DOCTORAL THESIS

Psychological well-being, romantic attachment and attitudes toward divorce of emerging adults in Northern Cyprus

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Psychological Well-being, Romantic Attachment and Attitudes toward Divorce of Emerging Adults in Northern Cyprus

By

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**ABSTRACT**

The aim of this research was to investigate the extent to which the family structure might be related to psychological well-being, romantic attachment styles and attitudes toward divorce in emerging adulthood in Northern Cyprus. The project consisted of two studies. Study 1 compared psychological well-being and romantic attachment styles among offspring of divorced and married parents in a quantitative methodology. It also examined the extent to which this difference might be mediated by their coping with stress in relation to the quality of family relationships. In study 1, 145 offspring with divorced parents and 150 offspring with married parents who were all Turkish Cypriots were included in the sample. The age range was 18-29 years with a mean age of 22.42 years and 22.32 years for emerging adults with married parents and divorced parents, respectively. Participants were given a set of questionnaires to measure psychological well-being, romantic attachment styles, quality of family relationships and coping with stress. Study 2 was based on mixed methodology using both quantitative and quantitative approaches. For the quantitative part of the study, same participants in Study 1 were included in the sample and were given a questionnaire to measure attitudes toward divorce at the same time of the administration of the set of the questionnaires in Study 1. For the qualitative part of Study 2, 10 emerging adults with divorced parents and 10 married parents were selected from the sample of Study1. Participants were interviewed to obtain in-depth information about their attitudes toward divorce, the quality of family relationships and coping with stress by using Thematic Analysis. Results indicated that psychological well-being, romantic attachment styles and attitudes toward divorce were predicted by inter-parental conflict and emotional support by
the grandparents which in turn led to better coping with inter-parental conflict. Major themes in the interviews were “divorce as an escape” and “divorce as the turning point in family relationships”. The results also suggested that the family system within Turkish Cypriot society could be protective toward the risk of inter-parental conflict and parental divorce for offspring.

Keywords: Family, coping, psychological well-being, romantic attachment, attitudes toward divorce, emerging adulthood
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CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS


** indicates the presentations within the scope of this PhD project


** indicates the presentations within the scope of this PhD project

* indicates the presentations out of the scope of this PhD project
PUBLICATIONS

- *I am known with my former surname as Bayraktar in some of the publications.*


** indicates the publications within the scope of this PhD project

* indicates the publications out of the scope of this PhD project

CONFERENCE AWARDS

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In order to develop normally, a child requires progressively more complex joint activity with one or more adults who have an irrational emotional relationship with the child. Somebody's got to be crazy about that kid. That's number one. First, last and always.

Urie Bronfenbrenner (1991)

All individuals face various experiences throughout the life-span. While some of these experiences can be under the control of the individual to change at some level (e.g., which peer group to be with, which University to go), some experiences such as family which can predict the individual’s development cannot be chosen or cannot be controlled by the individual easily. The family is one of the significant contexts which the individual finds him/herself in without any choice of its structure (e.g., married or divorced), its size (e.g., nuclear or extended), or its dynamics (e.g., healthy or unhealthy family relationships). Moreover, each person is born within a particular family context which presents him/her with various experiences that can sometimes direct one’s life out of his/her control. These experiences may also be presented either as risk or protective factors for the individual. For example, an offspring who was exposed to some factors (e.g., domestic violence) which is a risk for his/her “healthy” development unless s/he had been able to cope with this in an adaptive way. In contrast, an offspring who was raised within a family context presenting protective factors for development (e.g., secure family relationships) would be less prone to have unhealthy developmental
pathways such as poor psychological well-being. Moreover, experiencing the risk or protective factors within the family is not only related to the offspring psychological development but also to his/her relationships with significant others (e.g., peers, romantic partners) later in life.

The main aim of this project is to examine the offspring’s developmental outcomes in relation to a variety of family factors (i.e., quality of parental and inter-parental relationships and emotional support within the extended family). Since adaptive coping strategies are facilitated by family relationships and may lead to more resiliency in development, the present research also explores the role of offspring’s coping strategies with stress on developmental outcomes. This thesis will first examine the typical structure of family in Northern Cyprus namely in divorced and married family. The major reason for being interested in these two family structures is the change in the traditional nuclear family system in Northern Cyprus due to increasing divorce rates for the past ten years. According to the statistics, 523 of the 1246 marriages ended with divorce in 2006. The divorce rates increased 62% in the last decade and it was reported that 841 of the 1075 family cases in the courts were the divorce cases and all 841 cases ended with divorce (Northern Cyprus Courts, Family Report, 2016). In addition to these, State Planning Organization (2015) showed that divorce rates increased at around 40% between the years 2005-2008 and 50% after 2010. Beyond these statistics, some of the reasons for the increase in the divorce trend were reported to be economic problems, cultural differences between the spouses and marrying without knowing the partner’s personality characteristics adequately (Boyra, 2016).

The project comprises two related studies. Study 1 is a quantitative study and explores psychological well-being and romantic attachment styles among offspring.
of divorced and married parents. The study also investigates any mediating role of coping strategies with stress and quality of family relationships among the emerging adults in Turkish Cypriot family system. Despite the increasing number of offspring who have experienced parental divorce, to our knowledge, the influence of parental divorce on offspring’s development at any age has never been investigated in Northern Cyprus. Study 2 used a mixed methodology to explore the role of quality of family relationships and coping with stress on emerging adult offspring’s attitudes toward divorce. The attitudes toward divorce among the offspring in both married and divorced households are first explored quantitatively. The quantitative analysis is followed by qualitative analysis with the aim of getting more detailed information on emerging adults’ attitudes toward divorce, perception of family relationships and ways of coping with stress.

The literature review, method, results and the analyses parts for Study 1 and Study 2 will now be presented respectively.
CHAPTER 2
STUDY 1
The Role of the Family Structure, Family Relationships and Coping Strategies
with Stress on Psychological Well-being and Romantic Attachment Quality

LITERATURE REVIEW
2.1. Theoretical Background of Family as a Context for Development

The family is shown as one of the most significant contexts in development
due to its proximity to the child and therefore, it has received the most attention
within theories on life-long development as contextualism which conceptualizes
development as the ongoing interplay between an individual and a context (Biglan,
1995; Cicchetti & Aber, 1998). One of the main theories based on contextualistic
approach is the Ecological Theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) which suggests that
development occurs in ecological contexts that consist of numerous nested levels.
Each level is defined in a different degree of proximity to the individual and
demonstrates one of the six sub-systems: The micro-system refers to the relationship
between the individual and the immediate environment, such as family and school.
The meso-system comprises the linkages between the micro-systems such as the
relations between the home and school. The exo-system defines the larger social
system in which the child does not function directly but impacts on the child’s
development by interacting with some structure in the micro-system (e.g.,
community-based family resources). The macro-system includes the cultural beliefs
and values that permeate societal and family functioning like child rearing attitudes
in a specific culture which in turn affects the structures in which the parents function.
The chrono-system demonstrates the influence on the person's development of
changes (and continuities) over time in the person’s environments. The simplest form of chrono-system focuses around two types of life transition as normative (e.g., entering into a developmental stage, marriage, retirement) and non-normative (e.g., parental divorce, moving). Such transitions occur throughout the life span and often serve as a direct influence for development. Their relevance for the present project, however, lies in the fact that both normative (e.g., being in emerging adulthood) and non-normative (e.g., parental divorce) life transitions can also influence development via affecting family processes in terms of quality of family relationships. Finally, the level of ontogenic development includes the individual and his/her biological or psychological functioning.

Drawing on the principles of contextualism and ecological theory, Cicchetti and Lynch (1993) have proposed an ecological-transactional model that the levels of the contexts interact and transact with each other over time in shaping individual adaptation and mal-adaptation in development. For example, violence in the community (a characteristic of the exo-system) may be associated with an increased likelihood of violence at home (a micro-system variable) and for children growing in contexts in which violence occurs frequently, the risks for development is high (e.g., Crittenden, Claussen, & Sugarman, 1994; Spinazzola et al., 2014). In other words, the ecological-transactional model suggests that the context and children’s functioning mutually influence each other. Moreover, the transactions between children and their contexts are viewed as allowing both for risks and opportunities resiliency over time. That means, a positive change in any context (e.g., decrease of domestic violence or moving to a low violence residential area) would lead to more positive outcomes in the offspring’s development.
The Ecological-Transactional Model (Cicchetti & Lynch, 1993) provides a rich background to understand the contextual influences on offspring’s development in their relation to the emergence of resiliency versus risky development. Based on this model, the present project focuses on offspring’s psychological development in emerging adulthood (as a normative chrono-system) within the family context in relation to the quality of family relationships (a micro-system variable) in married/divorced families (as a non-normative chrono-system) in the socio-cultural context of Turkish Cypriot culture (as a macro-system variable).

2.2. Theoretical Background of the Quality of Family Relationships and Family Structure in the Contexts of Offspring’s Development

Studies have suggested that the quality of parent-child relationships is the primary determinant of the family context which affect offspring’s developmental outcomes (Goldberg & Carlson, 2014; Heinrich, Cronrath, Degen, & Snyder, 2010; Maccoby, 1992). The Attachment Theory provides the most influential framework for understanding the effect of the quality of parent-child relationships on offspring’s emotional and psychological development (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978; Bowlby, 1969). The theory defines “attachment” as a strong emotional bond between the infant and the caregiver(s) who are mostly the parents meeting the infants’ needs for having interest, attention and care. The infant is dependent on his/her caregiver for survival and the infant’s needs are noted by the caregiver who in turn offers comfort and protection for the infant. This co-ordinated relationship provides a secure base for the infant and leads to an attachment bond between the infant and the caregiver (Bowlby, 1969, 1982; Bretherton, 1985). However, subsequent research showed that parent-child emotional bonds were more essential
than meeting the child’s primary needs (Ainsworth, 1973). The formation and maintenance of emotional bonds between parents and children were also found to be strongly predicting the positive qualities of development (Ainsworth, 1962; Bowlby, 1969). Moreover, attachments between the parent and the child were viewed as providing influential initial models for children in their later close relationships such as with peers or romantic partners.

Ainsworth (1973) defined four types of attachment styles:

- secure attachment, (i.e., children become securely attached; feeling confident with a responsive caregiver when they have a need)
- avoidant attachment, (i.e., children become avoidantly attached and do not trust a caregiver who is unresponsive to their needs)
- anxious/ambivalent attachment, (i.e., children are unable to readily receive comfort from their caregiver in times of distress when caregivers are inconsistent toward the child’s needs)
- disorganized attachment, (i.e., children become disorganized with abusing caregivers and tend to be inconsistent in their interactions)

While the quality of parent-child relationships are the primary influences on development, it is increasingly apparent that other family factors also affect offspring development (Belsky, 1984; Clements, Martin, Randall & Kane, 2014; Cusimano & Riggs, 2013; Grych & Fincham, 1990). For example, in a cognitive-contextual framework, Grych and Fincham (1990) explained how inter-parental conflict is also associated with offspring development. The framework proposed four components of inter-parental conflict (i.e., intensity, content, duration, and resolution) that have important effects on offspring development as (1) the intensity of the conflict relates
to the degree of negative affect or hostility expressed and the occurrence of physical aggression; (2) the specific content of the conflict relates to the perception of being involved, blamed, or triangulated in the inter-parental conflict; (3) the duration of the conflict relates to the length of time children are exposed to a stressful situation; and (4) the resolution of the conflict relates to the perception that parents are unable to constructively deal with conflict.

Previous research supported the model of Grych and Fincham (1990) by demonstrating that perception of inter-parental conflict was associated with offspring behaviour problems even in the preschool years (e.g., Clements et al., 2014) and memories of inter-parental conflict in childhood are significantly related to psychological well-being in adulthood (e.g., Cusimano & Riggs, 2013). Numerous empirical studies have also documented that threat perceived at the time of inter-parental conflict led to offspring adjustment problems such as anxiety and aggressive behaviours (e.g., Cummings & Davies, 2010; Grych, Fincham, Jouriles, & McDonald, 2000; Grych, Harold, & Miles, 2003; Melo & Mota, 2014; Simon & Furman, 2010). Empirical studies have also identified some mechanisms that may account as mediating or moderating for the association between inter-parental conflict and mal-adjustment in children. For example, a study indicated that exposure to community violence mitigated the association between inter-parental conflict and children’s self-reported internalizing problems (Rosenfield, Jouriles, McDonald, & Mueller, 2014). The researchers explained this as exposure to high levels of community violence might weaken the extent to which children felt threatened by inter-parental conflict, which might attenuated the relation between children’s exposure to inter-parental conflict and their internalizing problems. Another study found that memories of interparental conflict in childhood were
significantly related to psychological functioning in emerging adulthood and adult
attachment strategies play an important mediating role on this relationship
(Cusimona & Riggs, 2014).

Another factor within the family context which predicts offspring
development is the family structure. Some studies indicated that compared to
children of married parents, children of divorced parents have more internalizing
(e.g., anxiety, depression) and externalizing problems (e.g., behaviour problems)
(e.g., Demo & Fine, 2010). There are also contradictory results for the singular effect
of family structure on offspring development (e.g., Golombok, 2000; Golombok &
Tasker, 2015; Meyer & Garasky, 1993; Solomon & Biringen, 2001; Solomon &
George, 1999). For instance, it was found that not the structure of the family but the
poor quality of parental relationships was a risk for offspring adjustment to divorce
(Golombok, 2015). In support of Attachment Theory some studies indicated that
divorce becomes a risk for offspring development in forms of psychological
impairments via decreased attachment quality between the offspring and parents
(Adamsons & Johnsons, 2013; Meyer & Garasky, 1993; Solomon & Biringen, 2001;
Solomon & George, 1999) when it leads to decreased contact with parents. This is
mostly marked by a considerable loss of contact with their fathers who were 90%

As aforementioned, developmental outcomes of the offspring are not only
related to the quality of relationships with parents but also to the quality of inter-
parental relationships (Grych, et al., 2000; 2003). Specifically, when offspring of
divorced parents were less exposed to inter-parental conflict (as a form of micro-
system), they tended to develop more secure attachment to their parents and show
fewer psychological symptoms after parental divorce (Brock & Kochanska, 2016; Solomon & George, 1999).

To sum up, in accordance with the explanations of Ecological, Ecological-Transactional and Attachment Theories, research evidence showed that if offspring have secure family relationships (i.e., secure attachment with parents), their psychological well-being would not be at risk. In other words, not the family structure itself but the quality of family relationships seem to predict resiliency versus risk for offspring development.

2.3. Emerging Adulthood and Family Relationships

Emerging adulthood (18-29 years of age) is described as a transformation stage from adolescence to adulthood. According to Arnett (2004, 2006), this developmental stage has five main features: (a) the age of identity explorations, of trying out various possibilities, especially in love and work; (b) the age of instability, with shifting choices in life, especially in love, work, education and residence; (c) the most self-focused age of life, with few ties that entail daily obligations and commitments to others like parents or teachers. Making decisions by themselves in many areas is viewed by emerging adults as a necessary step to gain a better understanding of who they are and what they want from life, and to begin to build a foundation for their adult lives before committing themselves to enduring relationships with others; (d) the age of feeling in-between, in transition, neither adolescent nor adult; and (e) the age of possibilities, when hopes flourish, when people have an unparalleled opportunity to transform their lives.

Over the last 20 years, an emerging theme in human development and family studies literature is the significance of life transitions on development (e.g., Rutter,
1996; Schulenberg, Maggs, & O’Malley, 2003). Many researchers have focused on the impact of life transitions on the individual across late adolescence into emerging adulthood (e.g., Aquilino, 2006; Arnett, 2000). A family systems perspective highlights that changes in one sub-system are likely to affect other family sub-systems (Whitchurch & Constantine, 1993). That is, family members do not function in isolation, but influence and are influenced by other family sub-systems. Based on the family systems perspective, the present project focuses on how being in emerging adulthood (as a transition stage) is related to changes in the family relationships of the offspring and how this would predict developmental outcomes of emerging adult offspring.

There is varied evidence in the literature regarding the continuity of emerging adults’ relationships with parents although most of the research supports the fact that there is moderate stability. Previous research on attachment suggested that attachment styles tend to remain stable from infancy to adulthood (Waters, Hamilton & Weinfield, 2000) and an initial secure attachment pattern formed with parents in the early years of life assists in healthy separation from parents while still retaining intimacy (Leondari & Kiosseoglou, 2000). In addition to this, it was reported that changes in attachment occur in the presence of negative life events such as parental divorce. For instance, Aquilino (1994) found that parental divorce resulted in a weaker parent-child attachment quality even if no adverse effects were apparent during childhood.

Despite the findings for the stability of relationships with parents in emerging adulthood, emerging adults tend to re-evaluate their relationships with their parents especially in regard to autonomy (Aquilino, 2006; Arnett, 2006). Despite the increasing need for autonomy that emerging adults experience, there is
also a continuing need for support from parents, although this need is often different and less dependent than that of children and younger adolescents. Tanner, Arnett and Leis (2009) reported that a new relationship with parents occurs in emerging adulthood characterized with independence of parents but still relying on parents especially for financial support, advice and emotional support. Low levels of stability also imply an opportunity for some parent-child relationships to change when youth leave home (Aquilino, 1997, 2006). For example, as youth transition out of the home, parents may reduce their levels of control, and offspring may reduce their levels of dependency. As such, “home leaving acts as a catalyst toward a more individuated relationship that is based on the mutual care and respect of two adults” (Aquilino, 1997, p.682). In sum, although there is some stability in parent-child relationships during the transition to emerging adulthood, the transition also generates many changes within the family dynamics.

Despite the accumulative number of studies on the impact of parents’ divorce on adult offspring, research on the impact of parental divorce during emerging adulthood is limited. It is well known that emerging adulthood is not a universally defined period of time but a period that exists only in cultures that postpone the entry into adult roles and responsibilities until after late teens (Arnett, 2006). Today’s Turkish Cypriot young people show very similar developmental characteristics that are expected in emerging adulthood. The statistics have indicated that 20 % of the population in North Cyprus which is suggested to be 300,000 approximately belongs to the age range (18-29) of emerging adulthood (State Planning Organization, [SPO], 2015). In addition, many Turkish Cypriot people prefer to pursue their education and career development during their 20’s and postponing forming their own families until their 30’s. These people mostly live in their parents’ homes without having full-
time paid work. The statistics have also indicated that marriage age increased to an average of 30 years for men and an average of 27 years for women between the years 1998-2014 (State Planning Organization, [SPO], 2015). Therefore, it seems to be critical to understand emerging adults’ developmental outcomes in Turkish Cypriot society in relation to changing adult roles within the society since 1998.

2.4. The Role of Family Relationships in Different Cultures on Offspring’s Development

Consistent with ecological perspectives on family, offspring’s development is best understood as embedded in a variety of social and other ecological contexts, including cultural and ethnic contexts of development. Within a contextual-developmental approach, the present project focuses on some aspects of family dynamics within the specific socio-cultural context of Turkish Cypriot community in order to explore the role of family and the culture of the family as the two contexts on offspring’s development.

Family is an integral part of society and is inherently tied to its social structure, values and norms, which vary through time and across societies and in families (Kağıtçibaşı, 2013). Therefore, understanding the family system and family relationships in a particular society seems to be dependent on understanding the society’s cultural characteristics first. Culture is construed as mainly individualistic (culture of separatedness) or as collectivist (culture of relatedness). In individualistic culture, high emphasis is placed on the individual self whereas in collectivistic culture, high value is placed on conformity, submissiveness, and group orientation, and socialization goals are to maintain group harmony and cooperation (Triandis, 1995). The “contextual model of family” of Kağıtçibaşı (1990) very well
defines how culture shapes the relationships within a family. The model proposes that in Western countries where culture is known as “individualistic culture”, the main characteristics of the family are known as a system of “independent” relationships among the family members with well-defined boundaries. In contrast, in East Asian countries with collectivistic cultures (e.g., Japan, Taiwan, Thailand, Malaysia) the main characteristics of the family are known as a system of “interdependent” relationships among the family members (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1996). The variation in cultural characteristics of family not only affects the relationships within that family but also affects the child rearing practices of parents. In Western industrialized societies, high emphasis is placed on the individual self. An important goal in child-rearing is the promotion of individualism, including self-development, independence, freedom, and autonomy. In contrast, in Asian cultures high value is placed on the socially embedded self and related values of conformity, submissiveness, and group orientation; here socialization goals are to maintain group harmony and co-operation (Kashima & Abu-Rayya, 2014; Triandis, 1990, 1995).

Previous studies on the effects of family structure (married/divorced) and family relationships on offspring’s development have mostly been conducted in Western countries with individualistic culture where the familial relationships are also mostly thought to be within the nuclear family. Yet, little is known about the extent to which the results of these studies can be generalized to those who live in other cultures.
2.4.1. Family Systems, Family Relationships and Development of the Offspring in Turkish Cypriot Culture

Cyprus is an island country in the Eastern Mediterranean Sea, off the coasts of Syria, Turkey, Greece and Egypt. The island has been divided by a patrolled United Nations buffer zone since 1974, with Turkish-speaking citizens on the north and Greek-speaking citizens on the south.

It was previously mentioned that culture shapes the family relationships via different family systems (Kağıtçibaşı, 2013). Mediterranean cultures are known as the cultures where family life is particularly intensive and influential (Stanton, 1995). Consistently, in their extensive research on Turkish Cypriot society’s social, economic and cultural structure, Rüstemli, Çakmak and Mertan (2000) reported that the majority of Turkish Cypriots (68.3 %) perceive their family members as the primary source of psychosocial support. Although these findings and the observed family dynamics lead one to assume that Turkish Cypriot culture mostly represents collectivist family relationships, empirical support for this assumption is still lacking.

The family structure and family relationships of Turkish Cypriots were defined as an “amalgam of the nuclear and the extended family”, with strong intra-familial relations with distinct characteristics from the Western family (Mertan, 2003; Mertan & Boulanger-Balleyguier, 2008). In the amalgam family model, married couples in Northern Cyprus usually live in their own houses but in the same building with their parents (e.g., in family apartments in which each nuclear family live in their own separate flats) (see Figure 1). This makes families appear as a “nuclear family” but because of the close residency, and close proximity in relationships with the extended family, they do not represent nuclear family
relationship patterns. For instance, the close residency patterns represented in Figure 1, generally leads to have common daily life routines between the nuclear and the extended family (e.g., having lunch or dinner all together in the houses or flats of the extended family). Married couples may either start to live closely with either those of the married woman’s parents or the married man’s parents depending on the side have built the house. Therefore, there is not any determined way for the amalgam family model to be with the ties through matriarchal or patriarchal lineage.

Figure 1. Turkish Cypriot Amalgam Family Model (Mertan, & Boulanger-Balleyguier, 2008).

Note: This figure was modified from one used by Mertan and Boulanger-Balleyguier (2008) with the supervision of Mertan in 2016. This revised and unpublished version was used for the first time in this thesis with the permission of Mertan in 2016.
According to Mertan and Boulanger-Balleyguier (2008), this close proximity between the nuclear and the extended family also creates an environment which encourages a willingness of the grand-parents to take care of their grand-children when the mother is away. Additionally, parents prefer to leave their child in the care of the grand-parents due to a widespread belief that children under the age of three are more loved and better tended by family members and close relatives (Mertan, 2003). Even if mothers were not working, they would still prefer to live in close proximity to their relatives and show more willingness for the grand-parents to take care of the child than non-relative caregivers or child-care centres (Mertan, 2003). It was also indicated by Mertan, (2003) that amalgam family relationships and the social support provided by the grand-parents for the nuclear family was related to higher quality of relationships between the mother and the child. It was argued that when employed mothers leave their children with their parents (relatives), they suffer less separation anxiety during working hours and they tend to be more eager to spend their time with their child when they come back to home after work. Moreover, children of these parents were found to have a greater expectation that their mother would spend higher quality time with them after work compared to children who are taken care of by non-relative caregivers or child-care centres.

The increasing divorce rates in Northern Cyprus (Northern Cyprus Courts, Family Report, 2015) has also led to an increase in the number of the “bi-nuclear families” which is a family system with two households one headed by the mother, the other headed by the father and one family joined together by a co-parental bond (Ahrons, 2007). Despite the increasing number of bi-nuclear families, to our knowledge, the influence of parental divorce on offspring’s development at any age has never been investigated in Northern Cyprus. Furthermore, amalgam family
relationships are expected to be presented between the bi-nuclear family and the extended family in Northern Cyprus. In addition, it is expected to find more support of grandparents toward their grandchildren in the case of parental divorce as also indicated by previous studies which found that grandparents may increase their involvement after a divorce, in order to provide support for a newly divorced family (e.g., Cherlin & Furstenberg, 1994; Clingempeel, Colyar, Bland, Hetherington, 1992; Jappens & Van Bavel, 2016).

In sum, within the framework of the ecological approach, the present project investigates the role of family structure and the quality of family relationships as the contexts of offspring’s development. The project is also based on the ecological-transactional approach since it investigates how the changes in intra-familial relationships (between parent-child and inter-parental) as the micro-system and being in emerging adulthood as the chrono-system would be related to the changes on the impact of other contextual systems (parental divorce) on development. And finally the project is based on cultural perspectives since it explores the role of family context specifically in the socio-cultural environment of the Turkish Cypriot community. In the light of the presented approaches, this project attempts to link the individual, family and society in a contextual frame which differs from the typical Western family context.

2.5. The Role of Family Structures and Family Relationships on the Psychological Well-being of Emerging Adults

It was clearly documented that transition to a new developmental stage (a normative chrono-system) can shape an individual’s adaptation and mal-adaptation to new developmental tasks which could have an impact of the developmental
outcomes (Schulenberg & Zarrett, 2006). Numerous researchers have also suggested that psychological well-being is a crucial issue in emerging adulthood (Arnett, 2000, 2004) and which influences numerous changes in emotional regulation, perspective taking, identity, independence, affiliation (e.g. transitions in parental, peer, romantic involvements), and achievement (e.g., transition from school to work) (Keating, 2004). Thus, it is not surprising that the incidence of psychopathology (e.g., depressive disorders) was found to be increasing in emerging adulthood (American Psychiatric Association, 2000).

The concept of “Psychological Well-Being” was defined in six dimensions as 1) self-acceptance (i.e., feeling positive about one’s good qualities, and accepting of the bad qualities); 2) positive relations with others (i.e., satisfying human relationships); 3) autonomy (i.e., the ability to make important decisions independently); 4) environmental mastery (i.e., a feeling of competence and control when managing one’s everyday affairs); 5) purpose in life (i.e., a sense of direction that life has meaning); and 6) personal growth (i.e., a notion of continued improvement over time) (Ryff, 1989). The quality of relationships with parents was found to be a major predictor of a healthy adaptation and psychological well-being in emerging adulthood. A study of university students found that secure attachment with parents leads to healthy separation from parents that leads in turn to adaptive psychological functioning (Leondari & Kiosseoglou, 2000). Securely attached students scored higher on self-esteem and lower on anxiety and loneliness than insecurely attached students. Moreover, insecure attachment to parents was found to be associated with elevated levels of anger and hostility among emerging adult offspring (Muris & Meesters, 2002).
Studies have also found family structure as a main predictor of psychological well-being among offspring at any age (e.g., Amato, 2010; Demo & Fine, 2010; Emery, 1999; Hetherington & Kelly, 2002; Rodgers & Rose, 2002). However, findings on the association between parental divorce and offspring’s psychological well-being have been inconsistent. In some studies, divorce was reported to be a risk factor for psychological well-being of the offspring. For example, according to two meta-analyses (Amato, 2010; Amato & Keith, 1991), children of divorced compared to children of non-divorced families had significantly lower scores on a wide range of outcomes including academic achievement, psychological adjustment, positive self-concept and adequate social competence. Other studies on the other hand found non-significant differences between offspring from divorced and non-divorced families on a range of child outcomes (Amato, 2005; Burns & Taylor, 1997; Joshi et al., 1999). For example, 13-17% of children in divorced families show social and emotional problems compared to 10% of children in non-divorced families (Pryor & Rodgers, 2001). Similarly, in the 25-year-long Unexpected Legacy of Divorce project, Wallerstein, Lewis, and Blakeslee (2002) found that 70% of adult offspring of divorced parents scored within the “very well to outstanding” ranges of adjustment after the divorce.

Given the inconsistent findings on the impact of family structure on offspring’s psychological well-being, numerous studies have explored the factors that predict these outcomes. It was shown that the significant predictor of the difference between the psychological well-being of offspring of divorced and non-divorced parents was the level of attachment of the offspring to his/her parents rather than the family structure (e.g. Dunn et al., 1998; Love & Murdock, 2004). Dunn et al. (1998) found that offspring of divorced parents reported lower levels of
psychological well-being than those of married parents in relation to less secure attachment perceived toward their parents. Consistently, offspring who grew up in a warm, harmonious family (i.e.; defined as family members having good and warm relationships with each other) tended to report lower levels of problem behaviours and to exhibit higher levels of well-being regardless of the family structure (e.g., Golombok, 2000; Katz & Gottman, 1993; Snyder, Bank, & Burraston, 2005; Sturgess, Dunn, & Davies, 2001; Wilkinson, 2004).

Despite problems specifically attributed to divorce, there is also evidence that it is the conflict between the parents, rather than the divorce itself, that has detrimental effects on children. When offspring of divorced parents were exposed to less inter-parental conflict, they tend to develop more secure attachment to their parents and show less psychological distress symptoms after parental divorce (Solomon & George, 1999). Moreover, Amato and Keith’s study (1991) showed that children in intact high-conflict compared to low-conflict families scored significantly higher in conduct problems, and lower in psychological adjustment and self-concept. Moreover, children in low-conflict divorced families demonstrated higher levels of well-being than did children in high-conflict intact families. Although marital discord between a child’s parents negatively affected offspring’s well-being, family structure (e.g., whether parents were divorced) did not have a significant influence on the offspring’s well-being (Vandewater & Lansford, 1998).

Despite the influence of post-divorce family relationships, it was reported that divorce is not a single event affecting the offspring’s later development but rather it is a process and should be investigated by considering the possible changes in family relationships over time (Cummings & Cummings, 1988). In other words, the effect of divorce should be considered in relation to the quality of family
relationships both before and after the divorce. Parallel to this notion, studies by Amato, Loomis, and Booth (1995) and Jekielek (1998) provided further support to the importance of pre-divorce conflict in understanding the impact of parental divorce on offspring’s well-being. They reported that children appeared to benefit from the divorce of parents in high-conflict marriages whereas children appeared to suffer from their parental divorce in low-conflict marriages. Amato (2010) also suggested that it is through the pathway of increasingly dysfunctional family relationships that the pre-disruption effects of divorce are thought to influence children’s mental health (Amato, 2010). For instance, a child who no longer encounters the conflict in the pre-divorce family environment may experience the positive effects of divorce (Aseltine, 1996; Gately & Schwebel, 1991).

Pre-divorce inter-parental conflict was not only found to be a factor predicting the post-divorce well-being of the offspring but also as predicting how the offspring approach their own romantic relationships later in life, and how they shape their beliefs about the permanence of marriage and divorce (Collardeau & Ehrenberg, 2016; Cui, Fincham, & Durtschi, 2011; Huang & Lin, 2014; Riggio & Fite, 2006; Schovanec & Lee, 2001; Wolfinger, 2005). In line with this, a review of 14 studies published between 1984 and 2008, revealed pre-divorce inter-parental as one of the common influences on attitudes toward marriage among young adults (Li, 2014). The review of Li (2014) also reported that adult offspring whose parents were having conflicts and were divorced reported negative effects on attitudes toward marriage (Burgoyne & Hames, 2002; Dennison & Koerner, 2006, 2008). In a way, the findings furthered understanding of adolescents’ hopes and worries in regard to their own future marriage, following a parental divorce (Dennison & Koerner, 2008).
According to social learning theories (Bandura, 1977), children are thought to develop their own attitudes by witnessing their parents’ interactions within specific family structures or social norms. Consistent with social learning theories, previous studies indicated that pre-divorce inter-parental conflict is presented as a factor whereby the offspring are thought to form his/her attitudes toward the marriage life (e.g., Cui & Fincham, 2010). In line with this notion of social learning theories, it was found that offspring from divorced parents who were exposed to inter-parental conflict were more likely to consider divorce a viable alternative (e.g., Cui et al., 2011; Wolfinger, 2005). A recent study also indicated that adult offspring who experienced their parents’ divorces and were exposed to high levels of conflict were more likely to consider “divorce as fulfilling” in their romantic relationships. Research including non-European samples also supported these findings. For example, Huang and Lin (2014) found that Taiwanese college students from married families with lower parental conflict reported more positive attitudes toward marriage when compared with those from divorced families or families with higher parental conflict.

In light of the studies reviewed above, family structure seems to provide an explanation only for the environment in which one lives (e.g., divorced family), but not about the dynamics and relationships within that environment which would more consistently predict the developmental outcomes. Therefore, it is important to explore the role of the family dynamics and the quality of family relationships on offspring’s psychological well-being beyond the structure of the family. In addition, it seems crucial to investigate the role of the quality of both parental and inter-parental relationships perceived by emerging adults on their psychological well-being. The reason for this is that the parent-child attachment patterns are mostly
stable with age (Waters et al., 2000) but the impact of the inter-parental conflict appraisal of the offspring differs across age (Jouriles, Spiller, Stephens, McDonald & Swank, 2000). For example, older offspring were found to be less likely to blame themselves for inter-parental conflict (e.g., perceiving the reason of the conflict as their faults) than younger offspring and this was explained by increasing cognitive capacities in understanding and evaluating the relationships with age (Grych & Fincham, 1990). Nevertheless, it was also found by Grych and Fincham, (1990) that perceived threat of conflict by offspring (e.g., thinking that inter-parental conflict might give harm to themselves) was more commonly reported by the younger offspring than older offspring. The reason for this was explained as older offspring have more realistic estimates and expectations for the consequences of the conflict as well as better skills to solve conflicts due to their more improved cognitive abilities by age than younger offspring (Grych & Fincham, 1990). In other words, since younger offspring are less able to predict the result of their parents’ conflict, that ambiguity might led them to feel as in threat or danger in that context.

In addition to exploring the role of the developmental level, it is also important to investigate the role of the cultural characteristics of the family on the effect of inter-parental conflict on offspring’s psychological well-being. There is very limited information on the role of ethnicity in effecting children’s responses to inter-parental conflict. Some few studies showed that in collectivist family systems, offspring cope with the inter-parental conflict with the support of extended family members because extended family networks give them greater access to social support in times of family crisis (Gerard, Buehler, Franck, & Anderson, 2005; McLoyd, Harper, & Copeland, 2001). In both studies, it was found that impact of inter-parental conflict was weaker for African American children than European
American children because the collective orientation of African American families was likely to give children greater access to extended family networks and this source of support decreased perceived threats to security resulting from inter-parental conflict.

2.6. The Link between Family Structures, Family Relationships and Romantic Attachment Quality among Emerging Adult Offspring

Romantic attachment quality is another focus of this project. The main reason for this is the achievement of intimacy in a romantic relationship is considered to be one of the critical developmental tasks marking one's entry into adulthood (Conger, Cui, Bryant, & Elder, 2000). In relation to this, failure to establish and sustain an intimate relationship during the early years of adulthood is thought to hinder emotional development (Erikson, 1968).

Romantic attachment quality was explored among emerging adults because emotional maturity develops during emerging adulthood and furthermore and the first initiation into romantic relationships gives way to more intensive exploration of emotional intimacy (Collins & van Dulmen, 2006). For instance, compared to adolescent romantic relationships, emerging adults’ romantic relationships were found to be longer in duration with greater physical and emotional intimacy (Arnett, 2004; Collins, 2003). Additionally, it was reported that romantic partners during emerging adulthood have greater influence on one another and have the potential to influence emotional development (Collins & van Dulmen, 2006; Manning, Giordano, Longmore, & Hocevar, 2009).

Within the domain of the romantic attachment (Bartholomew, 1990; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991), adults who have positive working models of their
own desirability and worthiness as a romantic partner, as well as of others’
trustworthiness and support, are considered “securely” attached. Those who doubt
their own value relative to that of their partners are considered to be “anxiously”
attached and also tend to become over-dependent on their partner, persistently
seeking reassurance and remaining vigilant for signs of betrayal or abandonment.
Lastly, those who doubt the value of intimate relationships and avoid getting close to
others are considered to be either “dismissive-avoidant” when they have a positive
sense of self-worth or “fearful-avoidant” when they experience a simultaneous
distrust of others and strong fear of rejection (see Figure 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Working Model of Self (Dependence)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive (low dependence)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SECURE Comfortable with intimacy and autonomy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative (high dependence)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRE-OCCUPIED Pre-occupied with relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working Model of Others (Avoidance)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive (low avoidance)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISMISSIVE Dismissive of attachment, counter-dependent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative (high avoidance)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEARFUL Afraid of intimacy and rejection</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 2. Four-category model of adult attachment (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).*

Consistent with Attachment Theory, some studies have suggested that
emerging adults with secure attachment to parents are also securely attached to their
romantic partners (Conger & Conger, 2002). Longitudinal research also suggests that
as children of divorced parents enter adulthood, they may be more likely than the general population to experience concerns about not being loved, have difficulties in relationship formation and maintenance, and have fears regarding betrayal and abandonment in romantic relationships (Wallerstein & Blakeslee, 2000). Similarly, it was suggested that parental divorce was associated with lower relationship satisfaction, more conflict, and less commitment in romantic relationships (Cui & Fincham, 2010; Jacquet & Surra, 2001; Whitton, Rhoades, Stanley, & Markman, 2008).

Experiencing parental divorce was also found to be related to offspring’s romantic attachment styles. Specifically, some studies demonstrated direct associations between parental divorce and adult romantic attachment insecurity (e.g., Cartwright, 2006; Lopez, Melendez, & Rice, 2000; Shaver & Mikulincer, 2004). Other studies, however, did not support this association (e.g., van Schaick & Stolberg, 2001; Washington & Hans, 2013). These inconsistent results are often attributed to the confounding socio-environmental influences of parental divorce. For example, fathers’ involvement in offspring’s life after the divorce was found to be positively related to commitment, intimacy and trust and negatively associated with insecurity, avoidance and anxiety in offspring romantic relationships (van Schaick & Stolberg, 2001). In another study, it was revealed that adult romantic attachment style was not significantly differed between young adults who experienced parental divorce and those who did not however; conflict, residential stability, and time with nonresidential parent statistically improved the predictive ability of attachment anxiety among those whose parents had divorced (Washington & Hans, 2013).

There is also evidence that offspring’s perception of divorce and beliefs about their parents’ divorce can predict his/her romantic relationship quality.
Previous studies indicated that “problematic” beliefs such as thinking they caused their parents’ divorce (i.e., self-blame), maintaining unrealistic expectations that their parents will reunite (i.e., hope of reunification), or parental blame for the decision for divorce were related to maladjustment to divorce among the offspring of divorced parents (e.g., Bernstein, Keltner & Laurent, 2012; DeLucia-Waack, 2010). For instance, in their study with college student participants, Bernstein et al., (2012) found that parental marital status was not associated with romantic attachment insecurity but that problematic beliefs related to parental divorce increased the romantic attachment insecurity among the adult offspring. Their results showed that blaming the mother for the marital problems which led to divorce was associated with the anxious romantic attachment style among the female offspring. This finding was explained by the researchers by the identification of the offspring with mothers due to more strained and close relationship with the custodial parent who is mostly the mothers in United States. According to the researchers, identification of the offspring with the remaining parent (custodial parent) might represent an attempt to re-establish parent–child stability and as a defense against feelings of anxiety and uncertainty (e.g., Guttmann, 1993). On the other hand, if offspring blame their mother who is mostly the custodial parent after the divorce, this would lead the offspring to be susceptible to the emotions of helplessness associated with an anxious internal working model in romantic relationships.

To sum up, previous findings underlined the complexity of the long-term effects of parental divorce in terms of predicting the romantic attachment patterns in emerging adulthood and suggesting the need for more exploration of this link.
2.7. The Role of Coping with Stress on Psychological Well-being and Romantic Attachment Quality among Emerging Adult Offspring

Coping is defined as constantly changing cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). According to Moos (1993), coping strategies serve as the mediating variables between acute life crisis and well-being. That means, people who are coping more effectively (e.g., focusing on the solution of the problem) develop meaningful and acceptable actions or interpretations for stressful events. These individuals may also integrate thoughts or actions into a coherent, stable, and adaptive conceptual framework that consequently provides a source for predictability and control and lowers distress. Parallel to this information, studies found that ineffective coping strategies (e.g., avoiding the problem) was generally not an effective strategy (Holahan & Moos, 1985), the crisis or its consequences cannot be confronted directly and this in turn leads to psychological dysfunction. It was indicated that coping processes also mediate and moderate the relation between stressors and mental health problems (e.g., Agaibi & Wilson, 2005; Compas, Connor-Smith, Saltzman, Thomsen, & Wadsworth, 2001, Compas et al., 2010). For instance, Compas et al., (2001) suggested that actively coping with the stressor was associated with reduced mental health problems, whereas avoiding confronting the stressor was associated with higher mental health problems. Compas et al., (2010), found that children of depressed parents who were able to use effective coping strategies (e.g., positive thinking, acceptance) mediated subsequent changes in children’s internalizing and externalizing symptoms.
Cronkite and Moos (1995) presented a multi-dimensional concept of coping which defines coping in two axes: 1- problem-focused coping (or approach coping), 2- emotion-focused (or avoidant coping). This model also includes two categories as 1- cognitive, which implies some kind of internal, mental action to combat stress, and 2- behavioural, which implies some kind of external response toward stress. The combination of these dimensions forms four specific coping strategies:

1- Cognitive - **Approach** coping (e.g., making a *logical analysis* such as thinking of different ways to deal with the problem).

2- Behavioural - **Approach** coping (e.g., *seeking guidance* such as talking to a friend about the problem).

3- Cognitive - **Avoidance** coping (e.g., cognitive avoidance of thinking about the problem such as trying to forget the problem).

4- Behavioural - **Avoidance** coping (e.g., seeking alternative rewards such as seeking more enjoyment).

Previous studies indicated that coping by avoidance is generally not an effective strategy (Holahan & Moos, 1985), whereas approach coping is often found to relate to more effective adaptation in many situations (e.g., Billings & Moos, 1984). The present study examines how the family context predicts the use of avoidant and approach coping strategies which in turn predict psychological well-being, romantic attachment quality and attitudes toward divorce in emerging adulthood. The reason for focusing on family context for coping development is that the family arguably is the most powerful context in which coping socialization occurs (Kliwer, Sandler, & Wolchik, 1994; Power, 2004). As discussed by Kliwer et al. (1994), there are three ways in which the family may influence coping
processes: coaching, modeling, and aspects of the family context such as parent–child interaction patterns.

According to Cummings, Davies, and Campbell’s (2000) Cascading Pathway Model, stressful events such as divorce, can lead to an unfolding of failures to resolve developmental tasks and increase susceptibility to mental health problems and impairment in developmental competencies. For example, stress due to parental divorce can lead to a decrease in self-esteem and can increase the internalizing problems (e.g., depression or anxiety) in adolescents (McClain et al., 2010). This model also suggests that the quality of parent-child relationships facilitates the use of adaptive coping processes with stress in general which in turn may lead to more positive developmental outcomes for the offspring over time. In support of this perspective, previous studies indicated that secure attachment to mothers was an important resource for developing adaptive coping processes among children which in turn led to more positive outcomes in offspring’s development over time (e.g., Ve’lez, Wolchik, Tein & Sandler, 2011). The reasons for this were that positive relationships may promote a sense of security for the offspring (Ainsworth et al., 1978) which may reduce the threat of stressors (Gunnar, 2000; Kliwer et al., 1994), leading to a greater propensity to use active rather than avoidant coping efforts. In addition, offspring who have positive relationships with their parents may feel comfortable using them as a resource to solve problems, which may lead to more active coping and less avoidant coping. Also, positive emotions generated through contact with highly accepting parents may counter negative emotions that interfere with active coping efforts. Lastly, high-quality parent–child relationships are likely to include opportunities for instruction and reinforcement of adaptive coping efforts (Causey & Dubow, 1993). In terms of the current study, the Cascading Pathway
Model will be tested for the relationship between the quality of amalgam family relationships, coping ways with stress and developmental outcomes of the emerging adult offspring.

It was clearly revealed that emerging adulthood as the transition from adolescence into adulthood can increase the individual’s vulnerability to stress (Towbes & Cohen 1996). Moreover, this transition may create new demands in life that overwhelm emerging adults’ coping capacity and may trigger some psychological problems (e.g., depression, anxiety) (Schulenberg & Zarrett, 2006). Yet, there are only few studies (e.g., Brougham, Zail, Mendoza & Miller, 2009) on how emerging adults generally cope with stressful life events. Previous research found that major stressors in this age group included: academics, social relationships, finances, daily stressors (e.g., being late) and familial relationships (Abouserie 1994; Crespi & Becker 1999; Frazier & Schauben 1994; Larson 2006). In addition, it was found that college students who reported higher levels of stress can also present negative ways of coping such as consuming a greater amount of “junk food,” being less likely to exercise, being less likely to sleep (Hudd et al., 2000) or using alcohol (Kieffer, Cronin & Gawet, 2006) rather than positive ways of coping such as seeking support or doing exercise. Brougham et al. (2009) also indicated that the use of emotion-focused coping strategies dominated over problem-solving strategies among college students. Despite these findings, there is a lack of information on the role of the quality of family relationships on the coping strategies with stress which could predict well-being of emerging adults.
2.8. Rationale, Aim, Research Questions and Hypotheses for Study 1

The findings of the studies reviewed above have provided evidence for both the negative and positive consequences for the role of family structure on offspring’s psychological well-being and romantic attachment patterns. These inconsistent findings have led to speculation about family structure (divorced / married) as not an isolated factor but rather a factor that may affect the offspring’s development through a variety of mechanisms.

As noted in previous sections, numerous studies have underlined the importance of the quality of family relationships on the development of offspring in different family structures (e.g., Dunn, Cheng, O’Connor, & Bridges, 2004; Hakvoort, Bos, Balen & Hermanns, 2011). But, most of these studies have focused on family relationships in terms of (a) the quality of offspring’s relationships with non-resident parents or (b) the quality of offspring’s relationships with resident parents or (c) the quality of inter-parental relationships. However, offspring’s well-being is subject to all aspects of family relationships, not solely on the quality of mother-child, father-child or inter-parental relationships or not the family structure itself (Ahrons, 1999).

Research is also lacking on how offspring’s relationships with each parent and inter-parental relationships would affect psychological well-being and romantic attachment patterns at emerging adulthood. Although studies have investigated the psychological well-being (e.g., Amato & Soboloewski, 2001; Hetherington & Kelly, 2002) and romantic attachment patterns (e.g., Bernstein et al., 2012; Shaver & Mikulincer, 2004), almost all studies have focused on adult offspring (i.e., young adults of 18-30 years old) of divorced parents, and not on emerging adults. Yet, emerging adulthood and young adulthood should be distinguished as two separate periods (Arnett, 2006). ‘Young adulthood’ is better applied to those in their thirties,
who are still young but are definitely adult in ways those in the late teens through the mid-twenties are not. Most people in their twenties have not made the transitions associated with adult status especially marriage and parenthood. And many of them feel they have not yet reached adulthood but on the way to adulthood. In addition, there is not much known about which type of coping strategies are mostly used by emerging adults and how coping strategies can affect the link between the family context and developmental outcomes in emerging adulthood.

The role of both pre-divorce and post-divorce family relationships will also be considered as possible predictors of offspring’s developmental outcomes. Although the role of post-divorce family relationships (Ahron, 1999; Velez et al., 2011) were mostly investigated before, exploring the role of both pre-divorce (e.g., inter-parental conflict before the divorce) and post-divorce relationships (e.g., inter-parental relationships after the divorce) on offspring’s psychological well-being and romantic attachment styles has been neglected in the existing literature. Yet, an accumulative number of studies have shown that marital stressors prior to divorce (e.g., sense of estrangement and growing dissatisfaction with the marital relationship) could be distressing for parents (Gottman, 1998; Johnson & Wu, 2002) which in turn affect children’s well-being as predisruption effects of divorce (Amato, 2010; Buehler & Gerard, 2002; Cummings & Davies, 2010; Strohschein, 2016). That is, as the marital relationship deteriorates, interactions between family members can become fractious, taking their toll on the mental health of parents and children. Thus, family conflict, marital satisfaction, and parental depression could all operate as family processes that play a central role in elevating child mental health problems prior to divorce.

Since there is limited information on the outcomes of family structure at emerging adulthood for different family systems other than Western family systems,
exploring the relationship between family relationships on emerging adult offspring’s psychological well-being and romantic attachment in Turkish Cypriot family system becomes another important rationale in the project.

Based on the above information, this study aims to compare in emerging adults of divorced and non-divorced parents in Northern Cyprus, in terms of psychological well-being and romantic attachment quality by using a variety of family (parental relationships, inter-parental relationships and perceived emotional support by a relative in the extended family) and individual factors (being in emerging adulthood and coping responses to stress) in a quantitative methodology. The research questions and hypotheses are presented below. Figure 3 also shows the proposed model for the effect of family context on psychological well-being romantic attachment quality and attitudes toward divorce in emerging adulthood.

1- Does family structure affect the quality of family relationships?

*Hypothesis 1: Family structure would significantly affect the quality of family relationships.*

2- Does family structure predict psychological well-being and romantic attachment quality by itself or in combination with the quality of family relationships?

*Hypothesis 2: Family structure would not predict psychological well-being and romantic attachment quality by itself but would predict only in combination with the quality of family relationships.*
3- Does the quality of nuclear family relationships mediate the association between the quality of extended family relationships, psychological well-being and romantic attachment quality?

*Hypothesis 3: The quality of nuclear family relationships would mediate the association between the quality of relationships with an extended family member, psychological well-being and romantic attachment quality.*

4- Do the strategies in coping with stress differ according to the quality of family relationships and do they affect the relationship between the quality of family relationships, psychological well-being and romantic attachment quality?

*Hypothesis 4: The strategies in coping with stress would significantly differ according to the quality of family relationships. The strategies in coping with stress would also significantly affect the relationship between the quality of family relationships, psychological well-being and romantic attachment quality.*

5- Does the quality of pre-divorce family relationships play a role in the relationship between the post-divorce family relationships and psychological well-being and romantic attachment quality?

*Hypothesis 5: The quality of pre-divorce family relationships would mediate the relationship between the post-divorce family relationships and psychological well-being and romantic attachment quality.*
Figure 3. The proposed model for the effect of family context on psychological well-being, romantic attachment quality, and attitudes toward divorce in emerging adulthood.
CHAPTER 3
STUDY 1

The Role of the Family Structure, Family Relationships and Coping Strategies with Stress on Psychological Well-being and Romantic Attachment Quality

3.1. Method

As aforementioned, this project included two related studies with different methodologies. This chapter will include the information for the method and results of Study 1 and the method and the results parts of Study 2 will be presented in the next chapter.

3.1.1. Participants

Participants consisted of 295 emerging adults and all were Turkish Cypriots living in Northern Cyprus (for the recruitment procedure, please see section 3.1.3.) Among the participants, 50.8 % (N=150) were with married parents and 49.2 % (N=145) were with divorced parents. The mean age was 22.42 years (SD= 3.15) and 22.32 years (SD= 2.73) for emerging adults with married parents and divorced parents, respectively. 24.7 % (N=37) of emerging adults with married parents were male and 75.3 % (N=113) were female; 51.7 % (N=75) of emerging adults with divorced parents were male and 48.3 % (N=70) were female respondents.

Among the emerging adults with divorced parents, the number of participants who had experienced their parents’ remarriage after the divorce (51.7 %, N = 75) did not differ significantly to the number of participants whose parents did not get married after the divorce (48.3 %, N=70). Among these participants whose parents
remarried, majority of them reported the remarriage of both of their parents, 25.5% (N = 37).

In divorced families in which both parents got remarried, the residential parent was mostly the mothers 15.2% (N=20) followed by grandparents 9.2% (N=14). In divorced families in which none of the parents got remarried, the residential parent was mostly the mothers 39.3% (N=57). In families in which only mother got remarried, the number of residential mothers and the residential fathers were almost the same; mothers 3.4% (N=5) and fathers 2.8% (N=4). Lastly, in families in which only fathers got remarried, the residential parents was mostly the mothers 17.9% (N=26) and none of the remarried fathers were the residential parent (see Table 1).
Table 1

**Demographic Characteristics of Emerging Adults with Married Parents ( N = 150 ) and with Divorced Parents ( N = 145 )**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Emerging Adults with Married Parents</th>
<th>Emerging Adults with Divorced Parents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mean (SD)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>22.42 (3.15)</td>
<td>22.32 (2.73)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age at the time of divorce</td>
<td></td>
<td>13.71 (5.32)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>N (%)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>37 (24.7)</td>
<td>75 (51.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>113 (75.3)</td>
<td>70 (48.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currently Student</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>105 (70)</td>
<td>98 (67.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>45 (30)</td>
<td>47 (32.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling like having reached adulthood in some ways</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Readiness for Marriage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completely</td>
<td>17 (11.4)</td>
<td>12 (8.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat</td>
<td>39 (26.2)</td>
<td>30 (20.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>93 (62.2)</td>
<td>103 (71)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having a romantic relationship</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>75 (50.3)</td>
<td>87 (60)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>74 (49.7)</td>
<td>58 (40)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residential parent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mother</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>110 (75.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grandparents</td>
<td></td>
<td>20 (13.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>father</td>
<td></td>
<td>14 (9.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remarriage of parents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>none of the parents</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>70 (48.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both mother and father</td>
<td></td>
<td>37 (25.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>only father</td>
<td></td>
<td>28 (19.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>only mother</td>
<td></td>
<td>10 (6.9)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.1.2. Instruments

3.1.2.1. Demographic Information Form

The demographic information form was used to gather information on sociodemographic characteristics (e.g., age, parent’s family structure; the residential parent after the divorce, parents’ marital status after the divorce, the extended family member who provided with emotional support); participants’ developmental characteristics regarding emerging adulthood (e.g., to what extent they feel themselves to be an adult); and questions on romantic relationships (e.g., duration of the relationship) (Appendix V.1).

3.1.2.2. Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI)

The BSI was used to measure the number of psychological symptoms reported by the participants. BSI is a 53-item self-report inventory in which participants rated the extent to which they had been bothered (0 = "not at all" to 4 = "extremely") in the past week by various symptoms. A sample item was “Feeling others are to blame for most of your troubles” (Appendix V.2).

The original version of BSI (Derogatis, 1992) included 9 subscales of somatization, obsessive compulsive, interpersonal sensitivity, depression, anxiety, hostility, phobic anxiety, paranoid ideation and psychoticism. The Turkish version of BSI (Şahin & Durak, 1994) was used in this study. The validity and the reliability analyses in the Turkish adaptation study of the scale have revealed 5 factors (1- anxiety, 2- depression, 3-somatization, 4-hostility and 5-negative-self). For this reason, it was suggested to use only anxiety, depression, somatization, hostility and negative-self subscales in Turkish samples. In both versions, there are also 3 global indices of distress associated with the BSI with each providing a single score for the
level of symptomatic distress of the individual: The General Severity Index (GSI), The Positive Symptom Distress Index (PSDI), and the Positive Symptom Total (PST).

Higher scores on the BSI indicate more psychological symptoms reported by an individual (Şahin & Durak, 1994). In the current study, only the total scores were assessed because it was focused on a general measure of psychological well-being rather than of specific psychological problems. The Cronbach’s Alpha for the total scores of the Turkish version of BSI were .94 (Şahin & Durak, 1994). For the current study, reliability analysis depicted Cronbach’s Alpha value of .96 and .97 for participants with married and divorced parents’ respectively.

3.1.2.3. Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA-R)

The IPPA-R (Raja, McGee & Stanton, 1992) was used to evaluate the quality of attachment to mother and father separately. The IPPA-R is comprised of 24-items in which 12 items are about the relationships with fathers (e.g., “My father accepts me as I am”) and the other 12 items are about the relationships with mothers (e.g., “My mother accepts me as I am”). Using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = never, 7 = always), participants rate their relationships with parents (Appendix V.3, V.4).

The Turkish version of IPPA-R (Günaydın, Selçuk, Sümêr, & Uysal, 2005) was used in this study. The three subscales of the original version of the IPPA-R; trust, communication, and alienation did not emerge in previous Turkish adaptation studies of the scale (Günaydın et al., 2005; Kumru, 2002; Löker, 1999). For this reason, it was suggested that the total scores of mother and father forms be used in the Turkish samples (Günaydın et al., 2005). The Cronbach’s Alpha values were
depicted as .88 and .90 for the mother and father forms respectively by Günaydın et al. (2005).

The total scores were computed by including a total of 11 items as the 6th item (“My mother/father has her/his own problems, so I don’t bother her/him with mine”) was excluded in the analysis for two reasons. Firstly, this item was the only factor which was also excluded in the analysis of the Turkish adaptation study of the inventory because of a very low factor load in both the mother and the father forms (Günaydın et al., 2005). Secondly, the reliability analyses in the current study has revealed that the total reliability value (Cronbach’s Alpha) of the scale would increase importantly (.72 to .84 for the mother form and .73 to .87 for the father form) in the married sample if the 6th item was excluded from the analyses. The Cronbach’s Alpha would also increase importantly in the divorced sample if the 6th item was excluded. (.72 to .92 for the mother form and .74 to .90 for the father form).

Offspring in divorced families were first asked to complete the IPPA-R for their perceptions for their relationships with their mothers and fathers in general after the divorce. Their responses in this part reflected their post-divorce relationships with their parents (Appendix V.3). Then, the participants were asked about their perceived relationships with their mothers and fathers for the pre-divorce times by presenting them IPPA-R again but in an instruction which stated to think about their relationships with their parents before the divorce (Appendix V.4).

3.1.2.4. Children’s Perception of Inter-parental Conflict Scale (CPIC)

The CPIC (Grych, Seid, & Fincham, 1992) was used to assess perceived inter-parental relationships by the participants (Appendix V.5, V.6). The CPIC scale
contains 35 items which are divided into 3 subscales: The Conflict Properties scale reflects inter-parental conflict that occurs regularly, involves high levels of hostility, and is poorly resolved (e.g., “When my parents have an argument they yell a lot”). The Threat scale measures the degree to which children feel threatened by and are unable to cope with inter-parental conflict when it occurs (e.g., “I get scared when my parents argue”). The Self-Blame scale assesses the frequency of child-related conflict and the degree to which children blame themselves for inter-parental conflict (e.g., “It’s usually my fault when my parents argue”).

Participants respond to each statement by circling either “True,” “Sort of True,” or “False.” On each dimension, higher scores reflect increasingly negative forms of inter-parental conflict or appraisal (e.g., higher scores on the self-blame scale reflect greater self-blame).

The Turkish version of CPIC (Ulu & Fışıloğu, 2004) was used in this study. The Cronbach’s Alphas for the Conflict Properties scale, the Threat scale and the Self-Blame scale were .84, .78 and .77 respectively (Ulu & Fışıloğu, 2004). In the present study, reliability analysis depicted Cronbach’s Alpha of .82, .76 and .74 for the married parents’ and .83, .77 and .77 for the divorced parents’ samples respectively.

Offspring in divorced families completed the CPIC in two different versions. They were first provided CPIC and were asked about their perceptions for their parents’ relationships after the divorce (Appendix V.5). After this, they were presented the CPIC again but were asked about their perceptions for their parents’ relationships before the divorce (Appendix V.6).
3.1.2.5. Perceived Emotional Support by a Relative

Participants were also asked a set of questions in a separate section of the demographic information (Appendix V.1, Questions 19-24) form about any emotional support provided to them by a relative within the extended family. This information was gathered using a 5-point Likert type (1= Almost never, 5 = Almost always). A sample item was “This person has provided me care”. The total scores were computed with higher scores indicating more perceived emotional support and the Cronbach’s Alpha values for the married parents’ and the divorced parents’ samples were .70 and .82 respectively.

3.1.2.6. Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Scale (ECR-R)

The ECR-R (Fraley, Waller, & Brennan, 2000) was used to measure romantic attachment styles of the participants (Appendix V.8). This questionnaire has two subscales representing 1- attachment-related avoidance (e.g., “I don't feel comfortable opening up to romantic partners”) and 2- attachment-related anxiety (e.g., “I often worry that my partner does not really love me”) with Cronbach’s Alpha values of .90 and .86 respectively. This 36-item scale in which participants report how they feel in emotionally intimate relationships employs a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = disagree, 7 = agree). The total scores for each scale are calculated by taking the average scores of the total scores of the items included in that subscale. Higher scores in anxiety subscale represents higher anxiety, and higher scores in avoidance subscale represents higher avoidance.

The Turkish version of ECR-R (Selçuk, Günaydın, Sümer, & Uysal, 2005) was used in this study. The reliability analysis depicted Cronbach’s Alpha value of
.92 and .84 for the married parents’ sample and .90 and .83 the divorced parents’ samples respectively.

3.1.2.7. Coping Responses Inventory Adult Form (CRI-Adult)

The CRI-Adult (Moos, 1993) is a 48-item self-reporting inventory which assesses coping responses to stressful life experiences in adults aged 18 and over (Appendix V.7). The Inventory divides coping responses into approach responses (e.g., thinking of different ways to deal with the problem) and avoidance responses (e.g., trying to forget the whole thing) and has two subscales which are Approach Coping subscale and Avoidant Coping subscale. Each subscale also includes four 4-point Likert-type scale (0 = not at all, 3 = fairly often) which each consists of 6 questions. These scales are Logical Analysis, Positive Reappraisal, Seeking Guidance and Support, and Problem Solving which measure approach coping in 24 questions in total and Cognitive Avoidance, Acceptance or Resignation, Seeking Alternative Rewards, and Emotional Discharge which measure avoidance coping in 24 questions in total. Cognitive responses to stress is assessed by the first two scales in each subscale (i.e., Logical Analysis, Positive Reappraisal for the Approach Coping subscale; Cognitive Avoidance, Acceptance or Resignation for the Avoidance Coping subscale). Behavioural responses to stress is assessed by the last two scales in each subscale (i.e., Seeking Guidance and Support, and Problem Solving for the Approach Coping subscale; Seeking Alternative Rewards, Emotional Discharge for the Avoidance Coping subscale).

The total score for each scale was calculated by computing the items in that scale. Higher score in the Approach coping scale represents more approach coping strategies and higher score in Avoidant coping scale represents more avoidance
coping strategies. The scale was translated to Turkish since there was not any adapted version in Turkish. The scale was translated by the researcher and another researcher who was blind to the scope of the project. For the Turkish version, the alpha reliability was .88 for the divorced parents’ sample and .89 for the married parents’ sample.

Moos (1993) reported that the internal consistency measures (Cronbach Alpha) value of .64 for Approach responses and .70 for Avoidant responses. In the current project, reliability analysis for both Approach and Avoidant coping scales provided good reliabilities within the divorced parents’ sample (Cronbach’s Alpha value of .79 and .70 respectively) and within the married parents’ sample (Cronbach’s Alpha value of .85 and .78 respectively).

### 3.1.3 Procedure

In addition to the University of Roehampton ethical approval (Appendix I), ethical approval from Eastern Mediterranean University (Appendix II) where some of the data was collected was obtained. With the ethical confirmation provided by two universities, the project started by considering the most ethical principles and procedures at each further step. The quantitative data were gathered from various parts of Northern Cyprus via random sampling and snowball techniques. All student participants (N = 203) were recruited by random sampling at a University setting and non-student participants (N = 92) were recruited by snowball sampling method.

It was initially intended to recruit the participants from the Universities in Northern Cyprus because most university students are in the emerging adulthood stage in Northern Cyprus. From a list of all the universities across all districts in Northern Cyprus, three Universities were randomly selected and Academic Affairs
Office of each of these Universities was contacted and asked if the University was interested to participate in the project. Although all of the three Universities were interested to participate to the project, only one of them which had official ethical committee to provide the ethical evaluation for the thesis was chosen for data collection.

Participants’ recruitment was conducted during class times arranged by the academic officers in coordination with the lecturers. They were first informed about the aim and the scope of the project and also that participation in the study was completely independent of their coursework. Each participant was supplied with two copies of the Participant Consent Form for Study 1 (Appendix III) before the administration of questionnaires as for one to be signed and return to the Department’s secretary office and the one to be kept by the participant for their information which they might need later.

Only those who agreed to participate were administered the questionnaires (see 3.1.2. Instruments part). Although the questions in the questionnaires were formed in a way to avoid any potential personal discomfort to the participants, they might still lead some participants to feel uncomfortable. For example, the subject of the project itself or some questions in the questionnaires (e.g., remembering the nature of the conflict between their parents, remembering their divorce experiences if it was painful for them etc.) might cause some participants to feel distressed especially for those who are coming from high-conflict households. To minimize this potential risk, participants were verbally informed that they have the right to withdraw from the participation at any time they would like to do without providing any reason. This information was also provided in the Consent Form (Appendix III).
The questionnaires took approximately 20 minutes to complete. None of the participants reported any discomfort during or at the end of the administration of the test battery. However, this risk could occur at a later stage as indicated in the debriefing form (Appendix IV) at the end of the administration in which they were advised to seek psychological support if they felt that they would not be able to cope with this distress by themselves. The required addresses and the contact information of the institutions to apply to have psychological support were also provided in the debriefing form (Appendix IV) clearly.

In order to recruit non-student participants via snowball sampling, University students who participated to the project were asked to refer individuals who were between the 18-30 years of age, who are not married, who have not started a permanent career and who have either married or divorced parents. The volunteer students were provided with a closed envelope including the Participant Consent and Debrief Forms attached to the test battery to provide the potential non-student participants. The completed forms were submitted to the Departmental Secretary in their department and were taken by the investigator at a specific time.

Among the 340 questionnaires administered, 310 were returned. The final analyses included 295 of the returned questionnaires by including only those of the participants who reported that they had the developmental characteristics of emerging adulthood (i.e., being within the age range of 18-30 years, not feeling like an adult yet, not feeling ready to marry, not having a permanent job yet) in the demographic information form and that their parents were divorced when they were between 7-11 years of age. The questionnaires of the participants in the final sample were put into two groups: participants with divorced parents, and participants with married parents. Each participant in the final sample was given a code on his/her
questionnaire form (e.g., the first participant’s questionnaire form was coded as P1 as “P” referring to Participant and “1” to the participant’s number).

The anonymity of the participants was kept by not disclosing names or any other information that could be connected to the participants through the results. Participants were clearly told not to write their names on any form or questionnaire both verbally and in the Participant Consent Form (Appendix III). The only personal details of the participants were their contact details such as phone numbers or email addresses (Participant Consent Form; Appendix III) in order to arrange the interviews. The forms were kept in locked cabinets in researcher’s office in Roehampton University which were only accessible by the researcher; the processed data were kept in a personal and a password protected computer which was also only accessible by the researcher.

3.1.4. Statistical Analysis

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21 was used for the quantitative analysis. Before conducting the main analysis, data cleaning procedures (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) were followed in terms of data accuracy, missing data, outliers, normality and linearity. Missing Value Analysis revealed that there were no cases with more than 5% missing values ($N=295$), and the data were completely at random (Missing Completely at Random, MCAR). Therefore, missing values were replaced with means for every single variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).
3.2. Results

Prior to the main analysis for Study 1, the reliability analyses were conducted for the Brief Symptom Inventory, the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment, the Children’s Perception of Inter-parental Conflict Scale, the Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Scale and Coping Responses Inventory (see Methods Section, Instruments part). Then the descriptive analyses for the demographic variables were examined (Table 1, Methods Section).

3.2.1. Results for the 1st Hypothesis

Prior to the main analyses, the relationship between the scores of the participants for parental attachment, inter-parental conflict, psychological symptoms, romantic attachment and coping strategies was tested. Pearson Correlation Analysis indicated that participants who reported higher the quality of relationships with father had also significantly higher quality of relationships with mother, less perceived conflict, threat and self-blame in inter-parental relationships and fewer psychological symptoms, avoidant romantic attachment and avoidant coping with stress (Table 2). Participants who reported higher the quality of relationships with their mothers had also significantly less perceived conflict, threat and self-blame in inter-parental relationships, fewer psychological symptoms, less avoidant romantic attachment and less avoidant coping with stress. Less anxious romantic attachment was significantly related to higher quality of relationships with mother whereas it was not significantly associated with the quality of relationships with father.

For inter-parental relationships, more frequent inter-parental conflict, more self-blame and threat for conflict were all significantly related to more psychological symptoms and more anxious romantic attachment style. Avoidant romantic
attachment was more significantly reported by the participants having more threat and self-blame in inter-parental relationships. Both more conflict and more threat for the conflict were significantly related to more avoidant coping with stress.

Emerging adults having higher quality of relationships with their extended family members had significantly less perceived threat in inter-parental conflict, fewer psychological symptoms, less avoidant romantic attachment and less approach coping strategies than those having lower quality of relationships within the extended family. More approach coping was also significantly related to fewer psychological symptoms and less avoidant romantic attachment. Lastly, more avoidant coping was significantly related to more psychological symptoms and both to the anxious and avoidant romantic attachment among the emerging adults (Table 2).
Table 2

**Pearson Correlation between Parental Attachment, Inter-parental Conflict, Psychological Symptoms, Romantic Attachment and Coping Strategies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>1. Quality of relationship (father)</td>
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<td>.07</td>
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<td>.08</td>
<td>-.22**</td>
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<td>.41**</td>
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<td>.26**</td>
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<td>11. Avoidant coping</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
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</table>

** p ≤ .01, * p ≤ .05

In order to test the assumption that family structure has some effect on the quality of family relationships, a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was conducted. MANOVA for the quality of family relationships revealed a significant effect of family structure only on the quality of relationships with father, perceived inter-parental conflict, perceived threat of conflict and the quality of relationships with an extended family member. This hypothesis was partially supported by the results for the effect of the family structure on some of the quality of family relationships (see Table 3).
Table 3

*Multivariate Analysis of Variance (Manova) for the Effect of Family Structure on Quality of Family Relationships*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Multivariate F</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Wilks’ Λ</th>
<th>Multivariate η²</th>
<th>Univariate F</th>
<th>η²</th>
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<td>.81</td>
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<td>.02</td>
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<td>.05</td>
<td>7.93</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** p ≤ .001

The MANOVA analysis was followed by one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) in order to explore how the scores of quality of relationships with father, perceived inter-parental conflict, perceived threat of conflict and the quality of relationships with an extended family member would differ in each family structure.

ANOVA indicated that emerging adults having divorced parents reported significantly less secure attachment with their fathers (p ≤ .001), significantly more inter-parental conflict (p ≤ .001) and more threat in inter-parental conflict (p ≤ .001). Offspring of divorced parents also reported significantly more perceived emotional support from an extended family member than the offspring of married parents (p ≤ .01). The details for ANOVA are presented in Table 4. Moreover, the extended family member who was reported by emerging adults as being provided them with
emotional support were firstly and mostly the grandparents and then the aunts and uncles respectively in both married and divorced households (see Figure 4).

Figure 4. Type of relatives who provided the participants with emotional support
Table 4

*Group Differences in the Quality of Family Relationships*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Emerging Adults with Married Parents</th>
<th>Emerging Adults with Divorced Parents</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inventory of parent and peer attachment (father form)</td>
<td>58.38 (14)</td>
<td>45.37 (16.77)</td>
<td>52.63</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inter-parental conflict scale</td>
<td>17 (11.77)</td>
<td>27.62 (14.73)</td>
<td>47.20</td>
<td>≤ .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conflict subscale</td>
<td>10.79 (8.05)</td>
<td>18.44 (9.32)</td>
<td>56.92</td>
<td>≤ .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>threat subscale</td>
<td>4.88 (4.03)</td>
<td>7.17 (5.23)</td>
<td>17.90</td>
<td>≤ .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional support within the extended family</td>
<td>18 (3.35)</td>
<td>22 (3.45)</td>
<td>7.93</td>
<td>≤ .01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to examine the statistical power of the results for hypothesis 1, post hoc power analysis was conducted by using the software package GPower (Faul & Erdfelder, 1992). In the context of research, power refers to the likelihood that a researcher will find a significant result (an effect) in a sample if such an effect exists in the population being studied (Cohen, 1988). Power is shown as a key factor to draw correct conclusions from sample data. The values that power can take range from 0.0 to 1.0. The higher value means more statistical power and more likelihood to detect a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in a study. Cohen (1992) suggested that the power value higher than .80 would be adequate for the detection of a moderate to large effect size in a study. The post hoc power analyses for hypothesis one revealed that the statistical power exceeded .99 for the detection of a moderate to large effect size. Thus, there was more than adequate power (i.e., power = .80) to identify the difference between the married and divorced parents’ samples for the quality of family relationships.
In addition to the findings for the first hypothesis, the possible effects of gender and socio-economic status (SES) as the two other demographic variables on the quality of family relationships were also considered in married and divorced parents’ sample groups. Although the effect of gender and SES were not aimed to be explored within the hypotheses or the research questions of the study, it is important to determine to determine their effect and their relation to the first hypothesis. Participants’ SES was based on whether or not they are students (Appendix V.1). Since the student participants were studying at a private University in Cyprus, that group was considered to be in the higher SES group and those who were not students and were working were considered to be in the lower SES group. Majority of the participants were students in both divorced and married parents’ samples. For gender, there were more females in the married parents’ sample whereas there were more males in the divorced parents’ sample (see Table 1).

MANOVA analysis was conducted to determine the effect of gender and SES as the independent variables on the quality of family relationships as the dependent variables for the married parents’ and the divorced parents’ samples seperately. The results showed nonsignificant multivariate main effect for gender or SES for the quality of family relationships in the married parents’ sample. For the divorced parents’sample, there was also no significant multivariate main effect for gender but there was a significant multivariate main effect for SES for the quality of family relationships, Wilks’ λ = .842, F (7, 94) = 2.6, p < .05, partial eta squared = .21. Power to detect the effect was .86 for this analysis. Given the significance of the overall test, the univariate main effects were also examined for the divorced sample. Significant univariate main effect for SES was obtained for the quality of relationships with an extended family member, F (1, 102 ) = 5.63, p < .05, partial eta
square = .21, power = .81; and for the quality of relationships with father, $F(1,143) = 4.5, p < .05$, partial eta square = .21, power = .88. Further ANOVA analysis revealed that emerging adults of divorced parents with higher SES reported more perceived emotional support from an extended family member ($M = 22.55, SD = 2.82$) than those with lower SES ($M = 20.94, SD = 4.33$). In addition to this, emerging adults of divorced parents with higher SES reported more secure attachment with their fathers ($M = 47.55, SD = 17.45$) than those with lower SES ($M = 40.81, SD = 16.67$).

### 3.2.2. Results for the 2nd Hypothesis

Separate hierarchical regression analyses were conducted for each predicted variable (number of psychological symptoms, anxious romantic attachment scores and avoidant romantic attachment scores). The first regression analysis revealed family structure as explaining 0.2% of the variance and not solely a significant predictor of offspring’s psychological well-being. The quality nuclear family relationships accounted for a significant change in variance ($R^2 \text{ Change} = .31, p = .03$). Within the nuclear family relationships, emerging adults who reported more perceived inter-parental conflict and more threat due to conflict significantly reported more psychological symptoms, ($p = .02$) and , ($p = .003$) respectively.

The quality of relationships with an extended family member accounted for a significant change in variance ($R^2 \text{ Change} = .33, p = .04$) and significantly predicted the psychological symptoms scores, ($p = .03$). In the final model, only the family structure and inter-parental conflict and perceived threat in inter-parental conflict significantly predicted the psychological symptoms scores. The statistical power of the results was also checked for the second hypothesis. The post hoc power analyses
indicated that the statistical power was at .90 for the detection of a moderate to large
effect size. Therefore, there was more than adequate power (i.e., power = .80; Cohen, 1988) to detect the effect of the quality of the family structure, inter-parental
conflict and the threat for the conflict on psychological well-being (see Table 5).

Table 5

Predictors of Psychological Well-being.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Steps</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>F Change</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>R²</th>
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<td>-</td>
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<td>Mother-offspring</td>
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<td>-.137</td>
<td>-.09</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Father-offspring</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.66</td>
<td>-.05</td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>2.23*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Threat of Conflict</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>3.10**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-blame for Conflict</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
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<td>7, 163</td>
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<td>.33</td>
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<td>-.18*</td>
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<tr>
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<td>-.143</td>
<td>-.09</td>
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<td>2.25*</td>
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<td>Threat of Conflict</td>
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<td>.27</td>
<td>2.86**</td>
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<td>Self-blame for Conflict</td>
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</table>

** p ≤ .01, * p ≤ .05

The second regression analysis revealed family structure as explaining 1% of
the variance ($R^2 = -.01$) and not a significant predictor of offspring’s anxious
romantic attachment style. In the second step, the quality of nuclear family
relationships accounted for a significant change in variance ($R^2$ Change= .19, $p = .04$). Emerging adults with less secure attachment to their mothers and with more self-blame and threat of inter-parental conflict reported significantly more anxious romantic attachment scores toward their romantic partners. In the final model, only the quality of relationships with mother and self-blame for inter-parental conflict significantly predicted the anxious romantic attachment scores. The post hoc power analyses indicated that the statistical power was greater than .99 for the detection of a moderate to large effect size. In other words, there was more than adequate power (i.e., power = .80; Cohen, 1988) to detect the effect of the quality of mother-offspring relationships and self-blame for inter-parental conflict on anxious romantic attachment in the final model (see Table 6).
Table 6.

**Predictors of Anxious Romantic Attachment Quality**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Steps</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>F Change</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>R²</th>
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<td>-</td>
<td>.33**</td>
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Final Model

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<th>t</th>
<th>β</th>
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<tr>
<td>Self-blame for conflict</td>
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<td>.21*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Quality of relationship (extended family)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.86</td>
<td>-.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** p ≤ .01, * p ≤ .05

The third regression analysis revealed the family structure as explaining 1% of the variance ($R^2 = -.006$) and not as a significant predictor of offspring’s avoidant romantic attachment scores. The quality of nuclear family relationships accounted for a significant change in variance ($R^2$ Change = .11, $p = .03$). Emerging adults having less secure attachment to their mothers and fathers and who perceived more threat of inter-parental conflict had significantly more avoidant attachment styles toward their romantic partners. The quality of relationships with an extended family member accounted for a significant change in variance ($R^2$ Change = .02, $p = .04$).
and significantly predicted lower avoidant romantic attachment scores. In the final model, only the quality of relationships with mother and father significantly predicted the avoidant romantic attachment scores. The post hoc power analyses showed that the statistical power was greater than .99 for the detection of a moderate to large effect size. That means, there was more than adequate statistical power (i.e., power = .80; Cohen, 1988) to detect the effect of parental relationships on avoidant romantic attachment in the final model (see Table 7).

Table 7.

*Predictors of Avoidant Romantic Attachment Quality*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Steps</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>F Change</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>R²</th>
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<td>-.002</td>
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<td>6, 164</td>
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<td>.14</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-blame for conflict</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td></td>
<td>.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Model</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>7, 163</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quality of relationship</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.170</td>
<td>-.16*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(extended family)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final Model</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Family Structure</td>
<td>-.28</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mother-offspring</td>
<td>-3.03</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.24**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Father-offspring</td>
<td>-2.19</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.20*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inter-parental conflict</td>
<td>-.98</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Threat of conflict</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td></td>
<td>.17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-blame for conflict</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td></td>
<td>.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quality of relationship</td>
<td>-1.70</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(extended family)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** p ≤ .01; * p ≤ .05
Overall, the results supported the second hypothesis and revealed that family structure cannot predict psychological well-being and romantic attachment styles of emerging adults by itself. All regression analyses for testing the assumptions of second hypotheses showed that family structure (i.e., whether it was divorced or married) could predict psychological well-being and romantic attachment styles only in relation to the quality of family relationships. For example, family structure only predicted psychological well-being in relation to the quality of inter-parental relationships. On the other hand, the quality of relationships with mother predicted both anxious and avoidant attachment scores; the quality of relationships with father predicted avoidant attachment and self-blame for the conflict predicted the anxious romantic attachment. That means, the predictors of psychological well-being and romantic attachment were different according to which dependent variable was explored. Due to this changing nature of the variables predicting psychological well-being and romantic attachment, the next step in the analysis was to explore the possible effects of participants’ gender and SES in predicting their psychological well-being and romantic attachment. For this purpose, MANOVA analysis was conducted to determine the effect of gender and SES as the independent variables on the dependent variables included psychological well-being, anxious romantic attachment and avoidant romantic attachment scores.

The MANOVA analysis did not show any significant multivariate main effect for gender or SES for psychological well-being, anxious attachment and avoidant attachment in the divorced parents’ sample. There was no significant multivariate main effect for gender for psychological well-being, anxious romantic attachment and avoidant romantic attachment scores for the married parents’ sample. Yet, there was a significant main effect for the SES of the emerging adults having
married parents for psychological well-being, anxious romantic attachment and avoidant romantic attachment scores (Wilks’ $\lambda = .927$, $F (3, 146) = 3.77$, $p < .05$, partial eta squared = .21). Power to detect the effect was .81 for this analysis. Significant univariate main effect for SES was also obtained for psychological well-being, $F (1,146) = 8.75$, $p < .01$, partial eta square = .19, power = .84; for avoidant attachment, $F (1,146) = 4.77$, $p < .05$, partial eta square = .19, power = .78 and for anxious attachment, $F (1,146) = 4.07$, $p < .05$, partial eta square = .19, power = .79. Further ANOVA analysis revealed that emerging adults of married parents with higher SES reported more psychological symptoms scores ($M = 47.25$, $SD = 30.5$) than those with lower SES ($M = 31.96$, $SD = 22.1$). For romantic attachment patterns, emerging adults of married parents with higher SES reported more anxious romantic attachment scores ($M = 3.71$, $SD = .97$) and more avoidant attachment scores ($M = 3.21$, $SD = .85$) than emerging adults with lower SES.

3.2.3 Results for the 3rd Hypothesis

Before testing the mediation effects of the quality of nuclear family relationships, the relationships between the quality of relationship with an extended family member (the predictor variable) psychological well-being (dependent variable) and the quality of nuclear family relationships (the mediators) were considered (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Previous correlation analysis indicated that the only variable for nuclear family relationships which was significantly correlated with both the quality of relationships with an extended family member and the number of psychological symptoms of participants was the perceived threat of inter-parental conflict. For this reason, the mediator role of nuclear family relationships was only tested for the
perceived threat of inter-parental conflict for any relationship between the quality of relationships with an extended family member and the number of psychological symptoms.

3.2.4. Mediation Analysis of Perceived Threat of Inter-parental Conflict for Psychological Well-being

The results showed that the quality of relationships with an extended family member (as the predictor variable) was significantly related to emerging adult offspring’s psychological well-being in a negative direction ($\beta = -.18, p = .03$). That means, higher quality of relationships with an extended family member predicted fewer psychological symptoms. Therefore, the first condition for mediation has been met in the analysis. The second regression analysis also showed that the quality of relationships with an extended family member was also significantly related to the perceived threat of inter-parental conflict (mediator variable) in a negative direction ($\beta = -.15, p = .02$). Thus, the second condition for mediation has also been satisfied. The final analysis in which perceived threat of inter-parental conflict and the quality of relationships with an extended family member were entered into the regression hierarchically showed that perceived threat was significantly (and positively) related to number of psychological symptoms ($\beta = .47, p = .009$). Moreover, the quality of relationships with an extended family member which was significant in the first analysis was no longer significant when controlling for the effects of the perceived threat ($\beta = -.12, p = .09$).

There was a full mediation of perceived threat for inter-parental conflict between the quality of relationships with an extended family member and the
number of psychological symptoms of the offspring. Further, according to the Sobel test, this full mediation was found to be significant at the .05 level.

The statistical power of this mediation effect was also checked. The post hoc power analyses indicated that the statistical power was greater than .99 for the detection of a moderate to large effect size. Therefore, there was more than adequate power (i.e., power = .80; Cohen, 1988) to detect the effect of the perceived threat for inter-parental conflict on the relationship between the quality of relationships with extended family member and the number of psychological symptoms. For this mediation effect, see Figure 5.

\[ p \leq .05^*; \ p \leq .01^{**} \]

*Figure 5. Path-analytic model for perceived threat for inter-parental conflict*
3.2.5. Mediation Analysis of Perceived Threat of Inter-parental Conflict for Romantic Attachment Quality

As aforementioned, romantic attachment quality included two dimensions of (1) anxious attachment style and (2) avoidant attachment style. Therefore, two separate mediation analyses were run for each of the attachment style scores. Perceived threat for inter-parental conflict was the only dimension of nuclear family relationships which was significantly related to the quality of relationships with an extended family member. For this reason, perceived threat for inter-parental conflict was the only dimension regarding the nuclear family relationships as the mediator in the current analyses too. Previous correlational analysis did not indicate any significant relationship between the quality of relationships with an extended family member (as the predictor variable) and anxious romantic attachment scores (as the dependent variable) to enable any mediation analysis (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Since the analysis indicated a significant relationship between the quality of relationships with an extended family member and the avoidant romantic attachment scores the mediation was only tested for the avoidant romantic attachment scores as the dependent variable.

The results showed that the quality of relationships with an extended family member (as the predictor variable) was significantly related to emerging adult offspring’s avoidant romantic attachment scores in a negative direction ($\beta=-.16, p = .02$). Therefore, the first condition for mediation has been met in the analysis. The second regression analysis showed that the quality of relationships with an extended family member was also significantly related to the perceived threat of inter-parental conflict (mediator variable) in a negative direction ($\beta=-.15, p = .04$). Thus, the second condition for mediation has also been satisfied. The final analysis in which
perceived threat of inter-parental conflict and the quality of relationships with an extended family member were entered into regression hierarchically showed that perceived threat was significantly (and positively) related to the avoidant romantic attachment scores ($\beta = .19, p = .004$). Moreover, the quality of relationships with an extended family member which was significant in the first analysis was no longer significant when controlling for the effects of the perceived threat ($\beta = -.13, p = .12$). There was a full mediation of perceived threat for inter-parental conflict between the quality of relationships with an extended family member and emerging adult offspring’s avoidant romantic attachment scores. Further, according to the Sobel test, this full mediation was found to be significant at a .05 level.

The post hoc power analyses indicated that the statistical power was at .90 for the detection of a moderate to large effect size. Therefore, there was more than adequate power (i.e., power = .80; Cohen, 1988) to detect the effect of the perceived threat for inter-parental conflict on the relationship between the quality of relationships with extended family member and avoidant romantic attachment. For this mediation effect, see Figure 6.
Overall the results supported the third hypothesis that nuclear family relationships would explain any association between the quality of relationships with an extended family member and psychological well-being and romantic attachment of emerging adults. The results emphasized the importance of the quality of nuclear family relationships (i.e., the quality of relationships with parents and the quality of inter-parental relationships) on the association between the quality of relationships with an extended family member and psychological well-being and romantic attachment styles of emerging adults. In other words, both mediation analyses supported the third hypothesis, indicating that the negative relationship between the quality of relationships with an extended family member and the number of psychological symptoms and avoidant romantic attachment would not exist if there was no perceived threat for inter-parental conflict by emerging adults.
3.2.6. Results for the 4th Hypothesis

To explore which coping strategies with stress were more prevalent among emerging adults, descriptive analysis was used. It was found that approach coping strategies were more frequently used ($M= 44.98$, $SD= 10.74$) than avoidant coping ways ($M= 39.03$, $SD= 9.52$) among emerging adults. Beyond this general finding, in order to test if the coping ways of emerging adults would differ according to their quality of family relationships, two independent t-test analysis were conducted for each dependent variable as (1) approach coping and (2) avoidant coping. Approach coping ways were more frequently reported by emerging adults having higher quality of relationships with mother and father and having less inter-parental conflict than those having lower quality of relationships with their mother and father and having more inter-parental conflict however, the difference in the means scores were not significant. Moreover, emerging adults who received more emotional support from the extended family significantly reported using less approach coping strategies when dealing with stress, $t (169) = -2.66$, $p = .01$. A post hoc power analysis indicated that the statistical power was at .95 and was above the adequate power (i.e., power = .80; Cohen, 1988) for the divorced parents’ group and the married parents’ group of detecting a large effect size significant at the 5% level (two tailed). The mean scores of the approach coping strategies are presented in Figure 7.
The second t-test analysis has revealed that emerging adults having lower quality of relationships with their mothers, $t(293) = 2.42, p = .02$, lower quality of relationships with their father, $t(293) = 2.89, p = .004$ and having more interparental conflict, $t(293) = -3.54, p = .001$ reported more avoidant coping ways with stress. In addition, avoidant coping was more reported by participants having more emotional support by an external family member however, this difference was not significant. A post hoc power analysis indicated that the statistical power was at .92 and was above the adequate power (i.e., power = .80; Cohen, 1988) for the divorced parents’ group and the married parents’ group of detecting a large effect size.

*Figure 7. The mean scores of emerging adults for approach coping ways with stress in relation to their quality of family relationships.*
significant at the 5% level (two tailed). The mean scores of the avoidant coping ways are presented in Figure 8.

![Figure 8. The mean scores of emerging adults for avoidant coping ways with stress in relation to their quality of family relationships.](image)

Within the hypothesis 4, it was also assumed that the coping strategies would affect the relationship between the quality of family relationships, psychological well-being and romantic attachment quality. This assumption was tested by Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA) analysis by including approach and avoidant coping as the covariates. Before the main analyses, assumptions and restrictions for MANCOVA (1- a reasonable correlation between the dependent variables, 2- a reasonable correlation between the dependent variables and
covariates, 3- an independence of covariates across the independent variable groups) were checked (Davis, 2003).

There was a significant correlation between psychological symptoms, avoidant and anxious attachment styles as the dependent variables. Approach coping (covariate variable 1) was only significantly correlated with psychological symptoms scores and avoidant attachment scores whereas avoidant coping (covariate variable 2) was only significantly correlated with psychological symptoms scores, avoidant attachment and anxious attachment scores (see Table 2). As reported in t-test analyses previously, approach coping was independent and did not significantly differ across the quality of relationships with mother, with father and inter-parental conflict whereas avoidant coping scores were only independent across the quality of relationships with an external family member. Therefore, 2 separate MANCOVA analyses for each covariate (1- approach coping and 2- avoidant coping) were conducted for the suitable dependent and independent variables.

A 2 (quality of relationship with mother: 1- less secure, 2- more secure) X 2 (quality of relationship with father: 1- less secure, 2- more secure) X 2 (perceived inter-parental conflict: 1- less, 2- more) Multivariate analyses of Variance (MANOVA) showed a significant multivariate effect of inter-parental conflict for psychological symptoms scores \( (p = .01) \) and emerging adults having more inter-parental conflict reported more psychological symptoms. When approach coping was added as a covariate, the multivariate effect of inter-parental conflict was stronger \( (p = .001) \) but the mean scores of psychological symptoms decreased with the covariating effect of approach coping (see Table 8).

The quality of relationship with mother had a significant multivariate effect for avoidant romantic attachment style \( (p = .02) \) and emerging adults with lower
quality of relationships with their mothers reported more avoidant attachment style. When approach coping was added as a covariate, the multivariate effect of the quality of relationship with mother was stronger and the mean scores of avoidant romantic attachment style became was lower \( (p = .01) \) (see Table 8).

The post hoc power analyses for these results revealed that the statistical power exceeded .99 for the detection of a moderate to large effect size. Thus, there was more than adequate power (i.e., power = .80) to identify the moderating effect of approach coping style on the relationship between the quality of mother-offspring and avoidant romantic attachment style.
Table 8.

*Multivariate Effects of the Quality of Family Relationships on Psychological Well-being and Avoidant Romantic Attachment.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Psychological Symptoms</th>
<th>Avoidant Attachment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Multivariate F</td>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With father</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>less secure</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>2,286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more secure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With mother</td>
<td>4.91*</td>
<td>2,28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>less secure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more secure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict</td>
<td>8.01**</td>
<td>2,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>less conflict</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more conflict</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approach coping</td>
<td>5.78**</td>
<td>2,285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With father</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>2,285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>less secure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more secure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With mother</td>
<td>4.96**</td>
<td>2,285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>less secure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more secure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict</td>
<td>7.99**</td>
<td>2,285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>less conflict</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more conflict</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** p ≤ .001, ** p ≤ .01, * p ≤ .05

MANOVA indicated a significant multivariate effect of the quality of relationships with an extended family member only for anxious romantic attachment scores (p = .04) and emerging adults having less emotional support by an extended family member reported more anxious romantic attachment style. When avoidant
coping was added to the model, the effect became significant on both psychological symptoms \( (p = .04) \) and anxious romantic attachment scores \( (p = .004) \); the mean scores of both psychological symptoms and anxious romantic attachment also increased (see Table 9). In addition to this, the post hoc power analyses for the results showed that the statistical power exceeded .99 for the detection of a moderate to large effect size. Thus, there was more than adequate power \( (i.e., \text{power} = .80) \) to identify the moderating effect of avoidant coping style on the relationship between the quality of the relationships with an extended family member and psychological symptoms and anxious romantic attachment scores.

Table 9

*Multivariate Effect of the Quality of Relationships with an extended family member on Psychological well-being, Avoidant and Anxious Romantic Attachment*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Psychological Symptoms</th>
<th>Avoidant Attachment</th>
<th>Anxious Attachment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Multivariate F</td>
<td>df</td>
<td>Wilks’ ( \Lambda )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of relationship</td>
<td>1.61*</td>
<td>3,167</td>
<td>.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extended family</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lower quality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>higher quality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidant coping</td>
<td>21.68**</td>
<td>3,166</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of relationship</td>
<td>2.93**</td>
<td>3,166</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lower quality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>higher quality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** \( p \leq .01 \), * \( p \leq .05 \)

In sum, results supported the fourth hypothesis in indicating that the quality of family relationships significantly affected the participants’ coping strategies. The results also supported the fourth hypothesis and revealed the significant effect of the
coping strategies of emerging adults on the relationship between the quality of family relationships and psychological well-being and romantic attachment quality.

The results showed that approach coping strategies with stress were more frequently used than avoidant coping strategies by emerging adults. Also, higher quality of nuclear family relationships were associated with more approach coping strategies whereas more emotional support by an extended family member was associated with less avoidant coping strategies among emerging adults. In addition, participants who were exposed to more inter-parental conflict, reported less psychological symptoms if they had used more approach coping strategies in dealing with stress than participants who used less approach coping strategies. Yet, previous results showed that there was a significant effect of SES on the quality of family relationships among participants with divorced parents (see part 3.2.1). For this role of SES on any difference between emerging adults’ coping strategies with stress and on any association between the quality of family relationships and coping strategies with stress in the divorced parents’ sample was also explored.

MANOVA analysis was conducted to explore the effect of SES on participant’s use of coping strategies with stress. The results revealed that participants from lower SES used more approach coping strategies (M= 44.56, SD= 10.33) than those with higher SES (M= 42.84, SD= 11.97); however, this difference was not significant (p > .05). The results also revealed that participants from lower SES used more approach coping strategies used more avoidant coping strategies (M= 40.38, SD= 10.71) than those with higher SES (M= 37.7, SD= 9.66); however, this difference was also not significant (p > .05).

MANCOVA analysis was conducted to explore the role of SES on the association between the quality of family relationships and coping strategies with
stress in the divorced parents’ sample. Although the results indicated that higher quality of nuclear and family relationships were associated with more approach coping and less avoidant coping strategies for emerging adults, the current analysis showed that there was not any effect of SES of emerging adults of having divorce parents on this association.

Approach coping significantly affected inter-parental conflict on psychological well-being (see Table 8) and since SES significantly affected the psychological well-being of emerging adults in the married parents’ sample (see part 3.2.2). For these findings, the effect of SES was also explored for the relationship between approach coping, inter-parental conflict and psychological well-being of emerging adults in the married parents’ sample. MANCOVA analysis did not indicate any significant effect of SES on the association between approach coping, inter-parental conflict and psychological well-being of emerging adults in the married parents’ sample.

The results revealed that approach coping strategies significantly affected the quality of relationship with mother on avoidant romantic attachment style (see Table 8) whereas avoidant coping significantly affected the quality of relationships with an extended family member on anxious romantic attachment scores (see Table 9). Moreover, SES significantly affected both anxious romantic attachment and avoidant romantic attachment style of emerging adults in the married parents’ sample (see part 3.2.2). Therefore, it was crucial to explore any possible effect of SES on previously found results for the link between the quality of family relationships, coping strategies with stress and romantic attachment styles of emerging adults in the married parents’ sample. The results showed no significant effect of SES of emerging adults having married parents on their quality of
relationship with mothers, approach coping strategies with stress and avoidant romantic attachment quality. SES also failed to significantly affect the quality of relationships with an extended family member, avoidant coping strategies with stress and anxious romantic attachment of emerging adults with married parents.

3.2.7. Results for the 5th Hypothesis

Before testing the mediation effects of the quality of pre-divorce family relationships, the correlations between the post-divorce quality of family relationships (the predictors) and psychological well-being and romantic attachment styles (dependent variables) and the quality of pre-divorce family relationships (the mediators) were tested for ensuring the suitability for mediation analyses (Baron & Kenny, 1986). The correlation analyses were only suitable for mediation analyses for 1- the quality of pre-and post-divorce relationships with mother and anxious romantic attachment style, and 2- the quality of pre- and post-divorce relationships with mother and avoidant romantic attachment style and 3- pre- and post-divorce inter-parental conflict and avoidant romantic attachment style.

The first mediation analysis revealed that the quality of post-divorce relationships with mother (as the predictor) was significantly related to anxious romantic attachment scores (dependent variable) and to the quality of pre-divorce relationships with mother (the mediator), ($\beta = -26$, $p = .001$) and ($\beta = .68$, $p = .001$) respectively. When the quality of pre-divorce relationships with mother and the quality of post-divorce relationships with mother were entered into the regression hierarchically, the quality of pre-divorce relationships with mother significantly predicted the anxious romantic attachment scores ($\beta = -4$, $p = .02$). When controlling the effect of pre-divorce relationships with mother, although the quality of post-
divorce relationships significantly predicted the anxious attachment scores, its effect decreased in strength \((p = .01)\). Further, according to the Sobel test, this mediation was found to be significant at .05 level. Therefore, a partial mediation was met for this analysis (see Figure 9).

The post hoc power analyses for this mediation effect indicated that the statistical power was at .90 and was more than adequate power (i.e., power = .80; Cohen, 1988) to detect the effect of the quality of pre-divorce relationships with mother on the relationship between the quality of post-divorce relationships with mother and anxious romantic attachment.

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{Quality of post-divorce relationships with mother} & \rightarrow .68^{***} \rightarrow \text{Quality of pre-divorce relationships with mother} \\
\text{Quality of pre-divorce relationships with mother} & \rightarrow -.4^* \rightarrow \text{Anxious romantic attachment}
\end{align*} \]

\[ -.23^{**} (-.26^{***}) \]

\(^* p \leq .05, ^{**} p \leq .01, ^{***} p \leq .001\)

*Figure 9. Path-analytic model for the quality of pre-divorce relationships with mother for anxious romantic attachment*

The second mediation analysis showed that the quality of post-divorce relationships with mother scores (predictor) was significantly related to avoidant romantic attachment scores (dependent variable) and the quality of pre-divorce relationships with mother scores (mediator), \((\beta = -.26, p = .001)\) and \((\beta = .68, p = .001)\) respectively. The quality of pre-divorce relationships with mother also significantly predicted the avoidant romantic attachment scores \((\beta = -.29, p = .05)\). When controlling the effect of pre-divorce relationships with mother, the quality of post-
divorce relationships significantly predicted the anxious attachment scores, but its effect decreased in strength \((p= .02)\). The Sobel test has revealed significance for this mediation at .05 level. Therefore, a partial mediation was also met for this analysis. In addition, the post hoc power analyses for this mediation effect indicated that the statistical power was at .92 and was more than adequate power (i.e., power = .80; Cohen, 1988) to detect the effect of the quality of pre-divorce relationships with mother on the relationship between the quality of post-divorce relationships with mother and avoidant romantic attachment. For this mediation effect, see Figure 10.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Quality of post-divorce relationships with mother} & \quad .68^{***} \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{Quality of pre-divorce relationships with mother} \\
& \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{Avoidant romantic attachment} \\
& \quad .19 * (-.26^{***}) 
\end{align*}
\]

\(* p \leq .05, ** p \leq .01, *** p \leq .001\)

**Figure 10. Path-analytic model for the quality of pre-divorce relationships with mother for avoidant romantic attachment.**

The last mediation analysis showed that the post-divorce inter-parental conflict scores (the predictor) was significantly related to avoidant romantic attachment scores (dependent variable) and to the pre-divorce inter-parental conflict level (the mediator), \((\beta= .14, p= .02)\) and \((\beta= .42, p= .001)\) respectively. Pre-divorce inter-parental conflict also significantly predicted the avoidant attachment scores \((\beta= .23, p= .02)\). When controlling for the pre-divorce inter-parental conflict, the
significant relationship between the post-divorce inter-parental conflict and avoidant romantic attachment became non-significant \((p = .9)\). According to the Sobel test, the mediation was significant at .05 level. A full mediation effect was met for this analysis. Moreover, the post hoc power analyses indicated that the statistical power was at .90 and was more than adequate power \(i.e., \text{power} = .80;\) Cohen, 1988) to detect the effect of the quality of pre-divorce inter-parental conflict on the relationship between the quality of post-divorce inter-parental conflict and avoidant romantic attachment. For this mediation effect, see Figure 11.

![Path-analytic model for the pre-divorce inter-parental conflict](image)

* \(p \leq .05\), ** \(p \leq .01\), *** \(p \leq .001\)

*Figure 11. Path-analytic model for the pre-divorce inter-parental conflict*

All analyses to test the fifth hypothesis provided findings which supported the assumptions in the hypothesis. As it was expected, significant association was found between the quality of family relationships in post-divorce times and romantic attachment quality of emerging adults which explained by the quality of pre-divorce nuclear family relationships. Moreover, the role of the quality of post-divorce relationship with mother on anxious and avoidant romantic attachment style of emerging adults was affected by the quality of pre-divorce relationship with mother.
3.3. Summary of Results of Study 1

In line with the theoretical background and the findings of previous studies (see Chapter 2), the results of Study 1 showed that the quality of family relationships could not be considered solely or specific to a family member. Rather, the quality of the relationship with one family member was found to be associated with the quality of the relationship with other family members. That means, the quality of family relationships were presented in a connected system rather than independent of each other. Specifically, the higher quality of relationship with one parent was associated with higher quality of the other parent. Moreover, the relationship between the parents was associated with the quality of relationships with each parent and there was a role of extended family on emerging adults’ perception of the quality of some of the nuclear family relationships. For example, emerging adults having more quality relationships within the extended family perceived higher quality of interparental relationships in terms of perceiving less threat in inter-parental conflict.

The findings of Study 1 also supported the dominating role of the quality of family relationships over the family structure on psychological well-being and romantic attachment styles of emerging adults of married and divorced parents. This point was in line with the hypothesis of Study 1. As expected, although the family structure affected the quality of relationships with some family members (e.g., father, extended family member), it could only predict psychological well-being and romantic attachment styles of emerging adults in relation to the quality of family relationships and not by itself. Additionally, the quality of relationships with an extended family member were higher among the offspring of divorced parents than the offspring of married parents without any significant effect of participants’ gender. Yet, the quality of relationships with an extended family member and father
were much higher among the offspring of divorced parents with higher SES than the offspring of divorced parents with lower SES. For the offspring of married parents, higher SES were related to less psychological well-being and less romantic attachment quality but this relationships was not found for the offspring of divorced parents.

Another important finding in Study 1 was the role of extended family relationships and coping strategies with stress on psychological well-being and avoidant romantic style of emerging adults without any effect on gender or SES. Both the the emotional support provided by the extended family member and approach coping style became significant in protecting the psychological well-being and romantic attachment quality when there was a lower quality of parental and/or interparental relationships.

Lastly, Study 1 presented important findings for the significant effect of the quality of family relationships in pre-divorce times. There was the significant role of the quality of family relationships in the post-divorce times on emerging adult’s romantic attachment quality. However, the role of the post-divorce family relationships was affected by the family relationships in pre-divorce times which have not been considered in previous research (see Chapter 2).
CHAPTER 4

STUDY 2

The Role of the Family Structure, Family Relationships and Coping Strategies with Stress on Attitudes toward Divorce

LITERATURE REVIEW

4.1. The Context of Family and Attitudes of Offspring toward Divorce

4.1.1. Parental Divorce and Attitudes of Offspring toward Divorce

Previous research findings have revealed contradicting information for the relationship between parental divorce and attitudes of offspring toward divorce. Some researchers have suggested that offspring in divorced families were more likely to hold favourable attitudes toward divorce (e.g., Diekmann & Engelhardt, 1999; Lyngstad & Engelhardt, 2009; Thornton, 1991). The “intergenerational transmission of divorce” as one of the most reported explanation in the divorce literature, refers to the higher likelihood for offspring having divorced families to divorce in their own marriages, compared to those having married families (e.g., Amato & DeBoer, 2001; Tasker, 1992). However, reviews of the literature on the effects of recent parental divorce on adult offspring attitudes have reported inconsistent findings (e.g., Burgess & Hames, 2002; Kozuch & Cooney, 1995; Tasker & Richards, 1994). For example, Tasker and Richards (1994) revealed that adolescent offspring of divorced parents were less likely to look favourably on divorce than offspring of married parents.

Cui et al. (2011) specifically indicated that the effect of parental divorce on the dissolution of young adults’ romantic relationships was mediated by their attitudes toward divorce and relationship commitment. The researchers compared
offspring from married families and divorced families and found that emerging adults from divorced families demonstrated a more favourable attitude toward divorce and lower levels of commitment to their own romantic relationships which in turn was associated with relationship dissolution among those from divorced families. This finding was explained by social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) in that observing parental divorce can shape the attitudes of adult offspring toward divorce. Specifically, if a romantic relationship is observed as something that can be ended when inevitable difficulties arise; there would not be strong commitment to the relationship. Therefore, adult offspring may develop patterns of leaving a dissatisfying relationship rather than insisting on the work of the relationship based on modelled behaviour from their parents.

In contrast to the presented findings, other studies suggested that parental divorce can increase the likelihood of early marriage for some children in divorced families via lowered educational prospects, lowered socio-economic status, early homeleaving, and earlier involvement in heterosexual relationships (e.g., Tasker & Richards; 1994). These authors also suggested that offspring from divorced families may take relationships more seriously and view them as more important than offspring of intact families.

Most research data for the link between the attitudes toward divorce and intergenerational transmission of divorce comes from the United States and suggests that offspring of divorced parents tended to have more positive attitudes toward divorce (Amato & DeBoer, 2001; Axinn & Thornton, 1996; Cunningham & Skillingsstead, 2015; Jennings, Salts, & Smith, 1992; Miles & Servaty-Seib, 2010; Trent & South, 1992). In contrast, other studies pointed out that family structure cannot be the factor solely predicting the offspring’s developmental outcomes while
drawing attention to the role of contextual factors such as the quality of parent-offspring and inter-parental relationships. A review by Golombok and Tasker (2015) on children’s general socio-emotional development have highlighted the role of family processes and social contextual factors rather than family structure per se in children’s developmental outcomes. Tasker (2014) reviewed data from the Christchurch Health and Development Study (CHDS) that the initial association between childhood experience of parental separation/divorce and young people’s partnership outcomes was explained by social contextual factors (e.g., child maltreatment, inter-parental conflict) covaried with parental marital instability. Consistently, Jensen, Willoughby, Holman, Busby and Shafer (2015) found that attachment quality with parents (secure versus insecure attachment) was a stronger predictor of the attitudes of the offspring toward marriage/divorce than the family structure itself. A very recent study by Collardeau and Ehrenberg (2016) on emerging adult’s attitudes and feelings toward marriage and divorce also showed a strong positive association between parent-offspring attachment quality and optimism toward marriage for emerging adults having divorced families.

In addition to the quality of parental relationships, inter-parental conflict is also shown as a salient factor which may influence the attitudes of the offspring toward marriage/divorce (Kalter, 1987). Perceived inter-parental conflict was found to be an important determinant of how young adults’ approach their own romantic relationships later in life, and helps shape their beliefs about the permanence of marriage and divorce (Riggio & Fite, 2006; Schovanec & Lee, 2001). The findings of Collardeau and Ehrenberg (2016) supported previous studies (e.g., Cui, Wickrama, Lorenz, & Conger, 2011; Wolfinger, 2005) and revealed that those offspring having divorced families who were also exposed to high levels of inter-
parental conflict were more likely to consider divorce as an alternative during a marriage if the marriage was problematic. In parallel to these findings, Amato (1993) argued that the often severe conflicts preceding divorce could decrease the psychological well-being of children and later increase their risk of divorce. Researchers consistently found that perception of inter-parental conflict was associated with more positive attitudes toward divorce in later life than the incidence of divorce itself (Cunningham & Thornton, 2006; Riggio & Fite, 2006; Vandewater & Landsford, 1998). Riggio and Fite (2006) found that adult children from married families characterized by high inter-parental conflict tended to exhibit more positive attitudes toward divorce, which was in turn was shown to be linked with greater conflict and negative patterns in their own relationships, compared to adult children from divorced families.

Mulder and Gunnoe (1999) drew attention to the role of the type of problems in the marriage on the likelihood of divorce rather than the role of parental divorce. Their study indicated that young adults whose parents were divorced were more likely to say they would get a divorce only if their relationship consisted of a lot of arguing, no love, no magic (e.g., a magic like expressing a surprise to the partner at an unexpected time), physical abuse, and verbal abuse but not in situations of an affair or a spouse that changed, suggesting that young adults have more uniform evaluations of these potential threats to marriage. These environmental factors are consistent with ecological theories (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) about the formation of attitudes toward marriage/divorce whereby offspring develop their own attitudes by witnessing their parents’ interactions and by experiencing specific relationships within the family they are raised in or in their own marriage.
The current study also considers the role of the developmental stage of the offspring as a micro-system factor on attitudes of the offspring toward divorce in addition to the role of the quality of family relationships. It is specifically focused on emerging adult offspring because emerging adulthood is an important period when individuals are able to explore intimacy and sexuality (Arnett, 2000), as well as to test the assumptions or attitudes toward romantic relationships. Moreover, offspring may experience ‘sleeper’ effects of parental divorce during the early years of adulthood that means they reinterpret their parent’s divorce which would lead to differences in their prior adjustment to divorce especially as they engage in romantic relationships and form their own families (Amato & DeBoer, 2001; Li, 2014).

In addition to the presented finding of the quantitative research, qualitative studies have revealed some major themes regarding the offspring’s experiences of parental divorce and attitudes toward divorce. For example, in Cunningham and Skillingstead’s study (2015) in which they interviewed university students with divorced parents, participants reported a fear of modelling some their parent’s undesired behaviours, absence of effective modelling of parenting, determination to avoid parental mistakes, and fear of self- or partner change in their romantic relationship in detail. In Kim and Tasker’s study (2013), emerging adults of divorced parents reported a theme as “feelings of stigmatization” in terms of referring to themselves as inferior shameful. A recent study by Collardeau and Ehrenberg (2016) in a mixed methodology clearly showed how quantitative findings would mean more when they are combined with qualitative analysis. They found that their quantitative finding for the interactional effect between attachment quality with parents and family structure (married or divorced parents) was associated with the endorsement
of the theme “divorce is fulfilling” (more positive attitudes toward divorce) as a qualitative result.

4.1.2. Attitudes toward Divorce in Northern Cyprus

Previous approaches on social learning theory, family system theories and ecological theories have all been taken as a foundation by researchers to understand or explain how the experiences within the family and attitudes could be transmitted to offspring. Nevertheless, as depicted by Li (2014), this has been difficult due to the variety of beliefs and attitudes held by individuals. Moreover, the variation in the attitudes of the offspring could be raised by the varying contextual factors which form the attitudes such as being raised in specific family structures with specific social norms (Li, 2014).

It was very well documented in the literature of both cultural and cross-cultural psychology that the determining role of the family on offspring’s development cannot be thought without considering the social structure, values and norms which surround it (e.g., Kağıtçibaşı, 1996). Nevertheless, there is not much information in the current literature on how the cultural variation could affect the relationship between the experiences of young people within the family and their attitudes toward marriage and divorce. Most research on the intergenerational transmission of divorce have been conducted in Western and European countries (e.g., Amato & Cheadle, 2005, Bean, Crane, & Lewis, 2002; Diekmann & Schmidheiny, 2013; Kraav, Rootalu, Läänesaar, & Kasearu, 2012) with “individualistic” cultural values. Few researches have examined the cross-cultural variations and found that intergenerational transmission of divorce might not be presented for offspring of divorced parents in the cultures out of the West and
Europe (Gohm, Oishi, Darlington, & Diener, 1998; Kim & Tasker, 2013). For example, Gohm et al. (1998) indicated that since family relationships are much stronger in collectivist cultures like Korea than in individualistic cultures like the United States, divorce was not acceptable among the offspring in divorced families. Kim and Tasker (2013) also found that in South Korea where the divorce rates are also increasing, although young adults perceiving their parents’ divorce as a good decision for themselves, especially in cases of high inter-parental conflict, they still retained negative attitudes toward divorce. Researchers explained this finding by the role of collectivist and traditional Confucian family values which present strong social and cultural prohibition against divorce. In other words, as being raised in a collectivist culture, South Korean young adults perceived “divorce” as having a collective and negative effect as not only affecting themselves but everyone around them.

Based on the provided research evidences for the cross-cultural variation on the attitudes toward young people toward divorce, the present study is interested in exploring the attitudes of emerging adults toward divorce in Northern Cyprus as a region much closer to collectivist culture but having the divorce rates as high as in the U.S and Europe (Family Court Report, 2016). The increasing divorce rates in Northern Cyprus has led to the emergence of less traditional family forms such as single-parent families in which one parent avoids parenting after the divorce for some reason, or binuclear families in which both parents share the parenting after the divorce or step-parent families in which one or both parents remarry after the divorce. Nevertheless, the number of unmarried cohabitations is only observed among the romantic partners but it is mostly not experienced by the offspring because it is not approved within the culture if the couples decide to have a child.
The divorce rates and the emergence of new family forms in Northern Cyprus would still not show that divorce is mostly granted on an optimistic base within the society rather it is still stigmatized. The stigma toward divorce mostly becomes stronger if there is a child within the family and the child would even be perceived as “victim of the divorce” (“Boşanan-boşanana”, 2016; “Boşanmanın Mağduru Çocuklar”, 2012) even if the marriage is ended in a healthier way with less conflict. Despite the increasing divorce rates, there is not any published research on attitudes of the offspring toward divorce in Northern Cyprus.

4.2. Rationale for Study 2

The rationale for Study 2 was to explore the role of the family structure, quality of family relationships and coping strategies with stress on attitudes toward divorce in emerging adulthood. Research is lacking on how offspring’s relationships with each parent and inter-parental relationships would affect attitudes toward divorce at emerging adulthood (18-29 years old). Although studies have investigated attitudes toward divorce among young people between 18-29 years of age (e.g., Mulder & Gunnoe, 1999; Teachman, 2002), almost all studies have described their participants as “young adults” and not as emerging adults. According to (Arnett, 2000, 2004, 2006), it is important to distinguish emerging adulthood and young adulthood as separate developmental periods and there are a number of reasons why the term “young adulthood” does not work for young people in their twenties.

One reason is that the use of young adulthood implies that adulthood has been reached at this point. Yet, many of emerging adults do not see themselves entirely as adults when they are asked whether they feel they have reached adulthood, the majority of them in their early twenties answer neither no nor yes but
the ambiguous in some respects yes, in some respects no (Arnett, 2000). However, most people in their thirties feel they have reached adulthood. This reflects a subjective sense on the part of most emerging adults that they have left adolescence but have not yet completely entered young adulthood. In addition, “Young adulthood” is better applied to those in their thirties, who are still young but are definitely adult in ways those in the late teens through the mid-twenties are not (Arnett, 2004). For example, most emerging adults are still in the process of seeking out the education, training, and job experiences that will prepare them for a long-term occupation, but most people in their thirties have settled into a more stable occupational path. Also, most emerging adults have not yet married, but most people in their thirties are married. Most emerging adults have not yet had a child, but most people in their thirties have at least one child (Arnett, 2006).

Arnett (2004, 2006) clearly demonstrated that the transition from emerging adulthood to young adulthood is much less definite with respect to age. There are 19-year-olds who have reached adulthood demographically, subjectively, and in terms of identity formation and 29-year-olds who have not. Nevertheless, for most people, the transition from emerging adulthood to young adulthood intensifies in the late twenties and is reached by age 30 in all of these respects. Therefore, it would be crucial to ask young people in their twenties at what extent they feel as “a fully adult” before referring them as young adults.

Another rationale of Study 2 is to explore the attitudes of emerging adult offspring toward divorce in a mixed methodology. The reason for choosing to conduct this study in mixed methods is the limited number of research that used mixed methodology on attitudes toward divorce in the literature.
Lastly, it seems crucial to investigate how the attitudes of offspring toward divorce would differ in Northern Cyprus where there are increasing divorce rates while at the same time the level of stigma toward divorce is still high. It would also be important to understand how the attitudes of the offspring toward divorce can be influenced by the characteristics of the amalgam family structure in Northern Cyprus, such as the transmission of family values by grandparents or other relatives. Based on the presented rationales, the aim of Study 2 is to explore the role of the family structure (divorced/married), the quality of family relationships and coping strategies with stress on attitudes of emerging adults toward divorce by using a mixed methodology to provide more depth and more personal experiences of offspring on attitudes toward divorce. The proposed model was also demonstrated in figure 3 (see Chapter 2).

4.3. Method

As aforementioned, a mixed methods approach was used in Study 2. Mixed methods research a distinct approach in the social and human sciences therefore; it would be useful to present general information and description of the approach in the beginning of this part. This part will provide reflection on the definition of mixed methods approach, the reasons of using mixed methods and then the design and the analysis used in mixed methodology in Study 2. Following this, the quantitative methodology part and the quantitative results within the mixed methods will be presented. Lastly, the qualitative methodology part (thematic analysis part) and the results of the thematic analyses will be presented.
4.3.1. Mixed Methods Approach

The three major research paradigms are known as; 1- Quantitative research, 2- Qualitative research, and 3- Mixed methods research (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007). As Creswell (2003, p.18) defined, a quantitative approach is one in which the investigation primarily includes cause and effect thinking, reduction to specific variables and hypotheses and questions, use of measurement and observation, and the test of theories to develop the knowledge and employs strategies of inquiry such as experiments and surveys, and collect data on predetermined instruments. Alternatively, a qualitative approach is the one in which the inquirer often makes knowledge claims based primarily on the multiple meanings of individual experiences meanings socially and historically constructed by using the strategies such as narratives, phenomenology’s, ethnographies, grounded theory studies, or case studies (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Finally, a mixed methods research is a methodology in which the researcher collects, analyses, and mixes (integrates or connects) both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or a multiphase program of inquiry. The data collection also involves gathering both numeric information (e.g., on instruments) as well as text information (e.g., on interviews) so that the final database represents both quantitative and qualitative information.

Mixed methods research originated in the social sciences and has recently expanded into the health and medical sciences such as nursing, family medicine, social work, mental health and others. In the last decade, mixed methodology has been developed and refined to suit a wide range of research topics (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). There are several reasons why researchers prefer to employ a mixed methods design. One major reason is that mixed methods is useful to capture the best
of both quantitative and qualitative approaches and therefore to overcome the limitations and weaknesses of a single design. For example, a researcher may want to both generalize the findings to a population by using a quantitative methodology and develop a detailed view of the meaning of a phenomenon or concept for individuals in a quantitative methodology in a single study. In relation to this, a recent study by Collardeau and Ehrenberg (2016) in a mixed methodology clearly showed how quantitative findings would mean more when they are combined with qualitative findings. Other advantages of mixed methods are defined by Wisdom and Creswell (2013, p.3) as follows:

- Mixed methods are especially useful in understanding contradictions between quantitative results and qualitative findings.
- Mixed methods give a voice to study participants and ensure that study findings are grounded in participants’ experiences.
- Fosters scholarly interaction by encouraging the interaction of quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods scholars.
- Mixed methods have great flexibility and are adaptable to many study designs, such as observational studies and randomized trials, to elucidate more information than can be obtained in only quantitative research.
- Mixed methods also mirror the way individuals naturally collect information—by integrating quantitative and qualitative data.
4.3.1.1. Types of Mixed Methods Design

The design of a mixed methods study is affected by four important aspects which are 1- *timing*- whether the qualitative and quantitative data collection will be in phases (sequentially) or gathered at the same time (concurrently); 2- *weighting*- whether the priority will be given to quantitative or qualitative data collection and analysis or will be kept in equal; 3- *mixing*- which means either that the qualitative and quantitative data are actually merged on one end of the continuum, kept separate on the other, or combined in some way; and *theorizing*- whether an overall theoretical perspective will be used to guide the study (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann & Hanson, 2003). Based on these four aspects, six types of mixed methods designs were identified by Creswell et al. in 2003 and are presented below.

1. *Sequential explanatory design*: involves the collection and analysis of quantitative data in a first phase followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data in a second phase that builds on the results of the initial quantitative results.

2. *Sequential exploratory design*: involves a first phase of qualitative data collection and analysis which is followed by the quantitative data collection and analysis that builds on the results of the first qualitative phase.

3. *Sequential transformative design*: It has an initial phase (either quantitative or qualitative) followed by a second phase (either qualitative or quantitative) that builds on the earlier phase. Unlike the sequential exploratory and explanatory approaches, the sequential transformative design has a theoretical perspective to guide the study.
4. *Concurrent triangulation design:* Both quantitative and qualitative data are collected concurrently and are compared to determine if there is convergence between the two.

5. *Concurrent nested design:* both quantitative and qualitative data are collected simultaneously. Unlike the triangulation design, it has a primary method (qualitative or quantitative) which dominates the secondary one.

6. *Concurrent transformative design:* is guided by the researcher's use of a specific theoretical perspective as well as the concurrent collection of both quantitative and qualitative data.

**4.3.2. Reasons of Designing Study 2 in Mixed Methods Approach**

The aim of Study 2 was to explore the role of family structure, quality of family relationships and coping strategies on attitudes toward divorce in emerging adulthood. Most studies in this research area involves quantitative paradigms and mostly provided the results on factors that predict, mediate or moderate the relationship between family structure and offspring’s attitudes toward divorce (e.g., Amato & DeBoer, 2001; Axinn & Thornton, 1996; Jennings et al., 1992; Miles & Servaty-Seib; 2010; Mulder & Gunnoe, 2008). So far only a handful of studies (e.g., Collardeau & Ehrenberg, 2016) have employed mixed methodology in the literature.

The dominance of the quantitative research restricts the depth and richness of offspring’s experience with parental divorce (Ahron, 2007). As Ahron (2007, p., 64) also explained, “Children’s voices often become muted in our research when we use only objective measures to determine adjustment and rely solely on numbers to describe their responses”. However, the use of qualitative method only is not sufficient to the generalizability of the results. For these reasons, there seems to be a
need to provide more information by research conducted in both quantitative and qualitative methods or in mixed methods.

4.3.3. Design of Study 2

Study 2 used a mixed methods approach which was divided into two separate parts. In the first (quantitative) part, attitudes of emerging adults toward divorce were explored in relation to their quality of family relationships and coping strategies with stress in married and divorced families. The second (qualitative) part explored the attitudes toward divorce, the quality of family relationships and coping with stress by using thematic analysis.

Study 2 was based on four important aspects of mixed methods approach which are timing, weighting, mixing and theorizing (Creswell et al., 2003) by using sequential transformative design (see part 4.3.1.1.). In respect for timing factor, a sequential design was used rather than a concurrent design in this study. As aforementioned, in sequential designs both the quantitative and the qualitative data are collected and analysed in different phases whereas both the quantitative and the qualitative data are collected and analysed at the same time in concurrent designs (see part 4.3.1.1). In this study, the quantitative data was collected and analysed first followed by the collection of the qualitative data. The reason for this type of timing was that the researcher needed time to be trained in qualitative methodology. Therefore, there was a need for time to have training in qualitative methodology and that duration of time was used to complete the quantitative part of the study.

In relation to the theorizing factor, the sequential transformative design was used in Study 2 rather than the sequential exploratory and explanatory designs because the sequential transformative design is known as the design that has a
theoretical perspective to guide a study. Thus, the sequential transformative design was the most appropriate design for Study 2 because the scope and the rationale of Study 2 (see Chapter 4 and part 4.2) were related to more than one theoretical approach (e.g., Ecological-transactional model, Attachment theory, Cross-cultural approach).

The study was also designed by considering the weighting and the mixing factors. The weighting was formed by giving more priority to the quantitative method than qualitative method (e.g., the two data sets did not include the equal number of participants). For the mixing factor, the quantitative and qualitative dataset were kept separate on the other and the qualitative data was intended to be used to support and make the quantitative results deeper and more meaningful. The design of Study 2 is presented in Figure 12.

Figure 12: The sequential transformative design in Study 2

Note: The figure was drawn by the researchers in 2017.
**4.4. Quantitative Part of Study 2**

For the quantitative part of the mixed methods of Study 2, the research questions and hypotheses are presented below respectively. The order of the research questions and hypotheses will follow the number of the research questions and hypotheses of Study 1 (see Chapter 2, part 2.8).

1- Does the family structure predict attitudes of emerging adults toward divorce by itself or in relation to the quality of family relationships?
Hypothesis 6: Family structure would only predict attitudes toward divorce in relation to the quality of family relationships.

2- Do strategies for coping with stress affect the relationship between the family structure and attitudes toward divorce?
Hypothesis 7: Coping strategies with stress would significantly affect the relationship between the family structure and attitudes toward divorce.

3- Does the quality of post-divorce family relationships predict the attitudes toward divorce by itself or in relation to pre-divorce family relationships?
Hypothesis 8: The quality of post-divorce family relationships would only significantly predict the attitudes toward divorce in relation to pre-divorce family relationships.
4.4.1. Quantitative Methodology in Study 2

4.4.1.1. Participants

The quantitative part of the study included the same participants included in the sample of Study 1 (see Chapter 3, Participants, part 3.1.1). Participants consisted of 295 emerging adults and 50.8 % (N=150) were with married parents and 49.2 % (N=145) were with divorced parents (see Table 1 for the demographic characteristics).

4.4.1.2. Instruments

4.4.1.2.1. The Likelihood of Divorce Scale

The Likelihood of Divorce scale (Mulder & Gunnoe, 1999) was used to rate the likelihood that the participants would get a divorce in seven hypothetical marriage situations: no more love, physical abuse, spouse turned out differently than expected, no magic left, verbal abuse, spouse had an affair, and a lot of arguing (Appendix, V.9). Responses ranged from 1 (very unlikely) to 5 (very likely). High scores indicate more positive attitudes toward divorce in the case of marital difficulties. A Cronbach’s alpha of .83 has been reported in the past (Mulder & Gunnoe, 1999). The scale was translated into Turkish by the researcher and another researcher who was blind to the scope of the project. For the Turkish version, the alpha reliability was .88 for the divorced parents’ sample and .89 for the married parents’ sample.
4.4.2. Procedure

As mentioned in the mixed methods design of Study 2 (see part 4.3.3), the quantitative data was collected in the first phase of the project by using a sequential design.

The Likelihood of Divorce Scale was given to the participants at the same time within the set of the questionnaires of Study 1 (see Chapter 3, Instruments part) by the same procedure followed in Study 1 (see Chapter 3, Part 3.1.3). Therefore, the all quantitative data in both Study 1 and Study 2 were collected at the same time.

4.4.3. Quantitative Analysis

The predictors of the attitudes toward divorce were analyzed by using the Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis in SPSS for 6th the hypothesis. The role of the coping strategies on the relationship between the attitudes toward divorce and the family structure was tested by Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) and lastly, the predicting role of pre- and post-divorce quality of family relationships were tested by Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis.

4.4.4. Quantitative Results

4.4.4.1. Results for the 6th Hypothesis

The regression analysis revealed the family structure as explaining 8% of the variance ($R^2 = .08$) was not a significant predictor of the attitudes toward divorce scores. The quality of nuclear family relationships accounted for a significant change in variance ($R^2 \text{ Change} = .08$, $p = .001$). Emerging adults who reported more self-blame for inter-parental conflict had significantly more negative attitudes toward divorce, $(p = .001)$. The quality of relationships with an extended family member did
not account for a significant change in variance ($R^2$ Change= .001) in the third model. In the final model, only the family structure and self-blame for inter-parental conflict significantly predicted the attitudes toward divorce (see Table 10).

Table 10

*Predictors of Attitudes toward Divorce*

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<tr>
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<td>-.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inter-parental Conflict</td>
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<td>-.06</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Threat of Conflict</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-blame for Conflict</td>
<td>-3.67</td>
<td>-.28***</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quality of Relationship</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(extended family)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** $p \leq .001$

The statistical power of the results was also checked for the sixth hypothesis. The post hoc power analyses indicated that the statistical power was greater than .99 for the detection of a moderate to large effect size. Therefore, there was more than adequate power (i.e., power = .80; Cohen, 1988) to detect the effect of the quality of
the family structure in relation to self-blame for inter-parental conflict on the attitudes toward divorce in the final model.

In sum, the results supported the sixth hypothesis and revealed that family structure would only predict attitudes toward divorce in relation to the quality of family relationships. As one dimension of the nuclear family relationships, self-blame for the conflict in inter-parental relationships predicted the attitudes toward divorce in relation to the family structure. Previous analysis also indicated that there was a significant effect for SES for the quality of family relationships in the divorced parents’ sample (see part 3.2.1). For this reason, the possible effects of the demographic variables as gender and SES were also tested for the attitudes toward divorce among participants of married and divorced parents. The results of ANOVA analysis showed that there were not any significant effects of gender and SES on attitudes toward divorce of emerging adults of divorced parents. Similarly, among participants of married parents, no significant effect of gender and SES.

4.4.4.2 Results for the 7th Hypothesis

For testing any covariation of the ways of coping with stress on the relationship between the family structure and attitudes toward divorce, Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was used. Results showed no significant correlation ($r = .30$ and $.90$) between the attitudes toward divorce scores (as the dependent variable) and anxious and avoidant coping scores (the covariates) as required for ANCOVA (Davis, 2003).
4.4.4.3. Results for the 8th Hypothesis

The analysis revealed the post-divorce family relationships as explaining 3% of the variance ($R^2 = .03$, $p = .18$) was not a significant predictor of attitudes to divorce scores. The quality of pre-divorce nuclear family relationships accounted for a significant change in variance ($R^2$ Change= .06, $p= .03$). Emerging adults who reported more pre-divorce inter-parental conflict had significantly more positive attitudes toward divorce than those who reported less pre-divorce inter-parental conflict ($p= .04$). In the final model, by the addition of pre-divorce family relationships, post-divorce inter-parental conflict also became significant (see Table 11).

Table 11

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Steps</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Change</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>1 Model</td>
<td>Post-divorce relationships</td>
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<td>3.141</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.03</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mother-offspring</td>
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<td></td>
<td>.08</td>
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<td></td>
<td>.12</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inter-parental Conflict</td>
<td>-1.35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Model</td>
<td>Pre-divorce relationships</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>3.138</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.09</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mother-offspring</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.16</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Father-offspring</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.03</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inter-parental Conflict</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.23*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final Model</td>
<td>Post-divorce relationships</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Father-offspring</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>.13</td>
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<td>Inter-parental Conflict</td>
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<td>.20*</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Pre-divorce relationships</td>
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<td>.19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Father-offspring</td>
<td>-.4</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inter-parental Conflict</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>.24*</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p \leq .05$
The statistical power of the results was also checked for the results. The post hoc power analyses indicated that the statistical power was at .92 for the detection of a moderate to large effect size. Therefore, there was more than adequate power (i.e., power = .80; Cohen, 1988) to detect the effect of the post-divorce inter-parental in relation to pre-divorce inter-parental conflict on attitudes toward divorce in the final model.

The eighth hypothesis was supported by the results which showed that the quality of post-divorce family relationships would only predict attitudes toward divorce in relation to the quality of pre-divorce family relationships. However, as SES significantly affected the quality of family relationships of participants with divorced parents (see part, 3.2.1), the possible effects of the demographic variables as gender and SES were tested for the sixth hypothesis.

The results of ANCOVA analysis showed no significant effect of gender or SES on the relationship between pre-divorce and post-divorce family relationships and attitudes toward divorce among emerging adults of divorced parents.

4.4.5. Summary of Results of the Quantitative Part of Study 2

Overall, the quantitative findings in Study 2 have revealed more important role of the quality of family relationships than the role of family structure on emerging adults’ attitudes toward divorce. The results did not provide any significant effect of gender or SES of the offspring on their attitudes toward divorce. The findings were consistent with the findings of Study 1 which revealed the dominating role of the quality of family relationships over the role of family structure on psychological well-being and romantic attachment quality (see Chapter 3, part 3.2.2). Moreover, self-blame for the conflict in inter-parental relationships was the only
aspect of nuclear family relationships that predicted the attitudes toward divorce and more self-blame for the inter-parental conflict predicted more negative attitudes toward divorce.

Another important aspect of nuclear family relationships was the frequency of inter-parental conflict both in pre-divorce and post-divorce times which significantly predicted the attitudes toward divorce. More inter-parental conflict was related to more positive attitudes toward divorce among emerging adults. In addition, inter-parental conflict in post-divorce times could only significantly predicted the attitudes toward divorce in relation to pre-divorce inter-parental conflict. Therefore, the more important role of the quality of family relationships in pre-divorce times was also found for attitudes toward divorce as it was also found for romantic attachment quality in Study 1 (see Chapter 3, part 3.2.7).

In contrast to the findings in Study 1 that revealed a significant role of coping strategies with stress on psychological well-being and romantic attachment quality (see Chapter 3, part 3.2.6), in study 2, the role of coping strategies on attitudes toward divorce was not significant.

4.5. Qualitative Part (Thematic Analysis Part) of Study 2

In the qualitative part of the mixed methods of Study 2, it was aimed to have more information about the attitudes toward divorce of emerging adults of married and divorced parents and what they think for the quality of their family relationships and coping strategies with stress. In this part, it was expected to discover the themes underlying emerging adults’ attitudes toward divorce, family relationships and coping strategies with stress and to contribute to the quantitative part of the mixed methods used in the study.
4.5.1. Qualitative Methodology in Study 2

4.5.1.1. Participants

The qualitative part of the study consisted of 20 participants randomly chosen within the common sample of Study 1 and the quantitative part of Study 2 (see Chapter 3 and 4, Participants parts). There were 10 emerging adults in the divorced parents’ sample and 10 in the married parents’ sample. The mean age was 22.42 years ($SD= 3.15$) for emerging adults with married parents and 22.32 years ($SD= 2.73$) for emerging adults with divorced parents. There were 7 females and 3 males in both married and divorced parents’ offspring samples. Eight of the participants in the divorced sample and the 7 of the participants in the married sample were provided care by their grandmothers until they started in pre-school.

Among participants with divorced parents, one has experienced only mother’s remarriage; four participants have experienced only their fathers’ remarriage; four participants have experienced none of the parents’ remarriage and only one participant has experienced both of the parents’ remarriage after the divorce. For all of the participants, the residential parent was the mothers.

4.5.1.2. Instruments

4.5.1.2.1. Interview form

For the qualitative part, in-depth interviews were made to obtain more information about the participants’ attitudes toward divorce, their quality of family relationships and their coping responses to stress. The reason for collecting the data via interviews was that interviews give a new insight into a social phenomenon as they allow the respondents to reflect and reason on a variety of subjects in a different way (Folkestad, 2008, p.1).
An interview form was prepared by the project’s research team including open-ended questions in three main parts as 1- Quality of Family Relationships, 2- Coping Strategies with Stress, 3- Attitudes toward Divorce. The interview questions were mostly derived from the questionnaires which measured the similar dimensions in the quantitative part of the project. Participants of divorced and non-divorced offspring were presented different interview guides with different instructions and question types (see Appendix VIII and IX, respectively).

4.5.2. Procedure

The qualitative data were collected after the ethical approvals from University of Roehampton (Appendix I) and from Eastern Mediterranean University (Appendix II) were obtained for the qualitative part of the study. The interviews were made with ensuring the ethical principles from the beginning to the end.

Among the participants in Study 1 (see Chapter 3, part 3.1.1), the questionnaires of those who wrote on the Participant Consent Form in the first part of the project (Appendix III) that they would like to take part in the interview part were separated and were included in the sample of Study 2. A total of 42 participants agreed to participate to the interview part but only 31 provided their contact numbers on the consent form. All these 31 participants were invited to participate in the interviews. However, only 22 participants could be reached because the rest had either changed their contact numbers or had moved abroad to study.

Interviews were conducted by the researcher who was trained in conducting an interview and who has been working as a psychologist and a cognitive-behavioral therapist since 2011. Each participant was interviewed at a separate session in a private interview room at Eastern Mediterranean University Psychological
Counseling Guidance and Research Center (EMU-PDRAM) at a time of the participant’s choice. Each participant was initially informed verbally about the aim and the scope of Study 2, following which they were provided with the Consent Form for the interview (see Appendix VI). All participants agreed to participate in the interview after reading the Consent Form. All participants were also provided a debrief form (see Appendix VII) which presented information for seeking psychological support if they felt discomfort after a time from the interviews.

The anonymity of the participants was strongly ensured by not disclosing names or any other information that could be connected to the participants through the results. Participants were informed verbally that they did not need to say their names during the interviews both before starting the interview and in the Participant Consent Form. In addition, before beginning the interview, participants were also informed that they will not be addressed by their names during the interviews. All interviews were audio recorded with the consent of the participants. The audio tapes were kept on a locked tape cabinet that only the researcher had access to.

4.5.2.1. Interview protocol

On arrival of each participant, the researcher briefly introduced herself and then repeated the aim of the project. After this, each participant was presented with the Consent Form for the interview part (see Appendix VI). All participants agreed to participate in the interview after reading the Consent Form. Each one to one interview was conducted by using a semi-structured interview guide (see Appendix VIII and IX) which started with general questions and moved to more specific areas as the interview progressed so, that the participant was allowed to guide the content of the interview.
The interviews lasted for approximately 40-60 minutes. At the end of the interviews, participants were debriefed about the project with a written form (see Appendix VII). Each interview recording was coded according to the previously given code for that participant in the questionnaire form in Study 1 in order to match questionnaire form and interview recording of the same participants. For example, for a participant given a code (P1) in Study 1 was also be given P1 for his/her audio recording at the interview. Interviews were carried out in Turkish and then were translated to English.

4.5.3. Qualitative Analysis

The qualitative data were analysed and interpreted using the thematic analysis method of Braun and Clarke (2006). It was decided that the most appropriate method of analysis would be thematic analysis, firstly because it is a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data, and can produce an insightful analysis that answers particular research questions (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In order to address the gaps in current literature, it was decided this research should focus on identifying themes within the participants’ perception of quality of family relationships, coping ways with stress and attitudes toward divorce.

Secondly, thematic analysis is a method which is independent of theory and epistemology, and can be applied across a range of theoretical and epistemological approaches which makes it a flexible method to use (Braun & Clarke, 2006). These distinctive characteristics of thematic analysis was another reason to prefer it for use within this project because the research questions of the project (please see Chapter 2) were related to more than one theoretical approach (e.g., Ecological-transactional model, Attachment theory, Cross-cultural approach) (please see Chapter 2, Sections
2.1, 2.2). Therefore, there was a need to use a qualitative methodology which would enable the results to be discussed independent of a specific theory. Yet, other alternative qualitative methods such as Conversation analysis (e.g., Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1998) and Interpretative phenomenological analysis (e.g., Smith & Osborn, 2003) are tied to a particular theoretical and epistemological approach which provides relatively limited variability for the application of the method. Similarly, other qualitative methods such as Grounded theory (e.g., Strauss & Corbin, 1998), Discourse analysis (e.g., Willig, 2003) or Narrative analysis (e.g., Murray, 2003) present different applications of the method from within the broad theoretical framework. The dependence of these methods on theories was the reason for not using any of them within this project. Another reason for not using Narrative analysis was that it is particularly concerned with life-histories of people and is useful for autobiographical research questions that are concerned with how people make sense of their lives. On the other hand, Discourse analysis focuses on how talk constructs reality and would be more appropriate for research questions concerning the relationship between language and development of meaning (Howitt, 2010). Grounded theory was also not useful to fulfil the aims of this project because it mainly aims to generate theories regarding social phenomena and to develop higher level understanding that is “grounded” in, or derived from data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Thematic analysis also differs from other analytic methods that seek to describe patterns across qualitative data which are theoretically bounded such as grounded theory and interpretative phenomenological analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006). For example, interpretative phenomenological analysis is tied to phenomenological epistemology (Smith & Osborn, 2003) which gives knowledge of
importance and is about understanding people’s everyday experience of reality to gain an understanding of the phenomenon in question (McLeod, 2001). Since thematic analysis does not require the detailed theoretical knowledge of approaches, it would enable the analysis of the data of this project to be more accessible, flexible and useful.

In order to conduct the analysis, the six phases of thematic analysis, developed by Braun and Clarke (2006) were applied (Figure 13).

![Figure 13. Six Phases of Thematic Analysis, Braun and Clark (2006)](image)

First, audio recording of each interview was transcribed verbatim. The interviews were in Turkish therefore, the transcribed recordings were translated into English by the researcher of the project who is native in Turkish and who is proficient in spoken and written English. The translation was also repeated by a research assistant who was bilingual in Turkish and English and who was also blind to the aims of the study. The translations were then compared and were completely...
agreed on final translations. The final translations were then read and reread by the researcher to gain familiarity with the data.

Secondly, the transcripts were imported into a qualitative computer software program, NVivo, version 10 (QSR International Pty Ltd., Doncaster, Victoria, Australia), which helps to organize and link codes within electronic interview transcripts. Therefore, the initial codes were generated on NVivo according to the aims and the research questions of the study. For example, a transcription like “I can share everything with my parents” was chosen as a code because it relates to the perception of the quality of relationships with parents which is one of the major factors investigated in the study. As reported by Howitt (2010), one of the limitations of any qualitative methodology is the level of the researcher’s own perspective and approach (Howitt, 2010). In order to overcome this limitation to some extent, once the coding structure was fully defined, each transcript was coded by the project’s researcher and a research assistant independently; the coders discussed each transcript to ensure comprehensiveness of coding. This process ensured credibility (the qualitative equivalent of “validity”) and transferability and dependability (the qualitative equivalent of “reliability”) of the analysis. Thematic saturation means that there was enough information to replicate the study (O’Reilly & Parker, 2013; Walker, 2012), the ability to obtain additional new information has been attained and further coding was no longer feasible (Guest, Bunce & Johnson, 2006) and was reached at 20 interviews as targeted as the sample of the study.

In the third stage theme development was processed. The codes on NVivo were read many times to identify broader patterns of meaning (potential themes) in relation to the research questions of the study. A total of 12 categories emerged in the first theme analysis such as the family as a source of emotional support for
emerging adults, various reasons for the attitudes toward divorce, coping with stress by approaching the problem, perception of inter-parental relationships, perception of parental relationships, perception of parents’ divorce, inter-parental conflict before the divorce, self-blame for inter-parental conflict before the divorce, perception of father-offspring relationships before the divorce and change in parental relationships by age, change in parental and inter-parental relationships after divorce, perceiving parental divorce as an escape from the inter-parental conflict. NVivo automatically presents the number of times sources refer to each category. For example, the category most referred by the participants was “positive attitudes toward divorce” (78 times) and the least referred one was “self-blame for inter-parental conflict before the divorce” (2 times).

In the fourth stage, the themes were reviewed in relation to the codes and the entire data set and the initial categories were reduced into the 6 most referred to categories in the final model: Family as the Primary Source of Emotional Support, Adolescence as the Time for Change in Parental Relationships, Divorce as the Turning Point in Parental and Inter-parental Relationships, Reasons for Attitudes toward Divorce, Sharing and Focusing to Cope with Stress and Parental Divorce as an Escape.

4.5.4. Results for the Thematic Analysis

4.5.4.1. Description of the Themes

As aforementioned, six major themes were emerged in the theme analysis of the interviews (see Section 4.5.3., Qualitative Analysis). The quotes for these themes and the number of times they were addressed by the participants are presented in Table 12.
Table 12

Illustrative Quotes for the Major Themes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Quotes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. Grandparents versus Parents: The Zone of Emotional Support in Divorced Families | 1.1. “No one else have provided emotional support more than my parents” (an offspring in a married family).  
1.2. “My grandmother (moms mother) has always supported me. She was like my mother”, (an offspring in a divorced family). |
| 2. Sharing and Focusing on the Problem to Cope with Stress          | 2.1. “I generally think on the solutions and share my problems with my closest ones” (an offspring in a divorced family). |
| 3. Adolescence: The Time for Change in Parental Relationships      | 3.1. “I observed the negative sides of my father when I was 13-14 years old, my mother was right to decide to divorce”.  
3.2. “My relationship with my mother was not good during my adolescence but we have a good relationship now” (an offspring in a married family). |
| 4. Divorce: the Turning Point in Parental and Inter-parental Relationships | 4.1. “My relationship with my father did not continue long after the divorce”.  
4.2. “They are currently not cooperating but at least are not hostile to each other after the divorce”. |
| 5. Divorce as an Escape.                                           | 5.1. “It was good that they were divorced because me and my sister were fed up of the fights”. |
| 6. “Verbal Abuse” as the Strongest and “Loss of Romance” as the Weakest Reason to Divorce | 6.1. “I would definitely divorce if my spouse always humiliated me”.  
6.2. “Loss of romance in a marriage is unavoidable and it should not be a reason to divorce” |
4.5.4.1.1. Theme 1: Grandparents versus Parents: The Zone of Emotional Support in Divorced Families

This theme described the role of family members in providing emotional support for emerging adults in the amalgam family system in Turkish Cypriot society. For the majority of emerging adults in married families, parents were shown as the main source of emotional support: “There is not anyone who has always supported me emotionally as much as my parents” (Participant M6). Only one participant reported an extended family member as providing her emotional support for her: “My auntie is like my mother. She always provides emotional support to me” (Participant F8).

Most of the participants in divorced families perceived their grandmothers (and mostly the mother of their mothers) as the primary source of emotional support: “My grandmother (mom’s mother) has always supported me. She was like my mother” (Participant F3). The explanations of the participants for the support by the grandparents in divorced families also reflected the caregiving and the parenting roles of the grandparents in the amalgam family system which also helped the offspring in coping with their parents’ divorce: “My grandmother (my mom’s mother) was the main support for me. I don’t know how those hard times during the divorce would be handled without her” (Participant M3). The grandparents were also perceived as the main emotional support in dealing with pre-divorce inter-parental: “I have always felt the support of my grandmother and granddad (mom’s side). They had also helped me to deal with the marriage problems of my parents. They were very patient and understanding to me. I learnt from them how to have pleasure of life. I was feeling very comfortable in their home. That was an escape for me. They were like a soft pillow after the earthquakes!” (Participant, M1). (see Table 13).
Table 13

*Number of the Times of the Themes and Sub-themes Reflected by the Offspring in Married/Divorced Families.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Emerging adults in Married Family (N = 10)</th>
<th>Emerging adults in Divorced Family (N = 10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Reasons for positive attitudes toward divorce</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>loss of romance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frequent conflicts</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>loss of love</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>change of the partner</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>partner’s affair</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>physical abuse</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verbal abuse</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived inter-parental relationships</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>positive</td>
<td>7</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>negative</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived relationships with mother</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bad</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>better over time</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>worse over time</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived relationships with father</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bad</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>better over time</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td>worse over time</td>
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<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Support</td>
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<tr>
<td>grandparents</td>
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<tr>
<td>aunties/uncles</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coping Strategies with stress</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>sharing with closest ones</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>focusing on the problem</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>engaging in activities</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>focusing on job</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>avoiding the problem</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adolescence: The Time for Change in Parental Relationships</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.5.4.1.2. Theme 2: Sharing and Focusing on the Problem to Cope with Stress

This theme described the main strategies used by the participants to cope with the stressful events in their lives. Emerging adults in both married and divorced families were mostly coping with stress by focusing on the problem in order to solve it or by sharing it with their friends, romantic partners or parents. In other words, regardless of their family structure, the major coping strategies used by the participants were to approach the problem by focusing on it and by sharing it with their closest ones (see Table 13).

Participants also reflected that they mostly used both focusing and sharing strategies in solving a particular problem. That means, they did not use the strategy of focusing on the problem in coping with a specific issue and the strategy of sharing the problem for a different issue. In other words, they did not reflect any difference for the type of the problem (i.e., education, job, romantic relationship) to use different strategies to cope with it. However, most of the emerging adults having married or divorced parents were coping with their problems by focusing on it (i.e., thinking what to do) at first and then by sharing it with their closest ones (e.g., friends, family members, romantic partners).

“I mostly stay alone for a while and think what can I do and how can I solve the problem. Then I make a plan and decide what to do first. I also share with closest friends” (Participant M3).

“Leaving my job was very stressful for me. I did a-b-c plans to solve it as soon as possible. I could not stay without doing anything. I started with searching the vacancies. I also shared it with my boyfriend and my mother. I was very distressed during the process. But I mostly think logically about the issue” (Participant F4).
This theme also reflected that emerging adults preferred to share their problems firstly with their friends before sharing them with their parents if they could not solve it by themselves or with friends.

“I take the opinions of my friends before I decide what to do. If I can’t solve it with myself and with the support of my friends then I apply to the support of my family” (Participant M6).

The tag cloud presented below shows the most frequent words reported by the participants in big font sizes (e.g., share, friends, support, solve respectively) when they were asked how they had generally coped with stress (see Figure 14).

![Tag Cloud Image]

Figure 14. Tag cloud for the mostly reported words by emerging adults for coping with stress.

Another reflection in the theme 2 was that the least used coping strategies with stress by emerging adults were engaging in activities (e.g., doing sport, having new hobbies to not to think about the problem), focusing on job (e.g., overworking for not thinking about the problem) and avoiding the problem (e.g., ignoring the problem) (see Table 13). In other words, the use of avoidant coping strategies was very rare among the emerging adults regardless of having married or divorced
parents. There was only one participant in married and divorced families who used the avoidant coping strategies to solve the problems.

“I always try to not to stay alone. It scares me. I either visit my mom or my friends. I do not share my problems in detail. I search for activities and social relationships to focus my mind on them, I just force myself not to stay alone” (Participant F2, having divorced parents).

“I change my attention to something else. I also listen music or I watch serials. I go out with friends too but I avoid doing depressive things like drinking alcohol and sharing. I don’t prefer sharing with friends because that would bring it to my mind repeatedly.” (Participant M2, having married parents).

To sum up, the theme 2 showed that approach coping strategies were more frequently used by the participants than avoidant coping strategies in both married and divorced families. However, the theme also showed that the most frequently used strategies to approach the problems which were focusing on the problem and sharing with friends were also used by emerging adults to avoid the problem. Those emerging adults who were avoiding the problem were also searching for friends but just to spend time socially with in order to get rid of thinking about the problem.

4.5.4.1.3. Theme 3: Adolescence: The Time for Change in Relationships with Parents

The quality of relationships with parents was one of the interesting points in the interviews. Participants did not only share information about their parental relationships but also mentioned a change in their parental relationships as their age increased. In both married and divorced families, the majority of participants thought that adolescence led to a change in their relationships with their parents (see Table
However, the role of adolescence on the change in parental relationships was not same for the participants in married and divorced families.

Emerging adults in married families mostly reported good quality of relationships with both of their parents which has also mostly been stable over the years (see Table 13). Nevertheless, some of them thought that their parental relationships have become better after adolescence. According to them, their parental relationships during adolescence were punctuated with conflict and distrust of their parents toward them mostly because of their social and romantic relationships. The common explanations related to this were: “My relationship with my father was better when I was a child. After I became an adolescent, we had a distant relationship because he was restricting me for going out.” (Participant M5); “My parents had trust problems toward me in my adolescence, we were mostly fighting because of their limitations in my friendships”, (Participant F10).

Most of the participants in divorced families perceived better relationships with their mothers than they had with their fathers. All participants in divorced families reported a change in their relationships with their fathers and six participants with their mothers over the years. The majority of them reported that their relationships with their fathers has become better over the years (see Table 13). Adolescence was also shown as a reason for the perceived change in parental relationships in divorced families. Most of the participants shared that they reappraised their parents’ behaviours and personalities in adolescence which led to a change in their relationships: “As I entered into adolescence that changed my viewpoint to my father. I decided not to meet him because he was lying and not keeping his promises. I understood my mother much better in my adolescence ” (Participant, M1).
The change in the viewpoints for the parents by adolescence was also shown as the time to reinterpret the divorce for some of the participants. One striking explanation was:

“They were divorced when I was nine and the divorce was a big pain for me. When I became an adolescent, I realized some behaviours of my father which I didn’t like and did not approve of. This led me to think that my mother was right to divorce in many aspects. Since then, I have started to think that ten years of marriage should be ended much earlier” (Participant, M3).

To sum up, adolescence seems to be a reason for the change in the parent-offspring relationships in married families due to the changes which are attributed to parents (e.g., being more authoritarian, restricting parents) by the participants. In contrast, adolescence was shown as a reason for the change in parent-offspring relationships in divorced families due to the changes which are attributed to self (e.g., reinterpreting the behaviours of the parents) by the participants.

4.5.4.1.4. Theme 4: Divorce: the Turning Point in Parental and Inter-parental Relationships

Change in Parental Relationships after the Divorce

As aforementioned, most of the participants suggested that the quality of the relationship with their father has increased after the divorce (see Table 13). Nevertheless, all of these participants mentioned that the quality of their relationships with their fathers did not become higher just after the divorce and they had got higher quality of relationships with their parents many years after the divorce. For most of the cases, the first years after the divorce led to decrease in the contact with fathers which led to a less important perceived role of their fathers in their lives. For all participants, for the last 3-4 years which was the period when they
were a University student, there had been more contact and reunion with their fathers. However, the newly developed relationship was much more a kind of friendship or just two-adult’ relationship without any expectation for the father as a “parent” and it was mostly lacking trust toward him. This was clearly mentioned by some of the participants as:

“I and my father had limited information about our lives before the divorce. We dont still have a kind of father-daughter relationship but we are in a kind of friendship or just two adults relationship” (Participant, F2.)

“For not hurting ourselves anymore, we have put our relationship into a form with its boundaries. These are not formal boundaries, they just make our relationship more secure” (Participant, F5).

“I dont expect anything from him. When he tries to do something for me (e.g. paying a bill), I accept but just to let him feel good for doing it. It is important for him to feel good too because I have found my way in life” (Participant, M1).

Six participants in divorced families reported that the relationship with their mothers had also changed after the divorce. For the majority of them (4 of the 6 participants) they had better relationships with their mothers after the divorce since marital stress of their mothers was over with divorce. Two participants experienced worse relationships with their mothers after the divorce because of increased stress of the mothers in the post-divorce times or realization of some behaviour types of their mothers which they do not approve (e.g., aggression):

“She was also happier after the divorce and that definitely affected our relationship positively” (Participant, M3).

Change in Inter-parental Relationships after the Divorce

For most of the participants their inter-parental relationships before the divorce were with frequent conflicts which made them felt as threatened to be hurt
by the conflict. Because of the conflicts and all of them perceived divorce as an escape from the inter-parental conflict (see Table 14).

Table 14

*Frequency of the Themes and Sub-themes Related to Divorce*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Emerging adults in Divorced Family (N = 10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Divorce: the Turning Point in Family Relationships</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-divorce Inter-parental Relationships</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequent conflicts</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict as threat</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-blame for conflict</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-divorce Inter-parental Relationships</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequent conflicts</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict as threat</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No communication</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorce as an Escape</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A striking report related to this theme was:

“I was feeling irritability whenever I felt that they might conflict with each other. I was also distressed when my mother was sad after the conflicts because that was reflecting on the atmosphere at home as well as on our relationship during days. So, not only the conflicts but the post conflict times were much more a threat for me” (Participant F4).

In contrast to the more number of participants who perceived conflict and threat in inter-parental relationships during the pre-divorce times, only two
participants reported a perceived conflict and threat in inter-parental relationships for the post-divorce times. In addition, for most of the participants pre-divorce conflict had turned into the loss of communication and no co-operation between their parents after the divorce (see Table 14). An example of explanation was “They did not communicate with each other at all after they were divorced. My mother was open to communicate but my father always communicated by my grandmother (mom’s mother)” (Participant, F3).

4.5.4.1.5. Theme 5: Divorce as an Escape

Majority of the participants perceived parental divorce as a “good decision” and as “an escape from the fights” (see Table 14). For example a participant said “It was good that they were divorced because I and my sister were fed up of the fights and mom also got better with divorce”, (Participant F1). Another participant shared “Their marriage was really bad. I was asking why these people are together? Whenever they had a fight, I was keeping to tell them that they should divorce.”, (Participant M2). These reflections of the participants clearly showed that the major reason for perceiving parental divorce as “an escape” was the parents’ fight with each other which were never been ended with resolution. In relation to this, majority of the participants shared that pre-divorce relationships between their parents were with frequent conflicts and half of the participants also told that they were feeling under threat during their parents’ conflicts (see Table 14).

Despite this prevalent perception toward parental divorce as “an escape”, divorce became difficult and stressful for some of the participants if the divorce period was with conflicts and tension and if divorce led to decreased contact and less co-operation among the parents or decreased contact with the non-resident parent or
if it led to depression of a parent. There were very striking reflections of the participants related to these points:

“I was so happy for divorce, I didn’t want them to communicate much and I decreased my relationship with my father but at some point, the reality of “he is not seeing his father” also made me sad. This was actually the main point which made me sad of being an offspring in divorced family. In other words, the result of the divorce was difficult for me” (Participant M1).

“I believe that their divorce was a good decision because they were not right people for each other. But at some points of my life (crying) like my graduation (crying) in those special days, I realize that it is difficult to be an offspring of divorced parents. I feel stressed in those special times which my parents were there. I feel tensioned because they have never been in communication before and I would not predict what would be when they were next to each other” (Participant F3).

“It was really good that they were divorced” because they currently have better lives. But, their divorce period was very bad and it even made me to think that divorce was not a good idea. It was a very stressful time. My mom’s depression also made it difficult for me to cope with divorce. I was staying away from home and being with my friends in order to cope with that” (Participant F2).

For more than half of the participants, inter-parental conflict and fights in pre-divorce times resulted in a lack of communication between their parents in post-divorce times (see Table 14). This change in inter-parental relationships was still stressful and was perceived by the participants as a threat similar to the pre-divorce inter-parental conflicts. In other words, although the storm of the fights ended after the divorce, the silence in parental communication was also not helping emerging adult offspring in coping with divorce even after the years of divorce. The Theme 5 showed that the participants were still emotionally attached to their non-residential parent, to see that their parents’ psychological well-being was good and to witness a
good communication between their parents in post-divorce times to be able to perceive the divorce as a fully good decision for their families.

4.5.4.1.6. Theme 6. “Verbal Abuse” as the Strongest and “Loss of Romance” as the Weakest Reason to Divorce

The reasons for the attitudes of the participants toward divorce were varied as verbal and physical abuse by the partner, change of the partner during the marriage, partner’s affair, loss of love, having frequent conflicts and loss of romance. Moreover, for each these reasons, participants also reported that they would talk about the problem with their partners to solve and share with their families before deciding to divorce for these reasons.

Verbal and Physical abuse by the partner: In both married and divorced families, verbal abuse by the partner was the main reason to divorce (see Table 13). Except one female participant who said that she would tolerate being verbally abused (e.g., being assaulted) by her partner, all participants said they would definitely divorce if their partners had verbally abused them. All participants in the married families also told that they would definitely divorce if their partner physically abused them. Among the emerging adults in divorced families, four participants emphasized that physical abuse would not be a reason to divorce “if it happened only once”. All participants reported that they would first talk about the problem many times with their partners and would share it with their families before deciding to divorce.
Change of the Partner during the Marriage and Partner’s Affair: These were other cases where the participants in both married and divorced households said “they would definitely divorce”. For those, who would not divorce in these cases told that new traits of anyone could always emerge during the marriage. In addition, in a case of affair, the common reason was the belief that the partner who cheated would have a reason related to marriage which should be found and solved before thinking to divorce. All participants also reported that they would first talk about the problem many times with their partners and would share it with their families before deciding to divorce.

Loss of Love or Frequent Conflicts: This was also a sufficient reason to divorce for nearly half of the participants in both married and divorced households. For these participants, the end of love would lead to the end of other emotions too (e.g., tolerance) and frequent conflict would make a marriage like a hell. For others, “respect” would always be much more important than love and it was not the frequency of the conflicts but the cause and the content of the conflict would be important to think before taking it as a reason to divorce. However, all participants also reported that they would first talk about the problem many times with their partners and would share it with their families before deciding to divorce.

Loss of Romance during the Marriage would be weakest reason to decide to divorce for the participants in both households (see Table 13). The most common reason for this was to believe that loss of romance is “unavoidable” and “acceptable” in marriages therefore, it should not be a reason to divorce. All participants reported
that they would talk many times with their partners and would share it with their families to solve this before deciding to divorce.

4.5.5. Summary of Results for the Thematic Analysis Part of Study 2

The six themes raised in the qualitative part of Study 2 shed more light on the perceptions of emerging adult offspring for the quality of their family relationships, their coping ways with stress and attitudes toward divorce. The themes also revealed important information on the difference between emerging adults in married and divorced families in their perceptions of the quality of family relationships. There were differences in the perceptions of emerging adults of married and divorced parents for their quality of relationships with an extended family member and for the change in their relationships with their parents over time. Despite these differences among the emerging adults in two family structures, they did not differ significantly in their use of coping strategies. Participants of both married and divorced parents mostly used the approach coping strategies (sharing the problem with and focusing on the problem).

For emerging adults of divorced parents, the inter-parental conflict was the major reason for emerging adults to perceive the divorce as a good decision of their parents. In addition, the lack of contact and cooperation between the parents was a source of pain for emerging adults even after the years of divorce despite of their first perception of divorce as good. Lastly, emerging adults of both married and divorced parents reflected common attitudes toward divorce. For both groups, verbal and physical abuse would be the first whereas the loss of romance would be last reason to decide to divorce.
CHAPTER 5

GENERAL DISCUSSION

5.1. Discussion of the Results

The first aim of this project was to explore how the family structure, the quality of family relationships and coping strategies with stress affected the psychological well-being and romantic attachment quality of emerging adults using a quantitative methodology. The second aim was to investigate the role of the family structure, the quality of family relationships and coping strategies with stress on attitudes of emerging adults toward divorce in a mixed method approach.

The results mostly supported the assumptions of the project in relation to the role of the quality of family relationships, coping strategies with stress and family structure on psychological well-being, romantic attachment quality and attitudes toward divorce with the expected mediating and predicting effects of the variables. The model which shows the pathways derived from the results is presented in Figure 15.
In each of the following parts, a general discussion of quantitative and qualitative results will be presented respectively.

5.1.1. The Role of Family Structure on the Quality of Family Relationships

The results partially supported the first hypothesis of Study 1 (see Part 2.8) by showing that family structure affected some of the family relationships but not all of them. The quality of relationships with the father and the extended family members, the perception of frequent inter-parental conflict and feeling the threat of inter-parental conflict were significantly affected by the structure of the family. On the other hand, the family structure did not significantly affect the quality of
relationships with mother or self-blame for inter-parental conflict among emerging adult offspring.

*Family Structure and the Quality of Relationships with Parents*

While emerging adults of both married and divorced parents reported secure attachment to their mothers (i.e., feeling confident and having a belief that support is available from their mothers when they need it), emerging adults having divorced parents reported significantly less secure attachment toward their fathers than those having married parents. This finding could be related to the custody arrangement by Family Law court system in Northern Cyprus that primarily delegates mothers as the custodial and fathers as the noncustodial parent in divorce cases (The Family Law, 1998). Until 2015, the custody arrangement regulated by the Family (Marriage and Divorce) Law (1998) mostly provided noncustodial fathers with the right of seeing their offspring on a regular basis (i.e., typically two days in a week). Such custody arrangements would lead to significant loss in interaction with fathers and offspring compared to pre-divorce times. In relation to this information, the results seem to be consistent with previous studies indicating that divorce leads to lower quality of relationship of offspring with the noncustodial parent due to decreased contact and interaction (Meyer & Garasky, 1993; Pruett, Ebling, & Insabella, 2004; Solomon & Biringen, 2001; Solomon & George, 1999).

Participants in divorced families more often reported a change in their relationships with their fathers over time in the interviews. They reported that they had lower quality relationships with their fathers when they compare it with their relationship with their mothers as also revealed by quantitative findings. Yet, all of them also shared in the interviews that their relationships with their fathers had
increased in quality after their adolescence. Participants’ reports for the decrease in the quality of relationships with fathers due to reappraising the behaviours of their fathers’ behaviours supported previous literature findings which explained this change with the changes in cognitive development in adolescence (Maccoby, 1984). It was revealed that adolescents gain an increased capacity for logical reasoning which leads them to demand reasons for things they previously accepted without question, and the chance to argue the other side. Their growing critical-thinking skills make them less likely to conform to parents’ wishes the way they did in childhood (Maccoby, 1984).

In addition, the majority of the participants rebuilt their relationships with their fathers during the University years by accepting and adjusting to a new type of relationship (e.g., two adult’s relationship) with their fathers (see Theme 4 and 5). That is to say, entrance into emerging adulthood would indicate another transition in family relationships too. This finding was consistent with previous research which indicated that parental relationships change from a hierarchical to a more symmetrical relationship sustained between two adults in emerging adulthood (Aquilino, 2006). Therefore, these changes could be interpreted as indicators of the individuation process, as a high-priority task during the initial years of adulthood. This process includes the renegotiation of the relationship with parents, which, in the early years of adolescence is marked by conflicts that progressively dissipate throughout adolescence, to give way to a greater independence and certain emotional distancing (Reis & Buhl, 2008; Mattanah, Hancock, & Brand, 2004). The findings also supported the recent qualitative research by Feistman, Jamison, Coleman and Ganong in 2016. The study revealed that most father–child relationships became more distant immediately following parental separation. During emerging adulthood
these relationships did not necessarily become closer, but communication often increased and stressful interactions decreased for some, especially when compared to childhood. The findings of the study suggested that normative changes that accompany emerging adulthood (e.g., leaving home, gaining new insight about themselves and their families) may facilitate renewed connections between previously distant noncustodial fathers and children.

In sum, not only the divorce but also the transitions in development during adolescence and emerging adulthood led to turning points in the relationship quality with their fathers for the offspring in divorced families.

*Family Structure and Quality of Inter-parental Relationships*

Emerging adults of divorced parents also reported significantly more inter-parental conflict including high levels of hostility that were poorly resolved in their general inter-parental relationships. This indicates that inter-parental relationships did not become more positive or increase in quality even after the divorce. With the continuing hostility, the divorce could not essentially lead to healthier relationships within the family. In addition to inter-parental conflict, the feeling of being threatened by the conflict and being unable to cope with it was also more often reported by the offspring of divorced parents.

In contrast to previous findings which suggested that emerging adults tend to blame themselves for the conflict (Moura, dos Santos, Rocha & Matos, 2010), the results of the present study did not reveal highly reported self-blame for inter-parental conflict (the frequency of child-related conflict and the degree to which children blame themselves for inter-parental conflict) in both married and divorced families. These findings supported the findings of Grych and Fincham (1990) for the
role of age on appraisals of offspring of inter-parental conflict. Grych and Fincham (1990) suggested that as the age increases, the offspring are less likely to blame themselves for inter-parental conflict due to increasing coping abilities. Yet, the results of the study did not reveal any significant relationship between the self-blame for conflict and approach or avoidant coping ways. Moreover, although the perceived threat for inter-parental conflict which also reflects the inability to cope with the conflict was highly reported by the emerging adults of divorced parents, the self-blame for conflict was still not highly reported. Therefore, within the scope of this study, the low level of self-blame could only be attributed to the age or the developmental level rather than the improved coping skills by age. This finding can also be explained by less expected offspring-related conflict among the parents’ of emerging adult offspring in comparison to the parents’ of children or adolescents.

The qualitative findings supported the quantitative findings by revealing that the negative perception of inter-parental relationships among the offspring of divorced parents differed in pre- and post-divorce times. The finding that perceived frequent conflicts among the parents in pre-divorce times had turned into loss of communication in post-divorce times shows that although divorce became a “good divorce” (Ahrons 2007) by leading to decrease in conflict, it still does not lead to more cooperation in parenting.

Family Structure and the Role of the Family as the Source of Emotional Support

Both in the self-report questionnaires and in the interviews, offspring showed their family members as the major source of emotional support regardless of the family structure. Participants in married families shared that their nuclear family members (mostly the mother) whereas participants in divorced families shared that
their extended family members (mostly the grandmother, the mother’s mother) were the major emotional support for them. This finding supported the findings of Rüstemli et al. (2000), which reported that the Turkish Cypriots mostly perceive their family members as the primary source of psychosocial support that also make Turkish Cypriot culture to be thought of representing collectivism in family relationships.

Consistent with previous findings (Mertan, 2003), the extended family members who mostly provided both care and emotional support were shown as the grandparents by the emerging adult offspring in both family structures. Yet, both in self-report questionnaires and in the interviews emerging adults of divorced parents reported more perceived support by an extended family member than those of married parents. For offspring of divorced parents, their grandparents were the major emotional support whereas it was their parents for the offspring in the married families. This shows that amalgam family relationships tend to be common in the case of divorce and that the emotional support by the grandparents tends to continue during the older ages of offspring’s development. One reasonable explanation for the higher reports of emotional support of grandparents among the emerging adults having divorced parents could be a grandparent becomes like a second parent supporting his/her own single parent offspring after the divorce. It is mostly seen within the Turkish Cypriot families that divorced mothers or fathers start to live with their own parents or move to a very close place to them to get their support. The grandparents are also mostly ready to provide both financial and social support to their divorced offspring and grandchildren. This finding was also consistent with previous research which found that grandparents may increase their involvement in
the nuclear family after a divorce, in order to provide support for a newly divorced family (e.g., Cherlin & Furstenberg, 1994; Clingempeel et al., 1992; Johnson, 1998).

The interviews also contributed by revealing that grandparents were providing support to their grandchildren especially in coping with inter-parental conflict during the pre-divorce times and the divorce process. This point was an additional contribution of this project as showing the role of contextual factors (e.g., amalgam family system) on dealing with inter-parental conflict for the offspring. This finding is also in line with previous research which indicated that culturally distinct features of the family (e.g., collectivist orientation of the family) led to variations in dealing with inter-parental conflict (Gerard et al., 2005; McLoyd et al., 2001).

5.1.2 Predictors of Psychological Well-being of Emerging Adults

The findings supported the previous research which showed that family structure cannot be the factor solely predicting the offspring’s developmental outcomes while drawing attention to the role of contextual factors such as the quality of family relationships (e.g. Golombok, 2000; Golombok & Tasker, 2015). In addition to this, the frequency of hostile inter-parental conflict and perceived threat of conflict stood as the main risk factors for psychological well-being within the nuclear family that could not be decreased by the secure attachment with parents. Beyond the nuclear family relationships, lack of emotional support by an extended family member was also found to be a risk factor for psychological well-being of the offspring in addition to inter-parental conflict. In other words, emotional support provided by the grandparents who are also the primary caregivers in the amalgam family system in Turkish Cypriot culture (Mertan, 2003) was a protective factor for
the psychological well-being of emerging adult offspring. This result was consistent with previous studies which indicated that grandparents’ support was associated with higher levels of psychological well-being of offspring (Elder & Conger, 2000; Ruiz & Silverstein, 2007). This finding is also important because it shows that psychological well-being of offspring can not only be explained by the role of nuclear family relationships but also by the extended family especially in non-western regions by supporting the contextual model of family (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1990).

Although the emotional support from the extended family member was associated with higher levels of psychological well-being, it was still not predictive of psychological well-being if there was the presence of inter-parental conflict. Offspring still felt threatened by and could not cope with the frequent conflict even with the emotional support of their grandparents which in turn leads to a risk for psychological well-being. These results were consistent with other studies which reported that the quality of inter-parental relationships should be taken into consideration in predicting psychological well-being of offspring (Amato & Keith, 1991; Davies & Cummings, 1994; Forehand, Neighbors, Devile & Armistead, 1994; Grych et al., 2003; Grych et al., 2000; Harold & Conger, 1997). The results have clearly demonstrated that even if there was a secure attachment between each parent and the offspring, this would still not guarantee psychological well-being of the offspring if the parents do not have a positive relationship with each other. That means, the quality of inter-parental relationships appear as “the third parent” of the offspring holding a role in their development.
5.1.3. Predictors of Anxious Romantic Attachment

Anxious romantic attachment style of emerging adults was not significantly predicted by family structure, but was predicted by nuclear family relationships in terms of the quality of mother-offspring relationships and inter-parental conflict. Emerging adult offspring who were less securely attached to their mothers, who felt more threatened by inter-parental conflict and who were exposed to more offspring-related conflict that led them to blame themselves for it tended to report more anxious romantic attachment style. In other words, they had more doubt about their own value relative to their partner and tended to become over-dependent on their partner persistently seeking reassurance and remaining vigilant for signs of betrayal or abandonment. This finding supported previous research findings and indicated that poor romantic relationship quality of the adult offspring was associated with low quality of inter-parental relationships (e.g., Feeney, 2006; Henry & Holmes, 1998; Mikulincer & Florian, 1999). In addition, the results supported the theoretical background presenting that secure attachment to parents was predictive of romantic attachment security in adulthood (Conger & Conger, 2002; Roisman et al., 2001).

5.1.4. Predictors of Avoidant Romantic Attachment

Regardless of the structure of their family, emerging adults who perceived less threat of inter-parental conflict, who were more securely attached to both parents and who were provided more emotional support by an extended family member had less avoidant attachment styles in their romantic relationships. Results supported previous research which emphasized the role of the quality of family relationships rather than the family structure on offspring’s psychosocial and emotional development (Golombok, 2000; Golombok & Tasker, 2015)
Being threatened by inter-parental conflict was related to doubting the value of intimate relationships or to have distrust of others with the fear of rejection in romantic relationships. This finding supported previous research findings and indicated that poor romantic relationship quality of the adult offspring was associated with low quality of inter-parental relationships (e.g., Feeney, 2006; Henry & Holmes, 1998; Mikulincer & Florian, 1999). On the other hand, it did not support previous research which found that parental divorce was related to less secure romantic attachment among adult offspring (Cartwright, 2006; Summers, Forehand, Armistead & Tannenbaum, 1998; Toomey & Nelson, 2001). In addition, those who were more securely attached to both parents reported less avoidant romantic attachment patterns. This means they reported less doubt of the value of their intimate relationships, less avoidance of getting close to their partners and less fear of rejection in romantic relationships. This finding also supported the theoretical background presenting that secure attachment to parents was predictive of romantic attachment security in adulthood (Conger & Conger, 2002; Roisman et al., 2001).

In addition to the nuclear family relationships, emerging adults who were provided with more care and emotional support by an extended family member reported less avoidant romantic attachment patterns in relation to the quality of relationships with both mother and father. This would again be explained by the compensating role of emotional or social support by the grandparents in the case of insecure parental relationships and being unable to cope with the threat of inter-parental conflict which decreases the risk for avoidant romantic attachment of emerging adults. This finding also supported previous studies which found that emotional support by extended family members (e.g., grandparents) also has a role on
higher levels of well-being in development (Elder & Conger, 2000; Ruiz & Silverstein, 2007).

5.1.5. Mediator Role of Nuclear Family Relationships on the Relationship between Quality of Relationships with an Extended Family Member and Psychological Well-being

Supporting the third hypothesis, the quality of relationships with an extended family member predicted emerging adults’ psychological well-being through the full mediator role of threat perceived by emerging adult offspring in their parents’ conflict. As aforementioned (see Methods, Materials section), threat dimension of inter-parental conflict was defined as “feeling threatened by inter-parental conflict and being unable to cope with the conflict”. Therefore, more perceived emotional support by an extended family member led to less perceived threat and being more able to cope with conflict which in turn was associated with greater psychological well-being of emerging adults. For Kliewer et al. (1994), offspring acquire coping skills or ways by coaching, modeling and the quality of parent-child interactions. As aforementioned, there is a very close relationship between the grandparents and their grandchildren and that grandparents are mostly the primary caregivers of children since their birth within the amalgam family system of Turkish Cypriot culture. Therefore, it might be that coaching, modeling or the emotional support can also be provided by the grandparents that can help the offspring to have more ability to cope with inter-parental conflict. This finding does not only support the view of Kliewer et al. (1994) which showed the family context as the most powerful context for coping socialization but also contributes to this view by showing the role of extended
family members in predicting adaptive coping ways within the amalgam family system.

The results also support the previous evidence that positive family relationships may promote a sense of security (Ainsworth et al., 1978) which may reduce the threat of stressors (Gunnar, 2000; Kliweer et al., 1994), leading the offspring to better cope with any kind of threat. It is expected that more emotional support by an extended family member may make emerging adults feel more secure about threat in inter-parental conflict and more able to cope with inter-parental conflict. Moreover, these results also support the previous evidence for the role of variation in cultural characteristics of family (e.g., child rearing practices and social support) psychological well-being of offspring (e.g., Mertan, 2003).

5.1.6. Mediator Role of Nuclear Family Relationships on the Relationship between Quality of Relationships with an Extended Family Member and Romantic Attachment Quality

Emerging adults with more perceived care and emotional support by an extended family member perceived less threat and were more able to cope with inter-parental conflict, which in turn was associated with less avoidant romantic attachment styles. Consistent with previous research findings, secure relationships with the primary caregivers (e.g., grandparents) predicted the romantic attachment security in adulthood (Conger & Conger, 2002; Roisman, et al., 2001). In addition, inter-parental conflict is associated with adult offspring’s insecure romantic attachment as also found by other previous studies (e.g., Feeney, 2006; Henry & Holmes, 1998; Mikulincer & Florian, 1999). Consistent with the Attachment theory (Ainsworth, 1973; Bowlby, 1969), the strong involvement of extended family
members (mostly the grandparents) in primary care and development of the offspring since their birth in Turkish Cypriot culture might not lead offspring to experience an interpersonal loss even if their parents are not around all the time. This may in turn support offspring both in developing secure attachments with romantic partners via having secure attachments to their grandparents who are mostly the preferred caregivers in Northern Cyprus (Mertan, 2003) or via being able to better cope with inter-parental conflict with the support of grandparents.

5.1.7. The Role of Coping Strategies on the Quality of Family Relationships, Psychological Well-being and Romantic Attachment Quality of Emerging Adults

In contrast to previous research (e.g., Brougham et al, 2009), emerging adults reported using more approach (problem focused coping) than avoidant coping (emotion- focused coping). Yet, this result would be a very superficial conclusion to draw without considering the role of family as the most powerful context for coping (Kliewer et al., 1994). In relation to this information, the results showed that the higher quality of relationships with both parents and less inter-parental conflict were associated with more approach coping and less avoidant coping among emerging adult offsprings. As approach coping is often found to relate to more effective adaptation (Billings & Moos, 1984), this finding supports previous research findings (Causey & Dubow, 1993; Velez et al., 2011) which indicated that the quality of parent-child relationships facilitates the use of adaptive coping processes with stress in general. In addition, this finding does not only support the cascading pathway model of Cummings et al. (2000) by showing the parent-child relationship quality is associated with adaptive coping processes but contributes to the model that the inter-
parental relationship quality also influenced the way in which emerging adults cope with stress. Therefore, as explained by the attachment theory (Ainsworth et al., 1978), positive family relationships promote a sense of security for the offspring and this leads to the use of more approach coping ways with stress. Also, in relation to the role of family on coping via coaching and modeling to the offspring (Kliever et al., 1994), offspring who have more positive or more secure parental relationships would more easily take their parents as models or coaches in developing their coping strategies. Similarly, offspring who observe a positive relationship between their parents would also model their parents’ coping strategies in their relationships and would develop approach coping strategies like them. Based on these findings, it seems that positive relationships with parents characterized with secure parental attachment still continues to affect the offspring development after childhood and adolescence as also reported by Water et al. (2000). Also, despite being independent from their parents in emerging adulthood (Tanner et al., 2009), emerging adult offspring still rely on their parents and on the inter-parental relationships for getting emotional support which in turn affect their coping ways with stressful events.

Despite these findings, it was surprising that emerging adults having more emotional support within the extended family significantly reported using less approach coping strategies in dealing with stress. In other words, more emotional support mostly by an extended family member led to more emotion-focused coping and less problem-focused coping among emerging adults. One possible explanation for this finding would be that grandparents as the mostly reported source of emotional support within the extended family who are also the main caregivers of the offspring in Turkish Cypriot society, presented a model of emotion-focused coping for their grandchildren. When we think that coping styles shift from active to
passive from youth to midlife (Gutmann, 1974) then, it would be assumed that grandparents would serve as models or coaches of avoidant coping ways for their grandchildren. Another possible explanation for this findings would be that grandmothers might solve their grandchildren’s problems due to their protecting and nurturing role for their grandchildren which would prevent offspring to approach and solve their own problems. This case would also be presented more between the offspring of divorced parents and their grandchildren when grandparents take more roles of parenting during or after the divorce.

Supporting the findings of Compas, et al. (2010) that coping strategies mediate and moderate the relation between the stressors and developmental outcomes of the offspring, approach coping moderated the relationship between the inter-parental conflict and psychological symptoms as well as the relationship between the less secure relationships with mother and the avoidant romantic attachment style. Emerging adults with approach coping strategies with stress had fewer psychological symptoms despite the conflict between their parents. Participants with approach coping strategies also reported less avoidant romantic attachment styles although they had less secure attachment styles with their mother. That means, even when the quality of family relationships is low, the approach coping ways would decrease the risk of the low quality of family relationships on well-being in emerging adulthood. In addition, avoidant coping as not an effective coping style moderated the relationship between the quality of relationship with an extended family member and the psychological symptoms and the anxious attachment style of emerging adults. Those participants who were provided with less emotional support by their extended family members reported more psychological symptoms and more anxious romantic attachment style if they also had more
avoidant coping strategies with stress. This finding indicated that how avoidant coping strategies would increase the negative role of lower quality of family relationships on well-being of emerging adults. These findings for the moderating role of the anxious and avoidant coping strategies supports previous studies which indicated that the relationship the quality of family relationships and coping strategies with stress affect the developmental outcomes of the offspring (e.g., Causey & Dubow, 1993; Cummings, Davies, & Campbell’s, 2000; Gunnar, 2000; Kliewer et al., 1994; Ve’lez, et al., 2011). This finding also contributes to these studies by revealing that there can be a reciprocal interaction between the the quality of family relationships and coping strategies with stress which in turn predicts offspring’s developmental outcomes. That means, as the quality of family relationships affect the role of the coping strategies on psychological well-being, coping strategies can also influence the role of the the quality of family relationships on psychological well-being of offspring.

5.1.8. Mediator Role of Pre-divorce Family Relationships on the Relationship between the Post-divorce Family Relationships and Romantic Attachment Styles of Emerging Adults

Results supported the previous literature findings which indicated that both the family relationships prior to divorce and after the divorce matter for offspring’s well-being (e.g., Amato, Kane & Spencer, 2011; Buehler & Gerard, 2002; Cummings & Davies, 2002; Gottman, 1998; Johnson & Wu, 2002 ). It was found that not only the post-divorce but also the quality of pre-divorce relationships with mother significantly and negatively predicted both the anxious and avoidant romantic attachment style of emerging adults. This finding was also consistent with
the assumptions of romantic attachment theory that adult offspring with insecure attachment to parents are also insecurely attached to their romantic partners or vice versa (Conger & Conger, 2002; Madsen et al, 2001). Furthermore, the pre-divorce relationship quality with mother was found to be very significantly and positively related to the post-divorce relationship quality with mother. Therefore, it seems that relationships with parents continues to affect the emerging adult offspring after childhood and adolescence as also reported by Water et al., (2000).

In addition to the quality of pre-and post-divorce mother-offspring relationship quality, pre-and post-divorce inter-parental relationship quality predicted the avoidant romantic attachment of emerging adults. Moreover, pre-and post-divorce inter-parental relationship quality were significantly and positively associated with each other. The findings supported previous research which has revealed the importance of pre-divorce conflict in understanding the role of divorce on offspring’s outcomes (Amato et al., 1995; Jekielek, 1998). Amato (2010) also suggested that it is through the pathway of increasingly dysfunctional family relationships that the predisruption effects of divorce are thought to influence child mental health (Amato, 2010). For instance, through divorce, a child who no longer encounters the conflict in the pre-divorce family environment may experience the positive effects of divorce (Aseltine, 1996; Gately & Schwebel, 1991).

Overall, the findings brought the importance of understanding pre-divorce effects of divorce in analysing the effect of divorce on offspring. Unless we attempt to understand what is happening in the lives of the offspring in the period leading up to divorce, the effect of divorce on the outcomes of the offspring will remain incomplete.
5.1.9. Predictors of Attitudes toward Divorce

The results supported the sixth hypothesis and showed that family structure predicted the attitudes toward divorce in relation to the quality of family relationships. Therefore, this finding did not support previous literature findings which suggested that offspring of divorced parents tended to have more positive attitudes toward divorce (Amato, 1988; Amato & Booth, 1991; Amato & DeBoer, 2001; Axinn & Thornton, 1996; Cunningham & Skillingstead, 2015; Jennings et al., 1992; Miles & Servaty-Seib, 2010; Trent & South, 1992). On the other hand, the results supported previous research which revealed that not the structure of the family but social contextual factors within the family (e.g., the quality of inter-parental relationships) was associated with the attitudes of the offspring toward divorce (Collardeau & Ehrenberg, 2016; Golombok & Tasker, 2015; Jensen et al., 2015; Tasker, 2014)

Within inter-parental relationships, offspring’s self-blame for the reason of the inter-parental conflict was found to be a very significant factor for predicting the attitudes toward divorce. Moreover, offspring’s of divorced parents who also reported self-blame for inter-parental conflict had more positive attitudes to divorce. This finding supported the findings of Collardeau and Ehrenberg (2016) and Cui et al. (2011) that inter-parental conflict was associated with more positive attitudes toward divorce in offspring.

In line with the quantitative results, the qualitative findings did not indicate a difference for the themes for attitudes toward divorce between the offspring in married and divorced families. Yet, the interviews led to a rise of important themes related to the attitudes toward divorce of the offspring as also suggested by previous qualitative studies (Collardeau & Ehrenberg 2016; Cunningham & Skillingsstant, 2015; Tasker, 2014). 

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2015; Kim & Tasker, 2013). For example, “verbal and physical abuse as the major reasons to divorce”, or “loss of romance as being unavoidable” were mostly revealed reasons underlying the attitudes toward divorce which were not found in the quantitative results.

The qualitative findings also supported previous research which showed that the type of marriage problems was a factor predicting the attitudes of offspring toward divorce. As indicated by Mulder and Gunnoe, (1999), the type of the problems such as frequent conflict, no love, no magic, physical abuse, and verbal abuse and situations of an affair or a spouse that changed were the reasons determining the attitudes toward divorce. Unlike the findings of Mulder and Gunnoe, (1999) there was not any difference between the offspring’s of married and divorced parents both groups said that they would get a divorce if the relationship consisted of verbal and physical abuse. In addition, the results supported Mulder and Gunnoe, (1999) by showing that parental divorce did not differentially led to more reports of the likelihood of divorce in situations of an affair or a spouse that changed. The researchers attributed this finding to the age of their participants and reported that college students could have more uniform evaluations of these potential threats to marriage. Since college years mostly correspond to emerging adulthood (Arnett, 2005), this finding seem to support Mulder and Gunnoe, (1999) for the role of developmental stage and evaluations of these potential threats to marriage.

5.1.10. The Relationship between the Family Structure, Coping Strategies with Stress and Attitudes toward Divorce

Quantitative analysis did not reveal any relationship between the attitudes toward divorce and coping strategies with stress and led the 7th hypothesis to be
rejected. Yet, the participants reflected on their coping strategies and attitudes toward divorce in more depth in the interviews.

Focusing on the solution of the problems and sharing their problems with their friends and romantic partners and applying to their parents for getting support if they cannot solve were the major coping strategies of emerging adults with stressful events. That means, emerging adults mostly cope with their problems in interaction with friends, partners and parents together. This finding supports the previous literature that relationships with parents, friends and romantic partners increasingly overlap and complement each other in emerging adulthood (Ainsworth, 1989). This finding is also in parallel with other studies which showed that friends and romantic partners typically are the individuals with whom emerging adults most like to spend time and with whom they choose to be with when they are not feeling well. Parents, however, are just as likely to be the primary people from whom emerging adults seek advice and on whom they depend (Fraley & Davies, 1997).

The finding that emerging adults mostly used approach coping strategies by focusing on and sharing the problem in their close relationships (e.g., friends, partners and parents) also supports the cultural characteristics of Turkish Cypriots, which reflect a kind of collectivist coping with difficult situations. As reported by Rüstemli et al. in 2000, Turkish Cypriots mostly perceive their closest ones and mostly their family as the primary source of psychosocial support in dealing with their problems. Although the researcher did not report this as “collectivist coping” or the cultural structure of Turkish Cypriot society as “collectivist”, their findings reflected a collectivist coping strategy. Indeed, it is very common among Turkish Cypriots to keep a kind of a serious problem (e.g., a divorce process or domestic violence) of any nuclear and extended family member inside the family. It was
obviously reflected in the interviews that emerging adults would prefer to share their marriage problems with their spouses and also with their families to solve before taking any decision to divorce. Sharing the problems with their partner or with their families also shows a way of collectivist coping with the marriage problems which also relates to attitudes toward divorce. In relation to this, although there is not any scientific report on this, the two common words which reflect the Turkish Cypriots’ approach in dealing with their problems are “behind the door (house)” or “within the family”. For example, Turkish Cypriots easily differentiated their subjects to share in social relationships as “within the family issue” and “any issue”. Another common use of expression is “family never leaves” which clearly differentiates the family as the main source of social support from significant others (e.g., friends).

5.1.11. Predicting the Role of Pre-divorce Family Relationships on Attitudes toward Divorce

The results supported the eighth hypothesis which suggested that the post-divorce family relationships can only predict the attitudes toward divorce when pre-divorce family relationships are also taken into account. This finding also supported previous research which indicated that pre-divorce family relationships also affect the consequences of divorce on offspring (Amato, 2010; Buehler & Gerard, 2002; Cummings & Cummings, 1988; Cummings & Davies, 2002; Strochschein, 2012). Since family relationships may change over time, the divorce should be thought of as a process by also considering the possibility of these changes in relationships which would make the understanding of the effect of divorce more accurate.

The results of the study also supported the previous findings that inter-parental conflict significantly contributes to the more positive attitudes toward
divorce among adult offspring (Cunningham & Thornton, 2006; Riggio & Fite, 2006; Vandewater & Landsford, 1998). This finding is in line with previous studies which showed that perceived inter-parental conflict is an important determinant of how adult offspring shape their beliefs about the permanence of marriage and divorce (Riggio & Fite, 2006; Schovanec & Lee, 2001). As indicated by Amato (1993), the often severe and hostile conflicts preceding divorce can later increase the risk of divorce for the offspring. This finding also supports previous research findings that adult offspring having divorced families who were exposed to high levels of inter-parental conflict were more likely to consider divorce as an alternative during a marriage (Collardeau & Ehrenberg, 2016; Cui et al., 2011; Wolfinger, 2005). The qualitative results are in agreement with numerous studies (e.g., Amato, 2010; Buehler & Gerard, 2002; Cummings & Davies, 2002; Johnson & Wu, 2002; Strohschein, 2016). Supporting the view of Cummings and Davies (2002), divorce as a process led to changes in the quality of both parental and inter-parental relationships. Moreover, a major factor which increased the quality of relationships with mother was the loss of pre-divorce stress on mothers because of the problematic marriage. This finding was important in showing the pioneer role of pre-divorce inter-parental conflict as being the pre-disruption effect of divorce. This supports previous literature which showed that stressors prior to divorce (e.g., sense of estrangement and growing dissatisfaction with the marital relationship) could be distressing for parents (Gottman, 1998; Johnson & Wu, 2002) which in turn affects offspring’s well-being as predisruption effects of divorce (Amato, 2010; Buehler & Gerard, 2002; Cummings & Davies, 2002; Strohschein, 2016).

Another important implication in the interviews was the perception of the offspring of divorce as an “escape” from the inter-parental conflict. In other words,
the offspring mostly thought of the divorce as a good and functional life event for them which would in turn leads them to develop more positive attitudes toward divorce in relation to pre-divorce inter-parental conflict. This finding also supported the study by Collardeau and Ehrenberg (2016) which showed how quantitative findings would mean more when they are combined with qualitative analysis. They also found that their quantitative finding for the interactional effect between attachment quality with parents and family structure was associated with the endorsement of the theme “divorce is fulfilling” (more positive attitudes toward divorce) as a qualitative result.

5.2. Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

In the present thesis, participants’ gender and SES were not aimed to be explored within the hypotheses of Study 1 and the quantitative part of Study 2. Yet, since the results provided the role of the family structure on the quality of family relationships and psychological well-being, romantic attachment quality and attitudes toward divorce, the roles of gender and SES were also tested for the two family structures separately.

As aforementioned, offspring of divorced parents who had higher quality of relationships with their fathers and extended family members were in higher SES as offspring of divorced parents having lower quality of relationships with their fathers and extended family member. However, it is unclear whether the SES or the financial support of the father and/or the extended family or the higher education level of the offspring (studying at a University) led to the higher quality of relationships with fathers and extended family members. Another important finding which should be investigated in future studies seems to be the effect of higher SES
on less psychological well-being and less romantic attachment quality of the offspring. This effect was only found among offspring of married parents therefore, future studies may explore the effect of SES of the family on offspring development in more different family structures. In addition to this, future studies need to operationalize SES in a broader term (e.g., income) because the present project SES was operationalized as the participant’s education level.

Participants’ gender was another variable which was tested for its possible effect on the main findings for each family structure. In the present research, gender did not significantly affect the quality of family relationships, coping strategies with stress, psychological well-being, romantic attachment quality and attitudes toward divorce among the offspring of married and divorced parents, future studies might provide significant effect of gender for other family structures (e.g., blended families) and for different age groups (e.g., adolescents).

Remarriage of the parents was another demographic variable in the divorced sample. Yet, the possible effect of parents’ remarriage on offspring’s quality of family relationships, coping strategies with stress, psychological well-being, romantic attachment quality and attitudes toward divorce was not tested in the present project. The major reason for this was to form the scope of the project on only the biological parent and offspring relationships within divorced families and only on the quality of relationships within the extended families of biological parents. When the amalgam family system in Northern Cyprus is considered, analyzing the effect of the remarriage of the parents would hugely enlarge the scope of the project. That means, measuring the effect of parental remarriage would increase the dimensions family relationships to be measured a lot (e.g., including the quality of relationships with the step-parent, the quality of inter-parental
relationships between the parent and the step-parent, the quality of relationships with the extended families of the step-parents).

For the aforementioned reasons, remarriage of the parents would exceed the boundaries of even the step-parent family type or blended-family type in the amalgam family system of Turkish Cypriots. This would lead to a risk for losing the scope of the study and also for the time management of the project. Yet, in the amalgam family system of Northern Cyprus, there is still a need to explore if the remarriage of the parent had any role on inter-parental relationship quality, if the extended family had any effect on the offspring’s relationships with the remarried parent or if the extended family had any effect on the offspring’s relationships with the step-parent, half-sibling or the step-sibling.

Another limitation of the project was the use of cross-sectional research design which leads to an inability to draw conclusions about causality (Aldwin, 2007). Therefore, longitudinal studies are needed in order to have a better understanding of the findings which were revealed in the present project (see Figure 15). For instance, in a longitudinal methodology, it would be possible to better understand the effect of the changes in family relationships over time (e.g. at different ages of the offspring) and the effect of this change on developmental outcomes of the offspring. The comparison of the pre-divorce family relationships and post-divorce family relationships would also be stronger in a longitudinal study than the cross-sectional findings for these variables (see Figure 15).

As aforementioned, all data regarding the quality of parent-offspring relationships or the quality of inter-parental relationships were based on the reports of the offspring. However, reports of the offspring may be affected by their mood or satisfaction level with their relationships at the time of data collection. This
limitation could be decreased by including the reports of the parents for their perception of relationships with their offspring and spouses in future research. Furthermore, asking offspring about past relationships may have also resulted in their false memory of the past relationships. Although we attempted to remove this limitation by including participants who had experienced divorce between 7-11 years of age (Strange, Wade & Hayne, 2008), this would still lead to some extent of retrieval bias in the results.

In addition, many participants reported at the end of the administration of the questionnaires that the questionnaire battery was too long for them. For this reason, the responses in Study 1 may not reflect the reality completely due to the feeling of tiredness of the participants. This limitation was decreased to some extent by using a combination of qualitative and quantitative methodology in Study 2. Apart from these limitations and suggestions, using a mediation analysis in SPSS may not be the ideal analysis especially for Study 1. Further studies are suggested to test the path analysis using LISREL that is more feasible for testing path analyses when compared to SPSS.
6.1. Theoretical Implications

The present thesis has indicated how it would be a very restricted understanding of the role of family on offspring’s psychological well-being, romantic attachment styles and attitudes toward divorce if the context of the family was only considered by its structure (e.g., divorced and married). In other words, this thesis indicates the importance of thinking of the “family” in much a broader context (e.g., the quality of family relationships) than its structure. The findings highlight the importance of understanding the effects of divorce on offspring in relation to the interaction with parents and between parents within the scope of Ecological Theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) and Ecological-transactional Model (Cicchetti & Lynch, 1993) which are the two main theories explaining the how the context affects the individual’s development. Future research on offspring’s adjustment to divorce should provide more information on how the interaction of the different contexts within the family (e.g., structure, parental relationships, and conflict) would be related to variation in offspring in psychological development.

The findings also highlight the Family Systems Perspective (Whitchurch & Constantine, 1993) that the family cannot be understood by examining only its individual members, because any positive change in the quality of family relationships as a sub-system can led to a positive change in other family sub-systems. The most obvious results in line with this perspective were the increase in the quality of relationships with mother after the divorce due to the loss of marital conflict and the change in the parental relationships due to the change in
developmental level of the offspring (from childhood to emerging adulthood). Future studies could provide more evidence for the outcomes in offspring’s well-being in relation to the influence of the interaction between the family sub-systems.

Another implication of the findings was the importance of understanding the role of the family relationships on offspring’s psychosocial development within the framework of Attachment Theory (Ainsworth, 1973; Bowlby, 1969). The role of multiple attachment toward within the family (e.g., with grandparents) was specifically indicated in coping with inter-parental conflict. This finding also implies the need for exploring the role of family relationships on coping responses of the offspring in family transitions (e.g., divorce) or marital conflict in broader aspects than the nuclear family relationships.

Another theoretical implication is related to the theory of Emerging adulthood (Arnett, 2004, 2006), Cultural approach (Kağıtçibaşı, 1996, 2013) and Process-oriented approach (Cummings & Cummings, 1988). Emerging adults perceived the family relationships differently for the past and the present (e.g., before and after divorce). Also, they were still in need for the support of their families as an offspring although emerging adults in Western cultures present more independency from their families (Arnett, 2006). This finding implies the need for more understanding of how family relationships develop in emerging adulthood in different cultures by future research.

Overall, this project provides a pioneer work presenting information on offspring’s psychological well-being, romantic attachment styles and attitudes toward divorce in relation to the quality of relationships within the family in emerging adulthood in a non-western culture. The project presented the relationship between all of these aspects and showed how the theories explained a part of the
whole picture. This indicates the importance of conducting the family research in a more eclectic (combined) approach rather than a single approach in order to have a more comprehensive picture of the offspring in any family context.

6.2. Clinical Implications

6.2.1. Clinical Implications in Working with Emerging Adult Clients in any Family Structure

The findings of the thesis have also provided important implications for clinical / counselling psychologists in their therapies with the emerging adult clients for the issues related to family, psychological well-being (e.g., anxiety, depression), romantic relationships and attitudes toward divorce. One of the implications is the need for the counsellors to have family system perspective to understand the role of all family relationships on emerging adult clients’ psychological situation. The findings emphasized the role of the quality of both parental and inter-parental relationships on emerging adults’ psychological well-being, romantic relationships and attitudes toward future marriage or divorce. In other words, understanding the emerging adult clients’ perception of the relationship between each family member would contribute to the support for the family related issues in the therapies.

Another clinical implication of the findings was considering the cultural characteristics of the adult offspring in providing them psychological counselling, guidance or therapy. The results showed how the perception of family relationships and perceived support within the family would vary in different cultures than Western cultures. Continuing a therapeutic session without understanding the individualistic and collectivist features in the culture which the client has been raised in would be like offering a general recipe to the clients in helping them to solve their
difficulties because the culture of the family does not only predict the family relationships but also predicts the coping strategies with stress. Therefore, in helping the emerging adults to empower their coping strategies with stress, understanding the common coping patterns in their cultures first (e.g., sharing with the family or solving by themselves) is crucial in psychological therapies.

6.2.2. Clinical Implications in Working with Emerging Adult Clients in Divorced Families

This thesis is unique in studying the quality of relationships with mothers and fathers, the quality of inter-parental relationships and the extended family relationships in the family in the same methodology. A significant finding was the dominating role of inter-parental conflict over the role of parental relationship quality on offspring’s psychological well-being, romantic attachment quality and attitudes toward divorce. Emerging adults significantly reported a perceived threat for inter-parental conflict which they also felt unable to cope with. This finding shows the importance of evaluating the quality of inter-parental relationships, offspring’s perception of inter-parental conflict and the examples of conflict (e.g., shouting) in providing psychological support to the offspring in divorced families.

Perceived inter-parental conflict by the offspring is also important to be paid attention to in working with divorcing couples or ex-spouses in divorce counseling sessions. Most divorcing couples have frequent conflicts especially during the court process about different issues (e.g., custody or living arrangements, financial issues, distribution of the family’s sources). For this reason, divorce process could be the most important time for the couples to apply for psychological support for themselves and for their offspring to benefit from an intervention for the risks of
divorce. In cases in which the clients are either divorcing or divorced parents, it is important for the therapist to help them to manage their conflicting relationship by informing them that inter-parental conflict serves as the main factor making the divorce as a risk for healthy development of the offspring.

When working with emerging adults with divorcing / divorced parents, who suffer negative consequences from inter-parental conflict, inviting the parents in to some of the therapies can be an effective intervention to develop more positive family relationships. If the parents are confronted with the knowledge that their continuing conflict makes the adjustment of their offspring to divorce more difficult and that this negative effect in turn decreases the quality of parent-child relationship and family relationships, it provides an opportunity for the parents to change it. It would be helpful for the parent clients to know that it is their relationships with each other and not the divorce itself that will affect their offspring’s well-being. As the findings showed, divorce led to less inter-parental conflict and therefore was perceived as an escape by the offspring. Yet, divorce did not lead to a more positive and cooperative inter-parental relationships and rather it led to the loss of communication between the divorced parents in the eyes of the offspring. Therefore, divorced parents should be encouraged in therapies to cooperate and communicate with each other to help to increase their offspring’s resilience.

The findings also highlight the importance of supporting the divorced mothers in therapies or divorce counselling sessions to help or encourage their offspring to protect their bonds with their fathers who are mostly the non-custodial parents. Most of the offspring in divorced families reported lower quality of relationships with their fathers than their mothers. There would be decreased contact with fathers due to the custody arrangements and this may make fathers perceive
themselves as unimportant or passive in their children’s lives. Psychologists or counsellors can provide information to both parents that children at any age need their father's role in their lives. In line with this, it has been shown that early intervention with fathers had a significant impact on increasing their involvement (Cookston, Braver, & Griffin, 2007; Cowan, Cowan, Pruett, & Pruett, 2007), and they were more likely to have better relationships with their children even 20 years later (Ahrons & Tanner, 2003).

Lastly, this thesis implicates the importance of considering the pre-divorce family relationships in providing psychological support to divorced or divorcing parents and their offspring. This would help the therapists to understand the base (pre-divorce times) first in order to have more accurate information for the divorce process and the changes in the family over time. For example, having information for the quality of pre-divorce inter-parental relationships would indicate how much post-divorce co-parenting can be formed in the therapies.
APPENDICES

Appendix I

Ethical Approval from University of Roehampton

Ethics Application Ref: PSYC 13/ 099

Jan Harrison

Mon 19/05/2014, 10:42

Fatos Bayraktar (Research Student);

Dear Fatos,

Ethics Application

Applicant: Fatos Bayraktar

Title: Psychological Well-being, Romantic Attachment and Attitudes toward Divorce in Emerging Adults in Cyprus

Reference: PSYC 13/ 099

Department: Psychology

Thank you for updating us regarding this outstanding condition. We note and confirm your data collection at the Eastern Mediterranean University. However, please note that we will accept an email to you confirming permission to collect data from the relevant Head of Department from the other Universities if there is not a formal structure for ethical approval. So if you wish or need to collect data from these as well as the Eastern Mediterranean University you may do so, if you get email (or letter) permission from the relevant Head of Department. Otherwise, proceeding with the Eastern Mediterranean University is fine.
Under the procedures agreed by the University Ethics Committee I am pleased to advise you that your Department has confirmed that all conditions for approval of this project have now been met. We do not require anything further in relation to this application.

Please note that on a stand alone page or appendix the following phrase should be included in your thesis:

The research for this project was submitted for ethics consideration under the reference PSYC 13/099 in the Department of Psychology and was approved under the procedures of the University of Roehampton’s Ethics Committee on 19.05.14.

Please advise us if there are any changes to the research during the life of the project. Minor changes can be advised using the Minor Amendments Form on the Ethics Website, but substantial changes may require a new application to be submitted.

Good luck with your research.

Regards,

Jan

Jan Harrison
Ethics Officer, Research Office, Department of Academic Enhancement
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Tel: +44 (0) 20 8392 5785
Dear Fatos Bayraktar,

Your ethics application entitled *Psychological Well-being, Romantic Attachment and Attitudes toward Divorce in Emerging Adults in Cyprus* has been accepted by the Research & Ethics Committee.

If any changes to the study described in the application or supporting documentation is necessary, you must notify the committee and may be required to make a resubmission of the application. This approval is valid for one year.

Good luck with the research.

Yours sincerely,

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Senel Husnu Raman  
On Behalf of the Research & Ethics Committee  
Psychology Department, Eastern Mediterranean University
Appendix III

Consent Form for Part 1

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Psychological Well-being, Romantic Attachment and Attitudes toward Divorce in Emerging Adults in Cyprus

The aim of this research project is to explore psychological well-being, romantic attachment and attitudes toward divorce among emerging adults in Cyprus who have divorced and non-divorced parents. For this aim, a total of 300 emerging adults (between 18-30 years of age) will be recruited from the Cypriot community. There will be two parts of this study. In the first part, you will be administered a form to gather information about your demographic characteristics such as age, gender, parents’ marital status etc. and a set of questionnaires about your family relationships, your coping styles with stress, your psychological well-being, your romantic attachment styles and your attitudes toward divorce. The questionnaires will be completed individually to be returned to the researcher in closed envelopes. Completing the questionnaires will take 20 minutes approximately. Participation in this research is completely voluntary.
The second part of the study will include an interview to have more information about your attitudes toward divorce, your family relationships and your coping styles with stress. Participation to the second part is also voluntary. If you wish to participate to the second part then you will need to provide us your contact information by completing the related part below to reach you to arrange a day and time for the interview according to your convenience. A total of 20 participants will be selected among the volunteer participants for taking part in the second part of the study. The selection will not be according to any kind of criteria and will be completely at random. That means, being volunteer to participate to the second part will not mean that you will definitely be contacted to be included in the interviews. This will depend on whether your form will be randomly chosen among the all other forms of other volunteer participants. If it will be so, then we will contact with you in 3 months, otherwise we will not contact you. Each volunteer participant will be interviewed at a separate session and all interviews will take place in a private room at Eastern Mediterranean University Psychological Counseling Guidance and Research Center (EMU-PDRAM). The interviews will last for approximately one hour and will be audio taped.

Your responses will be treated as confidential. You are not be expected to write your name on any form or questionnaire. All data will be pooled, analyzed and published in an aggregate form only. Research findings will be presented at academic meetings (e.g. conferences) or will be published in academic journals.

The questions were prepared in a way to avoid any personal discomfort but if you still feel uncomfortable for any reason, you may opt to withdraw at any time without any further explanation. If you decide to withdraw while completing a
questionnaire, you can give the material back to the investigator. In any case of withdrawal, uncompleted questionnaires will be removed from the data pool.

If you have further questions about this research project and/or your rights, or if you wish to lodge a complaint or concern, you can contact the researcher whose contact details are given below.

Thank you for your participation.

Investigator: Fatos Bayraktar.

Department of Psychology
Whitelands College
University of Roehampton
Roehampton Lane
London
SW15 5PU
UK
bayraktf@roehampton.ac.uk
0533 861 12 04

I disagree to participate to this research

Signature ……………………………

Date ……………………………

I agree to participate to the first part of this research, and am aware that I am free to withdraw at any point. I understand that the information I provide will be treated in confidence by the investigator and that my identity will be protected in the publication of any findings.

Signature ……………………………

Date ……………………………
I would also like to take part in the interview part of this project.

☐ Yes Please write your phone number ......................and/or e-mail address..........................

(We will contact you in 3 months to arrange an interview time. Please remember that only 20 participants will be needed for the interviews and we will contact you only if your form is randomly selected to be included in the interviews)

☐ No

Please note: if you have a concern about any aspect of your participation or any other queries please raise this with the investigator. However, if you would like to contact an independent party please contact the Head of Department (or the Director of Studies).

**Director of Studies Contact Details:**
Prof. Dr. Cecilia Essau  
Department of Psychology  
Whitelands College  
University of Roehampton  
Roehampton Lane  
London  
SW15 5PU  
UK  
C.Essau@roehampton.ac.uk  
+44 (0)20 8392 3647

**Head of Department Contact Details:**
Dr. Diana Bray  
Department of Psychology  
Whitelands College  
University of Roehampton  
Roehampton Lane  
London  
SW15 5PU  
UK  
D.Bray@roehampton.ac.uk  
+44 (0)20 8392 3627
Appendix IV

Debrief Form (Part 1)

Participant ID number: ..... 

ETHICS BOARD

PARTICIPANT DEBRIEF

Title of Research Project:

Psychological Well-being, Romantic Attachment and Attitudes toward Divorce in Emerging Adults in Cyprus

Thank you very much for taking part in this study, we greatly appreciate your contribution.

This study was conducted to examine to investigate how parents’ marital status would be related to psychological well-being and romantic attachment of emerging adult offspring in relation to family relationships and coping responses to stressful situations.

All data gathered during this study will be held securely and anonymously. If you wish to withdraw from the study, contact us with your participant number (above) and your information will be deleted from our files. Please be aware, however, that data in summary form may already have been used for publication at the time of request.
If you are troubled or worried about any aspect of the study, or issues it may have raised, please feel free to contact any of the following agencies:

1- If you are an EMU student, EMU Psychological Counseling, Guidance and Research Center.
   Phone Number: (0392) 630 22 51

2- If you are not a student, Baris Mental Health Hospital.
   Phone Number: (0392) 228 54 41

Please note: if you have a concern about any aspect of your participation or any other queries please raise this with the investigator. However, if you would like to contact an independent party please contact the Head of Department (or the Director of Studies).

**Director of Studies Contact Details:**

Prof. Dr. Cecilia Essau
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**Head of Department Contact Details:**

Dr. Diana Bray
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**Investigator: Fatos Bayraktar.**

Department of Psychology
Whitelands College
University of Roehampton
Roehampton Lane
London
SW15 5PU
UK
bayraktf@roehampton.ac.uk
Appendix V

Instruments

V.1 Demographic Information Form

The following questions are about you and your family. None of the questions have any right or wrong answer. Therefore, please answer each question according to whatever you find right. Please give your answer by putting (X) for the questions with boxes (□).

1- Age: _______

2- Sex: □ Male    □ Female

3- Place of birth: ______________

4- Where do you permanently live?
   □ Nicosia □ Kyrenia □ Famagusta □ Morphou □ Iskele
   □ Other (please specify)

5- Are you a student? □ Yes    □ No

6- Are you currently working?
   □ No            □ Yes in a part-time job    □ Yes in a full-time job

7- Is your current work your stable long-term occupation? □ Yes    □ No

8- Are you seeking further education, training or work experience?
   □ Yes    □ No
9- Which of the following sentences describes you best?

☐ Most of the time, I feel like as I am not fully adult yet.

☐ Most of the times, I feel like I have reached adulthood in some ways, but in other ways I do not feel so.

☐ Most of the time, I feel like I am fully adult.

10- How much do you feel yourself as ready for marriage?

☐ Ready ☐ Almost ready ☐ Not ready at all

11- Please choose one of the following which best suits your current family structure?

☐ My parents are married. I am living with my parents. (pls. skip to question 16)

☐ My parents are divorced. I am living with my mother.

☐ My parents are divorced. I am living with my mother and stepfather.

☐ My parents are divorced. I am living with my father.

☐ My parents are divorced. I am living with my father and stepmother.

☐ My parents are divorced. I am living with my relatives.

☐ Other (please specify) ________________________________

If your parents are divorced,

12- How old were you at the time of your parents’ divorce? ______

13- Have your parents married another person after divorce?

☐ Only my mother married again ☐ Only my father married again

☐ Both of my parents married again ☐ None of my parents married again
14- Who did you live with after the divorce? **You can choose more than one option.**

- [ ] mother
- [ ] father
- [ ] grandparents
- [ ] other (please specify) ______

15- How often did you have contact with the parent that you ĐİĐ NOT live with after your parents’ divorce?

- [ ] Daily
- [ ] Weekly
- [ ] Monthly
- [ ] Yearly
- [ ] Less than yearly
- [ ] Never

16- Has any of of your parents had any psychological therapy and/or psychiatric treatment before?

- [ ] Only my mother had
- [ ] Only my father had
- [ ] Both of my parents had
- [ ] None of my parents had

17- Is there any special person within your family (except your parents and siblings) who has provided you with emotional support in your life?

- [ ] Yes
- [ ] No (if No, pls skip to question 25)

18- If yes, who would be this special person?

- [ ] grandparent
- [ ] aunt
- [ ] uncle
- [ ] other _______________(pls specify)
Please answer the following questions by considering your relationship with this special person.

19- This person has provided me care.
☐ Almost never    ☐ Not very Often    ☐ Sometimes    ☐ Often    ☐ Almost Always

20- This person has provided me affection.
☐ Almost never    ☐ Not very Often    ☐ Sometimes    ☐ Often    ☐ Almost Always

21- This person has respected my feelings.
☐ Almost never    ☐ Not very Often    ☐ Sometimes    ☐ Often    ☐ Almost Always

22- This person has helped me to understand myself.
☐ Almost never    ☐ Not very Often    ☐ Sometimes    ☐ Often    ☐ Almost Always

23- This person has helped me to talk about my problems, difficulties and troubles.
☐ Almost never    ☐ Not very Often    ☐ Sometimes    ☐ Often    ☐ Almost Always

24- This person has tried to be understanding to me at the times I did not feel good.
☐ Almost never    ☐ Not very Often    ☐ Sometimes    ☐ Often    ☐ Almost Always
The following questions are about your romantic relationships.

25- Are you currently in a romantic relationship?

☐ No ☐ Yes

26- **If yes**, how long have you been in this relationship? years ____ and months ____

This is the end of this part. Please continue with the next page.
V.2. Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI)

Below is a list of problems people sometimes have. Please read each one carefully and fill in the response that best describes HOW MUCH THAT PROBLEM HAS DISTRESSED OR BOTHERED YOU DURING THE PAST 7 DAYS INCLUDING TODAY.

Fill in only one choice for each problem and do not skip any items.

**How much were you distressed by:**

0-Not at all
1-A little bit
2-Moderately
3-Quite a bit
4-Extremely

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No at all</th>
<th>Extremely</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Nervousness or shakiness inside .................. 0 1 2 3 4
2. Faintness or dizziness.............................. 0 1 2 3 4
3. The idea that someone else can control
   your thoughts...................................... 0 1 2 3 4
4. Feeling others are to blame for most
   of your troubles.................................. 0 1 2 3 4
5. Trouble remembering things....................... 0 1 2 3 4
6. Feeling easily annoyed or irritated............. 0 1 2 3 4
7. Pains in heart or chest........................... 0 1 2 3 4
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Feeling afraid in open spaces</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Thoughts of ending your life</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Feeling that most people cannot be trusted</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Poor appetite</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Suddenly scared for no reason</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Temper outbursts that you could not control</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Feeling lonely even when you are with people</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Feeling blocked in getting things done</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Feeling lonely</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Feeling blue</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Feeling no interest in things</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Feeling fearful</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Your feelings being easily hurt</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Feeling that people are unfriendly or dislike you</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Feeling inferior to others</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Nausea or upset stomach</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Feeling that you are watched or talked about by others</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Trouble falling asleep</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Having to check and double check what you do</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Difficulty in making decisions</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Feeling afraid to travel on buses, subways, or trains</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Trouble getting your breath</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Hot or cold spells</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
31. Having to avoid certain things, places, or activities because they frighten you. 0 1 2 3 4
32. Your mind going blank. 0 1 2 3 4
33. Numbness or tingling in parts of your body. 0 1 2 3 4
34. The idea that you should be punished for your sins. 0 1 2 3 4
35. Feeling hopeless about the future. 0 1 2 3 4
36. Trouble concentrating. 0 1 2 3 4
37. Feeling weak in parts of your body. 0 1 2 3 4
38. Feeling tense or keyed up. 0 1 2 3 4
39. Thoughts of death or dying. 0 1 2 3 4
40. Having urges to beat, injure, or harm someone. 0 1 2 3 4
41. Having urges to break or smash things. 0 1 2 3 4
42. Feeling very self-conscious with others. 0 1 2 3 4
43. Feeling uneasy in crowds. 0 1 2 3 4
44. Never feeling close to another person. 0 1 2 3 4
45. Spells of terror or panic. 0 1 2 3 4
46. Getting into frequent arguments. 0 1 2 3 4
47. Feeling nervous when you are left alone. 0 1 2 3 4
48. Others not giving you proper credit for your achievements. 0 1 2 3 4
49. Feeling so restless you could not sit still. 0 1 2 3 4
50. Feelings of worthlessness. 0 1 2 3 4
51. Feeling that people will take advantage of you if you let them. 0 1 2 3 4
52. Feelings of guilt............................................0 1 2 3 4

53. The idea that something is wrong with your mind.................................................................0 1 2 3 4

This is the end of this part. Please continue with the next page.
V.3. Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA-R)

Some of the following statements asks about your feelings about your MOTHER. Please read each statement and circle the ONE number from 1 to 7 that tells how true the statement is for the relationship between you and your mother.

1 = Never 2 3 4 5 6 7= Always

1- My mother respects my feeling. ............... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2- I wish I had a different mother. ............... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3- My mother accepts me as I am................. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4- Talking over my problems with my mother makes me feel ashamed or foolish. ............... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5- I get upset easily around my mother........... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6- My mother has her own problems, so I don’t bother her with mine. .......................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7- My mother helps me to understand myself better. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8- I tell my mother about my problems and troubles 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9- I feel angry with my mother................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10- I don’t get much attention from my mother. ...... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11- When I am angry about something, my mother to be understanding....................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12- If my mother knows something is bothering me, she asks me about it ..................... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1 = Never  2  3  4  5  6  7 = Always

Some of the following statements asks about your feelings about your FATHER. Please read each statement and circle the ONE number from 1 to 7 that tells how true the statement is for the relationship between you and your father.

13-My father respects my feeling. ……………1  2  3  4  5  6  7
14-I wish I had a different father. ……………1  2  3  4  5  6  7
15-My father accepts me as I am………………1  2  3  4  5  6  7
16-Talking over my problems with my father makes me feel ashamed or foolish………………1  2  3  4  5  6  7
17-I get upset easily around my father…………1  2  3  4  5  6  7
18-My father has his own problems, so I don’t bother him with mine………………1  2  3  4  5  6  7
19-My father helps me to understand myself better ………………………………………1  2  3  4  5  6  7
20-I tell my father about my problems and troubles……………………………………1  2  3  4  5  6  7
21-I feel angry with my father………………1  2  3  4  5  6  7
22-I don’t get much attention from my father…..1  2  3  4  5  6  7
23-When I am angry about something, my father tries to be understanding………………1  2  3  4  5  6  7
24-If my father knows something is bothering me, he asks me about it ……………………1  2  3  4  5  6  7

This is the end of this part. Please continue with the next page.
V.4. Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA-R) for Pre-Divorce Parental Relationships

**PLEASE SKIP THIS PART IF YOUR PARENTS ARE MARRIED**

Please read each statement and circle the ONE number from 1 to 7 that tells how true the statement is for the relationship between you and your mother **BEFORE YOUR PARENTS’ DIVORCE.**

1 = Never  
2  3  4  5  6  7 = Always

1- My mother respected my feeling. ..............1  
2- I wished I had a different mother. ............ 1  
3- My mother accepted me as I was............... 1  
4- Talking over my problems with my mother made me feel ashamed or foolish. ............ 1  
5- I got upset easily around my mother........... 1  
6- My mother had her own problems, so I didn’t bother her with mine. ............ 1  
7- My mother helped me to understand myself better. ......  
8- I told my mother about my problems and troubles..........  
9- I felt angry with my mother...............  
10- I didn’t get much attention from my mother. 1  
11- When I was angry about something, my mother tried to be understanding........  
12- If my mother knew something was bothering me, she asked me about it ..............
**PLEASE SKIP THIS PART IF YOUR PARENTS ARE MARRIED**

Some of the following statements asks about your feelings about your FATHER. Please read each statement and circle the ONE number from 1 to 7 that tells how true the statement is for the relationship between you and your father BEFORE YOUR PARENTS’ DIVORCE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13-My father respected my feeling.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14-I wished I had a different father.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-My father accepted me as I was</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-Talking over my problems with my father made me feel ashamed or foolish.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17-I got upset easily around my father</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-My father had her own problems, so I didn’t bother him with mine.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19-My father helped me to understand myself better.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-I told my father about my problems and troubles.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-I felt angry with my father</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22-I didn’t get much attention from my father...</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
23-When I was angry about something, my father tried to be understanding.

24-If my father knew something was bothering me, he asked me about it.

This is the end of this part. Please continue with the next page.
V.5. Children’s Perception of Inter-parental Conflict Scale (CPIC)

In every family there are times when the parents don’t get along. When their parents argue or disagree, children at any age can feel a lot of different ways. We would like to know what kinds of feelings you have/had had when your parents have/had arguments or disagreements.

**If your parents are married, think about the times in general.**

**If your parents are divorced, think about the times after they have been divorced.**

Please read each question carefully and answer as T=True ST=Sort of True F=False

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>I never see my parents arguing or disagreeing.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>When my parents have an argument they usually work it out.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>My parents often get into arguments about things I do at school.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>My parents get really mad when they argue.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>I get scared when my parents argue.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>I’m not to blame when my parents have arguments.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>They may not think I know it, but my parents argue or disagree a lot.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Even after my parents stop arguing they stay mad with each other.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>When my parents have a disagreement they discuss it quietly.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>I don’t know what to do when my parents have</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. My parents are often mean to each other even when I’m around.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. When my parents argue I worry about what will happen to me.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. It’s usually my fault when my parents argue.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I often see my parents arguing.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>ST</td>
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<tr>
<td>15. When my parents disagree about something, they usually come up with a solution.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>ST</td>
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<tr>
<td>16. My parents’ arguments are usually about something I did.</td>
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<tr>
<td>17. When my parents argue I’m afraid that something bad will happen.</td>
<td>T</td>
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<tr>
<td>18. Even if they don’t say it, I know I’m to blame when my parents argue.</td>
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<td>21. My parents usually argue or disagree because of things that I do.</td>
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<tr>
<td>22. When my parents argue there’s nothing I can do to stop them.</td>
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<tr>
<td>23. When my parents argue I worry that one of them will get hurt.</td>
<td>T</td>
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<tr>
<td>24. My parents often nag and complain about each other around the house.</td>
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<tr>
<td>25. My parents hardly ever yell when they have a disagreement.</td>
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<tr>
<td>26. My parents often get into arguments when I do something wrong.</td>
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<tr>
<td>27. My parents have broken or thrown things during an argument.</td>
<td>T</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. After my parents stop arguing, they are friendly toward each other.</td>
<td>T</td>
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<tr>
<td>29. When my parents argue I’m afraid that they will yell at me too.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. When my parents argue I worry that they might get divorced.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. My parents still act mean after they have had an argument.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. Usually it’s not my fault when my parents have arguments.</td>
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<td>ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. When my parents argue they don’t listen to anything I say.</td>
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</table>

**This is the end of this part. Please continue with the next page.**
V.6. Children’s Perception of Inter-parental Conflict Scale (CPIC) for Pre-divorce Inter-parental Relationships

PLEASE SKIP THIS PART IF YOUR PARENTS ARE MARRIED

If your parents are divorced, now think about times when they were married when they don’t agree, when you answer these questions.

Please read each question carefully and answer as

T= True    ST=Sort of True    F= False.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>I never saw my parents arguing or disagreeing.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>ST</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>When my parents had an argument they usually worked it out.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>ST</td>
<td>F</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>My parents often got into arguments about things I did at school.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>ST</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>My parents got really mad when they argued.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>ST</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>I got scared when my parents argued.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>ST</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>I was not to blame when my parents had arguments.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>ST</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>They might not think I knew it, but my parents argued or disagreed a lot.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>ST</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Even after my parents stopped arguing they stayed mad each other.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>ST</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>When my parents had a disagreement they discussed it quietly.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>ST</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>I didn’t know what to do when my parents had arguments.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>ST</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>My parents were often mean to each other even when I</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>ST</td>
<td>F</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
was around.

<p>| | | |</p>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12. When my parents argued I worried about what would happen to me.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. It was usually my fault when my parents argued.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I often saw my parents arguing.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>ST</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. When my parents disagreed about something, they usually came up with a solution.</td>
<td>T</td>
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<tr>
<td>16. My parents’ arguments were usually about something I had done.</td>
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<tr>
<td>17. When my parents argued I was afraid that something bad would happen.</td>
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<td>30. My parents blamed me when they had arguments.</td>
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<tr>
<td>31. My parents pushed or shoved each other during an argument.</td>
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<td>32. When my parents argued I worried that they might get divorced.</td>
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<td>34. Usually it was not my fault when my parents had arguments.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. When my parents argued they didn’t listen to anything I said.</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This is the end of this part. Please continue with the next page.
V.7. Coping Responses Inventory Adult Form (CRI-Adult)

This questionnaire asks questions about how you manage important problems that come up in your life. Please think about the most significant problem or stressful situation you have experienced in the last 12 months (for example, illness or death of a relative or friend, financial or work problems, the end of a relationship). Briefly describe the problem in the space provided below. If you have not experienced a major problem, list a minor problem that you have had to deal with.

**Part 1**

Describe the problem or situation:

____________________________________________________________________

____________________________________________________________________

____________________________________________________________________

**Part 2**

Read each item carefully and indicate how often you engaged in that behaviour in connection with the problem you described in Part 1. Tick the appropriate box on the answer sheet.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>No, not at all</th>
<th>Yes, once or twice</th>
<th>Yes, sometimes</th>
<th>Yes, fairly often</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1  Did you think of different ways to deal with the problem?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2  Did you tell yourself things to make you feel better?</td>
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<tr>
<td>3  Did you talk with your spouse or other relative about the problem?</td>
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<tr>
<td>4  Did you make a plan of action and follow it?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>No, not at all</td>
<td>Yes, once or twice</td>
<td>Yes, sometimes</td>
<td>Yes, fairly often</td>
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<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>5  Did you try to forget the whole thing?</td>
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<tr>
<td>6  Did you feel that time would make a difference</td>
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<tr>
<td>7  Did you try to help others deal with a similar problem?</td>
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<tr>
<td>8  Did you take it out on other people when you felt angry or depressed?</td>
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<tr>
<td>9  Did you try to step back from the situation and be more objective?</td>
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<tr>
<td>10 Did you remind yourself how much worse things could be?</td>
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<tr>
<td>11 Did you talk with a friend about the problem?</td>
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<tr>
<td>12 Did you know what had to be done and try hard to make things work?</td>
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<tr>
<td>13 Did you try not to think about the problem?</td>
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<tr>
<td>14 Did you realise that you had no control over the problem?</td>
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<tr>
<td>15 Did you get involved in new activities?</td>
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<tr>
<td>16 Did you take a chance and do something risky?</td>
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<tr>
<td>17 Did you go over in your mind what you would say or do?</td>
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<tr>
<td>19 Did you talk with a professional person (eg. doctor, priest, lawyer)?</td>
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<tr>
<td>20 Did you decide what you wanted and try hard to get it?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Question</td>
<td>No, not at all</td>
<td>Yes, once or twice</td>
<td>Yes, sometimes</td>
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<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Did you daydream or imagine a better time or place than the one you were in?</td>
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<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Did you think that the outcome would be decided by fate?</td>
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<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Did you try to make new friends?</td>
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<td>24</td>
<td>Did you keep away from people in general?</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>Did you try to anticipate how things would turn out?</td>
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<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Did you think about how you were much better off than other people with similar problems?</td>
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<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Did you seek help from persons or groups with the same type of problem?</td>
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<td>28</td>
<td>Did you try at least two different ways to solve the problem?</td>
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<td>29</td>
<td>Did you try to put off thinking about the situation, even though you knew you would have to at some point?</td>
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<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Did you accept it; nothing could be done?</td>
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<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Did you read more often as a source of enjoyment?</td>
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<td>32</td>
<td>Did you yell or shout to let off steam?</td>
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<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Did you try to find some personal meaning in the situation?</td>
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<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>Did you try to tell yourself that things would get better?</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>No, not at all</td>
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<td>Yes, sometimes</td>
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<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>35 Did you try to find out more about the situation?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>36 Did you try to learn to do more things on your own?</td>
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<tr>
<td>37 Did you wish the problem would go away or somehow be over with?</td>
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<tr>
<td>38 Did you expect the worst possible outcome?</td>
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<tr>
<td>39 Did you spend more time in recreational activities?</td>
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<tr>
<td>40 Did you cry to let your feelings out?</td>
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<tr>
<td>41 Did you try to anticipate the new demands that would be placed on you?</td>
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<tr>
<td>42 Did you think about how this event could change your life in a positive way?</td>
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<tr>
<td>43 Did you pray for guidance and/or strength?</td>
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<tr>
<td>44 Did you take things a day at a time, one step at a time?</td>
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<tr>
<td>45 Did you try to deny how serious the problem really was?</td>
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<tr>
<td>46 Did you lose hope that things would ever be the same?</td>
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<tr>
<td>47 Did you turn to work or other activities to help you manage things?</td>
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<tr>
<td>48 Did you do something that you didn’t think would work, but at least you were doing something?</td>
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V.8. Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Scale (ECR-R)

The statements below concern how you feel in emotionally intimate relationships. We are interested in how you generally experience relationships, not just in what is happening in a current relationship. Respond to each statement by circling a number to indicate how much you agree or disagree with the statement.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completely</td>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Completely</td>
<td>agree</td>
<td>disagree</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

1. I'm afraid that I will lose my partner's love.  
2. I often worry that my partner will not want to stay with me.  
3. I often worry that my partner doesn't really love me.  
4. I worry that romantic partners won’t care about me as much as I care about them.  
5. I often wish that my partner’s feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for him or her.  
6. I worry a lot about my relationships.  
7. When my partner is out of sight, I worry that he or she might become interested in someone else.  
8. When I show my feelings for romantic partners, I’m afraid they will not feel the same about me.  
9. I rarely worry about my partner leaving me.  
10. My romantic partner makes me doubt myself.  
11. I do not often worry about being abandoned.  
12. I find that my partner(s) does not want to get as close as I would like.  
13. Sometimes romantic partners change their feelings about me for no apparent reason.  
14. My desire to be very close sometimes scares
<p>| | | | | | | |</p>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15. I'm afraid that once a romantic partner gets to know me, he or she won't like who I really am.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. It makes me mad that I don't get the affection and support I need from my partner.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. I worry that I won't measure up to other people.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. My partner only seems to notice me when I’m angry.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. I prefer not to show a partner how I feel deep down.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. I feel comfortable sharing my private thoughts and feelings with my partner.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on romantic partners.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. I am very comfortable being close to romantic partners.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. I don't feel comfortable opening up to romantic partners.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. I prefer not to be too close to romantic partners.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. I get uncomfortable when a romantic partner wants to be very close.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. I find it relatively easy to get close to my partner.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. It's not difficult for me to get close to my partner.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. I usually discuss my problems and concerns with my partner.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. It helps to turn to my romantic partner in times of need.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. I tell my partner just about everything.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. I talk things over with my partner.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. I am nervous when partners get too close to me.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. I feel comfortable when I depend on romantic partners.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. I find it easy to depend on romantic partners.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. It's easy for me to be affectionate with my partner.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. My partner really understands me and my needs.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This is the end of this part. Please continue with the next page.
V.9. The Likelihood of Divorce Scale

For each of the following situations, assume you have been married for a couple of years and have no children. Please indicate how likely you would be to get a divorce in each situation.

1--very unlikely
2--somewhat unlikely
3--not sure
4--somewhat likely
5--very likely

**How likely would you be to get a divorce if:**

1. You and your spouse did not love each other anymore?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. very unlikely</th>
<th>2. somewhat unlikely</th>
<th>3. not sure</th>
<th>4. somewhat likely</th>
<th>5. very likely</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

2. Your spouse physically abused you?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. very unlikely</th>
<th>2. somewhat unlikely</th>
<th>3. not sure</th>
<th>4. somewhat likely</th>
<th>5. very likely</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

3. Your spouse did not turn out to be the person you thought he/she was (e.g., was irresponsible, dishonest, etc.)?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. very unlikely</th>
<th>2. somewhat unlikely</th>
<th>3. not sure</th>
<th>4. somewhat likely</th>
<th>5. very likely</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
4. All the magic was gone from your and your spouse’s relationship, if there was no romance left?

1. very unlikely 2. somewhat unlikely 3. not sure 4. somewhat likely 5. very likely

5. Your spouse was verbally abusive (e.g., continually belittled you, insulted you, etc.)?

1. very unlikely 2. somewhat unlikely 3. not sure 4. somewhat likely 5. very likely

6. Your spouse had an affair?

1. very unlikely 2. somewhat unlikely 3. not sure 4. somewhat likely 5. very likely

7. You and your spouse were always arguing, at least several times a day?

1. very unlikely 2. somewhat unlikely 3. not sure 4. somewhat likely 5. very likely

THIS IS THE END.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION!
Appendix VI

Consent Form for Part 2 (Interview Part)

ID NUMBER: _____________

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Psychological Well-being, Romantic Attachment and Attitudes toward Divorce in Emerging Adults in Cyprus

You have participated the first part of this research project which aims to explore psychological well-being, romantic attachment and attitudes toward divorce among emerging adults in Cyprus who have divorced and non-divorced parents. In the first part, you completed demographic information and a set of questionnaires about your family relationships, your coping styles with stress, your psychological well-being, your romantic attachment styles and your attitudes toward divorce. The second part of the study will include an interview to have more information about your attitudes toward divorce, your family relationships and your coping styles with stress. You will be interviewed individually by the researcher in a private room. The interviews will take 1 hour approximately and will be audio recorded.
Participation in this part of the research is also completely voluntary. Your responses will be treated as confidential. You will not be expected to tell your name during the interviews and your name will also not be called by the researcher during the interview. All data will be pooled, analyzed and published in an aggregate form only and the findings will be presented at academic meetings (e.g. conferences) or will be published in academic journals.

The interview questions were organized in a way to avoid any personal discomfort but if you still feel uncomfortable for any reason, it will be sufficient to tell the investigator that you need to cease the interview. In any case of withdrawal, your interview records will be deleted.

If you have further questions about this research project and/or your rights, or if you wish to lodge a complaint or concern, you can contact the researcher whose contact details are given below.

Thank you for your participation.

Investigator: Fatos Bayraktar.

Department of Psychology
Whitelands College
University of Roehampton
Roehampton Lane
London
SW15 5PU
UK
bayraktf@roehampton.ac.uk
0533 861 12 04
I agree to take part in this interview, and am aware that I am free to withdraw at any point. I understand that the information I provide will be treated in confidence by the investigator and that my identity will be protected in the publication of any findings.

Signature ………………………………
Date ……………………………………

I disagree to take part in this interview.
Signature ………………………………
Date ……………………………………

Please note: if you have a concern about any aspect of your participation or any other queries please raise this with the investigator. However, if you would like to contact an independent party please contact the Head of Department (or the Director of Studies).

**Director of Studies Contact Details:**

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Appendix VII
Debrief Form (Part 2, Interview Part)

ETHICS BOARD
PARTICIPANT DEBRIEF
PART 2

Title of Research Project:

Psychological Well-being, Romantic Attachment and Attitudes toward Divorce in Emerging Adults in Cyprus

Thank you very much for taking part in this study, we greatly appreciate your contribution.

This study was conducted to examine to investigate how parents’ marital status would be related to attitudes toward divorce among the emerging adult offspring in relation to family relationships and coping responses to stressful situations.

All data gathered during this study will be held securely and anonymously. If you wish to withdraw from the study, contact us with your participant number (above) and your information will be deleted from our files. Please be aware, however, that data in summary form may already have been used for publication at the time of request.
If you are troubled or worried about any aspect of the study, or issues it may have raised, please feel free to contact any of the following agencies:

1- If you are an EMU student, EMU Psychological Counseling, Guidance and Research Center.

Phone Number: (0392) 630 22 51

2- If you are not a student, Baris Mental Health Hospital.

Phone Number: (0392) 228 54 41

Please note: if you have a concern about any aspect of your participation or any other queries please raise this with the investigator. However, if you would like to contact an independent party please contact the Head of Department (or the Director of Studies).

**Director of Studies Contact Details:**

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**Investigator: Fatos Bayraktar.**  
Department of Psychology  
Whitelands College  
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Roehampton Lane  
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UK  
bayraktf@roehampton.ac.uk  
0533 861 12 04
Appendix VIII

Interview Questions

(participants having divorced parents)

Opening:

Hi! I am Fatos and I am doing a research on young people’s psychological well-being, romantic attachment and attitudes toward divorce in North Cyprus. I am interested in how the quality of family relationships, inter-parental relationships and coping strategies with stress would be related to psychological well-being, romantic attachment and attitudes toward divorce.

You participated to the first part of this project and became volunteer to participate to the interview part too. Thank you very much for this. I would like to present you the consent form first.

(Give the consent form)

Part 1. Questions for the perceived quality of relationships with parents, between parents and with the close relative.

In the questionnaires you have completed before, you mentioned that you have experienced your parents’ divorce.

1. Could you tell me about how your relationship was with your father before your parents were divorced?

2. Could you tell me about how your relationship was with your mother before your parents were divorced?

3. How has your relationship with your father continued since their divorce? Was it similar to your relationship before their divorce or has it differed in years following the divorce?

4. How has your relationship with your mother continued since their divorce? Was it similar to your relationship before their divorce or has it differed in years following the divorce?

5. Could you please tell about the relationship between your parents when they were married?
6. Has the relationship between your parents changed after they were divorced? How?

7. You also mentioned in the questionnaires that your ..... (the relative mentioned in the demographic form) has provided you a kind of emotional support after your parents’ divorce. Could you tell me something about your relationship with this person before and after your parents’ divorce?


1. Could you please tell me about how it was for you to manage important problems that come up in your life. Please think about the stressful situations you have recently experienced (for example, illness or death of a relative or friend, financial or work problems, the end of a relationship).

Part 3. Questions for the Attitudes Toward Divorce

Assume you have been married for a couple of years and have no children. Please indicate how your attitude toward getting a divorce in each situation would be.

1. You and your spouse did not love each other anymore?

2. Your spouse physically abused you?

3. Your spouse did not turn out to be the person you thought he/she was (e.g., was irresponsible, dishonest, etc.)?

4. All the magic was gone from your and your spouse’s relationship, if there was no romance left?

5. Your spouse was verbally abusive (e.g., continually belittled you, insulted you, etc.)?

6. Your spouse had an affair?

7. You and your spouse were always arguing, at least several times a day?

Thank you very much for your participation and your in my research!
APPENDIX IX

Interview Questions

(participants having non-divorced parents)

Opening:

Hi! I am Fatos and I am doing a research on young people’s psychological well-being, romantic attachment and attitudes toward divorce in North Cyprus. I am interested in how the quality of family relationships, inter-parental relationships and coping strategies with stress would be related to psychological well-being, romantic attachment and attitudes toward divorce.

You participated to the first part of this project and became volunteer to participate to the interview part too. Thank you very much for this. I would like to present you the consent form first.

(Give the consent form)

Part 1. Questions for the relationships with parents, between parents and with the close relative.

In the questionnaires you have completed before, you mentioned that you have married parents.

1. Could you tell about how your relationship is with your father in general?

2. Could you tell about how your relationship is with your mother in general?

3. Do you think that your relationship with your mother and/or father has differed since your childhood? How?

4. Could you please tell about the relationship between your parents?

5. You also mentioned in the questionnaires that your x (the relative mentioned in the demographic form) has provided you support in your life. Could you tell me about the relationship with this person in general?

1. Could you please tell about how do you usually manage important problems that come up in your life. Please think about the stressful situations you have recently experienced (for example, illness or death of a relative or friend, financial or work problems, the end of a relationship).

Part 3. Questions for the Attitudes Toward Divorce

Assume you have been married for a couple of years and have no children. Please indicate how your attitude toward getting a divorce in each situation would be.

1. You and your spouse did not love each other anymore?
2. Your spouse physically abused you?
3. Your spouse did not turn out to be the person you thought he/she was (e.g., was irresponsible, dishonest, etc.)?
4. All the magic was gone from your and your spouse’s relationship, if there was no romance left?
5. Your spouse was verbally abusive (e.g., continually belittled you, insulted you, etc.)?
6. Your spouse had an affair?
7. You and your spouse were always arguing, at least several times a day?

Thank you very much for your participation and your contribution in my research!
Kıbrıs'ta Beliren Yetişkinlerin Psikolojik Sağlıklar, Romantik Bağlanmaları ve Boşanmaya Karşı Tutumları


Katılımcılar araştırmacı tarafından Doğu Akdeniz Üniversitesi Psikoloji Danışmanlık, Rehberlik ve Araştırma Merkezi’nde (DAÜ-PDRAM) özel bir odada görüşmeye alınacaktır. Görüşmeler yaklaşık 1 saat sürecek ve konuşmalar kaydedilecektir.


Eğer bu çalışma ve / veya katılımcı haklarınız hakkında daha fazla sorunuz varsa, ya da bir görüş veya şikâyetinizi bildirmek istiyorsanız, iletişim bilgileri aşağıda verilen araştırmacıyla iletişime geçebilirsiniz.

Katıldığınız için teşekkür ederim.

Araştırmacı:

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Londra
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Birleşik Krallık

bayraktf@roehampton.ac.uk

0533 861 12 04

Araştırmaya katılmayı kabul etmiyorum.

İmza ……………………………

Tarih ……………………………

Bu araştırmaya katılmayı kabul etmiyorum ve herhangi bir zamanda cevaplamanı bırakabileceğimi bildiriyorum. Veregelen bilgilerin araştırmacı tarafından gizli tutulacağını ve kimliğimin bulguların sunulmasında ve basımında korunacağını anladım.
İmza ..........................

Tarih ..........................

Ayrıca bu araştırmanın görüşme kısmına katılmayı istemek teyim.

Evet ☐ Lütfen telefon numaranızı .......................... ve/veya e-posta adresinizi yazınız ..........................

(3 ay içerisinde sizinle görüşme zamanını belirleme amacıyla iletişime geçeceğiz)

Hayır ☐


Araştırmacı İletişim Bilgileri:
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D.Bray@roehampton.ac.uk
44 (0)20 8392 3627

230
Katılımcı numarası:

APPENDIX IV-TR

BİLGİLENDİRME FORMU

 Kıbrıs'ta Beliren Yetişkinlerin Psikolojik Sağlıkları, Romantik Bağlanmaları ve Boşanmaya Karşı Tutumları

Bu çalışmanın amacı Kıbrıs'ta boşanmış ve boşanmamış ebeveynlere sahip beliren yetişkenlerin psikolojik sağlıklarının, romantik bağlanmalarının ve boşanmaya karşı tutumlarının değişip değişmediğini incelemektir. Boşanmış ya da boşanmamış ebeveynlere sahip olmanın yetişkin çocukların gelişimlerinde farklılıklar sebep olduğu bildirilirken birlikte, iki grup yetişkin arasında az sayıda farklılık olabileceği de bulunmuştur.


Daha önce de belirtildiği gibi, ölçeklerde ve görüşmelerde verdiğiniz cevaplar kesinlikle gizli kalacaktır. İşminiz yerine size bir kod numarası verilecek ve yalnızca araştırmacı vergiden cevapları görebilecektir. Eğer çalışmaya katılmak sizi belirli düzeyde stress yaratmışsa ve bir danışmana konuşmak istiyorsanız, lütfen aşağıdaki birimlerle iletişime geçin:

Eğer bu çalışmaya katılmak sızde belirli düzeyde stress yaratmışsa ve bir danışmanla konuşmak istiyorsanız, lütfen aşağıdaki birimlerle iletişime geçiniz:
 Eğer Doğu Akdeniz Üniversitesi'nde (DAÜ) öğrenciyseniz, DAÜ Psikolojik Danışmanlık, Rehberlik ve Araştırma Merkezi Telefon: (0392) 630 22 51

 Eğer Yakın Doğu Üniversitesi'nde (YDÜ) öğrenciyseniz, YDÜ Danışmanlık Merkezi. Telefon: (0392) 223 64 64 (dahili:224)

 Eğer Girne Amerikan Üniversitesi'nde (GAÜ) öğrenciyseniz, GAU Danışmanlık Merkezi. Telefon: (0392) 650 2000 (dahili:1265)

 Eğer öğrenci değilseniz, Barış Sinir ve Ruh Hastalıkları Hastanesi. Telefon: (0392) 228 54 41


Araştırmacı
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D.Bray@roehampton.ac.uk
+44 (0)20 8392 3627
APPENDIX V-TR

ÖLÇME ARAÇLARI

V.1-TR DEMOGRAFİK BİLGİ FORMU

Aşağıdaki sorular siz ve aileniz hakkındadır. Soruların herhangi bir doğru veya yanlış yanıtı bulunmamaktadır. Bu nedenle, lütfen her soruyu olabildiğince gerçekliği yansıtacak şekilde yanıtlayınız. Yanıtınızı, kutucukların (□) içerisine (X) işaretile belirtiniz.

1- Yaşınız: _______

2- Cinsiyetiniz:  □ Erkek  □ Kadın

3- Doğum yeriniz: ____________

4- Devamlı yaşadığınız yer?

□ Lefkoşa  □ Girne  □ Gazimağusa  □ Güzelyurt  □ İскеle  □ Diğer

(belirtiniz) ______

5- Öğrenci misiniz?  □ Evet  □ Hayır

6- Şu anda çalışıyor musunuz?

□ Hayır

□ Evet, yarı-zamanlı bir işte

□ Evet, tam-zamanlı bir işte

7- Şu anki işiniz, sizin için uzun dönemli ve kalıcı bir iş midir?  □ Evet  □ Hayır
8- Mesleğiniz ile ilgili kendinizi geliştirmek için şu an eğitim, kurs programı ya da staj programlarına katılmayı planlıyor musunuz?

□ Evet  □ Hayır

9- Aşağıdaki cümlelerden hangisi sizi en doğru şekilde tanımlamaktadır?

□ Kendimi hiçbir açıdan tam bir yetişkin gibi hissetmiyorum.
□ Bazı açılardan kendimi bir yetişkin gibi hissediyorsam da, bazı açılardan hissetmiyorum.
□ Kendimi her açıdan tam bir yetişkin gibi hissediyorum.

10-Kendinizi evliliğe ne kadar hazır hissediyorsunuz?

□ Tamamen hazır  □ Nerdeyse hazır  □ Hiç hazır değil

11-Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeler arasında, şu anki aile yapınızı en doğru şekilde tanımlayanı seçiniz.

□ Anne-babam evlidirler. Ben her ikisyle birlikte yaşıyorum (lütfen 16. soruya geçiniz)
□ Anne-babam boşandılar. Ben annemle yaşiyorum.
□ Anne-babam boşandılar. Ben babamla yaşiyorum.
□ Anne-babam boşandılar. Ben annemle ve üvey babamla yaşiyorum.
□ Anne-babam boşandılar. Ben babamla ve üvey annemle yaşiyorum.
□ Anne-babam boşandılar. Ben akrabalarımla yaşiyorum.
□ Diğer (lütfen belirtiniz) ______________________________

### Anne-babanzı boşanmış ise,

12-Anne-babanzı boşandığı zaman kaç yaşındaydınız? ______

13-Boşandıktan sonra anne ve babanız bir başkaşı ile evlendi mi?

□ Annem evlendi  □ Babam evlendi

□ Hem annem hem de babam evlendi  □ Ne annem ne de babam evlenmedi

14-Anne-babanzı boşandıktan sonra sizi kiminle birlikte yaşamaya başladınız?
Birden fazla seçeneği işaretleyebilirsiniz.

☐ annem  ☐ babam  ☐ büyükanne/büyükbaba  ☐ diğer (lütfen belirtiniz): ________

15- Anne-babanzı boşandıktan sonra, evden ayrılan ebeveyniniz ile ne kadar sıkıktan sonra görüştüğünüz?

☐ Her gün  ☐ Her hafta  ☐ Her ay  ☐ Her yıl  ☐ Birkaç yılda bir  ☐ Hiçbir zaman

16- Anne-babınızdan herhangi biri bugüne dek herhangi psikolojik ve/veya psikiyatrik destek aldı mı?

☐ Sadece annem  ☐ Sadece babam

☐ Her ikisi de  ☐ Hiçbiri

17- Yaşamınız boyunca ailenizde (anne-babanz ve kardeşleriniz dışında) size duygu ve psikolojik destek sağlayan biri oldu mu?

☐ Evet  ☐ Hayır  (Hayır ise, lütfen 25. soruya geçiniz)

18- Evet ise, bu kişi kimdir?

☐ büyükanne/büyükbaba  ☐ teyze /hala

☐ dayı/amca  ☐ diğer (lütfen belirtiniz) _____________

Lütfen, 19-24 arasındaki soruları, 18. soruda belirttiğiniz kişi ile olan ilişkinizi düşünerek yanıtlayınız.

19- Bu kişi, bana bakım sağladı.

☐ Hiçbir zaman  ☐ Çok sık değil  ☐ Bazen  ☐ Sık sık  ☐ Her zaman

20- Bu kişi, bana duygu ve psikolojik destek sağladı.

☐ Hiçbir zaman  ☐ Çok sık değil  ☐ Bazen  ☐ Sık sık  ☐ Her zaman
21- Bu kişi, duygularıma saygı gösterdi.

☐ Hiçbir zaman   ☐ Çok sık değil   ☐ Bazen   ☐ Sık sık   ☐ Her zaman

22- Bu kişi, kendimi anlamamda bana yardımcı oldu.

☐ Hiçbir zaman   ☐ Çok sık değil   ☐ Bazen   ☐ Sık sık   ☐ Her zaman

23- Bu kişi, yaşadığım sorunları ifade etmemde bana yardımcı oldu.

☐ Hiçbir zaman   ☐ Çok sık değil   ☐ Bazen   ☐ Sık sık   ☐ Her zaman

24- Bu kişi, kendimi iyı hissetmedigim zamanlarda beni anlamaya çalıştı

☐ Hiçbir zaman   ☐ Çok sık değil   ☐ Bazen   ☐ Sık sık   ☐ Her zaman

**Aşağıdaki sorular romantik ilişkileriniz hakkında.**

25- Şu anda romantik bir ilişki içinde misiniz?

☐ Hayır   ☐ Evet

26- **Evet ise**, ne kadar süredir bu ilişkiyi sürdüyorsunuz? ___ yıl ve ___ ay

**LÜTFEN SONRAKİ BÖLÜME GEÇİNİZ**
V.2- TR Kısa Semptom Envanteri

Aşağıda, insanların bazen yaşadıkları sorunların bir listesi verilmiştir. Listedeki her maddeyi lütfen dikkatle okuyunuz. Her maddedeki sorunun SİZDE BUGÜN DAHİL, SON 7 GÜN DÖRDÜZ(171,621),(825,651) KADAR VAR OLDUĞUNU yandaki bölümde uygun olan yere işaretleyiniz.

Her maddedeki sorunun sizi ne kadar rahatsız veya huzursuz ettiğini aşağıdaki ölçü kullanarak değerlendiriniz.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Numara</th>
<th>Soru</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Biraz var</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Orta derecede var</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Oldukça fazla var</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Çok fazla var</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Bu belirtiler son 7 günürdür sizde ne kadar var?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bu belirtiler</th>
<th>Son 7 gündür sizde ne kadar var?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hiç</td>
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<tr>
<td>1. İçinizde sinirlilik ve titreme hali</td>
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<td>2. Baygınlık veya baş dönmesi</td>
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<td>3. Bir başka kişinin sizin düşüncelerinizi kontrol edeceğİ düşüncesi</td>
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<td>6. Çok kolayca kızip öfkelemek</td>
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<td>7. Göğüs veya kalp bölgesinde ağrılar hissetmek</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Meydanlık (açık) yerlerden korkma</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. Yaşamanıza son verme düşünceleri</td>
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<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>İnsanların çoğuna güvenilmeyeceği duygusu</td>
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<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>İştahta azalma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Hiçbir nedeni olmayan ani korkular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Kontrol edemediğiniz öfke patlamaları</td>
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<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Başka insanlarla beraberken bile yalnızlık hissetmek</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>İşleri bitirme konusunda kendini engellenmiş hissetmek</td>
</tr>
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<td>16.</td>
<td>Yalnız hissetmek</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Hüzünlü, kederli hissetmek</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Hiçbir şeye ilgi duymamak</td>
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<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>Ağlamaktı hissetmek</td>
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<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Kolayca incinebilmek, kırlmak</td>
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<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>İnsanların sizi sevmediğine veya kötü davranışına inanmak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Kendini başkalarından daha aşağı hissetmek</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Mide bozukluğu veya bulantu</td>
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<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>Diğerlerinin sizi gördüği ya da hakkınızda konuştuğu duygusu hissetmek</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>Uykuya dalmada güçlük çekmek</td>
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<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>Yaptığınız şeyler tekrar tekrar doğru mu diye kontrol etmek</td>
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<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>Karar vermede güçlük yaşamak</td>
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<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>Otobüs, tren, veya metro gibi araçlarla seyahat etmekten korkmak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>Nefes darlığı veya nefessiz kalmak</td>
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<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>Sıcak-soğuk nöbetleri geçirmek</td>
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<tr>
<td>31. Sizi korkuttuğu için bazı eşya, yer ya da etkinliklerden kaçınmak</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>32. Kafanızın “bomboş” kalması</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Bedeninizin bazı bölgederinde uyuşmalar veya karıncalanmalar hissetmek</td>
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<tr>
<td>34. Günahlarınızın cezalandırılmanız gerektiğini fıkrı</td>
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<tr>
<td>35. Gelecekle ilgili umutsuzluk duyguları yaşamak</td>
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<tr>
<td>36. Dikkati bir şey üzerinde toplama güçlüğü</td>
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<tr>
<td>37. Bedeninizin bazı bölgelerinde güçsüzlik hissi</td>
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<tr>
<td>38. Kendinizi gergin ve tedirgin hissetmek</td>
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<tr>
<td>39. Ölmek ve ölüm üzerine düşüncelerinizin olması</td>
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<tr>
<td>40. Birini dövme, ona zarar verme veya yaralama dürtüsü</td>
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<tr>
<td>41. Bir şeylerini kırmak veya parçalama dürtüsü</td>
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<tr>
<td>42. Başkalarının yanıldayken yanlış bir şeyler yapmamaya çalışmak</td>
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<tr>
<td>43. Kalabalıklarda rahatsızlık duymak</td>
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<tr>
<td>44. Bir başka insana hiç yakınlık duymamak</td>
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<tr>
<td>45. Dehşet ve panik nöbetleri yaşamak</td>
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<tr>
<td>46. Sık sık tartışmaya girmek</td>
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<tr>
<td>47. Yalnız bırakıldığınızda sınırlı hissetmek</td>
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<tr>
<td>48. Başarlarınızın bazı arkadaşlardan yeterince takdir görmedicine düşünmek</td>
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<tr>
<td>49. Yerinde duramayacak kadar kendini tedirgin hissetmek</td>
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<tr>
<td>50. Kendini deersiz görmek</td>
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<tr>
<td>51. Eğer izin verirseniz insanların sizi sömüreceğine inanmak</td>
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<tr>
<td>52. Suçluk duyguları hissetmek</td>
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<tr>
<td>53. Akınızla ilgili bir bozukluk olduğunu düşünmek</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
### V3- TR Ebeveyn ve Arkadaşlara Bağlanma Envanteri

Annenizle şu anki ilişkinizi düşünerek, aşağıdaki ifadeler ne kadar katıldığınızı 1'den 7'e bir sayıyla daire içine alarak belirtiniz. Lütfen boş bırakmayın ve yalnızca bir sayıyı işaretleyiniz.

1 = Hiçbir zaman  2  3  4  5  6  7 = Her zaman

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>İşaretleme</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 - Annem duyugularına saygı gösterir.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2 - Annemin başka birisinin olmasını isterdim.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3 - Annem beni olduğu gibi kabul eder.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4 - Sorunlarımız hakkında annemle konuşduğunda kendimden utanırım ya da kendimi kötü hissederim.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5 - Evde, annemin olduğu zamanlarda kolayca keyif kaçar.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6 - Annemin kendi problemlerini olduğundan, onu bir de benimkilerle sıkmak istemem.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7 - Kim olduğunu daha iyi anlamamda annem bana yol gösterir.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8 - Bir sorunum olduğunda da başım sıçıştıgında bunu anneme anlatırım.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9 - Anneme kızgınlık duyuyorum.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 - Annemden pek ilgi görmüyorum.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11 - Kızgın olduğumda annem anlayışlı olmaya çalışır.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 - Annem bir şeyin beni rahatsız ettiği hissederse, bana nedenini sorar.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Babanızla şu anki ilişkinizi düşünerek, aşağıdaki ifadelere ne kadar katıldığınızı 1’den 7’e bir sayıyı daire içine alarak belirtiniz. Lütfen boş bırakmayınız ve yalnızca bir sayıyı işaretleyiniz.

1 = Hiçbir zaman  2  3  4  5  6  7 = Her zaman

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1- Babam duygularına saygı gösterir.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2- Babamın başka biri olmasını isterdim.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3- Babam beni olduğum gibi kabul eder.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4- Sorunlarımız hakkında babamla konuştuğumda kendimden utanırım ya da kendimi kötü hissederim.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5- Evde, babamın olduğu zamanlarda kolayca keyifim kaçar.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6- Babamın kendi problemleri olduğundan onu bir de benimkilerle sıkmak istemem.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7- Kim olduğunu daha iyi anlamamda babam bana yol gösterir.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>8- Bir sorunum olduğunda ya da başım sıkıştığında bunu babama anlatırım.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>6</td>
</tr>
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<td>9- Babama kızgınlık duyarım.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10- Babamdan pek ilgi görmüyorum.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11- Kızgin olduğumda babam anlayışı olmaya çalışır.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12- Babam bir şeyin beni rahatsız ettiği hissedersen, bana nedenini sorar.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>6</td>
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</table>

LÜTFEN SONRAKİ BÖLÜME GEÇİNİZ
**EVLİ ANNE-BABAYA SAHİPSENİZ, LÜTFEN BU BÖLÜMÜ ATLAYINIZ VE SONRAKİ BÖLÜME GEÇİNİZ.**

V4 TR. Ebeveyn ve Arkadaşlara Bağlanma Envanteri –

Boşanma Öncesi İlişkiler Üzerine

Annenizle, ANNE-BABANIZ BOŞANMADAN ÖNCEKİ ilişkinizi düşünerek, aşağıdaki ifadelerde ne kadar katıldığınızı 1’den 7’e bir sayıya daire içine alarak belirtiniz.

1 = Hiçbir zaman  2  3  4  5  6  7= Her zaman

| 1-Anнем duygularına saygı gösterirdi. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 2-Annnen başka biri olmasını isterdim | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 3-Annem beni olduğunu gibi kabul ederdi. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 4-Sorunların hakkında annemle konuştuğunda kendimden utanırdım ya da kendimi kötü hissederdim. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 5-Annem de evde olduğunda kolayca keyfim kaçar. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 6-Annemin kendi problemleri olduğundan onu bir de benimkilerle sımak istemem di. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 7-Kim olduğunu daha iyi anlamamda annem bana yol gösterirdi. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 8-Bir sorunum olduğunda ya da başım sıkıştuğında bunu anneme anlatırdım. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 9-Anneme kızgınluk duyurdum. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 10-Annemden pek ilgi görmezdim. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 11-Kızgın olduğunda annem anlayışlı olmaya çalışıyordu. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
| 12-Annem bir şeyin beni rahatsız ettiğini hissettiğinde, bana nedenini sorardı. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 |
Babanızla, **ANNE-BABANIZ BOŞANMADAN ÖNCEKİ** ilişkinizi düşünerek, aşağıdaki ifadeleri ne kadar katıldığınızı belirtiniz.

1 = **Hiçbir zaman**  2  3  4  5  6  7 = **Her zaman**

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-</td>
<td>Babam duygularına saygı gösterirdi.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>2-</td>
<td>Babamın başka biri olmasını isterdim.</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>3-</td>
<td>Babam beni olduğum gibi kabul ederdi.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-</td>
<td>Sorunlarımız hakkında babamla konuştuğumda kendimden utanırdım ya da kendimi kötü hissederdim.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-</td>
<td>Babam da evde olduğunda kolayca keyifim kaçırdı.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>6-</td>
<td>Babamın kendi problemleri olduğundan onu bir de benimkilerle sıkmak istemezdim.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>7-</td>
<td>Kim olduğumu daha iyi anlamanda babam bana yol gösterirdi.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>8-</td>
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Lütfen her cümleyi dikkatle okuyup, **Doğru, Bazen/Biraz Doğru, Yanlış** cevaplardan size uygun olanını işaretleyiniz.

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**LÜTFEN SONRAKİ BÖLÜME GEÇİNİZ**
Çocukların Anne-Baba Çatışmasını Algılaması Ölçeği
Boşanma Öncesi İlişkiler Üzerine

**EVLİ ANNE-BABAYA SAHİPSENİZ, LÜTFEN BU BÖLÜMÜ ATLAYINIZ VE SONRAKİ BÖLÜME GEÇİNİZ**

Aşağıdaki sorulara anne-babanızın evli oldukları zamanlardaki ilişkilerini düşünerek cevap veriniz. Lütfen her cümleyi dikkatle okuyup, **Doğru, Bazen/Biraz Doğru, Yanlış** cevaplarından sizi uygun olanını işaretleyiniz.

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LÜTFEN SONRAKİ BÖLÜME GEÇİNİZ.
V7-TR. Stresli Durumlarla Başetme Stratejileri Ölçeği

Bu anket yaşamınızda ortaya çıkan bir takım önemli problemlerin nasıl üstesinden geldiğinize ilişkin sorulardan oluşmaktadır. Lütfen son 12 aydır yaşadığınız en önemli problemin veya stresli durumun (örneğin, hastalık veya bir yakının ölümü, finansal veya iş sorunları, bir ilişkinin sona ermesi) ne olduğunu düşünün.

Aşağıda yer alan boş alana bu problemin ne olduğunu kısaça açıklayınız. Eğer önemli bir problem yaşamadıysanız, üstesinden geldiğiniz küçük bir problemi belirtiniz.

1. Kısm

Yaşadığınız problemi veya stresli durumu anlatınız:

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2. Kısm

Aşağıdaki her ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyun. Birinci kısımda anlattığınız problem ile bağlantılı olarak her ifadede belirtilen davranış, hangi sıklıkla gösterdiğiniz uygun kutuyu işaretlerek belirtiniz.

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<th></th>
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<th>Evet, oldukça sık</th>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Bu problemi çözmek için farklı çıkış yolları düşündünüz mü?</td>
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<td>Kendinizi daha iyi hissettirecek şeyler söylediğiniz mi?</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Bu problemi eşiniz veya başka bir akrabanızla konuştunuz mı?</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Bir çözüm planı yapıp, uyguladınız mı?</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Yaşadığınız herşeyi unutmayıedenediniz mi?</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Birşeylerin zamanla değişebileceğini hissetiniz mi?</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Benzer bir problemi yaşayan kişilere yardım etmeye çalıştınız mı?</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>Kızgün veya üzgün hissettiğinizde, hıncınızı başkalarından çıkardığınız oldu mu?</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>Geri durarak, duruma daha tarafsız olmaya çalıştınız mı?</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>Daha kötü şeylerin de olabileceğini aklına getirdiğiniz oldu mu?</td>
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<td>Bu problemi arkadaşınızla konuştunuzmu?</td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Ne yapılması gerektiğini biliyor muydunuz ve gerekenin yapılması için çok çabaldınız mı?</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>Problemi düşünmemeye çalıştınız mı?</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>Problem üzerinde hiçbir kontrolümüz olmadığını farkettiniz mi?</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>Yeni aktivitelerde bulundunuz mu?</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>Şansa bırakıp riskli şeyler yaptınız mı?</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>Yapılabileceklerinizi ya da söyleyebileceklerinizi uzun uzadıya kafanızda kurdunuz mu?</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>Durumun olumlu yanını görmeyi denediniz mi?</td>
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<td>19</td>
<td>Problem hakkında bir uzmana (örneğin, doktor, avukat) konuşturunuz mu?</td>
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<td>Ne istediğinize karar verip, elde etmek için çok uğraştınız mı?</td>
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<td>İçinde bulunduğunuzdan daha iyi bir yer ve zamanda olmayı hayal ettiniz mi?</td>
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<td>22</td>
<td>Sonucun kadere bağlı olabileceği düşündünüz mü?</td>
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<td>Yeni arkadaşlar edinmeye çalıştınız mı?</td>
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<td>İnsanlardan genellikle uzak durdunuz mu?</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>Birşeylerin ne yönde değişebileceğini tahmin etmeye çalıştınız mı?</td>
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<td>Benzer problemleri olanlara kıyasla problemden daha kolay kurtuldunuz düşünüyorsunuz mü?</td>
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<td>Problemi çözme için en az iki farklı yol denediniz mı?</td>
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<td>29</td>
<td>Yeniden düşünmek zorunda olacağınızı bilseniz bile, bir süreliğine problem hakkında düşünmeyi ertelediniz mi?</td>
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<td>30</td>
<td>Problemi kabullendiniz mi?</td>
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<td>31</td>
<td>Eğlenmek amacıyla daha sık okuma yaptınız mı?</td>
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<td>Öfkenizi boşaltmak için çığlık attınız veya bağırdığınız oldu mu?</td>
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<td>Olayın içerisindeki kişisel anlamlar bulmaya çalıştınız mı?</td>
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<td>Kendinize, durumların daha iyi olabileceğini söylemeye çalıştınız mı?</td>
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<td>35</td>
<td>Olay hakkında daha fazla şey</td>
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<td>öğrenmeye çalıştınız mı?</td>
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<td>36 Kendi başınıza daha fazla şey yapmayı öğrenmeye denediniz mi?</td>
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<td>37 Problemin uzaklaşması veya atlatılması dilediniz mi?</td>
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<td>38 Olası en kötü sonucu beklediniz mi?</td>
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<td>39 Eğlenceli aktivitelerle daha fazla zaman geçirdiniz mi?</td>
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<td>40 Duygularınızı boşaltmak için ağladınız mı?</td>
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<td>41 Sizden talep edilebilecek yenilikleri tahmin etmeye çalıştınız mı?</td>
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<td>42 Olayın hayatınızı olumlu yönde nasıl değiştirebileceğini düşününüz mü?</td>
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<tr>
<td>43 Yolunuzu bulmak ve/veya güçlü olmak için dua ettiniz mi?</td>
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<td>44 Olayları aksına bırakıp sadece günün ne getireceğini beklediniz mı?</td>
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<td>45 Problemin gerçekten ne kadar ciddi olduğunu inkar etmeye çalıştınız mı?</td>
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<td>46 Herşeyin yine eskisi gibi olabileceğine dair umudunuzu kaybettiniz mı?</td>
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<td>47 Olayların üstesinden gelebilmek için çalışmalarınızı veya diğer aktivitelerinize döndünüz mü?</td>
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<tr>
<td>48 Sırf yapmak için yaptığınız birseyler oldu mu?</td>
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LÜTFEN SONRAKİ BÖLÜME GEÇİNİZ.
V8-TR. Yanı İlkilerde Yaşantılar Envanteri

Aşağıdaki maddeler romantik ilişkilerinizde hissettiğiniz duygu duyguları hakkındadır.

Bu araştırmada sizin ilişkininize yalnızca şu anda değil genel olarak neler olduğu ya da neler yaşadığına ilgi göstermektedir. Maddelerde sözü geçen "birlikte olduğu kişi" ifadesi ile romantik ilişkinin kastedilmiştir. Eğer bir romantik ilişki içerisinde değilseniz, aşağıdaki maddeleri bir ilişki içinde olduğunuzu varsayarak cevaplandırınız. Her bir maddenin ilişkininizdeki duyguları ve düşüncelerini ne oranda yansıttığını karşılarındaki 7 aralıklı ölçek üzerinde, ilgili rakam üzerine çarpı (X) koyarak gösteriniz.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Birlikte olduğum kişinin sevgisini kaybetmekten korkuyorsanız</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Gerçekte ne hissettiğimi birlikte olduğum kişiye göstermemeyi tercih ederim.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Sıklıkla, birlikte olduğum kişinin artık benimle olmak istemesinin korkusuna kapıldığını duyarım.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Özel duyu ve düşüncelerimi birlikte olduğum kişiyle paylaşmak konusunda kendimi rahat hissederim.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Sıklıkla, birlikte olduğum kişinin beni gerçekten sevmediği kaygısına kapıldığını duyarım.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişileri güvenip inanmak konusunda kendimi rahat bırakmakta zorlanıyorum.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilerin beni, benim onları önemsemiş olduğum kadar önemsemiyeceklerinden endişe duyarım.</td>
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<td>8. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilerle yakın olma konusunda çok rahatım.</td>
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<td>9. Sıklıkla, birlikte olduğum kişinin bana duyduğu hislerin benim ona duyduğun hisler kadar güçlü olması istemiyorum.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilerle açılmak konusunda kendimi rahat hissetmem.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. İlişkilerimi kafam çok takarım.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilerle fazla yakın olmamayı tercih ederim.</td>
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<tr>
<td>13. Benden uzakta olduğunda, birlikte olduğum kişinin başka birine iyi duyabilmek için korkusuna kapıldığını duyarım.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>14. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişi benimle çok yakın olmaktan istedığinde rahatsızlık duyarım.</td>
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<tr>
<td>15. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişileri duygularını gösterdiklerinde, onların benim için aynı şeyleri hissetmeyeceğinden korkuyorum.</td>
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<tr>
<td>16. Birlikte olduğum kişiyle kolayca yaklaşılabiliyorum.</td>
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| 17. Birlikte olduğum kişinin beni terk edeceğinden pek endişe duymam. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 18. Birlikte olduğum kişiyle yakınlaşmak bana zor gelmez. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 19. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişi kendimden şüphe etmeme neden olur. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 20. Genellikle, birlikte olduğum kişiyle sorunlarını ve kaygılarını tartışırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 21. Terk edilmekten pek korkmam. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 22. Zor zamanlarda, romantik ilişkide olduğum kişiden yardım istedigim kadar yakınlaşmak istemediğini düşünürüm. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 23. Birlikte olduğum kişinin, bana benim istediğim kadar yakınlaşmak istemediğini düşünürüm. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 24. Birlikte olduğum kişiye hemen hemen her şeyi anlatırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 25. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişiler bazen bana olan duyugularını sebepsiz yere değiştirmirler. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 26. Başımından geçenleri birlikte olduğum kişiyle konuşurum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 27. Çok yakın olma arzum bazen insanları korkutup uzaklaştırır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 28. Birlikte olduğum kişiler benimle çok yakınlaştığında gergin hissedерim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 29. Romantik ilişkide olduğum bir kişi beni yakından tanıdıkça, “gerçek ben”den hoşlanmayacağından korkarım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 30. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilere güvenip inanma konusunda rahatlmır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 31. Birlikte olduğum kişiden ihtiyaç duyduğum şefkat ve desteğe görememek beni öfkelendirir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 32. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişiye güvenip inanmak benim için kolaydır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 33. Başka insanlara denk olamamakta endişe duyarım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 34. Birlikte olduğum kişiye şefkat göstermek benim için kolaydır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 35. Birlikte olduğum kişi beni sadece kızgıncı olduğumda önemsiz. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 36. Birlikte olduğum kişi beni ve ihtiyaçlarını gerçeklen anlar. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

LÜTFEN SONRAKİ BÖLÜME GEÇİNIZ.
V9-TR. Boşanmaya Karşı Tutumlar Ölçeği

Aşağıdaki her durum için, birkaç yıldır evli olduğunuzu ve çocukunuzun olmadığını varsayın. Lütfen her durum için eşinizden boşanmaya karar verme olasılığınızın ne olduğunu belirtiniz.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1—Hiç olası değil</th>
<th>2—Olası değil</th>
<th>3—Kararsız</th>
<th>4—Biraz olası</th>
<th>5—Çok olası</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Siz ve eşiniz artık birbirinizi sevmiyor olsaydınız?</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Eşiniz tarafından fiziksel istismara uğruyor olsaydınız?</td>
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<td>3. Süreç içinde eşinizin zannetığınız gibi bir kişi olmadığını görseydiniz? (örneğin, sorumsuz, güvenilmez vb)?</td>
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<td>4. Eşinizle aranızdaki tüm gizem yok olsa ve romantizmden eser kalmamış olsaydı?</td>
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<td>5. Eşiniz size psikolojik şiddet gösteriyor olsaydı (örneğin, sizi sürekli olarak küçümsemesi, aşağılaması)?</td>
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6. Eşiniz başka birisiyle romantik ilişki içine girseydi?

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<th>1. hiç olası değil</th>
<th>2- olası değil</th>
<th>3- kararsız</th>
<th>4- biraz olası</th>
<th>5- çok olası</th>
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7. Siz ve eşiniz gün içerisinde sürekli kavga ediyor olsaydınız?

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<tr>
<th>1. hiç olası değil</th>
<th>2- olası değil</th>
<th>3- kararsız</th>
<th>4- biraz olası</th>
<th>5- çok olası</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Anket soruları bitmiştir.

Katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.
KATILIMCI İZİN FORMU
(2. Bölüm Mülakat Bölümü)

Kibrıs’ta Beliren Yetişkinlik Dönemindeki Bireylerin Psikolojik İyilik Halleri, Romantik Bağlanma Şekilleri ve Boşanmaya Karşı Tutumları

Kibrıs’ta boşanmış ve boşanmamış ebeveynlere sahip beliren yetişkenlerin psikolojik iyilik hallerini, romantik bağlanma şekillerini ve boşanmaya karşı tutumlarını incelemeyi amaçlayan bu araştırmanın birinci kısmına daha önce katıldınız. Birinci kısmında, bir demografik bilgi formu ve aile ilişkileriniz, stresle başa çıkma yollarınız, romantik bağlanma şekilleriniz ve boşanmaya karşı tutumlarınızı içeren bir dizi ölçüt doldurduğunuz. Araştırmanın ikinci kısmını, boşanmaya karşı tutumlarınız, aile ilişkileriniz ve stresli olaylar ile başa çıkma stilleriniz hakkında daha fazla bilgi edinmek amacıyla bir görüşme içerecektir. Araştırmacı sizinle bireysel olarak özel bir odada görüşecek, görüşmeler yaklaşık 1 saat sürecek ve ses kaydı yapılacaktır.


Görüşme soruları kişisel rahatsızlığınızı önleyecek şekilde düzenlenmiştir fakat halen herhangi bir sebepten dolayı huzursuz hissediyorsanız, araştırmacısı görüşmeyecek, görüşmeler yaklaşık 1 saat sürecek ve ses kaydı yapılacaktır. Çalışmadan çekilmeniz durumunda, görüşme kayıtlarınız silinecektir.

Eğer bu araştırma ve/veya haklarınız hakkında daha fazla sorunuz varsa veya bir şikayet veya endişeniz bildirmek isteriniz, aşağıda iletişim bilgileri yer alan araştırmacıyla iletişime geçebilirsiniz.
Katıldığınız için teşekkür ederim.

Araştırmacı:
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Görüşmeye katılmayı kabul ediyorum ve herhangi bir zamanda cevaplamayı bırakabileceğimi biliyorum.

Vereceğim bilgilerin araştırmacı tarafından gizli tutulacağını ve kimliğimin bulguların sunulmasında ve basımında korunacağını anladım.

İmza …………………
Tarih …………………

Görüşmeye katılmayı kabul etmiyorum.

İmza ……………
Tarih ……………


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Başkan
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APPENDIX VII TR

BİLGİLENDİRME FORMU

Kıbrıs’ta Beliren Yetişkinlerin Psikolojik Sağlıkları, Romantik Bağlanmaları ve Boşanmaya Karşı Tutumları

Araştırmannın Başlığı:

Kıbrıs’taki Boşanmış ve Boşanmamış Ebeveynlere Sahip Beliren Yetişkenlerin Psikolojik Sağlıklarının, Romantik Bağlanmalarının ve Boşanmaya Karşı Tutumlarının Değişip Değemediğini İncelemek için Yapılan Araştırmada, Kıbrıs’taki boşanmış ve boşanmamış ebeveynlere sahip beliren yetişkenlerin psikolojik sağlıklarının, romantik bağımlınlarının ve boşanmaya karşı tutumlarının değişip değişmediğini incelemek için yapılmıştır.

Çalışma boyunca elde edilen tüm bilgiler kimlik belirtmeksizin güvenli bir şekilde gizli tutulacaktır. Eğer araştırmadan çekilmek istiyorsanız, katılımcı numaranızı bize bildirerek tüm bilgilerinizi dosyalarımızdan silinecektir.

Fakat, çalışmamızda geri çekilme talebinizi yaptığı zamanda bilgilerin özetini hali hazırda yayın için kullanılabilecektir.

Araştırma ile ilgili herhangi bir rahatsızlık veya sıkıntı duyuyorsanız lütfen aşağıdaki kurumlardan biri ile iletişim kurunuz:

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<tr>
<th>Araştırmacı Başkanı</th>
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<th>Bölüm</th>
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<tr>
<td>Fatoş Özeylem</td>
<td>Prof. Dr. Cecilia Essau</td>
<td>Roehampton</td>
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<td><a href="mailto:C.Essau@roehampton.ac.uk">C.Essau@roehampton.ac.uk</a></td>
<td><a href="mailto:D.Bray@roehampton.ac.uk">D.Bray@roehampton.ac.uk</a></td>
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<td>0533 861 12 04</td>
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<td>+44 (0)20 8392 3627</td>
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</table>

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Eğer Yakın Doğu Üniversitesi’nde (YDÜ) öğrenciyseniz, YDÜ Danışmanlık Merkezi. Telefon: (0392) 223 64 64 (dahili:224)

Eğer Girne Amerikan Üniversitesi’nde (GAÜ) öğrenciyseniz, GAU Danışmanlık Merkezi. Telefon: (0392) 650 2000 (dahili:1265)

Eğer öğrenci değilseniz, Barış Sinir ve Ruh Hastalıkları Hastanesi. Telefon: (0392) 228 54 41
Appendix VIII-TR

Görüşme Soruları  
(boşanmış anne-babaya sahip katılımcılar)

Görüşmenin Açılışı:

Merhaba !. Benim ismim Fatoş Özeylem ve Kıbrıs'ta beliren yetişkinlik dönemindeki bireylerin psikolojik iyilik halleri, romantik bağlanma şekilleri ve boşanmaya karşı tutumları üzerine bir araştırma yapıyorum. Aile ilişkilerinin ve stresle başaçıkma şekillerinin beliren yetişkinlik dönemindeki bireylerin psikolojik iyilik halleri, romantik bağlanma şekilleri ve boşanmaya karşı tutumları ile nasıl ilişkili olabileceği araştırıyorum.

Araştırmanın ikincisi kısmını oluşturan bu görüşmede size, anne ve babanız ile olan ilişkileriniz, geniş ailenizdede bulunan ve size duygusal destek sağlamış olan olası bir kişiyle olan ilişkınız, stresli yaşam olayları ile genellikle nasıl başaçıklaştığınız ve bunlara ek olarak boşanmaya karşı tutumlarınız hakkında sorular sormak istiyorum.

Görüşme süresince paylaşıacağınız tüm deneyimlerin tamamen gizli tutulacağından ve bu nedenle görüşmenin herhangi bir anında, neden belirtmeksizin görüşmeyi sonlandırma hakkınızı elimden vermemek istiyorum.

(Katılımcı izin formunun verilmesi)


1. Anne-babanzın boşanmadan önce, babanızla ilişkilerinizin nasıl olduğunu anlatır mısın?

2. Anne-babanzın boşanmadan önce, annenizle ilişkilerinizin nasıl olduğunu anlatır mısın?

3. Anne-babanzın boşandıktan sonra, babanız ile ilişkiniz nasıl devam etti? Boşanmadan önce aranızdaki ilişkiye benziyorum yoksa zaman içerisinde farklılaştı mı?

4. Anne-babanzın boşandıktan sonra, anneniz ile ilişkiniz nasıl devam etti? Boşanmadan önce aranızdaki ilişkiye benziyorum yoksa zaman içerisinde farklılaştı mı?
5. Anne- babanızın boşanmadan önceki ilişkileri hakkında ne söyleyebilirsiniz?


7. Doldurmuş olduğunuz ankette,……….tarafından (demografik bilgi formunda belirtilen yakın akraba), anne-babanız boşandıktan sonra duygusal destek aldığınızı belirttiniz. Bu kişiyle, anne-babanız boşanmadan önceki ve boşandıktan sonraki ilişkinizin hakkında ne söyleyebilirsiniz?

**Bölüm 2.**

1. Anne-babanızın boşanmış olması hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz? Bunu deneyimlemek sizin için nasıl bir durumdu? Bunu nasıl ele aldınız?

**Bölüm 3.** Şimdi ise size boşanma hakkındaki düşüncelerinize yönelik sorular sormak istiyorum. Bunun için size bir senaryo anlatacağım.

Birkaç yıldır evli olduğunuzu ve çocuğuınızın olmadığını varsayın.

1. Siz ve eşiniz artık birbirinizi sevmiyor olsaydınız, eşinizden ne olasılıkla boşanırdınız?

2. Eşiniz tarafından fiziksel istismara uğrur olsaydınız, eşinizden ne olasılıkla boşanırdınız?

3. Süreç içinde eşinizin zannetğiniği gibi bir kişi olmadığını göreseydiniz (örneğin, sorumsuz, güvenilmez vb), eşinizden ne olasılıkla boşanırdınız?

4. Eşinizle aranızdaki tüm gizemin yok olsa ve romantizmden eser kalmamış olsaydı, eşinizden ne olasılıkla boşanırdınız?

5. Eşiniz size psikolojik şiddet gösteriyor olsaydı (örneğin, sizi sürekli olarak küçümsemesi, aşağılaması), eşinizden ne olasılıkla boşanırdınız?
6. Eşiniz başka birisiyle romantik ilişkisi içine gireydi, eşinizden ne olasılıkla boşanırdınız?

7. Siz ve eşiniz gün içerisinde sürekli kavga ediyor olsaydınız, eşinizden ne olasılıkla boşanırdınız?

Görüşmenin sonlandırılması:

Sorularım bitmiştir. Görüşmeyi artık sonlandırabiliriz.
Katılımınızı için tekrar çok teşekkür ederim!
Görüşmenin Açılışı:


Görüşme süresince paylaşacağınız tüm deneyimlerinin tamamen gizli tutulacağı ve neden belirtmeksizin görüşmeyi sonlandırma hakkınızı da yinelemek istiyorum.

(Katılımcı izin formunun verilmesi)

Bölüm 1. Şimdi size anne - babanız ile olan ilişkileriniz hakkında sorular sormak istiyorum.

1. Babanızla genel olarak ilişkilerinizin nasıl olduğunu anlatır mısın?
2. Annenizle genel olarak ilişkilerinizin nasıl olduğunu anlatır mısın?
3. Anneniz ile ve/veya babanız ile geçmişte olan ilişkinizin yıllar içinde değiştiğini düşünüyor musunuz? Nasıl?
4. Doldurmuş olduğunuz ankette,........tarafından (demografik bilgi formunda belirtilen yakın akına), duygusal destek aldığınızı belirttiniz. Bu kişiyle, genel olarak ilişkiniz hakkında ne söyleyebilirsiniz?

**Bölüm 2.** Anne-bababınızın boşanmış olsaydı, bu durum hakkında ne düşünürdünüz? Bunu hayal etmek sizin için nasıl bir durumdu? Bunu deneyimlemek sizin için nasıl olurdu?

**Bölüm 3.** Şimdi ise size boşanma hakkındaki düşüncelerinize yönelik sorular sormak istiyorum. Bunun için size bir senaryo anlatacağım.

**Birkaç yılın evli olduğunuzu ve çocuğunuzun olmadığına varsayın.**

1. Siz ve eşiniz artık birbirinizi sevmiyor olsaydınız, eşinizden ne olasılıkla boşanırdınız?

2. Eşiniz tarafından fiziksel istismara uğrur olsaydınız, eşinizden ne olasılıkla boşanırdınız?

3. Sürekçe içinde eşinizin zannetığınız gibi bir kişi olmadığına görseydiniz (örneğin, sorunsuz, güvenilmez vb), eşinizden ne olasılıkla boşanırdınız?

4. Eşinizle aranızdaki tüm gizemin yok olsa ve romantizmenden eser kalmamış olsaydı, eşinizden ne olasılıkla boşanırdınız?

5. Eşiniz size psikolojik şiddet gösteriyor olsaydı (örneğin, sizi sürekli olarak küçümsemiş, aşağılaması), eşinizden ne olasılıkla boşanırdınız?

6. Eşiniz başka birisiyle romantik ilişki içine girseydi, eşinizden ne olasılıkla boşanırdınız?

7. Siz ve eşiniz gün içerisinde sürekli kavga ediyor olsaydınız, eşinizden ne olasılıkla boşanırdınız?

Görüşmenin sonlandırılması:

Sorularım bitmiştir. Görüşmeyi artık sonlandırabiliriz. Katılımınız için tekrar çok teşekkür ederim!
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