear as it is between childhood and adolescence, because there is no certain markers such as biological and physiological changes at that point. The end of adolescence is determined culturally and it is more than a step to pass but rather a long journey between these two especially in the modern age. This journey, the time between 17-18 to 25 years of age, is defined as 'emerging adulthood' by Arnett (2000), which means that the individuals between those ages are neither adults nor adolescents and both. The main reason for the necessity for such a term is because the macrosystem and its related norms around today's individuals are different than in the past. With the changes in social norms throughout the couple decades before till today, the expectations from individuals between 18 and 25 have changed. In the past, the youth were starting working before 18 and getting married during early 20s or even before. Most of the people were having their first child before mid-twenties. Few people were attending college for 4-years of degree and for graduate studies and even fewer women were studying in the colleges back then. In today's world, however, marriage and parenthood is postponed toward late 20s and beyond. Since, most of the individual are studying until mid-twenties for 4-years-degree and even more for graduate studies, most people do not attempt to create a family on their own before their school ends and before finding a long-term job. Settling in a long-term job is whole another process that takes more time than the past because of economic instability and changing trends. Being an emerging adult brings uncertainty, struggle of making permanent decisions and anxiety of the future in the new age. All of these conditions and circumstances of the modern day creates an in-between phase for the young people (Arnett, 2004). Moreover, not only certain demographic characteristics such as marriage, long-term

jobs or parenthood, decide on who is adult and who is not, but also capabilities in different areas such as in terms of responsibilities, shifting between different roles, emotions and cognition are required for one to become fully adult according to emerging adults themselves (Arnett, 1994; 1997). In Arnett's study in 1994 and 1997, emerging adults think that most important things for adulthood are full economic independence, being responsible for own actions, independent decision-making and establishing an equal relationship as adults with parents rather than parent-child instead of cultural normative demographic necessities. However, most of the university students do not think that they are fully adults since they do not meet their own criteria to feel like as an adult (Arnett, 1994; 1997).

Emerging adulthood has 5 distinct features from other periods of life (Arnett, 2004). First, the individuals in emerging adulthood experience identity explorations especially in love life and occupational areas. Identity formation is mostly matched with adolescence as in the theory of Erikson, however, it is intensified in emerging adulthood. Emerging adults try to find the best job that suits them. They try to find best partner that suits them. It is the period of time that the young people gain different experiences, learn themselves better such as what sort of a job that they want or what sort of a partner that they can be with for their lasting decisions for upcoming adulthood period (Arnett, 2000; 2004). Second, it is the life period of instability. Exploration of identity requires to do many experiments with one's own life such as changing majors in college, changing jobs, changing partners and so on. Therefore, the experiments to explore bring instability to emerging adults' life until the final decisions that they make for the rest of their lives. Third feature of emerging adulthood is being self-focused more than adolescence, childhood or adulthood. With self-focused, Arnett does not mean something like it is in childhood, but instead, he

means to decide everything on their own (2004). In childhood and adolescence, the individual is tied to other adults such as parents or teachers, household rules or school regulations. In adulthood, the individual is tied to spouse to share responsibilities, to negotiate rules of social life and as an employer tied to achievements to success and standards to follow. However, in emerging adulthood, all the decisions in one's life is up to him/herself whether to choose a major, a partner, a place to live, a job or not. He says that emerging adulthood is the only time of period in one's life that s/he is all by him/herself to make all the decisions of work, school or in social life (Arnett, 2004). Next feature of emerging adulthood is the feeling of in-between. The emerging adults feel themselves neither an adolescence and nor an adult. The reason behind this feeling is the fact that the emerging adults' criteria for adulthood such as becoming financially independent, making independent decisions or responsibility for own acts are the states that cannot happen all at once but rather gradually. Therefore, they do not feel themselves as adult all of a sudden after 18 but start to feel it gradually towards mid-twenties after acquiring these capabilities (Arnett, 1994; 1997; 2004). The last feature of emerging adulthood that Arnett mentioned in his book in 2004 is the fact that emerging adulthood is the age of possibilities. Whatever background that the individual come from, it is the time of life that one thinks that s/he can conquer all the things they want for their life. There is this wide open world for them to create their own path. The variety of the options for occupations, romantic partners and so on, that they can choose from make this period of life the age of possibilities. All of these characteristics of emerging adulthood is tied to and related with each other that make sense together. Understanding what sort of conditions an emerging adult goes through, is vital to interpret the youth's actions more accurately in their own context

within today's struggles. Thus, in this chapter, it has been tried to draw a frame for the characteristics of emerging adulthood in modern age to evaluate risk-taking behaviors with a better understanding of their motives in this period of life.

1.2. Risk-Taking Behaviors

The adolescence may be seen as a period of storm and stress for parents, however, emerging adulthood is the part where the most troubles happen. Risk-taking behaviors starts in adolescence, however, in emerging adulthood, these risk-taking behaviors climb the peak with more independence and less parental supervision (Arnett, 2000; 2005). The term of risk-taking behaviors refers to voluntary behaviors that has a possibility to result in unwanted consequences. In the literature the term is often used for also other areas such as in social context like interpersonal relationships or occupational contexts as economics, business or finance, yet, in this study, only health-damaging domain of risk-taking behaviors is considered. This domain of risk-taking includes substance abuse such as alcohol or drugs, risky or unprotected sexual behaviors, interpersonal aggression like deliberate injuries, physical fights, delinquent behaviors such as shoplifting, vandalism, reckless driving such as drunk driving or speeding, eating disorders, homicidal or suicidal behaviors as major risk-taking behaviors in adolescence in previous works (Essau, 2004; Boyer, 2006; Furby & Beyth-Marom, 1992; Parson, Seigel, & Cousins, 1997; Seigel et al., 1994; Igra & Irwin, 1993). Definition of some of the risk-taking behaviors also changes in emerging adulthood. One of the most common risky behavior, alcohol consumption, is no longer a risk-taking behaviors for over 18, however, excessive use or misuse of alcohol (drinking and driving, alcohol mixing with medications) is the risky case for emerging adulthood. Sexual relationship is

legal for 18 and older, however, unprotected sexual intercourse is still a risky behavior for emerging adults. Yet, rest of the risk-taking behaviors mentioned earlier is common for all ages.

The potential consequences of these health-damaging risk-taking behaviors may lead unwanted pregnancies, sexual diseases, injuries, disabilities and death (Igra & Irwin, 1993). According to WHO data, for the age group of 15-29, the leading death causes are self-harm, road injuries, interpersonal violence and HIV/AIDS in worldwide scale (2015). Moreover, 5.9% of the deaths are substance use related (WHO, 2012). In Turkey, half of death in youth is caused by external injuries, self-harm and poisoning according to National Statistical Institute of Turkey (TUIK)'s data in 2017. Since 2008, the number of the minors between 11 and 17 years of age who brought to the police station because of drug use is over than 1200 (TUIK, 2018). Moreover, according to Multisectoral action on drug dependence report, in 2016, approximately 240.000 individuals consulted to medical care due to drug use and more than 2000 people had died because of drug use in past 10 years (Grand National Assembly of Turkey, 2017). As much as the rest of the world, risk-taking behaviors are one of the most important health threat for youth in Turkey as well. Therefore, understanding risk-taking behaviors and its agents is crucial for adolescents' and emerging adults' both psychological and physical well-being.

When the literature is considered in terms of risk factors of risk-taking behaviors in adolescence and emerging adulthood, there is a wide variety. The most consistent demographic and social risk factors for substance abuse in emerging adulthood are being male, family substance history, existence of problem behaviors in adolescence, early onset of substance use in adolescence, peer use of substance and unemployment (For review, see Stone, Becker, Huber & Catalano, 2012).

Moreover, personality related factors such as sensation seeking and impulsivity are two of the major risk factors for all types of risk-taking behaviors (Duangpatra, Brandley & Glenton, 2009; Glowach & Schmits, 2017; Peach & Gaultney, 2012; Ravert, et. al., 2009). Even though there is a wide variety of risk-taking studies in the literature, to our knowledge, there is no investigation about self-concept and risk-taking in emerging adults. Therefore, in the current study, risk-taking behaviors will be focused in the frame of self-concept.

1.3. Risk appraisal

Risk appraisal or risk perception is the term that used for evaluating a future event's outcomes that may or may not occur in not only in behavioral sciences but also in different areas such as economics and statistics. Within risk-taking behaviors context in adolescence, the term is used for the assessment of a risky behavior in terms of possible negative consequences. Risk perception of a person for a particular event helps to answer the question of 'How risky is the event A?', which is a crucial cognitive step on the decision-making process of committing a risk-taking behavior. The literature in terms of risk perception and emerging adults especially for health-damaging domain of risk-taking behavior does not provide as wide variety information as the studies in adolescence do. However, studies considering adolescence found that perception of risk is directly associated with risk taking behavior (Lee, Su & Hazard, 1998; Reiners, Murphy, Lin, Bartolome & Wood, 2016). Even though it is now well-known that risk perception and risk taking behaviors are strongly correlated in adolescence, there is no consensus on how those two function together. Many studies claim that lower perception of risk may lead to commit risky behaviors more (Giannetti, Casale & Vanni, 2009; Hovarth &

Zuckerman, 1993, Rhodes & Pivik, 2011). Some of the studies claims that the ones who already experienced risky behaviors, perceive the risks of those events as lower if they have not experience any negative outcomes from previous risky acts (Benthin et al., 1993; Chassin, Presson, Rose & Sherman, 2001; Zuckerman, 1979). On the contrary, it is also found that the ones that already committing risky behaviors, are also aware the risks of these behaviors even more than the ones who do not commit risk-taking behaviors and define themselves as risk-takers (Jenks, 1992). In addition to Jenks' study (1992), other researches show that even though one perceives the risk as high, he or she can still commit that risky act (Chapin, 2001; Cohn, Macfarlane, Yanez, & Imai, 1995; Murphy, Rotheram-Borus, & Reid, 1998; Zuckerman, Ball & Black, 1990). The literature about risk appraisal and risk-taking behaviors is quite controversial, therefore, the current study is planned to investigate this controversy in Turkish emerging adults' context.

1.4. Self-Defining Memory and Self-Concept

Self-defining memories (SDMs) refer to an autobiographical memory type that is related with our identity, self-concept and sense of self (Blagov & Singer, 2004; Singer & Salovey, 1993). This sort of memories help the individuals to define what they are like as a person and they can be used to describe one's self to another person. Therefore, SDMs are different than daily autobiographical memories in terms of being closely related with different aspects of self-identity and being distinctive events in one's memory (Singer & Salovey, 1993). Moreover, Çili and Stapo showed that recalling positive and negative SDMs activates specific self-representations (2014). Thus, in the current study, SDMs will be focused as an agent of self-concept or self-identity in the relationship with risk-taking. Considering the possible

relationship between risk-taking and SDM, it was based on the relationship of self-concept and risk-taking studies. Many different studies showed that negative self-concept is related with both delinquency and depressive disorders that have predictive role on risk-taking behaviors (Beck, 1987; Donellan et. al., 2005; Lee & Stone, 2012; McGrath & Repetti, 2002; Stone, Becker, Huber & Catalano, 2012; Vermeiren, 2003; Ybrandt, 2008). Therefore, in the current study, risk-taking will be focused in terms of self-concept via SDMs.

There are five important features of SDMs which are affective intensity, vividness, repetitiveness, being linked to other memories and last but not least, its focus on major concerns, motives, goals, strivings or unresolved conflicts in one's life (Singer & Salovey, 1993). SDMs are the memories of peak points of our lives related with our most important concerns, goals, motives or conflicts. They are the memories of our happiest moments with our significant others, the most embarrassing moment in school, the proudest day that we can ever have, our most glorious victory or our most horrendous defeat. Since these memories belongs to the events that occurred within strong emotions, the memories themselves evoke strong emotions as well as the original event itself did back in time. Therefore, they are intense memories in terms of affect that they evoke during recall. Second feature of SDMs, vividness, represents distinctiveness of SDMs. These memories are not the ones that we vaguely remember, instead, these are the ones that are bright in one's mind because they present the most important themes such as most critical concerns, unresolved disturbing conflicts in one's personal history. Considering the fact that they represent the most important themes in one's life, they are not the memories that happen once in a lifetime instead they carry common themes. SDMs are the compound versions of many memories around similar subject, which points out as

‘representation’ and ‘instantiation’ characteristic of SDMs in Singer and Salovey’s book (1993). This brings us to its feature of repetitiveness and linkage to other memories. It is linked to other memories because it is the most representative ones among other tens of similar toned memories. Common concerns, motives, emotions coming from different memories are incarnated with a single SDM. In other words, SDMs not only represent these concerns and conflicts but also instantiate these concern and conflicts with a single memory. To illustrate, tons of different embarrassment stories at work can be symbolized for a shy person with a memory of the boss yelling at him in front of others. Therefore, it is linked with other embarrassment memories. Moreover, due its representative and instantiation nature, these memories function as a reference point for individuals to act accordingly in similar future situations. Hence, these type of memories are repetitively recalled whenever similar situation comes along (Singer & Blagov, 2004).

The presence of SDMs in the current study is due to mainly its link to identity and self-concept with its features. Self-identity or self-concept in relation to risk-taking is either focused on as specific domains such as sexual self-concepts and sexual risk-taking (Breakwell & Millward, 1997), or focused on in the frame of Erikson’s identity development (1963, 1968) and Marcia’s identity status (1980). However, to our knowledge, there is no study investigating risk-taking with self-identity or self-concept with a narrative and more holistic approach. Therefore, in the current study, we will use SDMs as narratives of self-concept/self-identity and investigate the difference between positive and negative self-concept on risk-taking using SDMs.

1.5. Mood

According to its dictionary meaning, mood means a temporary state of mind or emotion. Even though its effect on people is limited by time, it may still affect our cognitive processes such as perceptions, interpretations of cues, decision-making and as a result of those, it does affect our actions. In the mood and decision-making literature, there two major theories explaining the relationship between mood and actions, which conflict each other. First is Affect Infusion Model (AIM), which claims that positive mood elevates the likelihood of risk-taking behaviors while negative mood does the opposite (Forgas, 1994; 1995). According to AIM, people in positive mood depend on positive cues when making decisions, therefore, they are tend to focus on positive aspects of risky behaviors whereas, people in negative mood are more likely to attend negative consequences of risky behavior and avoid possible loss (Forgas, 1994; 1995). The second model for mood and decision-making processes is Mood-Maintenance Hypothesis (MMH), which is suggesting opposite of AIM. MMH claims that people in positive mood desire to maintain their affective states (Isen & Patrick, 1983). As a result of that, they avoid risky situation that might put their positive mood state in danger. However, people in negative mood are more willing to take risks because of the potential reward of risky behavior to elevate their mood according MMH (Isen & Patrick, 1983). There are studies about mood and risk-taking corresponding to both theories, however, there is a great amount of studies suggesting that risk perception and risk-taking behaviors differ accordingly certain mood states (Caffray & Schneider, 2000; Haase & Silbereisen, 2011; Hu, Xie & Li, 2013; Pardini et al., 2004). Some types of moods are known to reduce risk taking while some of them promotes it (Caffray & Schneider, 2000; Hu, Xie & Li, 2013; Pardini et al., 2004). When considering intensity, frequency and rapid changes

in moods in adolescents and emerging adults and these controversial theories, mood and risk-taking studies need more attention (Larson & Lampman-Petratis, 1989; Larson et al., 1990). Moreover, most of the risk-taking studies was carried on via more acceptable means of risky behaviors such as gambling tasks or social judgements and less studies was focused on health-endangering risky behaviors. In the current study, the mood will be focused as a third variable that might moderate the relationship between self-concept and health-endangering domain of risk-taking behavior and the relationship between self-concept and risk appraisal. Further sections discuss the existing literature about mood and health related risk-taking behaviors divided as negative mood and positive mood for better understanding of their effect separately.

1.5.1. Positive Mood

According to mood and risk-taking literature, positive mood's effect differs majorly according to the types of risky behaviors. Cyders and colleagues (2006) found that positive mood differentiates between alcohol drinking and eating disorders and found to be more related with alcoholism than eating disordered behaviors. For risky driving behaviors, it is found that positive affect is a strong predictor for especially male adolescent drivers but not for females (Rhodes & Pivik, 2011). For sexual risk-taking behaviors, Sarno, Mohr and Rosenberger (2017) found that positive affect such as joviality is positively associated with sexual intercourse without condom among men having sex with men. Furthermore, Eherenfreund-Hager, Taubman-Ben-Ari, Toledo, and Farah (2017) showed that the type of positive mood also matters. They found that while the relaxing positive affect mood moderates risk-taking in risky driving behaviors, arousing positive affect causes an

increase in risk-taking behavior (Eherenfreund-Hager, Taubman–Ben-Ari, Toledo, & Farah, 2017). Lastly, for risk appraisal and positive mood relationship, Haase and Silbereisen found that positive mood leads to decrease in risk perception in young adults and adolescence. In positive mood state and risk-taking studies, there is a relatively corresponding findings that is, positive mood may result in increased risk-taking behavior, which also corresponds to AIM but conflicting with MMH. In the present study, positive mood's effect is investigated on both risk appraisal and risk-perception in Turkish emerging adults.

1.5.2. Negative Mood

In risk perception and mood studies, it is revealed that negative mood leads to an increase in the estimation of the risk suggesting that people tend to make their judgements congruently with their mood (Gasper & Clore, 2000; Johnson & Tversky, 1983). Moreover, in domain-specific risk-taking behavior studies, Sarno, Mohr and Rosenberger's study (2017) depicted that negative affect such as sadness and hostility is negatively associated with sexual risk-taking behaviors among men who have sex with men, which suggesting that when an individual is sad, he is less likely to take sexual risk-taking behaviors. In other words, people under the influence of a negative mood perceive a risky behavior's outcomes as more risky and avoid to do that risky behavior. However, on the contrary of these findings, it is found that negative mood leads to a decrease in the risk perception, moreover, the attitude toward risk is also changed into that the risk becomes more acceptable when people are in negative mood and it leads to increase in risk-taking behaviors as a result (Hu, Xie & Li, 2013). Furthermore, when combining risk taking, risk perception and mood together, Curry and Youngblade (2006) emphasize that some aspects of

negative affect has both direct and indirect effect on risk-taking, that is, while anger is directly related with risk-taking behavior itself rather than risk perception, depressive symptoms (such as unpleasantness, sadness) are negatively related to risk perception but not related directly to risk-taking behavior.

Comparing to positive mood, the literature of negative mood and risk-taking has more conflicting findings. Therefore, the current study is focused on both positive and negative mood's effect on risk perception and risk-taking behaviors.

1.6. Impulsivity and Sensation-Seeking

In risk-taking studies, personality research also takes a great part. When trying to answer the question that how come some people commit risky behaviors and some does not, some of the personality traits may help. In personality and risk-taking studies, impulsivity and sensation-seeking come up as two very important features related with risk-taking behaviors both in adolescence and emerging adulthood.

Impulsivity can be defined shortly as 'acting without thinking enough'. Impulsive people tend to be less sensitive to negative consequences of behaviors, tend to act unplanned and rapid, and tend to think less long-term outcomes according to biopsychosocial definition of impulsivity by Moeller and colleagues (2001).

Moreover, impulsive individuals prefer more immediate rewards than delayed bigger rewards due to lack of delaying their own satisfaction (Monterosso & Ainslie, 1999).

All these characteristics of impulsivity put impulsive people into a place where closer to risky behaviors. Another personality trait that may have effect on risk-taking behavior is sensation-seeking. Zuckerman defines sensation-seeking in his book as 'the constant need for different, new, complex sensations and experiences and ignoring the risks for the sake of these experiences' (1979, p.10). However, it

does not mean that sensation seekers seek for risky behavior necessarily. The important part of behaviors for sensation-seekers is not the riskiness but high rewards of novel and intense stimulation of them (Zuckerman, 2006, p.49). In other words, sensation-seekers do not engage in risky behavior on purpose but the search for novel experiences may end up with risky behavior as a natural cause. According to Zuckerman (1979), there are 4 dimension of sensation-seeking, which are experience seeking, thrill and adventure seeking, boredom susceptibility and disinhibition. Thrill and adventure seeking refers to desire to involve dangerous and exciting activities such as extreme sports or risky driving whereas, experience seeking points out the need for new mental or inner experiences through trying different lifestyles than mainstream population, travelling new places, joining divergent groups of society. Third dimension, boredom susceptibility, is related with the individual's reaction to routine or repetitive activities. The last dimension, disinhibition, refers to seeking sensations via other people in different social situations such as partying, drinking, varied sexual encounters. Even though sensation-seekers do not have a desire to involve risky behavior directly, these 4 dimensions may lead them toward risk-taking behavior (Zuckerman, 2006).

The literature also supports the theories of impulsivity and sensation-seeking in terms of risk-taking behaviors. Many studies have found that both impulsivity and sensation-seeking traits are accounted for carrying out risk-taking behaviors both in adolescence and in emerging adulthood (Ashenhurst, Harden, Corbin & Fromme, 2015; Glowacz & Schmits, 2017; Hovarth & Zuckerman, 1992; 1993; Peach & Gaultney, 2013; Ravert, et. al., 2009; Rolison & Scherman, 2003) Moreover, Ashenhurst and colleagues found that changes in risk-taking behaviors follows after changes in sensation seeking and impulsivity parallely through adulthood in college

students (2015). In other words, impulsivity and sensation-seeking might be two personality traits that are effective on risk-taking behaviors, but, within time, an impulsive and sensation-seeker one can mature out which means becoming less impulsive and sensation-seeker, thus, less risk-taker (Ashenhurst, et. al., 2015). Since impulsivity and sensation-seeking are two important personality factors predicting risk-taking behaviors, in the current study, we added these two traits to control risk-taking behaviors with the effects of autobiographical memories, mood and risk perception.

1.7. The Current Study

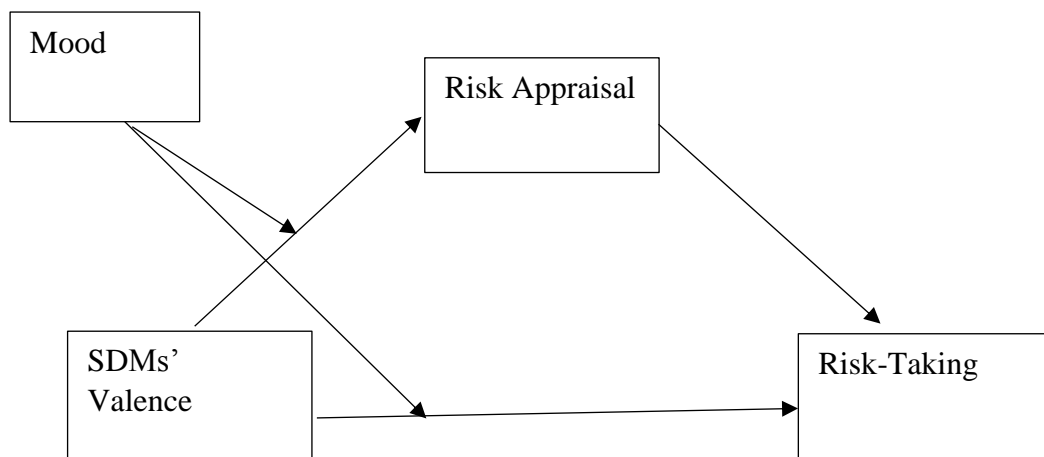
In the current study, we aimed to investigate how recalling negative and positive SDMs affect risk appraisal and risk-taking after controlling for impulsivity and sensation-seeking and how the mood that is expected to be manipulated after recalling SDM affect the relationships between SDM and risk-taking and the relationship between SDM and risk appraisal.

Risk-taking behavior is a multifaceted element that is one of the major concerns for adolescents' and emerging adults' physical and psychological well-being. Even though there is considerable amount of studies in risk-taking literature, there are issues that are ambivalent or underworked within changing trends in the literature. Self-identity and risk-taking is one of the underworked topics in the literature especially in narrative approach to the identity. In this study, we aimed to activate negative and positive self-concepts with recalling negative and positive SDMs and aimed to investigate difference between those two group on risk-taking, Due to the time and resource requirements of analyzing narratives in depth, we had to focus on only the valence of the SDM. Moreover, based on controversial findings

of risk appraisal and risk-taking studies in adolescents, we also included risk appraisal to investigate its relation with both SDMs and with risk-taking in Turkish emerging adult context.

The mood is also added to the current study because by the emotion evoking nature of the SDMs, it was expected that the mood of the participants would be manipulated. With two contradicting theory of the mood on risk-taking behavior, investigating mood's effect on risk-taking and risk appraisal would contribute to the literature. Lastly, we added impulsivity and sensation-seeking as control variables to the current study. According to the literature, there is a close relationship between both risk-taking and sensation-seeking and between risk-taking and impulsivity, therefore, to add these two as control variables would help to interpret results more accurately.

Figure 1.



Our main hypothesis was that recalled SDMs' valence will affect risk-taking behavior both directly and indirectly through a mediator that is risk appraisal while the mood affected by SDM will moderate both the relationship between SDM

valence and risk appraisal and the relationship between valence and risk-taking behaviors, after controlling for impulsivity and sensation-seeking.

Beside of the main hypothesis, the current study also analyzed the data to answer these key research questions that may contribute to the literature;

Q1: What will the direction of the relationship between risk appraisal and risk-taking be in Turkish emerging adults?

Q2: Which one is a better predictor of risk-taking, sensation-seeking or impulsivity?

Q2a: Which dimensions of sensation-seeking will be more related with risk-taking?

Q2b: Which dimensions of impulsivity will be more related with risk-taking?

Q3: How does SDM's valence affect the mood? Is there any difference between the sorts of emotions before and after recalling positive/negative SDMs?

Q4: Which phenomenological characteristics of SDM's does differ for different valences of the SDM?

Q4a: Which of these characteristics for positive and negative SDM is related with risk-taking?

CHAPTER 2

2. Method

2.1. Participants

The data of the study is collected from 118 university students who living in Ankara, Turkey from various universities in Ankara, however, only 113 of the data were used. Participants were randomly assigned to one of four conditions of negative/positive music and negative/positive self-defining memory. The 85.8% of them were female (n=97), and the rest were male (n=16 14.2%). The age range of the participants were between 17 and 23 with a mean of 20,7. 87.7 % of the participants were studying in different private universities in Ankara. The monthly income of the participants was between 1,000 TL and 20,000 TL with a mean of 5,460 TL. Most of the participants had lived the majority of their life in metropolis (n=77, 66.4%).

Most of the participants' both of the parents were alive (n=111, 95.7%) and married & living together (n=101, 87.1%). The employment status for the mothers was 34.5% employed (n=40), 47.4% unemployed (n=55) and 18.1% retired (n=21), while for the fathers it was 66.4% employed (n=77), 4.3% unemployed (n=5) and 27.6% retired (n=32).

2.2. Instruments

Demographic Information Form

Demographic information form consisted of series of questions about participants' age, gender, socioeconomic status and parents' marital, employment and education status.

Self-defining memory task. The participants were given both written and vocal instructions to recall 3 positive or negative self-defining memory. The instructions that were the definition of SDM were inspired by Moffitt and Singer's study (1994) and for Turkish version by Boyacıoğlu (2012).

The written instruction stated:

Self-defining memories are the type of memories that belong to events that we personally included in our past and very closely related with who we are in the present. This sort of memories are either negative or positive memories that you think they are good representation of you and your identity so that you can use them when you express yourself to another person. Please recall 3 positive/negative (e.g. you may feel such as valuable/invaluable, accepted/unaccepted, important/unimportant or beloved/disliked in this memories) self-defining memories that represents yourself.

Mood rating. A mood rating form is developed for the study. There are two parts of the mood rating form which is the general mood question and assessment of 5 specific emotions. General mood question is a Likert-type scale between -5 (highly negative mood) to 5 (highly positive mood) with a 0 point of neutral mood that asks 'how are you feel right now at the moment?'. In the second part, the participants were asked to rate 5 specific emotions from 0 (none) to 5 (very much). The rated emotions were depressed, excited, anxious/worried, happy, sad and nervous.

Autobiographical memory characteristics questionnaire. To control the features of memories especially between mood-congruent memories and incongruent memories Autobiographical memory characteristics questionnaire (AMCQ) was used (Boyacıoğlu & Akfırat, 2014). AMCQ's Cronbach's Alpha value was found between

.74 and .96 (Boyacıoğlu & Akfirat, 2014). AMCQ has 63 items to assess 14 different domains of memory characteristics (vividness, belief in accuracy, place details, sensory details, accessibility, sharing, observer perspective, field perspective, narrative coherence, recollection, emotional valence, emotional intensity, emotional distancing and preoccupation with emotions) with a 7-point Likert type scale (1= Totally Disagree, 7= Totally agree).

Risk Scenarios. The 4 of 5 scenarios that includes risky behaviors on hypothetical situations (unprotected sex, alcohol use, risky driving behaviors, physical fight) were adapted for Turkish sample from Haase and Silbereisen's study (2011). Instead of smoking scenario that Haase and Silbereisen had, a scenario about drug use was added because smoking is not considered as a risky situation by adolescents yet, drug use is thought as a more common risky situation that adolescents encounter with very often than the smoking.

Benthin risk perception measure. To assess risk appraisal of adolescents for given scenarios a shorter version of Benthin Risk Perception Measure (BRPM) that was composed by Haase and Silbereisen for German sample was translated into Turkish for the study (Benthin, et al., 1993; Haase & Silbereisen, 2011). The shorter version includes 5 items to assess the perception of adolescence about how risky are the given scenarios, positive and negative outcomes of these scenarios, fear and serious consequences that the scenarios may lead with a 5-points Likert type scale. German version of short BRPM is found to have a Cronbach's alpha value of .86 (Haase & Silbereisen, 2011).

Risk-taking. To measure the likelihood of risk-taking of the participants, a multiple-choice type single item asking to choose one of the options according to the

behaviors in the scenarios (a- I never would do it, b- I would probably not do it , c- Not sure if I would do or not, d- I would probably do it, e- I would definitely do it) was added at the end of short version of BRPM.

Brief sensation seeking scale. The 4-items version of Brief Sensation Seeking Scale (BSSS-4) was used to measure the sensation seeking level of participants in order to evaluate results of risk perception and risk-taking accordingly (Stephenson, Hoyle, Slater & Palmgreen, 2003). It's a Likert type scale that the scores are between 1 (totally disagree) and 5 (totally agree). The Turkish version of BSSS-4's Cronbach's alpha score is found as .81 (Çelik, 2015).

Barratt impulsiveness scale. Barratt Impulsiveness Scale Version-11 (BIS-11) is used to assess the impulsivity level of participants at the end of the study with the same purpose of considering results of risk-taking and risk perception in the light of impulsivity (Patton, Stanford & Barratt, 1995). BIS-11 is a 4 points Likert-type measure (1= Never or rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3= Often, 4= Always) which includes 30 items. It has 3 main domains and 6 subdomains which are attentional impulsiveness (attention and cognitive instability), motor impulsiveness (motor impulsiveness and perseverance) and non-planning impulsiveness (cognitive complexity and self-control) (Moore, Sabb, Brown & London, 2013; Patton, Stanford & Barratt, 1995). The Turkish version of BIS-11 was adapted by Güleç, et. al. (2008) and was found to have a Cronbach's alpha value between .78 and .81.

2.3. Procedure

The reached volunteers filled out a short form that including their name and phone number to contact later for the study. Then, each volunteer was called to set an appointment for the study since they were expected to be present in Psychology Lab in TED University for the experiment. The participants were randomly assigned to either negative SDM or positive SDM group. After they filled out the informed consent, demographics form and initial mood rating, they were given instructions about self-defining memory task and told to complete AMCQ after each memory. Before risk scenarios, they rated their mood again. Then, they read the each scenario and filled out BRPM and Risk-taking question for every scenario. After that, they completed BIS and BSSS-4. At the end of the study, they were debriefed and if there were any, the questions were answered. They were thanked and offered a small bar of chocolate for their participation.

CHAPTER 3

3. Results

3.1. Data Analysis

The collected data was analyzed with Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) (Green, Salkind, & Akey, 1997). First, Pearson's Correlation was conducted among main variables whether to illustrate the relationships between them in order to be able to conduct further mediation analysis for main hypothesis. Then, paired and independent sample t-tests and simultaneous regression were conducted to investigate research questions of the study.

3.2. Data Exclusion

Five of the data were excluded due to several reasons. Two of them were excluded because the participants' age was exceeding the age limit of the study that is age of 23 while entering the data. The rest of the excluded data were detected as the outliers during analysis process, therefore, they had to be removed in order not to distort the results.

3.3. Demographics

The demographic characteristics of the participants are given in the Table 1. Pearson's coefficient was calculated for demographics and the most noteworthy finding was the maternal education level (MEL) and family income (Table 2.). MEL was found to be positively correlated with risk-taking ($r = .27, p = .004$) and negatively correlated with risk appraisal ($r = -.18, p = .046$), that means the more educated the mother, the less perceived risk and the more risk taking. A similar

relationship also found between family income and risk-taking ($r = .25, p = .007$) and risk appraisal ($r = -.20, p = .036$). Moreover, gender was also found to be negatively correlated with risk appraisal ($r = -.19, p = .036$), that suggests women perceive more risk than men.

Table 1.

The Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

	N	%
Gender		
Female	97	85.8%
Male	16	14.2%
Maternal Education Level		
Illiterate	1	.9%
Literate	1	.9%
Primary School	22	19.5%
Elementary School	10	8.8%
High School	34	30.1%
College	37	32.7%
Graduate School	8	7.1%
Paternal Education Level		
Primary School	10	8.8%
Elementary School	7	6.2%
High School	32	28.3%
College	51	45.1%
Graduate School	12	10.6%
Missing	1	.9%
Family Income		
1000TL – 3000TL	30	27.3%
3500TL – 5000TL	42	38.2%
6000TL – 8000TL	22	20%
10000TL – 20000TL	16	12.8%
Missing	3	2.7%
Total	113	

3.4. Correlations between the Variables of Main Model

Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated between all the variables as initial analysis. To be able to test main hypothesis with moderated mediation model, the correlations between risk-taking, risk perception, SDM's valence and manipulated mood was analyzed. The correlation analysis between risk perception and risk-taking indicated a strong negative relationship ($r = -.762$, $p = .000$) that means the ones who perceive the risk higher, are more likely not to take risks. Moreover, correlation analysis showed that recalled SDMs' valence was negatively related with the mood ($r = -.623$, $p = .000$), that is, an increase in the negativity of SDMs ends up with a decrease in the positivity of the mood. Unlikely to expectations, SDMs' valence type (recalling either positive or negative SDM) was failed to be found significantly related with both risk-taking ($r = -.024$, $p = .804$) and risk perception ($r = .107$, $p = .275$). Moreover, on the contrary to the literature, the relationship between the manipulated mood and risk appraisal was also found to be non-significant ($r = .085$, $p = .383$). Even though, the manipulated mood was found to be marginally significantly related with risk-taking ($r = -.171$, $p = .076$), because there was no relationship between SDM valence, risk-taking and risk perception, the moderated mediation model could not be conducted.

Table 2.

Means (M) and Standart Deviations (SD) and Bivariate Correlations between Measured Variables of the Study

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Gender	1.14	.35	-								
2. Maternal Education Level	4.92	1.30	.08	-							
3. Family Income	5460.45	3513.91	.10	.50**	-						
4. SDM Valence	12.09	7.4	-.17	.12	.24*	-					
5. Mood	.83	2.68	.07	-.12	-.19*	-.62***	-				
6. Impulsivity	63.62	15.29	-.03	.14	.14	.10	-.11	-			
7. Sensation-seeking	9.37	2.85	.14	.21*	.12	.07	-.18	.30**	-		
8. Risk appraisal	101.01	12.83	-.19*	-.18*	-.20*	.10	.08	-.27**	-.44***	-	
9. Risk-taking	11.07	3.75	.05	.27**	.25**	-.02	-.17	.28**	.55***	-.76***	-

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. Gender was dummy-coded as 1 = female; 2 = male

3.5. Impulsivity and Sensation-Seeking

For further research questions, the correlation between risk-taking, risk appraisal, impulsivity and sensation-seeking was analyzed. Risk-taking was found to be positively correlated with sensation-seeking ($r = .552, p = .000$) and with impulsivity ($r = .281, p = .003$), which suggesting when impulsivity and sensation-seeking is increased, risk-taking is increased as well. Negative correlations were found between risk appraisal and sensation-seeking ($r = -.447, p = .000$) and impulsivity ($r = -.278, p = .003$) as expected, that is, high scores in sensation-seeking and impulsivity means appraising the risk less. Furthermore, a simultaneous regression was conducted for predictive roles of impulsivity, sensation-seeking, risk appraisal on risk-taking. The regression analysis indicated a significant model that explains 62.6% of the variance in risk-taking ($F(3,107) = 62.380, p = .000$). Risk appraisal and sensation-seeking were significant predictors while impulsivity was not (Table 3).

To check which dimension of sensation-seeking has better predictive role on risk-taking, bivariate correlation was calculated between 4 of the dimensions of sensation-seeking and risk-taking. Pearson's coefficients showed that all four dimensions of sensation-seeking is positively correlated with risk-taking and negatively correlated with risk appraisal, that means being a high sensation-seeker in all of the dimensions results in being a high risk-taker and appraising less risk (Table 4.). After that, another simultaneous regression was conducted to see which dimension has better predictive role on risk-taking. The regression model was found significant and explains 62.9% of the variance in risk-taking ($F(5,105) = 38.250, p = .000$). Out of four dimensions of sensation-seeking, two of them was significantly

predictor of risk-taking. First dimension was boredom susceptibility and the second one was thrill and adventure seeking which was marginally significant ($p = .06$) (Table 5.). In the analysis, although impulsivity was related with risk-taking, it was failed to be found as a predictor of risk-taking. Therefore, the dimensions of impulsivity was not analyzed further.

Table 3.

The Unstandardised and Standardised Regression Coefficients

	B	SE	β	p
Impulsivity	.01	.01	.02	.67
Sensation-seeking	.342	.08	.26	.00
Risk appraisal	-.18	.01	-.63	.00

Table 5.

The Unstandardised and Standardised Regression Coefficients

	B	SE	β	p
Experience Seeking	-.16	.42	-.03	.69
Thrill and Adventure Seeking	.76	.40	.18	.06
Disinhibition	.15	.32	.03	.63
Boredom Susceptibility	.65	.29	.15	.02
Risk appraisal	-.18	.01	-.64	.00

Table 4.

Bivariate Correlations between the Dimensions of Sensation-Seeking, Risk Appraisal and Risk-Taking

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.Experience Seeking	2.56	.88	-					
2.Thrill and Adventure Seeking	2.18	.90	.79***	-				
3.Disinhibition	2.43	.86	.51***	.49***	-			
4.Boredom Susceptibility	2.18	.89	.41***	.45***	.48***	-		
5.Risk Appraisal	101.01	12.83	-.33***	-.34	-.39***	-.36***	-	
6.Risk-Taking	11.07	3.75	.40***	.46***	.43***	.47***	-.76***	-

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

3.6. Self-Defining Memories and Mood

For our third research question, Pearson's correlation analysis showed that recalled SDMs' valence was negatively related with the mood ($r = -.623, p = .000$) that suggests when there is an increase in the negativity score of SDM, there is a decrease in the positivity of the mood (Table 2.). In order to compare participants' mood before recalling SDM and after SDM, a paired t-test was conducted. Before conducting t-test analyzes, the data was splitted according to SDMs' valence groups which are the participants who were instructed to recall negative SDMs and the ones that recall positive SDMs. In positive SDM group ($N = 56$), t-test indicated that out of 6 emotions' score and the general mood score, there are only two statistically different groups before SDM and after SDM. One of them is happiness scores before SDM and after SDM ($t = -2.085, df = 55, p = .042$) and the other is sadness scores before SDM and after SDM ($t = 2.129, df = 55, p = .038$). In negative SDM group, in addition to sadness and happiness scores, there were significant differences in general mood ($t = 5.122, df = 55, p = .000$), 'depressed' ($t = -4.612, df = 56, p = .000$) and 'excited' scores ($t = 6.847, df = 56, p = .000$). The mean scores and t-test results were given on the Table 3 and Table 4 separately for positive and negative SDM groups.

Table 6.

Means (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) and Paired T-Test Scores of the Mood and 6 Emotions Before and After Positive SDM

	Before SDM		After SDM		<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			
Overall Mood	1.84	2.17	2.21	2.14	-1.52	51	.13
Depressed	1.33	1.49	1.07	1.27	1.33	55	.18
Excited	1.60	1.39	1.58	1.52	.08	55	.93
Anxious/Worried	.87	1.11	.67	1.16	1.62	55	.10
Happy	2.71	1.42	3.10	1.26	-2.08	55	.04
Sad	1.07	1.30	.75	1.06	2.12	55	.03
Nervous	.67	.93	.53	1.02	1.27	55	.20

Table 7.

Means (M) and Standard Deviations (SD) and Paired T-Test Scores of the Mood and 6 Emotions Before and After Negative SDM

	Before SDM		After SDM		<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			
Overall Mood	1.46	2.52	-.44	2.50	5.12	55	.00
Depressed	1.29	1.51	2.22	1.43	-4.61	56	.00
Excited	1.56	1.32	.47	.82	6.84	56	.00
Anxious/Worried	.91	1.13	1.17	1.33	-1.59	56	.11
Happy	2.61	1.38	1.49	1.10	6.21	56	.00
Sad	1.21	1.49	2.21	1.50	-4.77	56	.00
Nervous	.89	1.38	1.21	1.39	-1.58	56	.11

3.7. Phenomenological Characteristics of Self-Defining Memories

In order to check last research question, first of all, independent t-test analysis was run between positive SDM and negative SDM in terms of phenomenological characteristics that was measured via AMCQ. The analysis showed that there are differences in some of the characteristics between positive and negative SDM groups. Significantly different characteristics are sharing, observer perspective, emotional valence, emotional intensity, emotional distancing and marginally significant recollection (Table 9.). The scores of sharing, recollection, emotional valence and emotional intensity was lower in negative SDM group comparing to positive group, while the scores of observer perspective, emotional distancing were higher in negative group than the positive ones had. Moreover, for Q4a, Pearson coefficients' were calculated and given in Table 10 for characteristics of memories and risk-taking separately for negative and positive memories. The analysis showed that for positive SDM group, the dimensions of observer perspective, field perspective, narrative coherence and preoccupation with emotions were found to be significantly correlated with risk-taking, however, none of the characteristics in negative SDM group was found to be correlated with risk-taking.

Table 8

		Positive		Negative		<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>
		SDM		SDM				
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			
1.	Vividness	88.8	13.2	86.4	11.9	1.01	107	.31
2.	Belief in accuracy	81.7	5.62	84.9	13.9	-1.58	105	.11
3.	Place details	61.8	2.47	63.6	7.31	-1.69	107	.09
4.	Sensory details	71.8	16.3	71.1	14.1	.25	105	.79
5.	Accessibility	46.4	11.2	44.2	10.1	1.05	104	.29
6.	Sharing	63.6	13.4	53.2	15.2	3.68	103	.00
7.	Observer perspective	30.1	13.9	37.5	10.1	-3.13	105	.00
8.	Field perspective	46.9	12.3	43.1	13.1	1.51	102	.13
9.	Narrative coherence	80.0	15.4	86.0	23.5	-1.55	104	.12
10.	Recollection	82.4	14.6	77.1	15.1	1.84	104	.06
11.	Emotional valence	109.4	18.5	26.3	9.76	28.6	99	.00
12.	Emotional intensity	82.1	14.7	71.9	18.3	3.10	101	.00
13.	Emotional distancing	24.0	11.3	38.6	13.9	-5.93	104	.00
14.	Preoccupied with emotions	40.8	17.7	46.6	18.3	-1.66	104	.10

Table 9.

Bivariate Correlations of Phenomenological Characteristics of Negative SDM group (lower diagonal) and Positive SDM group (upper diagonal)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Vividness	-	.49**	.10	.62**	.44**	.26	-.07	.27	.66**	.68**	.05	.42**	-.12	-.02	-.18
2. Belief in accuracy	.15	-	.11	.36**	.23	.15	-.07	.23	.55**	.55**	.28	.28*	-.25	-.18	-.01
3. Place details	.10	.73**	-	.03	-.07	-.20	.01	.02	.05	.00*	.02	-.12	.16	.06	-.22
4. Sensory details	.51**	.42**	.15	-	.44**	.40**	.10	.15	.50**	.51**	.25	.45**	-.27*	-.05	-.15
5. Accessibility	.39**	-.18	-.24	.29*	-	.49**	-.09	.21	.37**	.38**	.28	.43**	-.34*	-.28*	-.24
6. Sharing	.25	.02	-.15	.23	.24	-	-.11	.16	.39**	.37**	.26	.42**	-.71**	-.32*	-.13
7. Observer perspective	.02	-.15	-.13	-.18	-.23	-.13	-	-.78**	-.25	.07	-.03	.02	.18	.29*	.36**
8. Field perspective	.18	.21	.16	.25	.23	.26	-.46**	-	.48**	.25	.03	.14	-.23	-.34*	-.50**
9. Narrative coherence	.38**	-.01	-.08	.36**	.17	.12	-.31**	.23	-	.65**	.30*	.43**	-.34*	-.21	-.35**

10.	Recollection	.62**	.08	-.00	.51**	.31*	.28*	-.03	.17	.32*	-	.18	.51**	-.29*	-.00	-.07
11.	Emotional valence	.01	.06	.11	.17	.05	.11	-.31*	.11	-.14	-.09	-	.18	-.22	-.08	-.20
12.	Emotional intensity	.32*	.06	-.07	.41**	.36**	.21	-.04	-.07	.30*	.65**	-.08	-	-.36*	.13	-.07
13.	Emotional distancing	-.03	.10	.02	-.21	-.16	-.32*	.17	-.16	-.09	-.08	-.15	-.06	-	.46**	.18
14.	Preoccupied with emotions	.15	-.18	-.17	-.00	.21	.07	.14	-.05	.00	-.30*	-.17	.27	.29*	-	.44**
15.	Risk-Taking	-.04	-.20	-.04	-.01	.06	.06	.07	.03	.02	-.03	.01	-.01	.14	-.06	-

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

CHAPTER 4

4. Discussion

The main purpose of the current study was to investigate the effect of recalling positive and negative self-defining memories on risk-taking both directly and indirectly via risk appraisal while the mood was moderating those relationships after controlling sensation-seeking and impulsivity in Turkish emerging adult population. As initial analysis before testing this relatively complex moderated mediation model, Pearson's coefficient analysis was run between all the variables in the study. After failing to find significant results for the required relationships for moderated mediation model in bivariate correlation test, the rest of the analysis was conducted to investigate other research questions of the study. Therefore, first of all, our findings on research questions will be discussed and then, the main hypothesis and the model will be discussed later on.

4.1. Risk Appraisal and Risk-Taking

First of all, for the first research question of the study, to contribute the knowledge about the relationship between risk appraisal and risk-taking behaviors in Turkish emerging adults context was aimed. Our research question on risk appraisal and risk-taking was about to find out the direction about their relationship. For this purpose, bivariate correlation and simultaneous regression analysis showed that higher perception of the risk of a particular risky event predicts less engagement with that specific risky behavior. In other words, if a person thinks that a behaviors is risky, he or she is less likely to engage in with that behavior. With this findings, our study supports the studies which found a negative relationship between risk appraisal

and risk-taking in health-endangering domain (Cheung, Wu & Tao, Horvath & Zuckerman, 1993; 2013, Reyna & Farley, 2006; Rhodes & Pivik, 2011).

In the literature, there were evidence for many combination of risk appraisal and risk-taking relationship such as high risk appraisal and high risk-taking or exact opposite that is low risk appraisal and high risk-taking (Chapin, 2001; Cohn, Macfarlane, Yanez, & Imai, 1995; Horvath & Zuckerman, 1993; Murphy, Rotheram-Borus, & Reid, 1998; Reyna & Farley, 2006; Zuckerman, Ball & Black, 1990). Therefore, to investigate and contribute on that issue was important for the study. Moreover, it was also important to conclude findings on risk appraisal and risk-taking in this study because the majority of the risk-taking studies done among adolescents whose age between 14-18, while our study focused on emerging adults that ages between 17 to 23 (Reyna & Farley, 2006; Horvath & Zuckerman, 1993). Furthermore, many of the studies in the risk-taking literature focused on only one type of risk-taking domain such as sexual risk-taking or risky driving in health-endangering domain (Dionne, Fluet & Desjardins, 2007; Stephen & Brown, 2005; Tenkarang, Maticka-Tyndale & Rajultan, 2011). While some of the studies used DOSPERT (Blais & Weber, 2006) that measures different domains of risk-taking including health and safety domain with a list of behaviors in a scale (Zhang, Zhang & Schang, 2016). Even though DOSPERT gives the chance to compare different domains of risk-taking, health and safety domain of DOSPERT does not include all major health-endagering risky behaviors such as drug-use (Blais & Weber, 2006). Therefore, our findings on risk appraisal and risk-taking carry the importance of measuring those with realistic daily life scenarios of health-damaging risky behaviors in Turkish culture after the similar studies done with scenarios in Germany and USA sample (Gardner & Steinberg, 2005; Haase & Silbereisen, 2011). Even

though there are considerable amount of study about risk appraisal and risk-taking, the current study's findings is important for these reasons.

4.2. Sensation-Seeking, Impulsivity, Risk Appraisal and Risk-Taking

The second research question of the study was to find out whether there is a difference between sensation-seeking and impulsivity in terms of their predictive role on risk-taking in emerging adults. Furthermore, it was also aimed to investigate different dimensions of both impulsivity and sensation-seeking in terms of their relation to risk-taking and risk-appraisal. For their relationship between impulsivity and sensation-seeking, the correlation analysis showed that both were positively correlated with risk-taking but negatively correlated with risk appraisal as expected. That tells us that the more sensation-seeker and more impulsive the one is, the more risk-taker but less risk appraiser the one is. However, for their predictive roles, the regression analysis indicated that while sensation-seeking and risk appraisal were two significant predictor of risk-taking, impulsivity were not for emerging adults' risk-taking behaviors. In other words, impulsivity does not have a predicting power over risk-taking behaviors of emerging adults such as drug use, risky driving, or unprotected sexual relationship. However, high sensation-seeking predicts high risk-taking tendency in young adults. Moreover, for dimensions of sensation-seeking, bivariate correlations indicated that all four of the dimensions was related with risk-taking and risk appraisal. However, when a second regression analysis was run, it is found that only two of the dimensions, boredom susceptibility and thrill and adventure seeking, have predictive role over risk-taking behaviors. Disinhibition and experience seeking dimensions of sensation-seeking do not predict risk-taking behaviors significantly.

In the literature of risk-taking, to our knowledge, all the studies investigating impulsivity and sensation-seeking on risk-taking found a relationship of risk taking with both of them (Ashenhurst, Harden, Corbin & Fromme, 2015; Donohew, et. al., 2000; Glowacz & Schmits, 2017; Hovarth & Zuckerman, 1992; 1993; Hoyle, Fejfar & Miller, 2000; Peach & Gaultney, 2013; Ravert, et. al., 2009; Robbins & Bryan, 2000; Rolison & Scherman, 2003; Stanford & Barratt, 1992). The current study supports these findings in the relationship level that we also found there is a positive relationship between impulsivity and risk-taking and between sensation-seeking and risk-taking. However, for predictive roles, we did not found impulsiveness as a significant predictor on risk-taking behaviors. Similarly to our findings, Peach and Gaultney (2013) also found sensation-seeking as a better predictive factor than impulse control on risk-taking as well. Moreover, Mastroleo, Scaglione, Mallett and Turrisi's study between athletes and non-athlete university students indicated that while there is significant difference between risk-taking and sensation-seeking among these two groups, there is no difference for impulsivity for risky drinking (2013). In the literature, even though the majority of the studies support that both impulsivity and sensation-seeking have effect on risk-taking, there are also non-supporting studies that suggest that impulsivity may not be as important as the trait of sensation-seeking including the current. However, there should be wider evidence to exclude impulsivity out of risk-taking frame. Therefore, further studies are needed in this area. Another area that needs more research is the dimensions of sensation-seeking. To our knowledge, there is very limited knowledge about the relationship between risk-taking and the dimensions of the sensation-seeking which are experience seeking, thrill and adventure seeking, disinhibition and boredom susceptibility (Zuckerman, 1964). The current study found that only two of these

dimensions that are thrill and adventure seeking and boredom susceptibility, have predictive role on health-damaging risk-taking behaviors. However, Popham, Kennison and Bradley found that the exact other dimensions that are experience seeking and disinhibition have predictive role on risk-taking behavior (2011). Thus, further researches in sensation-seeking literature should focus on the dimensions and their relationship with risk-taking behavior.

4.3. Self-Defining Memories and the Mood

The present study's analysis showed that there is no correlation between SDM and risk appraisal and between SDM and risk-taking unlikely to what is expected. Therefore, the main model could not be tested, which will be discussed later under the general discussion part. However, for the third research question of the study, SDM and the mood was analyzed and it was found that SDM's valence is negatively related with the mood as expected. When people recall more negative self-defining memories about themselves, their mood become less and less positive congruently with the memories. Therefore, it can be said that recalled SDMs' valence manipulate the mood congruently with the valence. Moreover, when comparing positive and negative SDMs groups' before and after memory results, there are differences in terms of the emotions that significantly differ before and after SDMs. While in positive SDMs recall group, there are only differences in happiness and sadness score before and after SDMs, in negative SDM recall group, in addition to happiness and sadness, there are differences in overall mood, excited and depressed scores. People who recall positive SDMs feel happier and less sadder comparing to their mood before recall. However, people who recall negative SDMs become less happy and sadder. Also, the people in negative SDM group feel less

excited and more depressed after they recall negative SDMs comparing to their previous mood. These results suggest that recalling negative SDMs creates more intense mood changes in terms of the variety of the emotions, comparing to recalling positive ones.

The findings of the current study supports the previous findings in the literature (Gillihan, Kessier & Farah, 2007; Josephson et al., 1996, Rusting and DeHart, 2000, Setliff and Marmurek, 2002). The current study showed that as other autobiographical memories, self-defining memories are capable of manipulating the mood congruently with the memories' valence. The importance of our findings was that to investigate the memory effect on mood with self-defining memories on which there is relatively limited research. To our knowledge, there is only one study that has investigated the effect of self-defining memory on the mood which included only positive self-defining memory recall (Werner-Seidler & Moulds, 2014). In addition to Werner-Seidler and Moulds' study (2014), the current study gave us to chance to find out the negative self-defining memory effects on the mood as well as the positive ones. Furthermore, it showed that negative self-defining memories are stronger than positive one in terms of manipulating more emotions and the overall mood.

4.4. Self-Concept, Self-Defining Memories and Risk-Taking

The main hypothesis of the current study was that reminding people their negative and positive self-concept related memories which are self-defining memories would affect their risk perception and health related risk-taking behaviors and this effect of self-concept through self-defining memories would be moderated by the mood. However, initial analysis showed that there is no relationship of the valence of the SDM (implying recalled positive or negative self-concept) with either risk appraisal or risk-taking behaviors.

In the literature, self-concept or self-identity related with risk-taking behaviors is studied almost entirely in the frame of identity status of Marcia (1980) (Hardy et. al., 2012; Morsünbül, 2013; Sica, Ragazini, Palma & Sestito, 2017). Other identity researches on risk-takings were mostly focusing on different branches of identity such as sexual identity, sexual self-concept or ethnic identity or focusing on the dimensions of the identity (Breakwell & Millward, 1997; Miller, 2010; Schwartz et. al., 2008). Moreover, to our knowledge, most of the studies including self-concept, identity and risk-taking measured these with questionnaires. In the current study, we desired to discuss self-concept, identity and risk-taking in a different perspective with a more holistic attitude instead of a structured one and with a narrative approach. Our goal was to remind people positive or negative SDMs that activate their positive or negative self-concept without any constrained frames and to investigate its effect on health-damaging risk-taking behaviors. However, although in the literature, the studies suggest that negative self-concept has effect on risk-taking, we failed to find an association between these two. Not being able to find a

relationship is also important for the literature in terms of what to eliminate. These results suggest that unlike what we expected based on the previous works of self-concept, activation of negative or positive self-concept does not affect emerging adults' either risk appraisal for risky scenarios or risk-taking behaviors. These findings give chance for which factors to focus on risk-taking behaviors of Turkish emerging adults.

4.5. Mood, Risk Appraisal and Risk-Taking

As a part of the main hypothesis, in the current study we were also expecting a relationship between mood and risk-taking based on great amount of research in the literature. However, instead of conventional methods of mood induction such as listening music or watching emotional videos or pictures, we have tried to induct the mood via recalled positive or negative self-defining memories due to the nature of the study. Yet, our study failed to find that relationship between mood and risk-appraisal and between mood and risk-taking behaviors unlike of the wide literature findings. According to the results, feeling positive or negative mood after recalling SDMs is not related with risk-taking behaviors or risk appraisal. In the literature for risk-taking behaviors and mood, different studies found that both negative and positive affect may cause an increase in risk-taking behaviors (Caffray & Schneider, 2000; Forgas, 1994; 1995; Haase & Silbereisen, 2011; Hu, Xie & Li, 2013; Isen & Patrick, 1983; Pardini et al., 2004). The contradictory findings in the literature might be due to a third factor that may lead this study not to achieve the relationship such as the mood induction methods and their priming effects on risk-taking behavior. However, to discover that there should be more detailed work on mood and its effect on risk-taking and risk appraisal.

4.6. Phenomenological Characteristics of SDM and Risk-Taking

One of the present study's goal was to contribute the SDM literature in Turkish context, which is not a very wide area relatively to other areas. To our knowledge, there is a lack of knowledge in terms of SDM characteristics for positive and negative memories. For this purpose, we investigated the phenomenological characteristics of positive and negative SDMs and their relation to risk-taking in Turkish emerging adults.

The results showed that characteristics of SDM differ according to its valence unlike to limited previous research on this issue (Wener-Seidler & Moulds, 2012). The characteristics of sharing, observer perspective, recollection, emotional valence, emotional intensity, emotional distancing and preoccupation with emotions were significantly different between the groups of positive SDM and negative SDM. It was found that sharing with others, recollection of the memory, positive emotional valence and emotional intensity is higher when people remember positive self-defining memories comparing to negative memories. That means people who recall positive SDM share those memories with others, recall those memories as if they were living that moments again and feel strong emotions during the recall. Observer perspective, emotional distancing and preoccupation with emotions were the characteristics that were significantly higher in negative SDM group. In other words, people who recall negative SDMs feel themselves as if they were watching those memories from outside of the moments as a stranger during recall. Moreover, in negative SDM group, people are more likely to suppress, ignore and choose not to talk about the feeling about that memory, yet, they are tend to struggle, be confused and out of focus because of the emotions they try to ignore or suppress during recall. In the literature, to our knowledge, there is only one study comparing characteristics

of negative and positive SDMs which could not find any difference between positive and negative SDMs (Werner-Seidler & Moulds, 2012). However, this findings might be due to their small sample size per condition since they also compared depressed and non-depressed participants. To be able to reach a conclusion on the characteristics of SDM, more future researches is needed to be done.

Moreover, some of these characteristics in positive SDMs are related with risk-taking. The analysis showed that, in positive SDM group, the characteristics of observer perspective and preoccupation with emotions were positively correlated with risk-taking, while the characteristics of field perspective and narrative coherence were negatively associated with risk-taking. Yet, surprisingly, in negative SDM group, none of the characteristics were associated with risk-taking. The findings suggest that the more one sees her/himself as an observer from outside to the memory rather than seeing the moments from his/her own eyes, the more one is tend to engage in risk-taking behaviors. Moreover, less coherence in the memory story is associated with higher risk-taking in people who recall positive SDMs. Last but not least, when one is more occupied with the emotions during recall of positive SDM, there is also increase in risk-taking score. These findings might be suggesting that instead of direct effect of the valence of the memory, other characteristics of SDM might have a relationship with risk-taking behaviors separately for negative and positive valence. However, since there is no other known study about memory characteristics of SDM and risk-taking, this study carries a mission to be a very first preliminary work on this issue. Therefore, more elaborative research should be done on this relationship.

4.7. Limitations of the Study

The current study has several drawbacks. First of all, the gender ratio of the participants were not equal which may cause biased results especially in risk-taking literature. It would have been more accurate and comparable if there would be equal numbers of male and female participants in the study. Second drawback about demographics was that majority of the students were studying in the private universities that creates a problem for generalization of the results to wider population of emerging adults. To have equal numbers of participants from private and state universities as well as non-student participants would be more favorable in terms of generalization of the results. Another limitation of the study was about socially desirable answers. Due to the cultural and religious structure of Turkish population, people may not be honest about their answers for the sensitive topics such as drug use, alcohol consumption or premarital sexual relationship. Even though the participants were ensured about confidentiality of their answers, they may have not answered the questions honestly which may had an effect on the results. Another flaw of the current study might be the instructions of SDM and the quality of the memories. Even though the instructions for recalling positive or negative SDMs were acquired from other researches, there is still the likelihood that the participants may have not understood it completely. Furthermore, although they understood the instructions, they may have not recall 3 positive or negative SDMs at that moment. Therefore, the quality of the SDMs would have checked with qualitative methods to ensure that all the included memories were self-defining memories as genre. Due to limited time and resources, we could not perform any qualitative analysis on the memories, hence, we had to assume as if they were all self-defining memories. The last drawback of the study was the mood induction. Even though the analysis showed

that the mood was manipulated after memories, SDMs may not have an intense impact on mood manipulation rather than other conventional methods of music, videos or pictures. Less intense mood changes and less extreme mood scores (varying around 0 instead of 5 or -5), therefore, may have not had the effect on risk-taking that we expected based on the literature.

4.8. Clinical Implications of the Present Study

Risk-taking behaviors are one of the biggest health concerns in adolescence and emerging adulthood due to the fact that health-endangering risky behaviors are the leading death cause for the age group of 15-30 (WHO, 2012; 2015). Therefore, to prevent these risky behaviors, we need to understand what is its antecedent and what is not. For this purpose, the findings of the study can be used in prevention programs for risk-taking behaviors within clinical and educational settings. First of all, for Turkish emerging adults, it is clearer with the findings of the study that the ones who perceive the risks accurate, do not engage with them. Therefore, for prevention purposes, the perception of the risk should be focused rather than the action itself. The adolescents and emerging adults at risk should be educated clearly about the possible negative consequences of the risky behaviors in prevention programs and in clinical interventions. Moreover, as the results showed, sensation-seeking trait is a better predictor than impulsivity. Therefore, sensation-seeker adolescents and emerging adults should be concerned about being at risk rather than impulsive ones. The prevention programs for risk-taking should focus on sensation-seeking as well as the perception of the risk. Another implication that the study suggests was that self-concept or self-defining memories are not beneficial to be used in predicting and

preventing risk-taking. What not to look for is also important for clinical settings. Therefore, focusing on self-concept in the frame of risk-taking behaviors may not provide a shortcut to the goals for clients in clinical programs.

4.9. Suggestions for Further Studies

First of all, gender ratio and non-student participants should be two of the initial concerns for a better representation of population for future studies. Moreover, more variety on risk-taking scenarios considering both health-endangering situations such as dangerous sports and social situations such as embarrassing oneself in public might be better for further studies to investigate self-concept in different areas of risk-taking. Another suggestion for future studies that is interested in self-defining memories would be to run a qualitative analysis of the memories so that, there would be more to work on such as the common themes in negative and positive self-defining memories. Furthermore, further researchers should also focus on phenomenological characteristics of self-defining memories, which might end up with unique connections both with risk-taking and self-concept.

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APPENDIX

A. Informed Consent

Katılımcı Onay Formu

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu araştırma TED Üniversitesi Psikoloji Ana Bilim Dalı yüksek lisans öğrencisi Büşra Sel tarafından yüksek lisans tezi kapsamında yürütülmektedir. Çalışmanın amacı, gençlerin duygudurum, bellek ve davranışların arasındaki ilişkinin araştırılmasıdır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda, laboratuvar ortamında araştırmacı ile bir görüşme yapmanız, bazı anıları hatırlamanız ve bazı sorular içeren anketler doldurmanız istenmektedir. Araştırmaya katılım gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır. Çalışmanın herhangi bir aşamasında onayınızı çekme hakkına sahiptir. Onayınızı çekmeniz durumunda herhangi bir yaptırımla karşılaşmanız söz konusu değildir.

Bu çalışma kapsamında elde edilecek olan bilimsel bilgiler, sadece araştırmacılar tarafından yapılan bilimsel yayınlarda, sunumlarda ve eğitim amaçlı paylaşılacaktır. Süreç içerisinde paylaşımda bulunduğunuz bilgiler kesinlikle gizli tutulacak ve sadece proje araştırmacıları tarafından değerlendirilecektir. Toplanan veriler isimler silinerek, bilgisayarda şifreli bir dosyada tutulacaktır. Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz. Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak ve yanıtlanmasını istediğiniz sorularınız için benimle (E-posta: busra.sel@tedu.edu.tr, telefon: 5397745713) veya Yrd. Doç. Dr. Ilgın Gökler Danışman (E-posta: ilgin.danisman@tedu.edu.tr) iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

Saygılarımızla,

Büşra Sel
Danışman TED Üniversitesi, Psikoloji Bölümü
Psikoloji Bölümü e-posta: busra.sel@tedu.edu.tr
ilgin.danisman@tedu.edu.tr

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Ilgın Gökler
TED Üniversitesi,
e-posta:

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Bu proje kapsamında gereken uygulamalarda yer alacağımı biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayınlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.. Alınan kayıtların verilerin analizi bilimsel makaleler, akademik sunumlar ve çevrimiçi bir eğitim ortamı dışında kesinlikle kullanılmayacağını biliyorum.

Katılımcının Adı, Soyadı:

İmzası:

Tarih:

Araştırmaya katılımınız ve haklarınızın korunmasına yönelik sorularınız varsa ya da herhangi bir şekilde risk altında olduğunuza veya strese maruz kalacağına inanıyorsanız TED Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu'na (0312 585 00 11)telefon numarasından veya iaek@tedu.edu.trreposta adresinden ulaşabilirsiniz.

B. Demographics Form

KİŞİSEL BİLGİ FORMU

1. Doğum tarihiniz (gg/aa/yy): 2. Cinsiyetiniz: () Kadın () Erkek

3. Okul adı:

4. Anne ve babanız:

() Sağ

() Yalnızca anne sağ

() Yalnızca baba sağ

() İki de sağ değil

5. Anne ve babanızın medeni hali:

() Evli ve birlikte yaşıyor

() Evli ama birlikte yaşamıyor

() Boşanmış

() Diğer (Belirtiniz)

6. Annenizin eğitim durumu nedir?

() Okur-yazar değil

() Okur-yazar

() İlkokul mezunu

() Ortaokul mezunu

() Lise mezunu

() Üniversite mezunu

() Lisansüstü eğitim mezunu

7. Babanızın eğitim durumu nedir?

() Okur-yazar değil

() Okur-yazar

() İlkokul mezunu

() Ortaokul mezunu

() Lise mezunu

() Üniversite mezunu

() Lisansüstü eğitim mezunu

8. Annenizin çalışma durumu nedir?

() Çalışıyor () Çalışmıyor () Emekli

9. Babanızın çalışma durumu nedir?

() Çalışıyor () Çalışmıyor () Emekli

10. Ailenizin aylık ortalama geliri nedir?

11. Hayatınızın en uzun bölümünü yaşadığınız yer?

() Metropol (İstanbul, Ankara, İzmir...)

() Büyükşehir

() Şehir

() Kasaba

() Köy

C. Mood Rating

Kendinizi Őuanda tam olarak nasıl hissediyorsunuz?

Oldukça olumsuz					Nötr					Oldukça olumlu
-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5

AŐağıdaki duyguları Őuanda hissettiđiniz ruh haline göre deđerlendiriniz

(0= Hiç, 5= Oldukça)

Hüzünlü

0	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

Heyecanlı

0	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

Kaygılı/EndiŐeli

0	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

Mutlu

0	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

Üzgün

0	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

Gergin

0	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

D. Positive Self-Defining Memory Task

ANI-1

Kendimizi tanımlayan anılar, kendi geçmişimizde bizim içinde yer aldığımız olaylara ait anılar olup, şuanda kim olduğumuzla yakından ilgili anılardır. Bu tarz anılar, kendinizi bir başkasına tanıtırken kullanabileceğiniz sizi ve kimliğinizi iyi temsil ettiğinizi düşündüğünüz olumlu ya da olumsuz anılardır. Ayrıca, anı ile kastedilen geçmişte süregelen halde yaşanmamış olup bir kereye mahsus yaşanmış tarihlendirilebilen olaylardır.

Bu çalışmada sizden, kendinizi iyi temsil ettiğini düşündüğünüz aynı zamanda kendinizi bu anı içinde değerli, kabul edilen, önemli, sevilen biri olarak hissettiğiniz 1 ay veya daha öncesinde yaşadığınız 3 tane anınızı mümkün olduğunca detaylı bir biçimde anlatmanız istenmektedir. Her bir anıdan sonra ayrı bir formda verilecek olan soruları cevaplandırmanız gerekmektedir.

Anı-1 :

E. Negative Self-Defining Memory Task

ANI-1

Kendimizi tanımlayan anılar, kendi geçmişimizde bizim içinde yer aldığımız olaylara ait anılar olup, şuanda kim olduğumuzla yakından ilgili anılardır. Bu tarz anılar, kendinizi bir başkasına tanıtırken kullanabileceğiniz sizi ve kimliğinizi iyi temsil ettiğinizi düşündüğünüz olumlu ya da olumsuz anılardır. Ayrıca, anı ile kastedilen geçmişte süregelen halde yaşanmamış olup bir kereye mahsus yaşanmış tarihlendirilebilen olaylardır.

Bu çalışmada sizden, kendinizi iyi temsil ettiğini düşündüğünüz aynı zamanda kendinizi bu anı içinde değersiz, kabul edilmeyen, önemsiz, sevilmeyen biri olarak hissettiğiniz 1 ay veya daha öncesinde yaşadığınız 3 tane anınızı mümkün olduğunca detaylı bir biçimde anlatmanız istenmektedir. Her bir anıdan sonra ayrı bir formda verilecek olan soruları cevaplandırmanız gerekmektedir.

Anı-1 :

F. Autobiographical Memory Characteristics Questionnaire

Otobiyografik Bellek Özellikleri Ölçeği

Şimdi yukarıda aktardığınız anı ile ilgili size kimi sorular soracağız. Lütfen her bir ifadeyi bu anınızı düşünerek okuyun ve her bir ifadenin sizi ne ölçüde tanımladığını aşağıdaki 7 aralıklı ölçek üzerinde değerlendiriniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hiç Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

1. Bu olayı çok canlı bir şekilde hatırlarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Bu olayı çok net bir şekilde hatırlarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Olay olduğu sırada yaşadıklarım sanki dün olmuş gibi canlıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Olayın gerçekleştiği durumu sanki oradaymışım gibi canlı hatırlarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Eğer benden istenseydi, olay hakkında her şeyiyle gerçeğine uygun bir film çekebilirdim, çünkü olayı o kadar açık hatırlıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Bu olayın hatırladığım gibi gerçekleştiğinden eminim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Bu olayı anımsarken <u>olmamış</u> bir şeyleri hayal etmiyorum ya da uydurmuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Bu olay tam olarak hatırladığım şekilde gerçekleşmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Bu olayın hatırladığımdan farklı şekilde gerçekleşmiş olabileceğini düşünüyorum. (T)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

10. Bu olayın hatırladığım gibi gerçekleştiğine dair ciddi şüphelerim var. (T)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Olayın gerçekleştiği mekanın hangi ülkeye ait olduğunu anımsarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Olayın gerçekleştiği mekanın hangi şehre ait olduğunu anımsarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Olayın gerçekleştiği mekanın hangi semtte olduğunu anımsarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Bu olayı anımsarken, olay esnasında duyduklarım kulaklarımda yankılanır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Olayla ilgili dokunsal detayları (sıcaklık ya da acı gibi) anımsarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Olay olduğu sırada, nasıl durduğumu, yüzümün nereye dönük olduğunu ya da nasıl hareket ettiğimi anımsarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Bu olayı anımsarken, mekandaki kimi nesnelere (mobilyalar ya da duvar kağıdı gibi) ayrıntılarını ya da renklerini anımsarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Bu olaydaki kokuları (örneğin rutubet kokusu ya da parfüm kokusu gibi) olayı hatırlarken yeniden hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Bu olayı pek sık hatırlamam. (T)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Bu olayı hatırlayabilmek için bir süre düşünmem gerekti. (T)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Bu anıyı hatırlamak için hafızamı yoklamam gerekir. (T)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Bu olayı sıklıkla arkadaşlarıma ya da aileme anlatırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Bu olay olduğundan beri başkalarıyla olay hakkında pek çok kez konuştum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Bu olayı sıklıkla birileri ile paylaşıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

25. Bu olaydan kimseye bahsetmedim. (T)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Bu olayı başkaları ile paylaşmam. (T)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. Bu olayı anımsarken, sanki eski ben'e ve yakınımdaki kişilere yukarıdan ya da uzaktan bakıyormuş gibi hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Bu olayı anımsarken, olayı sanki dışarıdan bir gözlemci gibi görürüm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Bu olayı anımsarken, sanki başkasına ait bir filmi izliyormuş gibi hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Bu olayı anımsarken, bir izleyici gözüyle değil, kendi gözlerimle görüyormuşum gibi hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. Bu olayı anımsarken, olayı tamamen kendi gözlerimle görürüm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. Bu anıyı kendi gözlerimden, kendi bakış açımdan hatırlarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. Bu olayı zamansal sırası içinde (öncesini, olay esnasını, sonrasını bilerek) hatırlarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. Bu anı kopuk kopuk parçalar halinde aklıma gelir. (T)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. Bu olayı anımsarken, olay akışında boşluklar, hatırlayamadıklarım vardır. (T)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. Bu anı aklıma, kopuk kopuk anlık görüntüler halinde gelir. (T)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. Bu anıda olayların oluş sırası karışık, kafa karıştırıcıdır. (T)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38. Bu olayı anımsarken, olayı yeniden yaşıyormuş gibi hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39. Bu olayı anımsarken, olayın olduğu zamana geri yolculuk yapıyormuş gibi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

hissederim.							
40. Bu olayı anımsarken, geçmişe dönmüş ve o zamanki ben olmuş gibi hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41. Bu olayı düşünürken, sadece ne olduğunu bilmekten ziyade olayı gerçekten hatırlarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42. Bu olayı anımsarken, olay esnasında düşündüklerimi yeniden düşünür ya da hissettiklerimi yeniden hissediyor gibi olurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43. Olayı bir bütün olarak değerlendirdiğimde, hissettiğim duygular oldukça olumludur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44. Bu anıda hatırladığım olay oldukça olumludur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45. Bu olay olurken hissettiklerim oldukça olumluydular.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46. Olayı bir bütün olarak değerlendirdiğimde, hissettiğim duygular oldukça olumsuzdur. (T)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47. Bu anıda hatırladığım olay oldukça olumsuzdur. (T)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48. Bu olay olurken hissettiklerim oldukça olumsuzdular. (T)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49. Şimdi bu olayı hatırlarken hissettiğim duygular oldukça yoğun.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50. Bu olaya odaklandığımda duygularım çok şiddetlenir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51. Bu olayın anısı bende çok güçlü duygular uyandırır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52. Şimdi bu olayı hatırlarken hissettiğim duygular çok zayıf. (T)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53. Bu olayın anısı bende çok zayıf duygular uyandırır. (T)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

54. Bu olayı anımsarken, hissettiklerim önemli olsalar da yok saymayı tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55. Bu olay hakkında konuşurken sadece ne olup bittiğini anlatırım, duygularımdan ya da düşündüklerimden bahsetmem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56. Bu olayı anımsarken hissettiklerimi içime atarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57. Bu olayı anımsarken hissettiklerimi bastırırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58. Bu olayı anımsarken, hislerim aklımı karıştırır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59. Bu olayı anımsarken, hissettiklerim yüzünden düşüncelerim arasında kaybolurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60. Bu olayı anımsarken, hissettiklerim dışında başka bir şeye odaklanamam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
61. Bu olayı anımsarken hissettiklerimden dolayı, şu an bile olayı düşünmekte zorlanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
62. Bu olayı bir başkasına aktarırken, duygularımı öyle çok anlatma ihtiyacı duyarım ki olayı bütün bir öykü olarak aktaramam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
63. Bu olayı anımsarken hissettiklerim öyle yoğundur ki sonrasında yaptığım işlere odaklanamam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

(T) Ters çevrilmesi gereken maddeler

G. Risk Scenarios

Lütfen aşağıdaki senaryoyu dikkatlice okuyunuz ve formun devamındaki soruları yanıtlayınız.

Senaryo 1

Bir müzik konserine gittiniz ve çıkışta aile üyelerinden birinin sizi almak için geleceği konusunda anlaştınız. Ancak bir sorun çıktı ve kendiniz eve dönmek durumunda kaldınız. O sırada kapıda konserden ayrılmakta olan başka bir arkadaşınızla karşılaştınız ve sizi evinize kendi aracıyla bırakmayı teklif etti. Elinde bir bira şişesi tuttuğunu ve hali hazırda çakırkeyif olduğunu fark ediyorsunuz. Kendinizi şimdi bu durumda alkollü arkadaşınızla aynı arabaya binip binmemek durumunda hayal ediniz.

Senaryo 2

Yoğun bir günün sonunda arkadaşlarınızla dışarı çıktınız ve biraz kendinize gelmek için bir enerji içeceği içtiniz. Bu içeceği alkolle birlikte tüketilmesi durumunda ani kalp rahatsızlıklarına yol açabileceği bilgisine sahipsiniz. Gittiğiniz mekan bir bar ve yalnızca alkollü içecekler var. Kendinizi şimdi bu durumda enerji içeceği üzerine bir bira ısmarlayıp ısmarlamama durumunda hayal ediniz.

Senaryo 3

Bir arkadaşınızla bir kafede kahve içiyorsunuz. Yan masadan biri size doğru eğilerek sizle yüksek sesle dalga geçmeye, aptalca yorumlar yapmaya başlıyor. Sonra ayağa kalkıp sizin masanızı itiyor ve kahve üstünüze dökülüyor. Şimdi kendinizi ayağa kalkıp bu kişiye benzer bir karşılık verip vermemek durumunda hayal ediniz.

Senaryo 4

Romantik anlamda çok hoşlandığınız birisiyle tanıştınız. İkiniz baş başa başkaları tarafından rahatsız edilemeyecek bir yerdesiniz ve o da size sizden çok hoşlandığını söylüyor. Öpüşmeye başladınız ve işler daha da ileri gitmeye hazır görünmekte ancak herhangi bir cinsel korunma yöntemine karşı hazırlıklı değilsiniz. Şimdi kendinizi bu hoşlandığınız kişi ile korunmadan cinsel ilişkiye girip girmeme durumunda hayal ediniz.

Senaryo 5

Birkaç arkadaşınızla bir arkadaşınızın evinde film izlemeye gittiniz. Film bittikten sonra arkadaşlarınızdan birisi marihuana (gündelik dilde 'ot') ile sigaralar hazırlayıp, diğerlerine ikram etmekte. Size de bir tane uzattı. Şimdi kendinizi bu sigarayı alıp içip içmemek durumunda hayal ediniz.

H. Benthin Risk Perception Measure and Risk-Taking Question

Aşağıdaki soruları ‘marihuanalı sigarayı alıp içmiş olduğunuzu’ düşünerek yanıtlayınız.

1. Sizce bu davranış ne kadar risk taşıyor?				
Hiç risk taşımıyor			Çok risk taşıyor	
①	②	③	④	⑤

2. Sizce bu davranışın sizin için olumlu bir getirisi olur mu?				
Kesinlikle olumlu getirisi olmaz			Kesinlikle olumlu getirisi olur	
①	②	③	④	⑤

3. Sizce bu davranışın sizin için olumsuz sonuçları olur mu?				
Kesinlikle olumsuz sonuçları olmaz			Kesinlikle olumsuz sonuçları olur	
①	②	③	④	⑤

4. Sizce bu davranış ne kadar ürkütücü?				
Hiç ürkütücü değil			Çok ürkütücü	
①	②	③	④	⑤

5. Bu davranışın sonunda ‘işler kötü giderse’, sizce bu durumun sonuçları ne kadar ciddi olur?				
Hiç ciddi olmaz			Çok ciddi olur	
①	②	③	④	⑤

Aşağıdaki seçeneklerden size göre en uygununu okumuş olduğunuz senaryoya göre seçiniz.

- a) Ben gerçek hayatta bu senaryodaki gibi bir durumda olsam bu davranışı kesinlikle gerçekleştirmem.
- b) Ben gerçek hayatta bu senaryodaki gibi bir durumda olsam bu davranışı büyük ihtimalle gerçekleştirmem.
- c) Ben gerçek hayatta bu senaryodaki gibi bir durumda olsam bu davranışı gerçekleştirip gerçekleştirmeyeceğimden emin değilim.
- d) Ben gerçek hayatta bu senaryodaki gibi bir durumda olsam bu davranışı büyük ihtimalle gerçekleştiririm.
- e) Ben gerçek hayatta bu senaryodaki gibi bir durumda olsam bu davranışı kesinlikle gerçekleştiririm.

I. Barratt Impulsiveness Scale

İnsanlar farklı durumlarda gösterdiği düşünce ve davranışları ile birbirlerinden ayrılırlar. Bu test bazı durumlarda nasıl düşündüğünüzü ve davrandığınızı ölçen bir testtir. Lütfen her cümleyi okuyunuz ve bu sayfanın sağındaki, size en uygun numarayı işaretleyiniz. Cevaplamak için çok zaman ayırmayınız. Hızlı ve dürüstçe cevap veriniz.

	Nadiren/Hiçbir zaman	Bazen	Sıklıkla	Hemen hemen her zaman
1. İşlerimi dikkatle planlarım	1	2	3	4
2. Düşünmeden iş yaparım	1	2	3	4
3. Hızla karar veririm	1	2	3	4
4. Hiçbir şeyi dert etmem	1	2	3	4
5. Dikkat etmem	1	2	3	4
6. Uçuşan düşüncelerim vardır	1	2	3	4
7. Seyahatlerimi çok önceden planlarım	1	2	3	4
8. Kendimi kontrol edebilirim	1	2	3	4
9. Kolayca konsantre olurum	1	2	3	4
10. Düzenli para biriktiririm	1	2	3	4
11. Derslerde veya oyunlarda yerimde duramam	1	2	3	4
12. Dikkatli düşünen birisiyim	1	2	3	4

13. İş güvenliğine dikkat ederim	1	2	3	4
14. Düşünmeden bir şeyler söylerim	1	2	3	4
15. Karmaşık problemler üzerine düşünmeyi severim	1	2	3	4
16. Sık sık iş değiştiririm	1	2	3	4
17. Düşünmeden hareket ederim	1	2	3	4
18. Zor problemler çözmek gerektiğinde kolayca sıkılırım	1	2	3	4
19. Aklıma estiği gibi hareket ederim	1	2	3	4
20. Düşünerek hareket ederim	1	2	3	4
21. Sıklıkla evimi değiştiririm	1	2	3	4
22. Düşünmeden alışveriş yaparım	1	2	3	4
23. Aynı anda sadece bir tek şey düşünebilirim	1	2	3	4
24. Hobilerimi değiştiririm	1	2	3	4
25. Kazandığımdan daha fazlasını harcarım	1	2	3	4
26. Düşünürken sıklıkla zihnimde konuyla ilgisiz düşünceler oluşur	1	2	3	4
27. Şu an ile gelecekte daha fazla ilgilenirim	1	2	3	4
28. Derslerde veya sinemada rahat oturamam	1	2	3	4
29. Yap-boz/ puzzle çözmeyi severim	1	2	3	4
30. Geleceğini düşünen birisiyim	1	2	3	4

J. Brief Sensation Seeking Scale

Aşağıda heyecan arayışı ile ilgili verilen ifadeleri dikkatli okuyunuz ve sizin için en uygun seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

Doğru veya yanlış cevap yoktur.

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
1- Tehlikeli yerleri keşfetmeyi severim	1	2	3	4
2- Korkutucu şeyler yapmayı severim	1	2	3	4
3- Kuralları çiğnemek zorunda kalsam bile, yeni ve heyecan verici deneyimleri severim	1	2	3	4
4- Ne yapacağı belli olmayan ve macerayı seven arkadaşları tercih ederim	1	2	3	4

K. Ethical Committee Approval

TED ÜNİVERSİTESİ İNSAN ARAŞTIRMALARI ETİK KURULU

ETİK KURUL KARARLARI

Toplantı Tarihi: 30.11.2017

Toplantı Sayısı: 2017/71

TED Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu 30.11.2017 Perşembe günü saat 13.00'de toplanarak aşağıdaki kararları almıştır.

Karar:(88) TED Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Gelişim Odaklı Klinik Çocuk ve Ergen Psikolojisi Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Büşra Sel'in sahibi olduğu "Ergenlerin Risk Algısında Duygu Durum ve Otobiyografik Belleğin Etkilerinin Araştırılması" başlıklı yüksek lisans tez çalışmasına ilişkin 12.10.2017-2504 tarih ve sayılı etik kurul onay talebi görüşülmüş ve etik kurul tarafından talep edilen düzeltmelerin 07.11.2017-2707 tarih ve sayılı revize başvuruda gerçekleştirilmiş olduğu görülerek proje önerisinde, araştırma kapsamında uygulanacağı beyan edilen veri toplama yöntemlerinin araştırma etiğine uygun olduğuna OYBİRLİĞİ ile karar verilmiştir.



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L. Thesis Copy Permission Form

ENSTİTÜ

Lisansüstü Programlar Enstitüsü

YAZARIN

Soyadı : Sel

Adı : Büşra

Bölümü : Psikoloji

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce): An Investigation into the Effects of Mood and Autobiographical Memory on Risk Appraisal in Adolescence

TEZİN TÜRÜ: Yüksek Lisans

Doktora

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.

2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.

3. Tezimden bir bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınamaz.

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ: