

ATTACHMENT FIGURE TRANSFERENCE, CAREGIVING STYLES AND  
MARITAL SATISFACTION IN ARRANGED AND LOVE MARRIAGES

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## **ABSTRACT**

### **ATTACHMENT FIGURE TRANSFERENCE, CAREGIVING STYLES AND MARITAL SATISFACTION IN ARRANGED AND LOVE MARRIAGES**

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The study aims to investigate the effects of married women's attachment security, caregiving styles, how they initiated marriage (i.e., love vs. arranged) and whether they have egalitarian or traditional marriage on their marital satisfaction and attachment figure transference to their husband. It is expected that attachment to spouse would be stronger and attachment functions would be transferred earlier in love marriages than arranged marriages. Moreover, caregiving styles, attachment security, and egalitarian structure of marriage are expected to predict transference of

attachment functions to husbands and marital satisfaction. Married women (N = 204) filled out a questionnaire package including the measures of division of labor in house chores, significant people in their life, attachment anxiety and avoidance, caregiving styles, and marital satisfaction. A series of ANCOVA controlling for the duration of marriage was conducted to compare the participants with arranged and love marriages. Separate hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to predict attachment strength and satisfaction separately for love and arranged marriages. Results revealed no significant difference between arranged and love marriages on the strength and timing of attachment figure transference to spouse. In both types of marriage, sensitive and responsive caregiving styles and low attachment avoidance were associated with stronger attachment to spouse. Although those with egalitarian relationships reported higher levels of marital satisfaction in both love and arranged marriages, women with both egalitarian and love marriages reported the highest levels of marital satisfaction than those with traditional and love marriage. The findings were discussed considering cultural context and previous work.

**Keywords:** Attachment figure transference, Attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance, Caregiving styles, Division of labor, Love-initiated and arranged marriages

## ÖZ

### GÖRÜCÜ USULÜ VE AŞK EVLİLİKLERİNDE BAĞLANMA FİGÜRÜ AKTARIMI, BAKIM VERME STİLLERİ VE EVLİLİK DOYUMU

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Bu çalışmanın amacı kadınların evlilikteki bağlanma kaygı ve kaçınmalarının, eşlerine bakım verme stillerinin, görücü usulü veya aşk evliliği yapmış olmalarının ve demokratik veya geleneksel evliliğe sahip olmalarının evlilik doyumlarına ve eşlerine bağlanma figürü aktarımına olan etkilerini incelemektir. Görücü usulü evliliklere göre aşk evliliklerinde eşe bağlanmanın daha güçlü olacağı ve bağlanmanın temel bileşenlerinin eşe daha çabuk aktarılacağı öngörülmüştür. Ayrıca, eşe bakım verme stillerinin, bağlanmaya ilişkin bireysel farklılıkların (örneğin

bağlanma kaygı ve kaçınma düzeyleri) ve demokratik evlilik yapısının hem bağlanmanın temel bileşenlerinin eşe aktarımıyla hem de evlilik doyumuyla ilişkili olmaları beklenmektedir. Evli kadınlara (N = 204) günlük ev işlerinin paylaşımını, yaşamlarındaki önemli kişileri, bağlanmaya ilişkin bireysel farklılıklarını, eşlerine bakım verme stillerini ve evlilik doyumlarını değerlendiren bir anket uygulanmıştır. Görücü usulü veya aşk evliliği yapmış katılımcıları başlıca değişkenler açısından karşılaştırmak için evlilik süresi kontrol edilerek bir dizi ANCOVA analizi yapılmıştır. Ayrıca, bağlanma gücünü ve evlilik doyumunu yordamak için iki evlilik grubu için ayrı ayrı aşamalı regresyon analizleri yapılmıştır. Bulgular iki evlilik grubu arasında bağlanmanın temel bileşenlerinin aktarımı, aktarım gücü ve zamanı bakımından anlamlı farklılık olmadığını göstermiştir. Her iki evlilik tipinde de kadınların duyarlı ve uyumlu bakım verme stilleri, ve düşük kaçınma düzeyleri eşe bağlanma gücüyle ve eşe bağlanma figürü aktarımıyla olumlu yönde ilişkili bulunmuştur. Evliliğin gelenekselden ziyade demokratik bir yapıya sahip olması her iki evlilik grubunda da evlilik doyumunu olumlu yönde etkilerken, gruplar arasında hem aşk evliliği yapmış hem de demokratik evlilik yapısına sahip olan kadınların en yüksek evlilik doyumunu rapor ettikleri gözlenmiştir. Çalışmanın bulguları kültürel örüntüler ve geçmiş çalışmalar dikkate alınarak tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Bağlanma figürü aktarımı, Bağlanma kaygı ve kaçınma düzeyleri, Bakım verme stilleri, Günlük ev işlerinin paylaşımı, Görücü usulü ve aşk evlilikleri

*To my parents **Semra and Hasan Gündođdu,**  
to my little brother **Erhan Gündođdu**  
&  
to my dear husband **Ozan Serhat Aktürk***



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## **CHAPTER 1**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1 General Introduction**

The aim of the present study is to examine the dynamics of attachment security and attachment figure transference in different types of marriage, namely arranged and love marriages. In this regard, attachment patterns, caregiving styles, and the structure of the marriage (egalitarian vs. traditional) are examined in the context of marital functioning. Specifically, the factors affecting the transference of attachment components from parents to partners will be investigated considering the tenets of attachment theory and previous research. It is expected that the length of relationship, individual differences in attachment insecurity (i.e., attachment anxiety and avoidance), the types of marriage, caregiving styles, and the structure of the marriage (egalitarian versus traditional) regarding the division of labor in the household will be associated with the attachment figure transference and marital satisfaction.

Although attachment transference has been examined in a number of studies in recent years, research examining the antecedents and correlates of attachment

transference from parents to partners and/or spouses is very rare and has left unexamined in Turkish cultural context. This study aims to contribute to the current literature by exploring the dynamics of attachment transference among couples with arranged and love marriages. On the basis of past literature, on the one hand, it can be assumed that spouses in love initiated marriages would transfer their attachment functions to their partners more successfully than the ones in arranged marriages. On the other hand, considering that intimacy as a major factor of attachment figure transference and the nature of marriage regardless of how it is initiated to begin with, includes sex and intimacy, and hence, can fundamentally shape attachment dynamic together with its strength and timing of the transference of attachment to the spouse. It is also expected that those who have transferred the attachment functions to their spouses successfully will be more satisfied in their marriages regardless of whether they have love or arranged marriages.

Considering the extensive evidence on the link between adult attachment security and relationship satisfaction, it is proposed that women who have secure attachment (i.e., low levels of both attachment anxiety and avoidance) they would successfully transfer their attachment functions to the spouses relatively in the earlier stages of the marriage than those with insecure attachment in both types of marriages, However, it may be relatively earlier in loved marriages than arranged ones.

Furthermore, past studies have shown that caregiving styles play critical role in marital relationships. Therefore it is hypothesized are that having a responsive and

sensitive caregiving style would be positively associated with both successful transference of attachment functions and high levels of marital satisfaction. Finally, it is assumed that women with egalitarian marriages would be more successful in transferring their attachment functions to the husbands and would be more satisfied with their marriage as compared to women with traditional marriages.

In the following sections, first, the theoretical background of attachment theory and the related literature will be briefly presented. Second, the dynamics of marriage from the perspective of attachment theory will be covered. Third, the type of marriages (love vs. arranged marriages) will be discussed from the attachment and system perspectives. Lastly, the objectives of current study and the main hypotheses will be presented.

## **1.2 The Brief History of Attachment Theory and Adult Attachment**

### **1.2.1 Theoretical Background of Attachment Theory**

Attachment theory can best be described in two levels, as a “normative human behavior” and as individual differences in close (attachment) relationships. The former level focuses on the normative attachment behaviors that are common among human and other primates, and deals with the dynamics of the attachment behavioral systems and their developmental trajectories. The latter one concerns with the individual differences in the attachment system operation as secure versus insecure styles (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). In this section, normative aspects of the

attachment behavioral system, individual differences as well as the functions and nature of internal working models of attachment will be briefly presented.

### **1.2.1.1 Normative Attachment Process**

Attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969/1982, 1973) proposes that children have an innate attachment system consisting of attachment feelings and behaviors. This system has evolved to protect infants from danger by ensuring closeness and proximity to the mother. Bowlby claimed that proximity seeking is a natural reaction as the primary strategy of attachment behavioral system when infants are in need of protection or support. Infants are born with limited capacity for feeding, exploring the environment, and defending themselves from danger. Thus, from the evolutionary perspective, proximity seeking behaviors of infant increase the likelihood of protection and provide the child an advantage for survival.

Activation of attachment system depends on the attachment figure's availability, and the infant achieves 'felt security' if the attachment figure is accessible in times of need (Sroufe & Waters, 1977) which results in the activation of other behavioral systems, such as the exploratory, caregiving, sociable, and fear system with the passage of the time (Cassidy, 2008). Hence, the level of availability, sensitivity, and responsiveness of the attachment figure, who is the fundamental caregiver, to the child's proximity seeking behaviors is very critical for the functioning of other behavioral systems (Bowlby, 1969/1982).

Bowlby (1988) claims that the nature of the child's tie to his/her mother develops as a result of a distinctive and in part preprogrammed set of behavior patterns embedded in human nature. These genetic blueprint patterns get shaped during the early months of life and have the effect of keeping the child in more or less close to his/her mother figure. Bowlby also suggests that proximity maintenance (including proximity seeking and separation protest), safe haven, and secure base are the defining features of attachment and they are the basic functions of an attachment relationship.

Attachment formation between infant and caregiver proceeding through a series of phases begins in the first week of the life and ends sometime toward the end of the second year (Bowlby, 1969/1982). Bowlby suggests that in the formation process, there are basically three phases. Close physical proximity is the first phase; safe haven by making associations between caregiver and comfort, and alleviation of distress is the second phase; and secure base in which the infant begins to protest separations and uses caregiver as a base of security for exploration is the final phase.

At the end of attachment formation process, a goal corrected partnership comes into play. In the goal-corrected partnership, the goal of proximity maintenance is adjusted for the child's ability to delay gratification and to mentally represent the caregiver's availability (Bowlby, 1969/1982, 1973). In this normative process, formation of attachment internal working models as the cognitive/emotional representations of early attachment experiences which guide expectations, beliefs, emotions, and behaviors in intimate relationships throughout the life-span is the

critical determinant of individual differences in attachment (Bowlby, 1973, Cassidy, 2008).

### **1.2.1.2 Individual Differences in Attachment**

Bowlby (1969/1982) emphasized the differences in patterns of attachment and Ainsworth and her colleagues (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978) proposed a laboratory observation procedure which is called *Strange Situation* (SS) that enabled researchers to discriminate attachment patterns systematically by activating attachment under a relatively stressful situation. In SS procedure, the behaviors of infants are observed under the three stressful components which are a strange environment, interaction with a stranger, and two short separations from the primary caregiver (mostly the mother); and a reunion episode with the caregiver. These stressful situations result in the activation attachment behaviors which are proximity maintenance, safe haven, and secure base behaviors. Particularly, Ainsworth focused on whether and when infants sought proximity and contact, to what extent they were comforted by such contact and accepted it, and whether their exploratory behaviors were facilitated by the caregiver's presence.

On the basis of infants' reactions during the SS procedure, three patterns of attachment can be classified. Infants are classified into one of three categories, namely secure, insecure/anxious, and insecure/avoidance. In this procedure, although secure infants exhibit distress in the separation episodes, they recover quickly and continue to explore the environment with interest. In the reunion episode, these

infants greet their mothers with joy and affection. On the other hand, anxious infants exhibit extreme distress during separation period and show conflicted or ambivalent responses toward their mothers in the reunion period. Studies have shown that typical caregivers of these infants show inconsistent responsiveness to the signals of the infants and they are sometimes unavailable or unresponsive for children. Lastly, avoidant infants show little distress in the separation period and they tend to avoid their mother in the reunion episode. Typical caregivers of avoidantly attached infants are believed to ignore their infant's bids for comfort, especially for close bodily contact (Ainsworth et al., 1978, Main, Kaplan, & Cassidy, 1985).

### **1.2.1.3 Internal Working Models**

Attachment theory assumes that infants behaviors in strange situation paradigm explained in the previous section, indeed reflect their internal working models which are formed on the basis of the quality of the interactions with the parents in the early years. Based on repeated interactions with the caregiver, infants learn what to expect, and they shape their behaviors accordingly and the expectations of early years form the basis of mental representations (Bowlby, 1973). Bowlby used a metaphor, *internal working model* of self and attachment figure, to emphasize the dynamic and functional aspects of the representations. These mental representations can be used to scheme caregiver availability and responsiveness and include interrelated models of self and attachment (Hazan & Shaver, 1994).

Bowlby (1973) asserted that the construction of internal working models of self and the attachment figure is a natural consequence of the human ability while constructing and making sense both their own experiences and external world. He also stated that working models of the self and of principal caregiving figures have special significance within an individual's working model or representation of significant others. Furthermore, in the long term the quality of this interaction takes the form of working models or representational models allowing a person to predict future interactions with the relationship partner. These working models adjust proximity seeking attempts without rethinking at any time (Bowlby, 1969/1982, 1973). To sum up, the stable mental representations of self, partner, and relationships increasingly result from repeated attachment-related interactions and differences in internal working models explain the individual differences in behavioral and emotional patterns in relationships (Main et al., 1985).

#### **1.2.1.4 Intergenerational Transmission of Attachment**

Bowlby (1969/1982, 1973) conceptualized attachment as a lifelong process from "cradle to grave" and also is transferred between generations via consistent caregiving and parenting behaviors. He asserted that working models have a tendency to be stable within individuals and across generations. In this line, intergenerational transmission of attachment across generations is defined as the way parents' attachment histories or working models affect the attachment pattern of the child, which in turn, affects and shapes the child's behaviors and psychological adjustment through the



lifetime (de Wolfe & van Ijzendoorn, 1997). It is suggested that intergenerational transmission of attachment occurs when a parent's cognitive model of relationships overlaps with the quality of the infant-parent relationship (Obegi, Morrison, & Shaver, 2004).

The quality of caregiving shaped by parents' models of attachment is thought as the mechanism that is responsible for the transmission of attachment organization from parents to children (van Ijzendoorn, 1995). Specifically, in infant-parent relationships, parents' working models guide their behavior in close relationships toward the infant. They, in turn, influence the infant's own developing attachment mental models (Steele, & Steele, 1994). In other words, adults own attachment security or insecurity determines how much they are responsive to their children, which in turn affect the attachment security of the child. In this way, individual differences regarding attachment security in infant-parent relationships are subject to be similar to the individual differences in their later romantic relationships (Bowlby, 1973; Fraley & Shaver, 2000).

Attachment functions are formed based on maternal sensitivity and the perceived maternal sensitivity influences the parenting in adulthood. In this regard, it can be concluded that the second generations perceive maternal sensitivity relied on grandparental responsiveness. In attachment literature, another transference form is the attachment figure transference. The basic attachment functions are naturally and developmentally transferred from parents to peers or potential romantic partners after childhood. Marriage as an important attachment relationship has gained researchers'

interest in the field of attachment transference. Hence, in the present study, it was aimed to investigate attachment figure transference from wives to husbands in marriage. To provide a framework to the issue of attachment figure transference and its implications in marriage, the dynamics of attachment in adulthood will be covered first.

### **1.2.2 Adult Attachment**

Considering the continuity of attachment in a life span, Hazan and Shaver (1987, 1994) applied attachment theory to adult romantic relationship using the three typologies of Ainsworth and her colleagues (1978). Following Hazan and Shaver's seminal study in 1987, an accumulated research on adult attachment has demonstrated that attachment theory can be used as a general framework in understanding the fundamental dynamics in adult interpersonal relationships (see Hazan & Shaver, 1994; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Since neural foundation of the attachment system remains substantially unchanged (Konner, 1982), it was also asserted that the functions and dynamics of the attachment behavioral system is virtually the same across life span (Hazan & Shaver, 1994).

Although attachment can be used in understanding the dynamics in adult close relationships, there are number of differences between child and adult attachment. Firstly, childhood attachment is typically complementary, adult attachment is subject to reciprocity. In the former, an infant or a child seeks but normally does not provide security, in contrast, in the latter each partner is both a

provider and a recipient of care. Secondly, while a child's primary attachment figure is usually a parent; an adult's primary attachment figure is most commonly a peer or usually a romantic partner. In this regard, the integration of three behavioral systems; attachment, caregiving, and sexual mating are included in the prototypical adult attachment relationships (Shaver, Hazan, & Bradshaw, 1988; Weis, 1982).

Hazan and Shaver (1987) first suggested that romantic love experiences are parallel with the typology developed by Ainsworth and her colleagues. Furthermore, the conceptualization of romantic love as an attachment was also in line with Bowlby's idea in which continuity in relationship style was accepted as a matter of mental models of self and social life. Specifically, Hazan and Shaver adapted Ainsworth's infant-mother attachment patterns and they suggested three categories of attachment styles, namely secure, avoidant, and anxious/ambivalent. The results revealed that two insecure groups had more negative experiences and beliefs about love, had short romantic relationship history and they also reported less favorable descriptions of their past parental relationships.

#### **1.2.2.1 Four-Category Model**

Following Hazan and Shaver's three category model, Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) proposed a four-category model (secure, preoccupied, dismissing, and fearful) by crossing the two dimensions of Bowlby's (1973) attachment internal working (mental) models of self and others. The model of self dimension was defined as anxiety, and reflects the dependence of the individual on others as well as

whether the person perceives oneself as worthy of love and support or not. The model of other was defined as avoidance, and reflects whether the individual views others as trustworthy or unreliable and rejecting.

Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) identified four attachment prototypes depending on the intersection of these two mental models, each reflecting individual differences in the perceptions towards interpersonal relationships and the self. People who have positive models of both self (low on anxiety dimension) and others (low on avoidance dimension) are identified as having *secure attachment*. These individuals tend to consider their selves as worthy of love and to perceive other individuals as accepting and responsive. Those who have positive model of others (low avoidance) but negative model of self (high anxiety) are identified as *preoccupied*, and they see their self as unworthy of love and perceive others as accepting and responsive. They exhibited hyperactivating strategies for satisfying attachment related needs in case of an attachment related threat (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007).

Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) emphasized the differences between the dismissing and fearful prototypes, as the most distinctive feature of their work from that of Hazan and Shaver (1987). According to Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991), “dismissing avoidants” who have a negative model of others but positive model of self, view their self as worthy but others as untrustworthy and rejecting. However, “fearful avoidants”, those who have negative models of both self and others, view the

self as unworthy of love and other people as untrustworthy, rejecting, and unresponsive.

To conclude, in stressful times people use either primary or secondary strategies depending on their working models. Although secure individuals use proximity seeking which is a primary strategy, anxious or avoidant individuals prefer to use hyperactivation and deactivation strategies, respectively which are also called as secondary strategies.

#### **1.2.2.2 Primary vs. Secondary Strategies**

The major source of individual differences in attachment functioning is the quality of interactions with attachment figures in times of need (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). However, when a primary attachment figure fails to be responsive, sensitive, and to alleviate distress or to provide a secure base, attachment system is disrupted. The doubts about the feasibility of attaining security, and the worries about self and others become salient especially under stressful situations. The interactions with an unavailable and unresponsive attachment figure result in failure of proximity maintenance and of using the primary attachment strategy. Therefore, attachment system has to create alternative secondary attachment strategies to adjust the demanding environment, although they are not adaptive in terms of psychological adjustment but functional in their own operation. There are two types of secondary strategies, named as hyperactivation and deactivation of attachment system (Main, 1990).

Mikulincer and Florian (2004) reviewed secondary attachment mechanisms in various types of close relationships in terms of their associations with coping with stress. Results showed that the hyperactivating strategies, which are associated with being high on attachment anxiety dimension, represent a “fight” strategy regarding stress. These strategies include persistent tendencies to be vigilant to threats; excessive expression of fears, needs, and doubts; being continually worried about attachment figure’s availability and responsiveness. These processes in turn lead to enhanced dependent behavior, intense and frequent proximity seeking, contact maintenance, and clinginess (Ainsworth, et al., 1978; Fraley & Shaver, 1998, Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Anxious individuals who use hyperactivating strategies lack the tolerance of being emotionally and physically distant from a relationship partner and they are excessively sensitive to rejection cues (see Mikulincer & Shaver, 2003, 2007 for a review).

On the other hand, deactivating strategies which are associated with being high on attachment avoidance represent a “flight” strategy regarding stress. These strategies include dismissal or downplaying of potential threats, suppression or denial of worries, needs, and vulnerabilities, and denial of the need for an attachment figure’s presence or support, which in turn result in the ignorance of attachment figure and rejecting the offers for assistance (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). The avoidant individuals using deactivating strategies reduce expression of affection and engagement in intimate emotional communication. Further, they have negative core beliefs about relationship partner as a source of security and relationship in general.

Models of security attainment, hyperactivation and deactivation with a specific partner (relationship-specific working models) are shaped through time and dominant working models vary across individuals depending on the differences in their relationship histories. Experiencing and thinking about an episode of security attainment activates memories of other, successful proximity-seeking attempts and renders memories of hyperactivation and deactivation less accessible (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007).

Bowlby's (1973) internal working models had been used by many researchers to deeply understand the effects of early relationships on later development. Moreover, relationship functioning, romantic experience, and continuity in personality development were also studied in the light of working models in the initial studies of adult attachment (e.g., Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Collins & Read, 1990; Feeney & Noller, 1990). In attachment studies, some researchers prefer to use dimensions of attachment anxiety and avoidance to understand the effects of working models on relationship quality; hence examine the detrimental effects of hyperactivating and deactivating strategies on relationship functioning (see Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007, for a review). On the other hand, other researchers have used categorical measures (i.e., attachment styles or patterns) in their studies (e.g., Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). However, recently two dimensions, attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance, are preferred to describe model of self and others by many researchers (Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998; Shaver & Mikulincer, 2007; Sümer, 2006).

A robust association between adult attachment ( both categorically and dimensionally defined) and relationship satisfaction has been extensively documented in previous studies (e.g., Collins & Read, 1990; Feeney, Noller, & Callan, 1994; Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994; Kobak & Hazan, 1991; Simpson, 1990; Sümer & Cozzarelli, 2004). In the present study, it was assumed the two fundamental dimensions, attachment-related anxiety and avoidance have an effect on the strength of attachment figure transference to spouses as well as marital satisfaction.

### **1.2.2.3 Adult Attachment Formation and Attachment Figure Transference**

Attachments are formed in the context of physical closeness. However, there are differences between infant and adult attachment which is associated with what motivates proximity seeking; and these motivators may change through development periods. Specifically, *proximity seeking*, *safe haven*, and *secure base* functions are primarily served by parents during infancy and childhood. In other words, child satisfies all these required needs from their parents. However, once adult peers begin to satisfy their needs for emotional support and security from different targets such as peers, attachment functions begin to be transferred from parents to other significant individuals (Hazan & Shaver, 1994).

Hazan, Hutt, Sturgeon and Bricker (1991) proposed a model regarding the transference of attachment from parents as attachment figures to other loved ones. In their model, three attachment functions, namely proximity seeking, safe haven and secure base are gradually transferred to another attachment figure one by one instead



of a total sudden shift. This model also suggests that the transference begins with proximity seeking and when this motivation is directed towards parents it is fed by security needs, when directed toward peers it is fed by exploratory and affiliative needs. In late childhood and early adolescence, proximity seeking attempts change into support seeking behavior (i.e., safe haven) and if the responder provides comfort or alleviated distress sufficiently, s/he becomes a secure base for the person. However, people never relinquish their parents completely from being their attachment figures (Hazan & Shaver, 1994). Consistent with this view, Fraley and Davis (1997) found that parents were still the secure base but the peers were likely to be proximity providers and safe havens for the majority of the young adults.

In order to understand the transference process deeply, Hazan and Zeifman (1994) conducted studies concerning attachment figure transition from parents to peers. In their studies, they used a brief interview named “the WHO-TO” test, to explore the preferred targets for each attachment function. They specifically described domains of attachment transference which are proximity seeking, separation protest, safe haven and secure base by asking specific questions. The WHO-TO measure was administered to a sample of young people aged 6 to 17 years in their first study, and each item was assessed in two different classes of preferred targets, which are parent figure (including grandparents) or peers (friends and romantic partners). Results of this study showed that all age groups preferred their peers rather than their parents for the company to spend time with (proximity seeking). However, there was a shift of target of safe haven behavior between the

ages of 8 and 14 by preferring parents as sources of support and comfort. During the late adolescence, the participants seemed to become more peer-oriented regarding separation protest and secure base.

As individuals move through adulthood, the transfer of functions may show differences from the period of adolescence to later years. For instance, Hazan and Zeifman (1994) included young adults aged from 18 to 82 years and they found that, parallel with their first study, adults preferred peers or romantic partners in need of proximity seeking and safe haven, but they preferred either parent or partner in need of separation protest and secure base, depending on the availability of a long-term romantic partner. Hazan and Zeifman showed that gradual shift of attachment functions from parent to peers takes place. They also reported that the attachment formation process is completed approximately for two years in adulthood for all attachment components to be transferred.

Hazan and Zeifman's (1994, 1999) work has shown that although parents function as the fundamental attachment figures in early years, parents are replaced with sexual partners later in life, especially in early adulthood (Feeney, 2004). Hazan and Zeifman (1999) emphasize the sequence of the attachment formation process, with some of the functions, especially, proximity seeking, being transferred to loved ones from parents relatively earlier.

Following Hazan and Zeifman's (1994) WHOTO procedure, later studies examined how attachment functions are transferred in adolescent and adult relationships (e.g., Fraley & Davis, 1997; Trinke & Bartholomew, 1997). For

example, Trinke and Bartholomew (1997) asked undergraduates to list their attachment figures and rank them in the order of importance. Trinke and Bartholomew investigated not only primary attachment figures but also attachment networks and hierarchy by examining different attachment functions, such as proximity seeking, safe haven, secure base as well as impact of hypothetical death of a close one, conflictual emotions, and emotional connection. Their findings showed that the hierarchy of attachment from highest composite rank to the lowest was as follows: mother (36% of participants), romantic partner (31%), best friend (14%), father (11%), and sibling (11%). However, 62% of the participants reported their romantic partner as the primary attachment figure. Similar to Hazan and Zeifman's (1994) findings, it was shown that romantic partner was replaced with parents for the safe haven function. Participants however, preferred their parents more for secure base than for safe haven function.

Fraley and Davis (1997) revised Hazan and Zeifman's WHO-TO scale, which allow participants to name more than one person for each item. Consistent with their earlier findings, they found that young adults tend to see their parents as a secure base, but prefer peers for proximity seeking and safe haven functions. Similarly, Friedlmeier and Granqvist (2006) also found evidence supporting the step by step attachment transference process from proximity, secure base, and safe haven respectively. In line with these findings, Markiewicz, Lawford, Doyle, and Haggart (2006) emphasize the gradual transference process and they showed that parents, peers, and romantic partners were used for different functions of attachment.

Attachment studies consistently show that parental attachment security predicts security of attachment to peers (e.g., Fraley & Davis, 1997; Hazan et al., 1991). Specifically, young adults who had secure attachment histories were more likely to explore adult relationships and to enter into new relationships successfully; and secure working models was found to be associated with the extent of transfer. Fraley and Davis (1997) further distinguished dismissing avoidants who were unlikely to establish attachment bonds with peers (best friends and romantic partners). It can be argued that for dismissing avoidant individuals, the excessive usage of deactivating strategies may deteriorate the transference process, which leads to become detached from their peers or romantic partners. Moreover, Allen and Land (1999) asserted that secure adolescents could engage in intimacy promoting behaviors at the outset of a relationship and reveal an earlier and stronger transfer of attachment functions from parents to romantic partners than insecure adolescents.

The length of relationship is another significant effect determining the quality of the transferences along with the nature of the attachment functions and attachment insecurity. As stated by Hazan and Zeifman (1994, 1999), it takes at least two years for the transfer of all attachment functions. Following this line of research, Trinke and Bartholomew (1997) found that the longer the duration of their participants' relationships, the more likely they would use their partners to fulfill safe haven and secure base functions. Fraley and Davis (1997) also found that participants with enduring romantic relationships had most likely transferred all the attachment

functions to their partners. Furthermore, they showed that close friendships which last more than five years turn into the full-blown attachment relationships.

To sum up, previous research has shown that young adults have multiple attachment figures, that attachment figure transference from parents to partners occur gradually, and reliance on particular figures may be affected by the level of comfort and security experienced with that partner. Furthermore, it was shown that the duration of the relationship can be a critical factor in the transference process. Finally, attachment insecurity has negative effect on transference of attachment functions and it has been shown that as the attachment anxiety and avoidance increase during late adolescence, the weaker the tendencies become to use a romantic partner as a safe haven and/or secure base. Feeney (2004) also asserted that perceiving romantic partner or a spouse as an attachment figure is a key issue for marital functioning; and she stated that attachment strength based on the quality of transference of attachment functions to the target figure is conceptualized different from attachment security. The dynamics of attachment patterns in marriage will be presented in next section.

### **1.3 Attachment in Marriage**

Creasey and Jarvis (2009) described marriage as a significant behavioral context in which the majority of adults are suited at some time in their lives and attachment functioning has a major role in explaining marital functioning.

Attachment theory has been widely used in understanding the dynamics of marital

relationships. As reviewed by Feeney (2008), past studies have documented a strong association between attachment security and marital quality. Since generalized attachment representations shape the attitudes, expectancies, and attributions about romantic partners (e.g. Collins, 1996; Sümer & Cozzarelli, 2004); secure adults are expected to function as effective supporting figures (or a secure base) for their partners. They would also be effective conflict resolvers compared to insecure partners because generalized attachment representations are associated with the development of adaptive processes (e.g., conflict management behavior) in marital relationships. In sum, previous studies provided extensive evidence showing that attachment functioning is closely linked with marital functioning.

Previous research suggests that satisfaction of attachment needs is the critical factor in relationship and marital satisfaction since adult attachment requires reciprocity. For instance, Hazan and Shaver (1994) reported that relationship satisfaction largely relies on the satisfaction of basic needs for comfort, care and sexual gratification which is shaped by partners' attachment security. Similarly, Karney and Bradbury (1995) suggested that a given relationship is successful when each spouse trusted the partner in terms of fulfilling those basic needs. Early studies demonstrated that those who have secure attachment and secure partner representations commonly report higher levels of marital satisfaction than those with insecure attachment pattern (e.g. Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Kobak & Hazan, 1991; Feeney, Noller, & Callan, 1994). Further, later studies (e.g., Banse, 2004; Feeney, 2002; Meyers & Landsberger, 2002) have consistently revealed the link between

attachment security and marital quality. Particularly, secure working models was found to be associated with higher marital satisfaction while insecure working models were related to worse marital functioning. In the present study, it is assumed that in addition to attachment security (i.e., low levels of attachment anxiety and avoidance) the strength of attachment figure transference would have an effect on marital satisfaction, in the light of the literature.

### **1.3.1 Attachment Figure Transference in Marriage**

Perceiving romantic partner or a spouse as an attachment figure is a prominent issue for marital functioning and attachment strength based on the quality of transference of attachment functions to the target figure was conceptualized different from attachment security (Feeney, 2004). Feeney asserted that attachment security focuses on the individual's concerns about intimacy, dependence, and abandonment. The focus of attachment strength, however, is the extent to which a given person is the target of attachment behavior. For example, in spite of preference of partner as an attachment figure, a target of attachment behavior; the person might have low level of attachment security for that target. Thus, strength of attachment and attachment security are supposed to be distinct constructs. Later studies also supported the distinctiveness between these two constructs (e.g., Feeney, Hohaus, Noller, & Alexander, 2001; Fraley & Davis, 1997; Trinke & Bartholomew, 1997).

Feeney and Hohaus (2001) administered a target-specific version of the WHO-TO scale measuring the strength of attachment to the spouse and found that

the strength of attachment to spouse was high as compared to other significant people in life. Moreover, emphasizing the distinction between attachment strength and attachment security, these authors demonstrated that attachment anxiety and avoidance were negatively associated with the attachment strength.

As stated in previous section, a number of studies have shown that there is a gradual transition of attachment functions in marriage and that attachment transition is stronger for proximity seeking and safe haven functions and it is relatively weaker for secure base function (e.g., Feeney, 2004; Feeney & Hohaus, 2001; Feeney et al., 2001). Although this pattern is commonly seen among dating and cohabiting relationships, marital couples as attachment figures and having legal commitment play a relatively central role in marital relationships (Feeney, et al., 2001; Feeney, 2004).

In conclusion, past research has shown that the transference of the three attachment functions in marriage is influenced by the length of marriage and attachment insecurity. Intimacy and sexuality as a manifestation of physical contact and defining characteristics of marriage is believed to facilitate transference of attachment functions to spouse. Therefore, it can be assumed that attachment figure transference may take place in all types of marriages. However, the strength and the timing of transference may change depending on cultural patterns in marriage (e.g.: having a marriage initiated via love or parental arrangements with no love involved at the beginning). The next section presents other critical factors in marital



functioning, which are caregiving styles of partners using attachment theory as a framework, before explaining cultural patterns in marriage for the sake of parsimony.

### **1.3.2 Caregiving Styles and Marriage**

Similar to the link between caregiving quality and attachment in parent-child relationship, caregiving differences in adult close relationships have critical implications for marital satisfaction (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). The main caregiving system is formed as a result of caregiver's prior attachment experiences (e.g. Main et al., 1985) and it is one of the fundamental organizing dynamics in marital relationships.

Romantic partners need each other to provide comfort, support and security, and the quality of the support involving willingness plays a major role in relationship quality and stability (Collins & Feeney, 2000). Previous research has demonstrated that partners' ability and willingness to respond sensitively and responsively to the partners' needs, suggesting effective caregiving are important factors influencing relationship quality, stability, and satisfaction (Collins & Feeney, 2000; Julien & Markman, 1991).

The relationship between satisfaction of adult attachment needs and the quality of caregiving was first proposed by Kuncze and Shaver (1994). These authors suggested that caregiving behavior has two main functions in romantic relationships. The first one is meeting the dependent partner's need for security (e.g., by remaining close or soothing the partner) and the second function is supporting the attached

person's autonomy and exploration of environment by providing the required security. Cooperative interaction and compulsive caregiving are two additional factors influencing stability of relationship security which is based on caregiver's ability to support infant (or partners in romantic relationships) as exploration of the environment through cooperative interactions. Based on these functions, Kuncce and Shaver developed a self-report scale involving *proximity, sensitivity, cooperation, and compulsive caregiving dimensions* to assess the caregiving quality of romantic dyads. The proximity-distance factor includes an individual's ability to provide a distressed partner with physical and psychological accessibility. Sensitivity versus insensitivity factor indicates the respondent's ability to notice and accurately interpret a partner's needs, feelings and both nonverbal and verbal signals. Cooperation versus control factor represents the degree to which an individual who is more likely to support the partner's own efforts and attempts to solve problems. Kuncce and Shaver found that cooperation-control dimension was moderately related to the first two factors. Lastly, compulsive caregiving factor reflects the individual's tendency to get over-involved in their partner's problems.

Attachment security, however, may be one of the most important factors that determine the quality of caregiving. In their studies involving both dating and married couples Kuncce and Shaver (1994) assessed the relationship between attachment security and caregiving styles. Their results showed that, secure people tended to be high on proximity provision, cooperation, and sensitive caregiving. Preoccupied people were high on provision of proximity and compulsive caregiving,

and low on cooperation and sensitive caregiving. On the other hand, fearful people, tended to be high on compulsive caregiving and low on providing proximity and sensitivity. Finally, dismissing people had lowest scores on compulsive caregiving and proximity provision dimensions and they were relatively low in sensitivity.

Other studies also examine the relationship between attachment dimensions and caregiving styles in dating and marital relationships. These studies consistently found that secure individuals revealed the most favorable pattern of care within dating and married couples by providing support to the partner in need and being sensitive to needs of partners, and being less likely in control for stance and over-involved in caregiving ( Feeney & Collins, 2001; Feeney, 1996; Feeney & Hohaus, 2001). In these studies, avoidant individuals reported relatively low scores on providing proximity and sensitivity, reflecting their tendency to maintain distance from a needy partner and they were found to adopt a controlling, uncooperative stance. On the other hand, anxious individuals reported relatively high scores on compulsive caregiving because of their personal distress and over-involvement with their partner's problems, which are also consistent with the findings of Kunce and Shaver (1994).

Past studies support the role of caregiving in relationship satisfaction. For example, Feeney (1996) found that marital satisfaction was higher for secure spouses and for responsive caregiving. In another study conducted by Feeney (2005) supported the previous findings and indicated that people whose partners reported more beneficial caregiving also reported high levels of marital satisfaction.

To summarize, caregiving styles are strongly associated with attachment patterns in the expected directions. Moreover, different caregiving styles seem to have differential effects on relationship satisfaction and functioning. Based on the previous findings, the present study also aims to examine the effects of caregiving styles together with attachment dimensions on the transference of attachment functions to the spouse. It is expected that caregiving styles will be associated with the strength of attachment figure transference. Additionally, considering the cultural patterns of family (arranged) and couple (love) initiated marriages, caregiving styles may show differences between marriage types, as well as attachment figure transference.

#### **1.4 Cultural Patterns in Marriage**

Marriage is initiated and experienced differently across cultures. Hortaçsu (2007) asserted that in both modern and traditional cultures, traditional marriage types, such as arranged marriages coexist with the Western-style ‘love’ marriages. Applbaum (1995) described both “love marriages” and “arranged marriages”. Love marriages are premised on the existence of affection between the two individuals entering the union and organized against the background of the relationship between two individuals. In contrast, arranged marriages are highly intervened by families via their selection of marriage partner. These marriages are dependent upon the similarity of social standing of the families of the prospective couple. Batabyal (1998) stated that arranged marriages have been around for several centuries and

they are the rule of society in many parts of Africa, Asia, and the Middle East rather than an exception. In the literature, arranged marriages were supposed to be mostly common among pre-industrial traditional societies serving the function of creation and perseveration of alliances between extended families (as stated by Fıfılođlu in Kurter, Jencius, & Duba's article, 2004; Hortaçsu, 1999).

As would be expected, arranged marriages are common among collectivist cultures. There are a number of studies reporting the high rates of arranged or parentally controlled marriages in different countries, such as China (Xiaohe & Whyte, 1990), India (Myers, Madathi, & Tingle, 2005), Japan (Applbaum, 1995), Israel (Shachar, 1991), Nepal (Ghimire, Axinn, Yabiku, & Thornton, 2006), and Turkey (Fox, 1975; Hortaçsu, 1999, 2007). Moreover, it was estimated that half of the existing marriages (%56) in Turkey are arranged marriages (Atalay, Kontař, Beyazıt, & Madenođlu, 1992 cited in Hortaçsu & Oral, 1994).

In an early study, Fox (1975) stated that there are two types of marriages in Turkey, which are initiated by love and arranged by parents, and the former is supposed to be prevalent among the more modernized segments of the population, while the latter is supposed to be prevalent among traditional segments. Recently, in Kurter, Jencius, & Duba's interview article (2004), Fıfılođlu emphasized the high rates of arranged marriages among low socio economic status groups in Turkey, and he also described another cultural marriage type namely *consanguineous marriage* in which the couples have at least one ancestor being in common, no more distant than

great-great-grandparent. In these types of marriages arrangement of the marriage by family members is a common practice.

According to Hortaçsu (1999), the concept of marriages based on romantic love first appeared in Turkish urban metropolis toward the end of the 19th century. However, in today's Turkish society, a milder version of arranged marriages also exists as well as traditional form of arranged marriages. In these types of arranged marriages, potential spouses are introduced to the person by families, and after this procedure she or he decides relatively freely. In this line, Hortaçsu (1995) defined arranged marriages as involving premarital dating after being introduced by families; on the other hand, love marriages as involving a large dose of social prestige, background similarity and security considerations together with a high degree of family intervention and contribution to marital expenses. In the current study, the term *arranged marriage* is used for traditional family-initiated marriages and the marriages initiated after partners are introduced and see each other as a proper spouse. On the other hand, the term *love marriage* is utilized for love-initiated marriages and the marriages initiated after couples' friendship turn into the love relationship in the course of time.

In sum, arranged marriages are still prevalent in Turkish cultural context likewise in many parts of the world, especially in Africa, Asia, and Middle East. In these cultures, with the effects of modernization and industrialization love marriages and modified versions of arranged marriages coexist with traditional arranged marriages, in which two sides first see each other at the wedding day. Division of

labor in the house as a factor affected by cultural patterns is also critical for marital satisfaction as well as attachment strength. In the present study, arranged and love marriages will be compared on marital satisfaction and division of household labor, together with attachment insecurity, caregiving behaviors of spouses and attachment strength to the spouse based on attachment theory.

#### **1.4.1 Division of Labor and Arranged vs. Love Marriages**

Past studies have documented that the distribution of family work, which is influenced by cultural patterns in marriages, is one of the crucial factors in predicting marital satisfaction (Yogev & Brett, 1985; cited in Kluwer, Heesink, & Vliert, 1997). For instance, Amato and Booth (1995) showed that wives having high traditional gender role attitudes have lower levels of marital quality, and husbands who have less traditional attitudes report higher levels of marital quality. In an extensive review, Buunk, Kluwer, Schuurman, and Siero (2000) concluded individuals with egalitarian gender-role attitudes had a relatively more equal division of labor than individuals with traditional gender role attitudes. Similarly, studies conducted in Turkey (e.g., Hortaçsu, 1997; Hortaçsu & Oral, 1996) have suggested that gender segregation regarding division of labor in family-initiated (arranged) marriages is much larger than in couple-initiated (love) marriages. Although the movement for women's rights has been observed in Turkey, the Turkish family structure can be defined as rather male dominated and gender stereotyped (Hortaçsu, 2007). Supporting this, Hortaçsu (1999) found that there was a non-significant difference

between family- and couple initiated marriages in terms of gender stereotypic division of labor. In her recent study, Hortaçsu (2007) found that division of labor become less equalitarian in couple-initiated marriages, and she also reported that over successive stages, two types of marriages (arranged and love typed) become similar regarding wife's contribution to housework and number of conflicts over family issues.

In the present study, considering past research and Turkish cultural pattern of marriage, an egalitarian structure of division of labor is expected to be high among women with love marriages. However, it is also expected that there will be no significant difference between two types of marriages in terms of division of labor in later years of marriage. Furthermore, it is anticipated that the marital division of labor structure would predict marital satisfaction.

#### **1.4.2 Arranged vs. Love Marriages and Marital Satisfaction**

The effect of marriage type, especially arranged and love type marriages, has not been examined in detail in previous studies. For instance, Myers and his colleagues (2005) stated that there were few studies assessing how factors such as love, intimacy, happiness, and satisfaction vary in different types of marriages. Indeed, there is conflicting finding in previous studies regarding this issue. In an earlier longitudinal study conducted by Blood in Japan (1967; cited in Xiaohe and Whyte, 1990), it was found that wives in arranged marriages tended to be less satisfied compared to wives in love marriages and husbands in arranged marriages



tended to be more satisfied than wives. Similarly, Xiaohe and Whyte (1990) reported that love-married women were more satisfied than the women in arranged marriages in China. In contrast, in studies conducted by Myers and his colleagues (2005) and by Yelsma and Athappilly (1988, cited in Myers et al., 2005) comparing India and United States; individuals from India in arranged marriages were more satisfied as compared to both love-married ones in India and companionate married persons in the United States.

In Turkey, there exist relatively few studies investigating differences between couples married through love or arrangement (e.g.: Hortaçsu & Oral, 1994; Hortaçsu, 1997, 1999, 2007). These studies suggest that couple-initiated (love) marriages were more advantageous to some extent compared to family-initiated marriages.

Specifically, spouses in family-initiated marriages had less emotional involvement and negative spousal feelings, and reported more frequent conflict. In addition, it was found that individuals in consanguineous marriages, which are mostly initiated by families, reported higher levels of loneliness and lower levels of marital adjustment (Demir & Fıfılođlu, 1999). Higher marital satisfaction was also found to be associated with marriage of own choice or non-consanguineous marriages (Fıfılođlu, 2001, cited in Fowers et al., 2008).

The duration of the marriage was also found to influence marital satisfaction differently in different types of marriages. Blood (1967, cited in Hortaçsu, 2007) found that through the first five years of marriage marital satisfaction declines. For women in family-initiated marriages and for men in couple-initiated marriages this

decline was sharper, and women in arranged marriages reported the lowest level of marital satisfaction following by men in couple-initiated marriages at the end of nine years of marriage.

In the light of the literature, it is expected that participants in arranged marriages would have lower levels of marital satisfaction compared to those in love marriages. The duration of marriage is also expected to have an influence on marital satisfaction. However, as mentioned in previous sections, the strength of attachment figure transference over time will positively affect marital satisfaction in both marriage types. In love-initiated marriages, however, the transference of attachment functions would be relatively stronger than arranged marriages.

### **1.5 The Current Study: Hypotheses**

Marriage is considered as a special kind of relationship which fosters the development of attachment bonds. Bowlby (1969/1982) suggested that the familiarity acquired through repeated contact with another person is considered as the most important facilitating factor for the development of an attachment relationship with that person. Further, partners demonstrate their commitment to each other through marriage and in this way they begin to consider one another as attachment figures (Hazan & Shaver, 1994).

In attachment literature, romantic love and attraction have been conceptualized as an attachment processes which naturally foster the transference of attachment to the partner (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Hazan & Zeifman, 1999). A legal

marriage, because of its intimate nature and heightened interdependency, may also act as a catalyzer and speed the process of attachment figure transference (Feeney, et al., 2001; Feeney, 2004). In Turkey, considerable portion of the marriages do not have a basis for romantic love and intense attachment at least at the beginning because of the cultural tradition of arranged marriages. These marriages are usually initiated by families of the partners or they are decided upon the consideration of factors other than love. These marriages also include caregiving systems and sexuality as in the romantic marriages. Fraley and Davis (1997) reported that high levels of sexual desire for the partner were related to perceiving the partner as an attachment figure independent of love. Moreover, Feeney (2004) showed that higher levels of mutual caring/support and trust/intimacy were positively related to attachment transfer. Concerning the nature and dynamics of marriage that foster interdependency, intimacy, attachment bonds, attachment figure transference is assumed to take place in all types of marriages which include commitment to each other and caregiving. Therefore, investigating the potential differences between those having arranged and love (or couple) initiated marriages in terms of attachment figure transference and other attachment dynamics in marriage may have critical implications in understanding marital functioning in Turkey and in the cultures having similar marital structures.

In conclusion, attachment security, caregiving styles of partners, the length of marital relationship, and cultural patterns in marriage and division of labor are expected to have an influence on the strength of attachment figure transference in

line with the previous literature. Given that transfer of attachment occur successively in the three attachment domains (i.e., proximity seeking, secure base and safe haven), there should be also differences between the two types of marriages in these attachment domains. Based on these expectations and previous findings, the following hypotheses are proposed in the present study:

**Hypothesis 1:** The basic attachment functions (i.e., proximity seeking, safe haven and secure base) are expected to be transferred to the spouse in both arranged and love marriages. However, this transference is expected to be in higher magnitude in love initiated marriages than arranged marriages.

**Hypothesis 2:** Overall, attachment to spouse represented by the three attachment functions is expected to increase with the passage of time in both types of marriages. However, the transference was expected to be earlier in love relationships than in arranged marriages. Moreover, it is also expected that while the strength of attachment to mother and father would decrease, the strength of attachment to children would increase with the passage of time.

**Hypothesis 3:** It is hypothesized that attachment anxiety and avoidance are expected to be negatively correlated with strength of attachment transference to husband.

**Hypothesis 4:** The participants involved in both types of marriages would have high levels of marital satisfaction when the transfer of attachment functions to the spouse is successful; the strength of attachment to the spouse is high, and

attachment insecurity is low (i.e., having low levels of attachment anxiety and avoidance).

**Hypothesis 5:** Responsive and sensitive caregiving styles are expected to be positively and compulsive and controlling caregiving styles are expected to be negatively associated with attachment figure transference, attachment to partner, and marital satisfaction in both types of marriages.

**Hypothesis 6:** It is expected that love marriages would be characterized by egalitarian and arranged marriages would be characterized by traditional structure. Furthermore, as compared to traditional marriages, egalitarian marriages would be associated with successful attachment figure transference, stronger attachment to the spouse and high marital satisfaction.

## CHAPTER 2

### METHOD

#### 2.1 Participants

A total of 226 married women living in Ankara and Aydın participated in the study. Twenty-two participants, 13 from Aydın and nine from Ankara were excluded from the data set since they had high missing responses and many did not fill out the majority of the measures. Thus, there were 204 women left for the main analyses. Of the participants, 101 (49.5 %) were from Aydın; and 103 (50.5 %) were from Ankara. Age of participants varied between 23 and 53, with a mean of 34.19, median of 33.00 (SD = 6.63 years). In terms of educational level, 20 (9.9 %) of the participants had a master's degree or Ph.D., 73 (36.1%) were university graduates, 24 (11.9 %) had a two-year college degree, 53 (26.2 %) had graduated from high school, 10 (5.0 %) had graduated from secondary school, 22 (10.9 %) were graduated from primary school. Two participants (1.0 %) did not indicate their educational level. The participants also reported their husbands' educational level. Twenty-one (10.4 %) of the husbands had a master's degree or Ph.D., 88 (43.6 %) had university degree, 17 (8.4 %) had a two-year college degree, 45 (22.3 %) were graduated from high school, 16 (7.9 %) were graduated from secondary school, 15 (7.4 %) were graduated from

primary school. Two participants (1.0 %) did not indicate their husband's educational level. Of the women, 144 (77.8 %) were working at different occupations (67 from Aydın; 77 from Ankara) and 41 (22.2 %) were housewives (28 from Aydın; 13 from Ankara). Nineteen participants did not indicate their working status. With regard to the participants' perceived income, four (2.0 %) reported as low, 21 (10.5 %) moderate low, 122 (61.0 %) moderate, 46 (23.0 %) high moderate, and seven (3.5 %) high. Four participants did not report their perceived income.

Demographic part of the questionnaire also included questions about the type of marriages in detail. Findings showed that , 53 (26.0 %) of women (31 from Aydın; 22 from Ankara) reported that they have family-initiated marriage, 76 (37.3 %) had love initiated marriage (36 from Aydın; 40 from Ankara), 46 (22.5 %) stated that they got married after they evaluated each other as "the proper partner to marry"(20 from Aydın; 26 from Ankara), and 29 (14.2 %) stated that they got married after their friendship turned into love with the passage of time (14 from Aydın; 15 from Ankara). In the present study, the type of marriages was grouped under two main categories to differentiate the marriages which are commonly initiated through love or initiated through a match-making process. Particularly, family-initiated marriages and the marriages initiated after perceiving each other as a proper spouse were classified as arranged marriages. Both love marriages and marriages initiated after couples' friendship turned into the affectionate relationships were grouped as love marriages.

The length of marriage varied from 3 to 364 months, with a mean of 125.61 months, (median =16.00, SD= 88.18 months). Of the participants, 11 (5.4 %) reported that they had no engagement or early-engagement (“söz kesme” in Turkish). The mean of the engagement duration was 10.91 months (SD = 10.67). The participants were also asked to report their length of acquaintance and the mean was 153.34 months, (SD = 85.24). The detailed demographic information of the participants is presented in Table 1 and 2.

## **2.2 Measures**

The questionnaire used in this study involved six parts including Demographic Information, Division of Household Labor Scale, WHO-TO scale, Experiences in Close Relationships -Revised, Caregiving Scale, and Dyadic Adjustment Scale.

### **2.2.1 Demographic Information**

The first part of the questionnaire package included demographic information (see Appendix B). This part contained questions regarding the participant’s age, educational level, occupation, husband’s educational level, perceived income level, the length of marriage, the length of acquaintance, engagement duration, marriage type of the participants, the number of children, and frequency of meeting or calling with family of origin.



**Table 2.1 Main Demographic Characteristics of the Participants**

	Ankara	Aydın
Participant Education		
Primary School	8 (7.9 %)	14 (13.9 %)
Secondary School	3 (3.0 %)	7 (6.9 %)
High School	22 (21.8 %)	31 (30.7 %)
Two-Year Collage	7 (6.9 %)	17 (16.8 %)
University	44 (43.6 %)	29 (28.7 %)
Master or Ph.D.	17 (16.8 %)	3 (3.0 %)
Total	101 (100 %)	101 (100%)
Husband's Education		
Primary School	4 (3.9 %)	11 (11.0 %)
Secondary School	7 (6.9 %)	9 (9.0 %)
High School	14 (13.7 %)	31 (31.0 %)
Two-Year Collage	10 (9.8 %)	7 (7.0 %)
University	48 (47.1 %)	40 (40.0 %)
Master or Ph.D.	19 (18.6 %)	2 (2.0 %)
Total	102 (100 %)	100 (100 %)
Marriage Type		
Family-initiated	22 (21.4 %)	31 (30.7 %)
Love	40 (38.8 %)	36 (35.6 %)
Seeing each other suitable	26 (25.2 %)	20 (19.8 %)
Friendship turn into affection	15 (14.6 %)	14 (13.9 %)
Total	103 (100 %)	101 (100 %)
Marriage Grouping		
Arranged	48 (46.6 %)	51 (50.5 %)
Love	55 (53.4 %)	50 (49.5 %)
Total	103 (100 %)	101 (100 %)

**Table 2.2 Duration of Marriage and Engagement in both Groups.**

	<b>Total</b>		<b>Love</b>		<b>Arranged</b>	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Age	34.20	6.62	33.07	6.46	35.36	6.61
Marriage Length	125.61	88.18	98.96	76.66	154.16	91.11
Engagement Duration	10.81	10.67	11.41	11.41	10.36	9.85
The Length of Acquaintance	153.34	85.24	134.83	75.17	173.58	91.20

### **2.2.2 Division of Household Labor Scale**

To assess the division of labor, the measures developed by Hortaçsu (2007) and Buunk, Kluwer, Schuurman and Siero (2000) were used. This measure assesses egalitarian structure of marriages on the basis of the amount of division of labor in house chores. There are two parts in the integrated scale adopted from Hortaçsu (2007), labeled as “Housework” and “Childcare” including 14 items. Participants rated nine areas in house chores (doing the dishes, grocery shopping, cooking, cleaning bathrooms, doing laundry, minor repairs, vacuum, ironing, cleaning, and keeping up the yard) and five areas in childcare part (care of children, getting involved in school problems of the children, shopping for children, getting involved in homework and spare time of the children, getting involved in interpersonal relationships of the children). Participants were instructed that they would rate only applicable items for them by using 5-point Likert-type ratings. In this scale only three degrees as one, three and five were labeled (i.e., 1= Generally I do this chore, 3= We share this chore or we alternate, 5= Usually my husband does this chore). For

instance, if a participant rated “1” for the item “doing the dishes”, it means that generally she does the dishes not her husband (see Appendix C).

The scoring of this scale was done based on Buunk and her colleagues (2000) and Hortaçsu (2007). A total egalitarian marriage an index was created by summing all the applicable items, and then, dividing the total to the number of rated items. A lower score in the final index indicates that the division of labor within the relationship is more unequal to the woman’s disadvantage, and a score of 3 indicates an equal division. Hortaçsu (2007) found the alpha reliabilities of the subscales as .77 and .74 for Housework and Childcare, respectively. In the present study, the Cronbach’s alpha for the total scale was found .84.

### **2.2.3 WHO-TO**

The WHO-TO scale was used to assess the transference of the three attachment functions; proximity seeking, safe haven, and secure base. The WHO-TO was first used by Hazan and Zeifman (1994) to figure out the transference of attachment functions from parents to peers. In the original form, the WHO-TO provides information in terms of preferred targets for each attachment function. In this brief measure, there were six items and two items for each function.

In the present study, a recently modified version of the scale was used to better understand hierarchy of preferred attachment figures and in this way to measure attachment strength of preferred targets. In addition, it was also used to

measure the magnitude of attachment functions. This new version of the WHO-TO was developed by Trinke and Bartholomew (1997) and Feeney (2004). This was adapted to Turkish for the current study. The scale was translated into Turkish by the researcher and back-translated to check the consistency in translation. Translations were found to be comparable.

There are ten phrases in the revised WHO-TO and the participants were asked to write names of maximum four significant others in a hierarchical order. The example of item for proximity seeking function is “Person(s) you make sure to see or talk to frequently”, for safe haven “Person(s) you immediately think of contacting when something bad happens”; and for secure base “Person(s) you know always wants the best for you”.

The scoring of WHO-TO was adapted from Feeney’s (2004) study, in which hierarchical frequency of preferred attachment targets were considered. The scores on attachment strength were formed for each of the four targets: partner, mother, father and child(ren) since they were found as most frequent targets in the preliminary analyses. For each item, the target received a score of ‘4’ if named first (as most important), ‘3’ if named second, ‘2’ if named third, and ‘1’ if named fourth. For example, when a participant reports her husband’s name as a second for the following phrase “Person(s) you make sure to see or talk too frequently”, she receives the score of three for the partner attachment strength. For each target, a total score (labeled ‘attachment strength’) was formed by summing scores across

functions. The total scores for attachment strength range from 0 to 40, and higher scores represent higher attachment strength. Scores were then computed for each of the three attachment functions for the spouses to use them in the analysis of attachment figure transference. High scores on attachment functions for spouse were treated as successful attachment transference.

Feeney (2004) found that the scale has high internal consistency (coefficient alpha = .90). In the current study the Chronbach's alpha coefficients for overall attachment strength for the spouse was .90, for the mother .89, for the children .85, and for father .86. The reliabilities of attachment functions for the spouse were also computed; and for the proximity seeking function coefficient alpha was .75, for safe haven .77, and for secure base .79 (see Appendix D).

#### **2.2.4 Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised**

*Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised* (ECR-R) was first developed by Brennan, Clark and Shaver in 1998 to assess the basic dimensions (i.e., attachment related anxiety and avoidance) of adult attachment. The ECR has 36 items, 18 items for each dimension. Fraley, Waller and Brennan (2000) revised the scale using again the same 18 item structure for both subscales using 5-point Likert-type ratings (1=strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree). In the present study, the ECR-R was utilized to measure two fundamental attachment dimensions, attachment related anxiety and avoidance in marital relationships. The attachment related anxiety

subscale measures fear of abandonment and rejection, desire to be too close, and preoccupation in close relationships (e.g., “I worry that romantic partners won’t care about me as much as I care about them”). The avoidance subscale assesses discomfort with intimacy and dependency in relationships, and excessive self-reliance (e.g., “I prefer not to show a partner how I feel deep down”). The term partner was replaced with spouse in this study.

The ECR-R was adapted into Turkish by Selcuk, Gunaydin, Sümer, and Uysal (2005) and high internal consistency was found for both subscales of the ECR-R Turkish (.86 for the anxiety and .90 for the avoidance subscale) and high test-retest reliability was reported (.82 and .81 for anxiety and avoidance, respectively). In the present study, the alpha coefficient was .72 for the anxiety subscale, and .89 for the avoidance subscale (see Appendix E).

### **2.2.5 Caregiving Scale**

*Caregiving Scale* developed by Kunce and Shaver (1994) was employed to assess the caregiving styles of the women towards their husbands. . The scale has 32 items that are responded by using 6-point Likert scales. Kunce and Shaver demonstrated that the caregiving scale has four subscales labeled as *proximity vs. distance* (e.g., “When my partner seems to want or need a hug, I’m glad to provide it”), *sensitivity vs. insensitivity* (e.g., “I am very attentive to my partner’s nonverbal signals for help and support”), *cooperation vs. control* (e.g., “I tend to be too

domineering when trying to help my partner”), and *compulsive caregiving* (e.g., “I create problems by taking on my partner’s troubles as if they were my own”). These authors reported that the subscale had internal consistencies over .80. Moreover, sensitive, responsive and cooperative caregiving styles were negatively correlated with attachment anxiety and avoidance while controlling and compulsive caregiving styles were positively associated with attachment insecurity.

The Caregiving Scale was adapted to Turkish for the present study by the researchers. The scale was first translated into Turkish and back-translated by a psychologist who was fluent in both languages. The adapted version of Caregiving Scale was presented in Appendix F.

Explanatory factor analyses were conducted to assess the factor structure of the Caregiving Scale. A principle component analysis as the extraction method was run with varimax rotation. Using the criterion for eigenvalue over 1, the scree plot, and the interpretability of the factor solution, three factors were obtained explaining 39.20 % of the variance in Turkish sample rather than the four factors reported by Kuncze and Shaver (1994).

The first factor represented *Sensitive Caregiving* explaining 22.24 % of the variance, .and included 13 items (e.g. “When my partner is troubled or upset, I move closer to provide support and comfort.”) The second factor was composed of eight items (e.g. “I tend to take on my partner’s problems- and then feel burdened by them.”) representing *Controlling-Compulsive Caregiving* and explained 10.98 % of

the variance. The third factor representing *Caregiving Avoidance* included 10 items (e.g. “Too often, I don’t realize when my partner is upset or worried about something”), and this factor accounted for 6.65 % of the variance. In these analyses one item (i.e.: “I can easily keep myself from becoming overly concerned about or overly protective of my partner”) was excluded since it had high cross-loadings from two factors. In this sample, the alpha reliability coefficient for both sensitive caregiving and controlling-compulsive caregiving was .84 and it was .70 for caregiving avoidance factor. Factor loadings of each item; and explained variances, eigenvalues, and Cronbach’s alpha scores of each factor were given in Appendix H.

Caregiving styles were significantly correlated with both attachment anxiety and avoidance providing evidence for criterion validity. For instance, sensitive caregiving was highly and negatively correlated with attachment anxiety ( $r = -.22, p < .01$ ) and avoidance ( $r = -.63, p < .01$ ). Caregiving avoidance was also positively correlated with attachment avoidance ( $r = .43, p < .01$ ) and controlling-compulsive caregiving was positively correlated with attachment anxiety ( $r = .25, p < .01$ ). While caregiving avoidance was positively correlated with attachment anxiety ( $r = .29, p < .01$ ), controlling-compulsive caregiving was positively correlated with attachment avoidance ( $r = .20, p < .01$ ).



### **2.2.6 Dyadic Adjustment Scale**

Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) was used to assess marital satisfaction. The DAS was developed by Spanier (1976) and adapted into Turkish by Fıfılođlu and Demir (2000). The scale consists of 32 items assessing quality and adjustment of the relationship as perceived by married or cohabiting couples. The example items from the scale were presented in Appendix G. Participants responded using Likert-type scales. There are different parts having 5-point, 6-point, or 7-point response formats; and two of the items are answered either yes or no. Each part in the scale has different scoring and the total score is computed by summing of the all items, which ranges 0 to 151. Higher scores correspond to higher perception of the quality of relationship.

Fıfılođlu and Demir (2000) reported high reliability coefficient for the DAS, Cronbach's alpha was .92 and the split-half reliability was .86. Criterion validity was evaluated by the correlation between Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Test and DAS, and it was .82 (Fıfılođlu & Demir, 2000).

### **2.3 Procedure**

The questionnaire package used in this study was first submitted for the approval of Middle East Technical University, Human Participants Ethic Committee. After the approval of the ethic committee, the questionnaire was administered to married women living in Aydın and Ankara. These cities were chosen in order to

reach women who have both arranged or love marriages in a comparable proportion. In both cities the questionnaire battery was administered in different neighborhoods via snowball sampling techniques considering the socio economic status of participants. In Aydın, the questionnaires were applied in Adnan Menderes Mahallesi, Sağlık Evleri Mahallesi, Aydın State Hospital, the Fifth Cottage Hospital, Aydın Tax Office, Gaziosmanpaşa Elementary School, Cumhuriyet Elementary School; and to some participants' relatives living in close neighborhoods. In Ankara, the women living in Çankaya and Etimesgut (Elvankent) were applied the questionnaire package. Specifically, the married women working at METU, Ankara Physiotherapy Hospital, Mareşal Fevzi Çakmak Elementary School were included in the study.

The questionnaire was presented to women in an envelope and they were asked not to write their names on the questionnaire. In order to assure anonymity, the instructions were given informing participants that their responses would only be used for research purposes. The inform consent was also included explaining the objectives of the study (see Appendix A). Administration of the questionnaire took about 20 minutes. The measures in the questionnaire battery were presented in Appendix A.

## CHAPTER 3

### RESULTS

#### 3.1 Preliminary Analyses

Initially descriptive analyses and a series of *t*-test were conducted for each variable to compare the mean values for women having love and arranged marriages. As seen in Table 3.1, descriptive analyses indicated that the total mean score of attachment strength to partner was 23.87 (SD = 12.49), attachment to mother was 18.07 (SD = 11.41) and attachment to child was 7.33 (SD = 7.84), suggesting relatively moderate levels of attachment strength over the maximum possible score of 40.00. Moreover, the total mean score for proximity seeking for partner was 2.17 (SD= 1.32), for safe haven 2.70 (SD = 1.42) and for secure base 2.36 (SD = 1.46) over the score of 4.00 at most. In terms of attachment insecurity, over the highest value of the scale 5.00, attachment anxiety ( $M = 2.15$ ,  $SD = 0.54$ ) had higher mean score than attachment avoidance ( $M = 1.67$ ,  $SD = 0.65$ ). Considering caregiving styles, sensitive caregiving had the highest mean score ( $M = 5.02$ ,  $SD = 0.75$ ) relative to controlling-compulsive caregiving ( $M = 3.02$ ,  $SD = 0.75$ ) and caregiving avoidance ( $M = 2.60$ ,  $SD = 0.75$ ) over the maximum possible score of 6.00.

**Table 3.1 Descriptive Statistics and Marriage Type Differences between Study Variables**

	Total			Love		Arranged		t (202)	Cohen's d
	Mean	SD	alpha	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Attachment Strength for Partner	23.87	12.49	0.89	25.40	12.18	22.24	12.67	-1.82	
Attachment Strength for Mother	18.07	11.41	0.89	19.04	11.51	12.67	11.28	-1.25	
Attachment Strength for Child	7.03	7.84	0.83	5.12	6.64	9.06	8.52	3.67**	0.52
Attachment Strength for Father	6.79	7.33	0.86	6.75	7.41	6.84	7.27	0.08	
Proximity Function for Partner	2.17	1.32	0.77	2.34	1.35	1.99	1.25	-1.97*	-0.28
Safe Haven Function for Partner	2.70	1.42	0.75	2.87	1.37	2.53	1.46	-1.73	
Secure Base Function for Partner	2.36	1.46	0.79	2.48	1.40	2.25	1.52	-1.13	
Anxiety	2.15	0.54	0.72	2.11	0.58	2.20	0.52	1.19	
Avoidance	1.67	0.65	0.89	1.51	0.52	1.82	0.74	3.27**	0.46
Marital Satisfaction	109.95	20.55	0.92 <sup>a</sup>	112.47	19.33	107.28	21.55	-1.81	
Sensitive Caregiving	5.02	0.75	0.84	5.07	0.66	4.96	0.83	-1.08	
Controlling-Compulsive Caregiving	3.02	1.23	0.84	2.90	1.14	3.15	1.31	1.45	
Caregiving Avoidance	2.60	0.91	0.70	2.37	0.76	2.83	1.00	3.65**	0.51
Division of Household Labor	2.17	0.91	0.82	2.29	0.54	2.05	0.58	-3.03**	-0.43

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , <sup>a</sup> (Fıfılođlu & Demir, 2000)

As presented in Table 3.1, Women with love and arranged marriages were compared on 14 major variables and there were significant differences on five variables. The results of the t-tests indicated that women with arranged marriages reported higher attachment strength to their children ( $M = 9.06$ ) than women with love marriages ( $M = 5.12$ ) [ $t(202) = 3.67, p < .01, d = 0.52$ ]. On the other hand, women who had love marriages reported higher scores on proximity seeking function ( $M = 2.34$ ) than the ones who had arranged marriages ( $M = 1.99$ ) [ $t(202) = -1.97, p < .05, d = -0.28$ ]. Women with love initiated marriages reported their marriages as more egalitarian ( $M = 2.29$ ) than women with arranged marriages ( $M = 2.05$ ) [ $t(202) = -3.03, p < .01, d = -0.42$ ]. Further, women in arranged marriages tended to be more avoidant ( $M = 1.82$ ) compared to the ones in love marriages ( $M = 1.51$ ) [ $t(202) = 3.27, p < .01, d = 0.46$ ]. Lastly, women in arranged marriages reported higher scores on caregiving avoidance ( $M = 2.83$ ) than the ones in love marriages ( $M = 2.37$ ) [ $t(202) = 3.65, p < .01, d = 0.51$ ].

To see the magnitude of differences, Cohen's  $d$  coefficient representing the general effect size of the mean differences were calculated. According to Cohen's criteria, any significant differences up to .50 is expected as weak effect, between .50 and .80 as moderate effect, and the values higher than .80 as strong effect. Using these criteria, all of the significant differences between two groups seemed to be weak in effect size. Two marriage groups seem to be moderately different from each other on the attachment strength to child and caregiving avoidance only.

As seen in Table 3.2, bivariate associations were calculated for both love marriages and arranged marriages. Correlation matrix revealed that, in both marriages partner attachment strength was found to be negatively correlated with avoidance, and positively correlated with marital satisfaction [for love marriages ( $r = .39, p < .01$ ) and for arranged marriages ( $r = .45, p < .01$ )]; and sensitive caregiving [for love marriages ( $r = .40, p < .01$ ) and for arranged marriages ( $r = .30, p < .01$ )]. While strength of attachment to partner was associated with caregiving avoidance negatively ( $r = -.43, p < .01$ ) and division of labor positively ( $r = .24, p < .05$ ) in love marriages; it was associated with child attachment strength positively ( $r = .22, p < .05$ ) in arranged marriages. Women's attachment strength to mother was negatively correlated with their attachment strength to children in both marriages [for love marriages ( $r = -.28, p < .01$ ) and for arranged marriages ( $r = -.30, p < .01$ )]. Moreover, strength of attachment to mother was correlated with attachment strength to father positively ( $r = .54, p < .01$ ) and avoidance dimension negatively ( $r = -.34, p < .01$ ) in just arranged marriages. Attachment strength to child was also positively related to proximity seeking function for partner, safe haven function for partner, attachment avoidance and caregiving avoidance only in arranged marriages.

All of the basic attachment functions (proximity seeking, safe haven, and secure base) for partner were significantly and highly correlated with each other. In both types of marriage, each attachment function was associated with marital satisfaction and sensitive caregiving positively; and negatively with attachment

avoidance. Finally, all three attachment functions were correlated with caregiving avoidance negatively and division of labor positively in love marriages only.

Attachment anxiety and avoidance were found to be significantly and positively associated with each other in both marriage types. High attachment anxiety and avoidance was associated with low marital satisfaction and less egalitarian structure in marriage and high caregiving avoidance. Attachment anxiety was also associated with controlling-compulsive caregiving for women in both types of marriages, as expected. Whereas anxiety was related to sensitive caregiving negatively in just love marriages, it was related to caregiving avoidance positively in both types of marriages. Attachment avoidance was found to be related to sensitive caregiving negatively in both marriage types, and it was significantly related to controlling-compulsive caregiving in just arranged marriages. Moreover, sensitive caregiving was correlated with controlling-compulsive caregiving and caregiving avoidance negatively for women in both marriage types. However, controlling-compulsive caregiving and caregiving avoidance were found to be highly and positively correlated with each other in only arranged marriages.

Caregiving styles were also found to be important for dyadic satisfaction in marriage. For example, in both types of marriage, sensitive caregiving was positively and strongly correlated with marital satisfaction and caregiving avoidance was negatively correlated with marital satisfaction. However, controlling-compulsive caregiving was negatively correlated with marital satisfaction in arranged marriages

only. Egalitarian structure in marriage was found to be associated with marital satisfaction in both types of marriage.

As presented in Table 3.2, the length of marriage is another important factor for the dynamics of marital relationships. In this study, marriage duration was negatively correlated with partner attachment strength in love marriages ( $r = -.20, p < .05$ ), and it was negatively correlated with mother attachment strength in both types of marriages [for love marriages ( $r = -.32, p < .01$ ) and for arranged marriages ( $r = -.38, p < .01$ )], the negative significant association between father attachment strength and the duration of marriage was found in arranged marriages ( $r = -.28, p < .01$ ) but not in love marriages. In addition, in both types of marriage, the attachment strength for child was positively related to the duration of marriage [for love marriages ( $r = .51, p < .01$ ) and for arranged marriages ( $r = .58, p < .01$ )]. Besides, in love marriages marital satisfaction ( $r = -.22, p < .05$ ) and in arranged marriages division of labor ( $r = -.20, p < .05$ ) was negatively associated with the length of marriage. Attachment avoidance, but not attachment anxiety, was positively related to marriage duration in both marriage types. Caregiving avoidance was associated with the length of marriage in arranged marriages only.

Finally, supplementary analyses were conducted to test whether the magnitude of the correlations between love and arranged marriages significantly differed from each other. The Fisher's  $z$  transformation revealed that there were significant differences for three associations regarding their magnitude. The



correlations between attachment avoidance and sensitive caregiving ( $Z = -3.97, p < .001$ ); between division of labor and marital satisfaction ( $Z = 2.22, p < .05$ ), and between sensitive caregiving and safe haven function ( $Z = -1.97, p < .05$ ) were found to be significantly different between love and arranged marriages. Specifically, the association of women's attachment avoidance with sensitive caregiving was stronger for arranged marriages ( $r = -.72, p < .01$ ) than for love marriages ( $r = -.47, p < .01$ ), and the association of division of labor with marital satisfaction was stronger in love marriages ( $r = .41, p < .01$ ) than in arranged marriages ( $r = .21, p < .01$ ). Lastly, the association of sensitive caregiving with safe haven function was stronger for love marriages ( $r = .38, p < .01$ ) than arranged marriages ( $r = .20, p < .05$ ).

**Table 3.2 Correlations between the Study Variables in Love and Arranged Marriages**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1 Attachment Strength for Partner	1														
2 Attachment Strength for Mother	-.05 .03	1													
3 Attachment Strength for Child	.17 .22*	-.28**	1												
4 Attachment Strength for Father	.00 .02	.15 .54**	-.03 -.13	1											
5 Proximity Function for Partner	.92** .92**	-.02 .04	.13 .22*	.00 -.03	1										
6 Safe Haven Function for Partner	.86** .91**	-.04 .05	.18 .22*	.07 .07	.68** .75**	1									
7 Secure Base Function for Partner	.87** .90**	-.07 -.01	.17 .16	-.06 .02	.71** .74**	.62** .73**	1								
8 Anxiety	-.09 -.14	-.07 .09	-.01 .15	.02 -.12	-.06 -.18	-.07 -.03	-.13 -.18	1							
9 Avoidance	-.43** -.34**	-.03 -.22*	-.10 .21*	-.06 -.17	-.41** -.37**	-.32** -.24*	-.41** -.31**	.42** .40**	1						
10 Marital Satisfaction	.39** .45**	.01 .07	-.01 -.09	.06 .16	.39** .44**	.33** .37**	.31** .43**	-.58** -.45**	-.63** -.63**	1					
11 Sensitive Caregiving	.40** .30**	-.09 .12	.11 -.19	.11 .02	.36** .29**	.38** .20*	.33** .31**	-.27** -.17	-.47** -.72**	.48** .59**	1				
12 Controlling-Compulsive Caregiving	.00 -.13	-.04 -.11	.11 -.02	-.02 -.04	.04 -.14	-.01 -.09	-.03 -.10	.24* .25*	.11 .22*	-.13 -.23*	-.42** -.24*	1			
13 Caregiving Avoidance	-.43** -.08	-.10 -.19	.02 .20*	-.06 -.05	-.43** -.08	-.34** -.01	-.36** -.12	.26** .31**	.46** .35**	-.40** -.45**	-.47** -.34**	.17 .56**	1		
14 Division of Household Labor	.24* .12	-.10 .08	.05 -.16	.01 .18	.20* .05	.21* .16	.23* .12	-.32** -.27**	-.20* -.24*	.41** .21*	.18 .14	-.07 -.15	-.10 -.17	1	
15 The Length of Marriage	-.20* -.12	-.32** -.38**	.51** .58**	.04 -.28**	-.23* -.12	-.11 -.09	-.17 -.11	.07 .07	.24* .24*	-.22* -.16	.04 -.18	.09 .15	.18 .21	.01 -.20*	1

\* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ 

In the pair of correlations, first one belongs to love marriages and the second one belongs to arranged marriages.

### **3.2 The Success of Transference of Attachment Functions in Love and Arranged Marriages (Hypothesis 1)**

It was hypothesized that basic attachment functions (i.e., proximity seeking, safe haven, and secure base) are expected to be transferred to the spouse in both arranged and love marriages. However, this transference was expected to be in higher magnitude for love relationships than for arranged marriages. To test the magnitude of transference of attachment functions to the spouse in different marriage types, one way ANCOVAs were conducted. In these analyses, three attachment functions and attachment strength to partner were dependent variables, type of marriage was independent variable, and the length of marriage was treated as covariate. The results revealed that there was no significant difference between the love and arranged marriages in terms of magnitude of attachment figure transference and strength of attachment to spouse.

### **3.3 Marriage Duration and the Change of Attachment Targets in Love and Arranged Marriages (Hypothesis 2)**

It was expected that attachment to spouse represented by the three attachment functions is expected to increase with the passage of time in both types of marriages. However, the transference was expected to be earlier in love marriages than for arranged marriages. It was also expected that while the strength of attachment to mother and father decreases the strength of attachment to children would increase with the passage of time. In order to test the first part of the hypothesis, 3 (the length

of marriage) X 2 (marriage type) between subjects ANOVAs were conducted to test whether the attachment functions are transferred earlier in love marriages than in arranged marriages. Before these analyses, the length of marriage which is a continuous variable was divided into three groups by examining the percentiles. The first group consisted of the marriages between 3 and 74 months, the second group consisted of the ones between 74 and 147 months, and the third group consisted of the ones between 149 and 364 months. Separate analyses were conducted for each attachment function for spouses, which are proximity seeking, safe haven and secure. The results showed that, neither main effects nor interaction effects between the length of marriage and marriage types were found to be significant. In other words, contrary to the hypothesis, women in love marriages did not transfer attachment functions to the spouse earlier than the ones in arranged marriages.

Bivariate associations were also examined for both types of marriage to see the associations of marriage duration and attachment functions and strength of attachment to spouse in two different marriages. As shown in Table 3.2, including the correlations of variables, the length of marriage was significantly and negatively associated with proximity seeking function for the spouse in love marriages ( $r = -.23, p < .05$ ) only. Safe haven and secure base functions were not significantly associated with marriage duration in both marriage types. In addition, the attachment strength to partner was significantly and negatively related to marriage duration ( $r = -.20, p < .05$ ) in love marriages.

Bivariate associations were examined for the second part of this hypothesis, to assess the change of attachment targets with the passage of time. The correlation coefficients reveals that attachment strength for mothers was negatively associated with marriage duration in love marriages ( $r = -.32, p < .01$ ) and arranged marriages ( $r = -.38, p < .01$ ); and marriage duration was negatively associated with attachment strength for father in arranged marriages only ( $r = -.28, p < .01$ ). Additionally, the attachment strength to children was highly and positively related to the length of marriage in love marriages ( $r = .51, p < .01$ ) and in arranged marriages ( $r = .58, p < .01$ ]. To sum up, partially supporting the hypothesis, while marriage duration was not related to attachment functions and attachment strength to partner, the attachment targets tended to change as the duration of marriage increases.

### **3.4 The Relationships among Attachment Anxiety and Avoidance, Attachment Strength to Partner, and Attachment Functions (Hypothesis 3)**

It was hypothesized that attachment anxiety and avoidance are expected to be negatively correlated with successful transference of attachment to partners and stronger attachment to spouse in both types of marriages. Hierarchical moderated regression analyses were conducted for each marriage type to test this hypothesis controlling for the duration of marriage. In the hierarchical moderated regression analyses, attachment strength to partner and each attachment function were treated as dependent variables and attachment anxiety and avoidance were treated as independent variables.

Additionally, following the procedures described by Aiken and West (1991) attachment anxiety and avoidance were mean-centered and an interaction term was computed by multiplying centered attachment anxiety and centered attachment avoidance. That is, for each analysis, the length of marriage was entered in first step, attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance were entered in the second step and the interaction of attachment anxiety and avoidance were entered in the third step.

Results showed that not attachment anxiety but attachment avoidance significantly and negatively predicted transference of attachment functions and attachment strength to partner for both types of marriages. Particularly, high attachment avoidance was associated with weak attachment strength to partner in both love marriages ( $\beta = -.45, p < .001$ ) and arranged marriages ( $\beta = -.33, p < .01$ ). Moreover, women who had high scores on attachment avoidance had low scores on proximity seeking function [in love marriages ( $\beta = -.44, p < .001$ ) and in arranged marriages ( $\beta = -.35, p < .01$ )], on safe haven function [in love marriages ( $\beta = -.35, p < .001$ ) and in arranged marriages ( $\beta = -.27, p < .05$ )], and secure base function [in love marriages ( $\beta = -.41, p < .001$ ) and in arranged marriages ( $\beta = -.27, p < .05$ )] for their spouses. However, the interaction of attachment anxiety and avoidance was not significantly associated with any of attachment functions and attachment strength. The standardized regression coefficients ( $\beta$ ), explained variance in each step ( $R^2 \Delta$ ), and total explained variances ( $R^2$ ) are presented in Table 3.3.

**Table 3.3 Attachment Anxiety and Avoidance Regressed on Attachment Strength to Partner and Attachment Functions for Love and Arranged Marriages**

	Love Marriages		Arranged Marriages	
	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup> $\Delta$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup> $\Delta$
<b>DV: Attachment Strength to Partner</b>				
Step 1		.04*		.01
The Length of Marriage	-.20*		-.12	
Step2		.17***		.10**
Att. Anxiety	.10		-.01	
Avoidance	-.45***		-.33**	
Step 3		.00		.00
Anxiety X Avoidance	.03		-.02	
$\Sigma R^2$		.21		.12
<b>DV: Proximity Seeking</b>				
Step 1		.06*		.02
The Length of Marriage	-.23*		-.12	
Step2		.15***		.13**
Att. Anxiety	.14		-.04	
Avoidance	-.44***		-.35**	
Step 3		.00		.00
Anxiety X Avoidance	-.02		-.02	
$\Sigma R^2$		.20		.14
<b>DV: Safe Haven</b>				
Step 1		.01		.01
The Length of Marriage	-.11		-.09	
Step2		.10**		.06
Att. Anxiety	.08		.08	
Avoidance	-.35**		-.27*	
Step 3		.01		.00
Anxiety X Avoidance	.12		-.06	
$\Sigma R^2$		.12		.07
<b>DV: Secure Base</b>				
Step 1		.03		.01
The Length of Marriage	-.17		-.11	
Step2		.15***		.09*
Att. Anxiety	.05		-.07	
Avoidance	-.41***		-.27*	
Step 3		.00		.00
Anxiety X Avoidance	-.01		.02	
$\Sigma R^2$		.17		.10

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

### **3.5 Transference of Attachment Functions, Attachment Strength to Partner, Attachment Anxiety and Attachment Avoidance, and Marital Satisfaction (Hypothesis 4)**

It was hypothesized that the participants involved in both types of marriages would have high levels of marital satisfaction when the transfer of attachment functions to the spouse is successful; the strength of attachment to the spouse is high, and attachment insecurity is low (i.e., having low levels of attachment anxiety and avoidance).

To see the effects of attachment figure transference and attachment insecurity on marital satisfaction, hierarchical regression analyses were conducted for two separate groups controlling for the marriage duration. All independent variables and control variables were mean-centered for each analysis, and the length of marriage was entered in first step, attachment functions were entered in the second step; and attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance, and the interaction of attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance were entered in the third step. Results revealed that attachment functions did not predict marital satisfaction in both marriage types, except proximity seeking function of women with love marriages.

As see in Table 3.4, both attachment anxiety and avoidance significantly predicted marital satisfaction in both marriage types. However, the interaction of attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance was not significantly associated with marital satisfaction.



**Table 3.4 Attachment Functions, Attachment Anxiety and Avoidance Predicting Marital Satisfaction**

	Love Marriages		Arranged Marriages	
	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup> $\Delta$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup> $\Delta$
Step 1		.05*		.03
The Length of Marriage	-.06		-.03	
Step2		.13**		.20***
Proximity Seeking Function for Partner	.21†		.03	
Safe Haven Function for Partner	.10		.16	
Secure Base Function for Partner	-.11		.10	
Step 3		.39***		.30***
Att. Anxiety	-.41***		-.28**	
Avoidance	-.37***		-.49***	
Anxiety X Avoidance	-.01		.13	
	$\Sigma R^2$	.56		.53

Note.  $\beta$  values were taken from the final step.

† $p < .10$ , \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$

### 3.6 Caregiving Styles, Attachment Functions, Attachment Strength to Partner and Marital Satisfaction (Hypothesis 5)

Responsive and sensitive caregiving styles are expected to be positively and compulsive and controlling caregiving styles are expected to be negatively associated with attachment figure transference, attachment to partner, and marital satisfaction in both types of marriages. Further, in the factor analysis of caregiving scale, a new caregiving avoidance factor was emerged in Turkish cultural context. In this regard, caregiving avoidance is also expected to be negatively associated with the mentioned variables. To test these associations, regression analyses were conducted for each

marriage. Three caregiving styles were entered as predictor variables; three attachment functions, strength of attachment to partner and marital satisfaction were used as dependent variables in the regression analyses after controlling for the length of marriage. Results showed that sensitive caregiving, which includes supportive, sensitive, proximate and cooperative caregiving styles, significantly predicted strength of attachment to spouse [in love marriages ( $\beta = .39, p < .001$ ) and in arranged marriages ( $\beta = .28, p < .05$ )], proximity seeking function [in love marriages ( $\beta = .35, p < .01$ ) and in arranged marriages ( $\beta = .28, p < .05$ )], safe haven function [in love marriages ( $\beta = .39, p < .01$ )], and secure base function [in love marriages ( $\beta = .29, p < .05$ ) and in arranged marriages ( $\beta = .29, p < .05$ )]. Sensitive caregiving also highly and positively predicted marital satisfaction in love and arranged marriages. Controlling-compulsive caregiving significantly predicted attachment strength to spouses and proximity seeking function in only love marriages. Lastly, caregiving avoidance significantly and negatively predicted strength of attachment to spouse, proximity seeking function, and secure base function in love marriages; and marital satisfaction in arranged marriages. The standardized regression coefficients ( $\beta$ ), explained variance of each step ( $R^2 \Delta$ ), and total explained variances ( $R^2$ ) are presented in Table 3.5.

**Table 3.5 Caregiving Styles Regressed on Attachment Strength to Partner, Attachment Functions and Marital Satisfaction for Love and Arranged Marriages**

	<u>Love Marriages</u>		<u>Arranged Marriages</u>	
	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup> $\Delta$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup> $\Delta$
<b>DV: Attachment Strength to Partner</b>				
Step 1		.04*		.01
The Length of Marriage	-.19		-.07	
Step2		.26***		.08*
Sensitive Caregiving	.39***		.28*	
Controlling-Compulsive Caregiving	.23*		-.10	
Caregiving Avoidance	-.25*		.08	
$\Sigma R^2$		.30		.10
<b>DV: Proximity Seeking</b>				
Step 1		.06*		.02
The Length of Marriage	-.22*		-.08	
Step2		.25***		.09*
Sensitive Caregiving	.35**		.28*	
Controlling-Compulsive Caregiving	.25**		-.12	
Caregiving Avoidance	-.27**		.11	
$\Sigma R^2$		.30		.10
<b>DV: Safe Haven</b>				
Step 1		.01		.01
The Length of Marriage	-.11		-.06	
Step2		.20***		.04
Sensitive Caregiving	.39**		.20	
Controlling-Compulsive Caregiving	.20		-.11	
Caregiving Avoidance	-.17		.11	
$\Sigma R^2$		.22		.05

**Table 3.5 (cont'd)**

	<u>Love Marriages</u>		<u>Arranged Marriages</u>	
	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup> $\Delta$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup> $\Delta$
<b>DV: Secure Base</b>				
Step 1		.03		.01
The Length of Marriage	-.15		-.05	
Step2		.17***		.08*
Sensitive Caregiving	.29*		.29*	
Controlling-Compulsive Caregiving	.14		-.03	
Caregiving Avoidance	-.22*		.00	
$\Sigma R^2$		.20		.10
<b>DV: Marital Satisfaction</b>				
Step 1		.05*		.03
The Length of Marriage	-.22**		-.02	
Step2		.27***		.40***
Sensitive Caregiving	.47***		.50***	
Controlling-Compulsive Caregiving	.12		.07	
Caregiving Avoidance	-.16		-.29**	
$\Sigma R^2$		.32		.42

Note.  $\beta$  values were taken from the final step.

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

### **3.7 Egalitarian vs. Traditional Marriages, the Strength of Attachment to Partner and Marital Satisfaction (Hypothesis 6)**

It was expected that love marriages would be characterized by egalitarian and arranged marriages would be characterized by traditional marriages. Furthermore, as compared to traditional marriages, egalitarian marriages would be associated with stronger attachment to the spouse and high marital satisfaction.

In order to test the first part of the sixth hypothesis, ANCOVA was conducted to compare love and arranged marriages in terms of egalitarian structure. In the analysis, marriage type was treated as independent variable, division of labor in house chores as dependent variable and marriage duration as covariate variable. Results revealed that egalitarian structure of marriage was found significantly different in two marriage groups [ $F(1, 203) = 6.05, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .03$ ]. Love marriages were found to be more egalitarian in terms of division of household labor ( $M = 2.27$ ) relative to arranged marriages ( $M = 2.07$ ). However, when the education level was controlled in the analysis the difference was not significant.

In order to test the second part of the sixth hypothesis, the moderator role of marriage types on the relationship between division of labor and transference of attachment functions and division of labor and marital satisfaction was tested. Specifically, it was tested if marital satisfaction is high and attachment to spouse is stronger for the participants with egalitarian marriage than traditional ones. To test these associations, two hierarchical moderated regression analyses were conducted. Division of labor in house chores was independent variable and marriage type was the moderator variable in predicting attachment figure transference and attachment strength for the spouse for each analyses after controlling for the marriage duration. Prior to the analysis, following the procedures described by Aiken and West (1991), division of labor, marriage type, and length of marriage were mean-centered and an interaction term was computed by multiplying centered division of labor with the

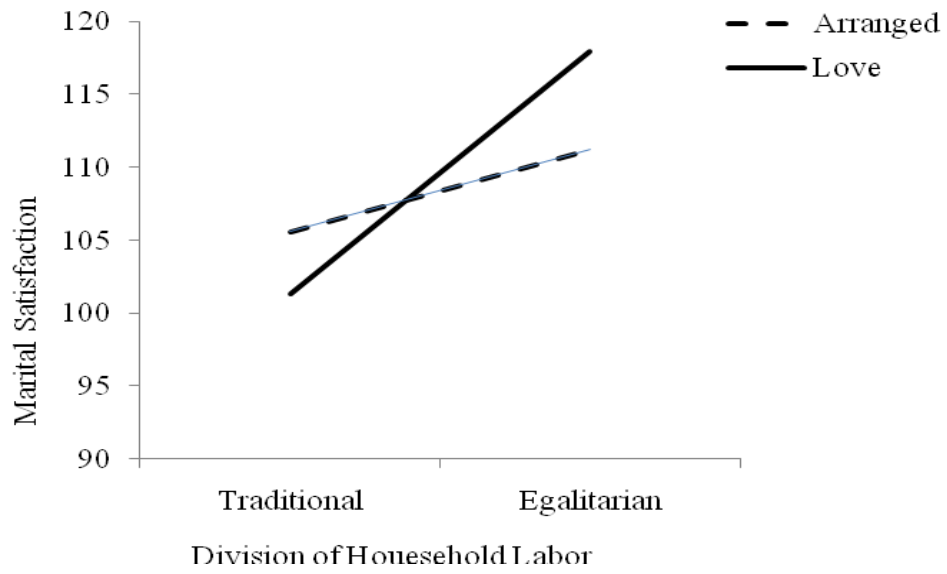
moderator. In sum, the length of marriage was entered in the first step, division of labor and marriage groups were entered in the second step, and finally interaction of the centered division of labor and marriage groups were entered to the equation in the third step. Two separate hierarchical moderated regression analyses were conducted by entering attachment strength to partner and marital satisfaction as dependent variables. If any of the interaction terms between attachment variables and marriage types was significant, it would support the moderating effect of marriage types.

Results showed that division of labor significantly predicted marital satisfaction and strength of attachment to spouse. The participants who had more egalitarian marriages reported stronger attachment to their spouse ( $\beta = .16, p < .05$ ), and they also reported higher marital satisfaction ( $\beta = .29, p < .001$ ). Although the findings did not support the prediction in terms of moderator effects of marriage type on the relationship between strength of attachment to partner, the marginally significant interaction effect predicting marital satisfaction was found ( $\beta = .11, p = .10$ ). As seen in Figure 1, simple slope test was conducted and results demonstrated that if women with love-marriages also have egalitarian marriage type they reported the highest level of marital satisfaction. This pattern was just reversed for women with love-initiated marriage in traditional marital structure (see *Figure 1*). The standardized regression coefficients ( $\beta$ ), explained variance of each step ( $R^2 \Delta$ ), and total explained variances ( $R^2$ ) are presented in Table 3.6.

**Table 3.6 The Moderator Effects of Marriage Types on the Relationship between Division of Labor and Attachment Strength to Partner, and Division of Labor and Marital Satisfaction**

Variables	Total Satisfaction		Attachment Strength	
	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup> $\Delta$	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup> $\Delta$
Step 1		.05**		.04**
The Length of Marriage	-.22**		-.19*	
Step 2		.09**		.03*
Marriage Types	.01		.05	
Division of Labor	.29***		.16*	
Step 3		.01		.01
Division of Labor X Marriage Types	.11†		.08	
	$\Sigma R^2$	.14		.07

† $p < .10$ , \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$



**Figure 3.1** Interaction Effect of Marriage Types and Division of Labor on Marital Satisfaction



## **CHAPTER 4**

### **DISCUSSION**

The main goal of the current study was to assess and compare women with love-initiated and the ones with arranged marriages in terms of the dynamics of attachment patterns and attachment figure transference. Particularly, transference of attachment functions to husband, women's attachment insecurity (i.e., attachment anxiety and avoidance), women's caregiving styles towards husband and the structure of marriage (egalitarian vs. traditional) were investigated in predicting marital quality in Turkish cultural context. Based on the assumptions of attachment theory and considering cultural patterns in marriage, the predictors of attachment figure transference and marital satisfaction were addressed. The length of marriage, individual differences in attachment, type of marriage, caregiving styles and the egalitarian structure of marriage in terms of division of labor in house chores were expected to be associated with transference of attachment functions to the spouse. Moreover, attachment security, successful attachment figure transference, and sensitive and responsive caregiving styles were identified as the predictors of marital satisfaction in arranged and love marriages.

In the following sections, first, the findings on descriptive characteristics and bivariate associations will be discussed. Secondly, the findings regarding the testing of main hypotheses will be presented. Thirdly, the limitations of the study and suggestions for future studies will be discussed. Finally, major contributions and implications of the study will be addressed.

#### **4.1 Descriptive Statistics, Bivariate Associations, and Comparison of two Marriage Types**

In the present study, married women's attachment strength to their husbands was found high as compared to attachment to other significant people in their life for both love and arranged marriages. Similarly, Feeney and Hohaus (2001) found that married women tended to strongly attach to their husbands as compared to other attachment figures. Feeney (2004) also asserted that parents who were fundamental attachment figures in early years are replaced with husbands later in life.

In this study, when mean differences were examined; two marriage groups seem to be moderately divergent from each other on five major variables. For instance, women with love marriage reported their spouses as attachment target for proximity seeking function in high frequency relative to the women with arranged marriages. Despite there were no significant difference, the mean values of safe haven and secure base were also higher for love marriages. Considering these findings it can be claimed that women with love-initiated marriages seem to have a slight tendency for stronger attachment transference than those with arranged

marriages, but this trend is rather weak, and similarities between the two groups of marriages are more common than the differences. A noteworthy finding was that women with arranged marriages reported stronger attachment to their children relative to the ones in love marriages. This can be interpreted that women in arranged marriages might have developed stronger attachment to their children to compensate relatively lower levels of attachment to their husbands. Supporting this argument, it was also found that women with arranged marriages tended to be more avoidant and were higher on caregiving avoidance as compared to the ones with love marriages.

Overall, obtained significant correlations were in the expected direction and in moderate magnitude. Preliminary results provided partial support to the main hypotheses. As predicted, the three attachment functions and the strength of attachment to spouse were associated with marital satisfaction in both marriage types. Marital satisfaction was strongly correlated with attachment insecurity consistent with previous research (e.g. Kobak & Hazan, 1991; Feeney, Noller, & Callan, 1994) suggesting that high attachment anxiety and avoidance predict lower relationship quality. In the same line, high and negative correlation between attachment functions and attachment avoidance was also found for both types of marriage. Another interesting finding was that high attachment avoidance was associated with stronger attachment to the child and weaker attachment to mother in arranged marriages. This finding should be probed more in future studies.

Caregiving styles and marital satisfaction were significantly associated in both types of marriage. Previously, some studies (e.g. Collins & Feeney, 2000; Julien

& Markman, 1991) also supported this association suggesting that responsive and sensitive caregiving styles were highly correlated with dyadic adjustment in marital relationships. Further, although it was stronger for love marriages, the relationship between division of labor in house chores and women's marital satisfaction was significant in arranged marriages. Egalitarian structure in marriage (which was assessed on the basis on division of labor) and women's attachment to spouse were also significantly correlated in love marriages only. It can be concluded that since cultural context seems to determine the structure of division of labor (Hortaçsu, 1997; Hortaçsu & Oral, 1996), love-initiated marriages tend to be more egalitarian, which might result in stronger relationship between the division of labor and marital satisfaction in love marriages rather than arranged marriages. Thus, marital satisfaction in arranged marriages, which are traditional in nature, might not be affected by the degree of division of labor in marriage as strong as it is in love marriages.

Considering the caregiving styles, having a sensitive and responsive caregiving was strongly correlated with women's attachment figure transference in both marriages. Caregiving avoidance of women, which has been observed specifically in this sample, was negatively associated with attachment figure transference of women with love marriages. Specifically, avoidant caregiving of women to the husband, such as missing partner's signals for help or understanding, and pushing partner away when he needed a hug or a kiss, was negatively correlated with preferring husband as a target to satisfy attachment needs.

Additional analyses revealed some other differences between the two marriage types. For instance, women's high attachment avoidance was strongly associated with caring less sensitively for their husband in arranged marriages as compared to love marriages. Supportive and sensitive caring was strongly associated with preferring husband for safe haven function for women with love marriages relative to the ones with arranged marriages. These findings suggest that caregiving quality between the spouses is associated with the strength of attachment transference more strongly for women with love marriages than those arranged marriages.

## **4.2 Main Findings of the Study**

### **4.2.1 The Success of Transference of Attachment Functions in Love and Arranged Marriages**

One of the primary goals of this study is to examine the predictors of attachment figure transference to spouse (husband) in two different marriage groups. In this line, women with love-initiated and the ones with arranged marriages were compared in terms of magnitude and success of attachment figure transference. The success of the transference was assessed depending on the reported hierarchical priority of the preferred attachment targets for the three attachment functions; proximity seeking, safe haven, and secure base. Contrary to the expectations, however, women in two marriage groups were not significantly different on the attachment functions although the mean values of attachment functions were

relatively higher for love marriages. Specifically, women with either love or arranged marriages equally prefer their husbands as attachment figures. It can be argued that a legal marriage may automatically encourage the process of attachment figure transference in all types of marriages due to its intimate nature and heightened interdependency. Although this argument runs contrary to the findings suggesting that romantic love and attraction to spouses foster the transference of attachment to the partner (Hazan & Zeifman, 1994, 1999), Bowlby (1973/1982) states that repeated interaction and familiarity are sufficient for perceiving someone as attachment figure. Therefore, it can be concluded that dynamics and nature of marriage institution involving proximity and interdependency may support attachment transition, and it can be claimed that if people get married, they might be oriented to be attached to their spouse regardless of how initiate the marriage at the beginning.

#### **4.2.2 Marriage Duration and the Change of Attachment Targets in Love and Arranged Marriages**

Considering the effect of love, which has been shown as the clear indication of attachment in the previous work, it was assumed that attachment figure transference would be earlier in time in love marriage as compared to arranged marriages. Supporting this, examining on dating couples Trinke and Bartholomew (1997) found that the longer the duration of their participants' relationships, the more likely they would use their partners to fulfill attachment functions. In the present study, however, the timing of attachment transference did not change depending on

whether a marriage is initiated via love or via arrangements with no love at the beginning. Moreover, the duration of marriage was negatively correlated with partner attachment of women with love marriages. Considering these findings, it can be speculated that the success of transference of functions and attachment strength in long term married couples and dating partners may be different. Given that the mean duration of marriage is relatively high (more than 10 years) in this sample, the majority of marriages could have been well established the effects of how they initiated the marriages on attachment strength has been weakened by the long passage of time. Considering the negative correlation between marriage duration and attachment strength to husband in love marriage, it seems also plausible that after transference of attachment functions and development of full-blown attachment, time might negatively affect the operation of attachment functions for women especially with love marriage, maybe because of their high caregiving expectations from husbands. The future studies should investigate the effects of length of marriage on the dynamics of attachment figure transference in detail with different and more representative samples.

The present study has demonstrated that the structure of the attachment figure transference of women tends to change with the passage of time. The length of marriage was associated with women's weaker attachment to mother in both marriages, and father in only arranged marriages while the duration was associated with women's stronger attachment to children in two marriage groups.

### **4.2.3 The Relationship among Attachment Anxiety and Avoidance, Attachment Strength to Partner, and Attachment Functions**

Previous studies consistently show that parental attachment security predicts security of attachment to peers (e.g., Fraley & Davis, 1997; Hazan et al., 1991), and secure working models are associated with the extent of transfer (Allen & Land, 1999). Feeney (2004) found that the anxious married couples report more dissatisfaction regarding partner's role in meeting attachment needs. In the current study, women's attachment avoidance rather than anxiety was highly related to the success of transference and strength of spousal attachment in both types of marriage. Specifically, women who were high on attachment avoidance had lower scores of attachment strength, and they reported their husband as attachment targets in relatively low frequency. It could be claimed that attachment avoidance is especially detrimental for attachment figure transference for women in collectivistic relational culture such as Turkey (Sümer and Kağıçbaşı, 2010).

Regression analyses showed that attachment avoidance predicts the success of attachment figure transference more strongly for women with love marriages compared to the ones in arranged marriages. In other words, the avoidant women with love marriages have harder time transferring their attachment figures than the women with any other attachment pattern. However, for the women with love marriages to endure longer the transference of attachment may be a requirement because compared to the ones with arranged marriages, they have less contextual



barriers especially through the first years of marriage. This inference should also be examined in future studies.

#### **4.2.4 Transference of Attachment Functions, Attachment Strength to Partner, Attachment Anxiety and Attachment Avoidance, and Marital Satisfaction**

The strength of attachment to partner and attachment insecurity were among the factors effecting marital satisfaction. Results revealed that women's preference their husband as attachment target for proximity seeking function predict their marital satisfaction in love marriages. However, preferring husband for safe haven and secure base did not predict dyadic satisfaction. The success of women's attachment figure transference to their spouse did not predict marital satisfaction in arranged marriages as well. Concerning with attachment figure transference and marital satisfaction, Feeney (2004) suggested that perceiving a spouse as an attachment figure is critical for marital functioning. However, the literature considering attachment figure transference in romantic relationships as well as in marriage is very limited and there is no adequate evidence to make strong statements. Transfer of attachment should be longitudinally examined from the first year of marriage to the later years to see if initial differences in attachment strength disappear by time as marriages get established.

It is also possible that for women who do not fulfill their attachment needs from the husband in later years may develop stronger attachment to other significant others to compensate this need in the later years of marriage. Supporting this

speculation, in the present study, women's attachment strength to children was found to increase with the passage of time. This finding also deserves further elaborations.

High attachment anxiety and high attachment avoidance negatively predicted dyadic satisfaction in marital relationships. Consistent with previous findings, women's insecurity was highly associated with their marital dissatisfaction. (e.g., Banse, 2004; J.A. Feeney, 2002, 1999; Kobak and Hazan, 1991; Meyers & Landsberger, 2002).

#### **4.2.5 Caregiving Styles, Attachment Functions, Attachment Strength to Partner and Marital Satisfaction**

First, this study contributed to the current literature by adapting Kunce and Shaver's (1994) caregiving style measure into Turkish. The results of factor analysis revealed that although Kunce and Shaver (1994) and later studies consistently found four caregiving dimensions (i.e., proximity vs. distance, sensitivity vs. insensitivity, cooperation vs. control and compulsive caregiving) only three factors emerged in this study, namely sensitive caregiving, controlling-compulsive caregiving and caregiving avoidance. In this sample both compulsive and controlling styles including over-involvement in caregiving of husbands combined in one factor; sensitive, cooperative caring and high proximity provision toward husband were grouped in another factor; and as the third factor caregiving avoidance including low proximity provision and insensitive caregiving were compiled. The differences in the factor structure between the original scale and adapted version might be associated

with differences in cultural contexts. As suggested by previous researchers (e.g.: Schmitt et al, 2004; Sümer and Kağıtçıbaşı 2010) relatively attachment anxiety is common in collectivist cultures and attachment avoidance is common in individualistic cultures. That is to say, whereas attachment anxiety may be functional and tolerated in collectivist cultures (Rothbaum, Rosen, Ujiiie, & Uchida, 2002), attachment avoidance seems to be maladaptive in such cultures involving complete rejection and exclusion (Crittenden, 2000). Thus, it can be concluded that avoidant behaviors in caregiving context might be critical and determinant for marital relationships in Turkish culture.

Sensitive caregiving was highly and negatively correlated with attachment anxiety and avoidance. In this line, previous studies consistently found that secure individuals revealed the most favorable pattern of care within dating and married couples by providing support to the partner in need and being sensitive to needs of partners, and being less likely in control for stance and over-involved in caregiving literature (Feeney & Collins, 2001; Feeney, 1996; Feeney & Hohaus, 2001). Furthermore, while compulsive caregiving was associated with anxiety dimension, caregiving avoidance including lower proximity provision and insensitive caregiving was highly related to avoidance, as expected based on previous work (e.g., Kuncze & Shaver, 1994). However, there were also significant correlation between controlling-compulsive caregiving and attachment avoidance, and between caregiving avoidance and attachment anxiety.

It was expected that responsive and sensitive caregiving styles are positively, and controlling-compulsive caregiving styles and caregiving avoidance are negatively associated with attachment figure transference, attachment strength to partner, and marital satisfaction in both types of marriages. There are a few past studies investigating the relationship between caregiving styles and attachment figure transference. In one of these studies, Feeney (2004) found that higher levels of mutual caring/support and trust/intimacy, which are usually innate in marriages, are positively related to attachment transfer. In the present study, results showed that as well as women's sensitive caregiving, caregiving avoidance highly predicted the success of attachment transition, strength of attachment to spouse, and marital satisfaction in both love and arranged marriages. The women's controlling-compulsive caregiving has also significant effects on the outcome variables. Specifically, the women's sensitive and supportive caring for their husband predicted stronger attachment to partner and successful transference in both love-initiated and arranged marriages consistent with past studies. However, caregiving avoidance was negatively related to stronger partner attachment, and to preferring partner as attachment target for proximity seeking and secure base functions in only love-initiated marriages. On the other hand, controlling-compulsive caregiving positively predicted seeking proximity from husband and stronger spousal attachment, contrary to theoretical expectations. Considering these findings, it can be argued that married women might perceive over-involvement as a sign of attachment and interdependency in Turkish culture. It has been well documented that

interdependency in relationships is highly valued in Turkish culture (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2007). Therefore, over-involving may be seen as a sign of sensitivity in adult close relationships, and compulsive and controlling caregiving might be characteristic of love marriages influencing attachment strength to partner positively.

Previous studies also supported the role of caregiving in relationship satisfaction. For instance, Feeney (1996) found that marital satisfaction is linked with responsive caregiving. In another study Feeney (2005) showed that people whose partners reported more beneficial caregiving had higher marital satisfaction. Consistent with these findings, in the current study, sensitive care of women towards husbands highly predicted their marital satisfaction in both types of marriages, and avoidant caregiving, however, predicted marital satisfaction in only arranged marriages. It can be concluded that ability and willingness to respond sensitively and responsively to the partners' needs are important factors influencing relationship quality.

#### **4.2.6 Egalitarian vs. Traditional Marriages, the Strength of Attachment to Partner and Marital Satisfaction**

A few studies have examined the differences between couples married through love or arrangement, or women having egalitarian or traditional of marriage in Turkey. In this study, it was hypothesized that on the one hand, love marriages would be characterized by egalitarian structure and on the other hand, arranged marriages would be characterized by traditional structure. Furthermore, it was

assumed that, as compared to traditional marriages, egalitarian marriages would be associated with stronger attachment to the spouse and high marital satisfaction.

Supporting the first part of the hypothesis, results revealed that while love marriages were more egalitarian, arranged marriages were more traditional in terms of division of house chores. Support this finding, previous research (Hortaçsu, 1997; Hortaçsu & Oral, 1996, cited in Hortaçsu, 1999) suggested greater gender segregation regarding division of labor in family-initiated (arranged) marriages than couple-initiated (love) marriages. However, this assumed difference disappeared after controlling for the educational level of participants in the present study. It seems that the women with love-initiated marriages were more educated, and thus they have more egalitarian structure as compared to arranged marriages.

For the second part of the hypothesis, moderation analyses were conducted to compare love-initiated and arranged marriages in terms of strength of attachment to spouse and marital satisfaction based on egalitarian structure. Results revealed that women in two marriage groups did not differ in terms of attachment strength to partner depending on egalitarian or traditional structure. However, interaction effect was found significant for marital satisfaction. Women with love marriages reported significantly higher marital satisfaction when they perceive the marriage as egalitarian than as traditional. Egalitarian structure, however, did not affect women's satisfaction in arranged marriages. Past studies also showed that people in arranged marriages tend to have more traditional style and individuals with egalitarian gender-role attitudes have a relatively more equal division of labor than individuals with

traditional gender role attitudes (see Buunk et al., 2000). Thus, it can be claimed that traditional division of labor in house chores is not a profound effect for marital functioning in arranged marriages relative to love-initiated ones, because women in arranged marriages are tradition-oriented in nature and these women have not higher expectations regarding equality in division of house chores as compared to women in love marriages.

#### **4.3 Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Future Studies**

The present study has four major limitations which should be considered while interpreting the findings. The first one is concerned with the sample characteristics, and sampling of the study. The second is about data collection procedure and design. The third limitation is related with measurement issues. And the final one is about the limited generalizability of the study findings.

With regard to the first limitation, only women participants were included in the current study. However, previous studies consistently emphasize the inclusion of both partners in the research on marital relationships (e.g.: Hortaçsu, 2007), and that attachment dynamics could be fully understood only at the level of the dyadic attachment effects which are varied and often gender specific (Feeney, 2008). Dyadic measurement is also critical for assessment of caregiving styles and its implications, as caregiving styles may be determined dynamically by each partner's specific attachment pattern (Carnelley et al., 1996; Collins & Feeney, 2000; Kuncé & Shaver, 1994). However, based on the scarcity of the research in this area, this study is a

preliminary step in understanding women's attachment dynamics and its cultural correlates.

The duration of marriage is relatively longer with less variation which makes hard to test the assumptions about the timing of attachment transference. Since the main aspects of the attachment figure transference are mostly completed by the fifth year of marriage (Fraley & Davis, 1997), inclusion of women having at most 5-year marriages would be more applicable to examine the dynamics and implications of attachment and transference of attachment functions. There might be some inconsistencies and individual variation regarding the classification of women into the two marriage types. For example, both traditional family-initiated marriages and the marriages initiated after partners are introduced and being see each other as a proper spouse were grouped as the arranged marriage. Some of these women may not be typical in terms of arranged marriage criteria. Clarifying this issue, Hortaçsu (1999) emphasized the importance of modernization effects on family-initiated marriages, and in Kurter, Jencius, and Duba's interview (2004), Fıfılođlu asserted that the marriage arranged by friends could be another version of modified arranged marriages similar to "setup date" seen in the USA. Thus, in the current study, the arranged marriage is characterized by non-love marriages at least at the beginning of the marriage. On the other hand, love marriage is characterized as the marriage initiated by love or affection. Hence, love-initiated marriages and the marriages initiated after couples' friendship turn into love in course of time were grouped as love marriages. Certainly, some women may lie in between these groups and may not



typically represent any of them. In sum, classifying women into two strict categories in terms of how they initiated their marriages may involve some misclassified cases, which in turn, might have influenced the magnitude of potential differences and/or similarities.

The study has also some limitations concerned with data collection procedure and design. In the current study, the findings were based on self-report data, and this might have influenced the results. Previous studies suggest using observational techniques in laboratory settings while studying marital relationships, especially for caregiving behaviors (e.g., Feeney & Collins, 2001). In addition, this study had cross-sectional design, which restricts any argument on the cause-effect relationships. Longitudinal studies would be better to see the direction of effects.

Considering measurements utilized in the present study, first the correlation of two attachment dimensions measured by ECR-R was found moderately strong [for love marriages ( $r = .42$ ) and for arranged marriages ( $r = .40$ )]. Nevertheless, previous studies emphasized that the association between attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance measured by ECR-R should be insignificant or weak (Brennan et al., 1998; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). There are also studies in which similar strong association of attachment dimensions was found (e.g., Fraley, 2005; Sibley, Fischer, & Liu, 2005). This association might also result from cultural interpretation of attachment anxiety and avoidance. In the similar line, the high correlation between compulsive-controlling caregiving and caregiving avoidance might also result from the high correlation of attachment anxiety and avoidance. Secondly, the significant

life changes and transitions in the family life cycle might have been taken into consideration. Feeney (2008) suggested that spouses who were in parenthood transition (especially wives) preferred their parents more rather than partners and she also emphasize the malleability of attachment networks in the face of life changes. Therefore, future studies should consider testing the significant life changes (e.g.: having an infant).

The present study has also generalizability problems. The data were collected via snowball sampling technique. The random sampling could be more appropriate for external validity of the findings. Nevertheless, convenience and accessibility were important in the data collection process to reach out more participants with arranged or family-initiated marriages, and the socio economic status was also considered while collecting data via this technique. Considering all these limitations, it is suggested that future studies should include both spouses and use more diverse sample representing women with different types of marriages. Lastly, to see full picture of attachment figure transference and to understand how attachment dynamics change over time in marital relationships better couples with a large range of marriage durations should be included.

#### **4.4 Contributions and Implications of the Study**

The findings of this study have considerable contributions and important practical implications for marital functioning although there are some limitations. The major contributions and implications are concerned with in terms of examining

dynamics of attachment patterns and attachment figure transference in marriage regarding cultural patterns, and adaptation of caregiving scale and WHO-TO scale into Turkish. Other contributions and implications of the present study are related to practical information for individual or couple counseling and family therapy.

Research on attachment figure transference and adult attachment formation especially in marriage is relatively limited and these processes are largely unexamined in Turkish culture. Creasey and Jarvis (2009) stated that little is known about how adult attachment functioning influences committed relationships in other cultures, and more research is needed to determine if the association between attachment process and marital success in all other populations. In the present study, not only adult attachment formation and attachment figure transference in marriage but also these processes and attachment dynamics were examined concerning different marriage types in Turkish cultural context.

Adaptation of caregiving scale which assess caregiving responsiveness and sensitiveness toward spouses and adaptation of WHO-TO scale assessing the hierarchy of attachment targets and strength of attachment to different targets could be evaluated as valuable contributions of the current study. These scales are critical for attachment studies especially understanding of marital processes. Caregiving scale adapted and used in this study assesses partner's caregiving behaviors in detail and could be very useful in that sense. In support of this, Mikulincer and Shaver (2007) state that caregiving differences in adult close relationships have critical implications for marital satisfaction. Furthermore, assessing attachment targets via

the WHO-TO scale can provide information not only for marital relationships but also for all close relationships.

The study also has practical implications. Clulow (2007) asserted that attachment theory provided evidence for the efficacy of relational therapies has triggered intense interest in its application to family therapy (Wood, 2002; Dallos, 2006), couple therapy (Clulow, 2001; Johnson, 2004), individual therapy (Cortina & Marrone, 2003; Wallin, 2007) and therapeutic practice in health and social care settings (Holmes, 2001; McCluskey, 2005). In this line, it can be concluded that women's evaluations of their attachment bonds and attachment targets, and their caregiving styles towards their husbands have critical implications for individual and couple counseling and family therapy, in general.

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**APPENDIX A**  
**THE INFORM CONSENT**

**Gönüllü Katılım Formu**

Sayın Katılımcı;

Bu araştırma ODTÜ Sosyal Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Araş. Gör. Elçin Gündoğdu tarafından yüksek lisans tezi kapsamında yürütülmektedir.

Ekteki anket paketi, Yakın İlişkilerde Yaşantılar Envanteri-II, Hayatınızdaki Önemli Kişiler Ölçeği, Çiftler İçin Karşılıklı Bakım Verme Ölçeği, Ev işlerinin Paylaşımı Ölçeği, Çift Uyum Ölçeği ve Demografik Bilgiler olmak üzere 6 bölümden oluşmaktadır. Her bölümdeki ölçeğin nasıl cevaplanacağı konusunda, ilgili bölümün başında bilgi verilmiştir. Anketin cevaplanması yaklaşık 30 dakika sürmekte olup herhangi bir süre kısıtlaması bulunmamaktadır.

Çalışmaya katılım tamamiyle gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Anket genel olarak, kişisel rahatsızlık verecek sorular içermemektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında herhangi bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz, cevaplama işini istediğiniz anda bırakabilirsiniz. Verdiğiniz bilgiler gizli tutulup, bu çalışma dışında hiçbir amaçla kullanılmayacaktır. Katılımınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Sorularınız için;

Araş. Gör. Elçin Gündoğdu

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Prof. Dr. Nebi Sümer

Adres: ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü

E-posta: nsumer@metu.edu.tr

***Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.*** (Formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra uygulayıcıya geri veriniz).

İsim Soyad

Tarih

İmza

\_\_\_\_\_

---/---/---

\_\_\_\_\_

## APPENDIX B

### DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1) Yaşınız:.....

2) Yaşadığınız Yer:

3)Eğitim durumunuz:

Okuma-yazma bilmiyor  Okuma yazma biliyor İlkokul Ortaokul

Lise  2 yıllık yüksek okul  Üniversite  Yüksek lisans veya Doktora

4) Mesleğiniz:

5) Eşinizin eğitim durumu:

Okuma-yazma bilmiyor  Okuma yazma biliyor İlkokul Ortaokul

Lise  2 yıllık yüksek okul  Üniversite  Yüksek lisans veya Doktora

6) Size göre ailenizin toplam aylık gelirini aşağıdaki uygun seçeneği işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

Düşük  Orta Düşük Orta Orta Yüksek Yüksek

7) Kaç yıldır evlisiniz? Yıl ve ay olarak \_\_\_\_\_

8) Ne kadar süredir tanışyorsunuz? Yıl ve ay olarak \_\_\_\_\_

9) Nişanlılık veya sözlü süreniz oldu mu?

Hayır

Evet; Evet ise toplam ne kadar süre nişanlı veya sözlü kaldınız? Yıl ve ay olarak \_\_\_\_\_  
(İkisi de var ise ikisinin toplamını yazınız, örn: 2 yıl 3 ay).

10) Evlenme şekliniz ile ilgili olarak aşağıdaki seçeneklerden sizi en iyi tanımlayan seçeneği işaretleyiniz veya yazınız.

Görücü usulü evlendik

Kendi başına tanışarak

Eğer kendi başına/tanışarak evlendiyseniz aşağıdaki seçeneklerden hangisi sizin evlenme şekliniz en iyi tanımlar. Lütfen bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Eğer hiçbir seçenek uygun değilse durumunuzu diğer seçeneğinde yazarak belirtiniz..

- Tanıştıktan sonra duygusal olarak aşk yaşadığımızdan
- Tanıştıktan sonra birbirimizi evlenmek için uygun gördüğümüzden
- Arkadaşlığımız zaman içerisinde sevgiye dönüştüğünden
- Diğer (Lütfen kısaca yazınız).....

11) Çocuđunuz var mı?  Hayır

Evet; Evet ise kaç çocuđunuz var? \_\_\_\_

12) Anneniz hayatta mı?  Evet

Hayır

13) Babanız hayatta mı?  Evet

Hayır

14) Eşinizle birlikte kendi ailenizle ne kadar sıklıkla görüşürsünüz? (Telefonla veya yüzyüze)

Yılda bir

Altı ayda bir

Üç ayda bir

Ayda bir

İki haftada bir

Haftada bir

Haftada iki üç kez

Hergün

15) Eşinizle birlikte eşinizin ailesiyle ne kadar sıklıkla görüşürsünüz? (Telefonla veya yüzyüze)

Yılda bir

Altı ayda bir

Üç ayda bir

Ayda bir

İki haftada bir

Haftada bir

Haftada iki üç kez

Hergün



## APPENDIX C

### DIVISION OF HOUSEHOLD LABOR SCALE

AÇIKLAMA: Aşağıda verilen ev işleri ve çocuk bakımı ile ilgili işleri eşinizle ne derece paylaştığınızı aşağıda gösterilen beş aralıklı değerlendirme cetveli üzerinde size uygun dereceyi işaretleyerek belirtiniz. Derecelendirme 1 ile 5 arasında değişmektedir. Örneğin **belirtilen işi hep siz yapıyorsanız “1” seçeneğini (Genelde sizin yaptığınız), belirtilen işi tam olarak eşit şekilde yapıyorsanız “3” seçeneğini (Eşit olarak paylaşırsınız veya dönüşümlü yaparsınız), belirtilen işi genellikle eşiniz yapıyorsa “5” seçeneğini (genelde kocanızın yaptığı işler ) işaretleyiniz.**

**Not: 1. Çocuğunuz yoksa çocuk bakımı ile ilgili kısmı boş bırakınız.**

**2. Çocuk için bakıcınız veya yardımcınız varsa, onun yaptığı işlerden arta kalan ve sizin veya eşinizin yapması gereken işleri değerlendiriniz.**

**3. Eğer yardımcınız varsa ve ev işlerini o yapıyorsa ya size ve eşinize kalan işleri değerlendiriniz ya da bu kısmı tamamen boş bırakınız.**

	Genelde ben yaparım	Eşit olarak paylaşırsınız veya dönüşümlü yaparsınız	Genelde kocam yapar		
<b>Ev işleri</b>					
Bulaşık yıkamak	1	2	3	4	5
Market/pazar alışverişi yapmak	1	2	3	4	5
Yemek pişirmek	1	2	3	4	5
Tuvaleti ve banyoyu temizlemek	1	2	3	4	5
Evi süpürmek	1	2	3	4	5
Ütü yapmak	1	2	3	4	5
Çamaşır Yıkamak	1	2	3	4	5
Evde çıkan küçük tamirleri yapmak	1	2	3	4	5
Bahçeyi temizlemek	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Çocuk Bakımı</b>					
Çocuğun veya çocukların bakımı	1	2	3	4	5
Çocuğun okul ile ilgili problemleriyle ilgilenmek	1	2	3	4	5
Çocuğun ihtiyaçları için alışverişe çıkmak	1	2	3	4	5
Çocuğun dinlenme saati ve ev ödevi ile ilgilenmek	1	2	3	4	5
Çocuğun arkadaşlarıyla ve komşularla ilişkileriyle ilgilenmek	1	2	3	4	5

## APPENDIX D

### WHO-TO

Aşağıda sizden hayatınızda önem taşıyan insanları sıralamanız ve aşağıda verilen “A, B, C, D harflerinin yanına yazmanız istenmektedir. Size sorulan kişilerin adlarını vermek yerine lütfen bu kişilerin size olan yakınlıklarını tanımlayacak bir terim ile cevap veriniz (örn. Anne, erkek arkadaş, kız kardeş v.b. gibi). Her bir madde için dört harfe karşılık gelecek şekilde ve sizin için önem sırasını dikkate alarak (en önemli olanı “A” harfinin yanına yazarak) en fazla 4 kişi yazınız.

Not:

1. Lütfen “aile” veya “arkadaşlar” gibi birden fazla kişiye atf yapan terimler **KULLANMAYINIZ**.
2. Eğer listenize birden fazla “arkadaş/kızkardeş/ev arkadaşı” v.b. dahil ediyorsanız, lütfen kime atf yaptığınızı belirtiniz (örn. arkadaş1, arkadaş2 v.b.).
3. Sorulardaki bütün harfleri (kutucukları) doldurmak zorunda değilsiniz.

1. Mutlaka görmek veya konuşmak istediğiniz kişi(ler).

A.	B.	C.	D.
----	----	----	----

2. Endişelendiğinizde veya üzgün olduğunuzda arayıp ulaşmaya çalıştığınız kişi(ler).

A.	B.	C.	D.
----	----	----	----

3. Uzakta olduğunda özlediğiniz kişi(ler).

A.	B.	C.	D.
----	----	----	----

4. Kötü birşey olduğunda derhal iletişime geçmeyi düşündüğünüz kişi(ler).

A.	B.	C.	D.
----	----	----	----

5. Sizin için her zaman en iyiyi istediğini bildiğiniz kişi(ler).

A.	B.	C.	D.
----	----	----	----

6. Sizinle ilgili acil bir durum olduğunda iletişime geçilmesi gereken kişi(ler).

A.	B.	C.	D.
----	----	----	----

7. Yokluğu size birşeylerin iyi gitmeyeceğini hissettiren kişi(ler).

A.	B.	C.	D.
----	----	----	----

8. Her zaman sizin için yanınızda olacağını bildiğiniz kişi(ler).

A.	B.	C.	D.
----	----	----	----

9. İyi birşey olduğunda bunu en çok paylaşmak isteyeceğiniz kişi(ler).

A.	B.	C.	D.
----	----	----	----

10. Hayatınızı onlarsız düşünemediğiniz (zorlukla düşündüğünüz) kişi(ler).

A.	B.	C.	D.
----	----	----	----

## APPENDIX E

### EXPERIENCES IN CLOSE RELATIONSHIPS-REVISED

<p>Aşağıda verilen cümlelere ne ölçüde katıldığınızı <b>eşinizle olan ilişkinizi göz önünde bulundurarak cevaplayınız</b>. Her maddenin evliliğinizdeki duygu ve düşüncelerinizi ne oranda yansıttığını karşılarındaki 5 aralıklı cetvel üzerinde ilgili rakamı yuvarlak içine alarak belirtiniz. Eğer eşinizi kaybetmişseniz veya eşinizden ayrı yaşıyorsanız, aşağıdaki maddeleri <b>bir ilişki içinde bulunduğunuzu varsayarak cevaplayınız</b>.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">1-----2-----3-----4-----5</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Hiç            Biraz            Kararsızım/            Biraz            Tamamen</p> <p style="text-align: center;">katılmıyorum    katılmıyorum    fikrim yok    katılıyorum    katılıyorum</p> <p><b>ÖNEMLİ NOT:</b> Aşağıdaki cümlelerin bazılarında “yakın olmak” veya “yakınlaşmak” ifadeleri geçmektedir. Bu ifadelerle kastedilen eşinizle duygusal yakınlık kurmak, düşüncelerinizi veya başınızdaki geçimleri eşinize açmak, eşinize sarılmak ve benzeri davranışlardır. Lütfen ilgili soruları bu tanıma göre cevaplayınız.</p>	Hiç Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Biraz Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
1. Eşimin sevgisini kaybetmekten korkarım.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Gerçekte ne hissettiğimi eşime göstermemeyi tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Sıklıkla, eşimin artık benimle olmak istemediği korkusuna kapılıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Özel duygu ve düşüncelerimi eşimle paylaşmak konusunda kendimi rahat hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Sıklıkla, eşimin beni gerçekten sevmediği kaygısına kapılıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Eşime güvenip dayanmak konusunda kendimi rahat bırakmakta zorlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Eşimin beni, benim onu önemseyemediğim kadar önemseyemediğinden endişe duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Eşime yakın olma konusunda çok rahatımdır.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Sıklıkla, eşimin bana duyduğu hislerin benim ona duyduğum hisler kadar güçlü olmasını isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Eşime açılma konusunda kendimi rahat hissetmem.	1	2	3	4	5
11. İlişkilerimi kafama çok takarım.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Eşime fazla yakın olmamayı tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Benden uzakta olduğunda, eşimin başka birine ilgi duyabileceği korkusuna kapılıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Eşim benimle çok yakın olmak istediğinde rahatsızlık duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Eşime duygularımı gösterdiğimde, onun benim için aynı şeyleri hissetmeyeceğinden korkarım.	1	2	3	4	5

	<b>Hiç Katılmıyorum</b>	<b>Biraz Katılmıyorum</b>	<b>Kararsızım</b>	<b>Biraz Katılıyorum</b>	<b>Tamamen Katılıyorum</b>
16.Eşimle kolayca yakınlaşabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
17.Eşimin beni terkedeceğinden pek endişe duymam.	1	2	3	4	5
18.Eşimle yakınlaşmak bana zor gelmez.	1	2	3	4	5
19.Eşim kendimden şüphe etmeme neden olur.	1	2	3	4	5
20.Genellikle, eşimle sorunlarımı ve kaygılarımı tartışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
21.Terk edilmekten pek korkmam.	1	2	3	4	5
22.Zor zamanlarımda, eşimden yardım istemek bana iyi gelir.	1	2	3	4	5
23.Eşimin, bana benim istediğim kadar yakınlaşmak istemediğini düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
24.Eşime hemen hemen her şeyi anlatırım.	1	2	3	4	5
25.Eşimin bazen bana olan duygularını sebepsiz yere değiştirdiğini hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
26.Başımdan geçenleri eşimle konuşurum.	1	2	3	4	5
27.Çok yakın olma arzum bazen insanları korkutup uzaklaştırır.	1	2	3	4	5
28.Eşim benimle çok yakınlaştığında gergin hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
29.Eşim beni yakından tanırorsa, "gerçek ben"i sevmeyeceğinden korkarım.	1	2	3	4	5
30.Eşime güvenip dayanmak konusunda rahatımdır.	1	2	3	4	5
31.Eşimden ihtiyaç duyduğum şefkat ve desteği görememek beni öfkelenendir.	1	2	3	4	5
32.Eşime güvenip dayanmak benim için kolaydır.	1	2	3	4	5
33.Başka insanlara denk olamamaktan endişe duyarım	1	2	3	4	5
34.Eşime şefkat göstermek benim için kolaydır.	1	2	3	4	5
35.Eşim beni sadece kızgın olduğumda önemser.	1	2	3	4	5
36.Eşim beni ve ihtiyaçlarımı gerçekten anlar.	1	2	3	4	5

## APPENDIX F

### CAREGIVING SCALE

AÇIKLAMA: Aşağıda evlilik ilişkilerinde sıklıkla yaşanan bazı durumlar, duygular ve davranışlar sıralanmıştır. Aşağıdaki maddeleri eşinizle ilişkilerinizi ve bu ilişkide yaşadığınız duygu davranışları göz önünde bulundurarak değerlendiriniz. Yaşadığınız duygu ve davranışları en doğru tanımladığına inandığınız ilgili rakamı **(X)** işaretleyiniz. Örneğin, ilgili madde sizin duygu ve davranışlarınızı hiç tanımlamıyorsa **“1” rakamını**, sizi tamamen tanımlıyorsa **“6” rakamını** veya uygunluk derecesine göre diğer rakamları işaretleyiniz.

1----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6

Beni hiç  
tanımlamıyor

Beni tamamen  
tanımlıyor

1	Eşim bana sarılmak istediğinde ya da buna ihtiyacı var gibi görüldüğünde memnuniyetle ona sarılırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	Eşim dertli veya üzgün olduğunda, rahatlatmak ve destek olmak için ona sokulurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	Eşim bana sarılmak istediğinde bazen kendimi geri çekerim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Eşimin destek ve rahatlama aradığını hissettiğimde ona rahatlıkla sarılırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Eşim sarılmak veya öpmek için bana yaklaştığında bazen onu iterim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Eğer eşim sıkıntıda ya da ağlıyorsa ilk tepkim ona dokunmak veya sarılmak olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	Eşim bunalımda olduğunda veya ağladığında ilgilenmek istemediğim olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Eşimin bana muhtaç ve “yapışık” olmasından hoşlanmam.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Eşimin ihtiyaçları ve hisleri benimkilerden çok farklı olsa bile, çok iyi farkedirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Eşimin yardım ve destek çağrıştıran hal ve hareketlerini anlamak için özen gösteririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Eşim rahatlamaya ihtiyaç duyduğunda, o söylemese de, her zaman anlarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Sıklıkla eşimin üzgün veya endişeli olduğunu farkedemediğim olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Bazen eşimin nasıl hissettiğini anlatan gizli ipuçlarını kaçırrım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	Eşimin ne zaman benim desteğime veya yardımına ihtiyacı olduğunu ne zaman sorununu kendi başına halletmek istediğini gayet iyi anlayabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	Eşimin ihtiyaçlarına ve hislerine kendimi verme ve anlama konusunda pek iyi değilim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Eşimin yardım ve anlayış için gönderdiği işaretleri bazen kaçırır ya da yanlış anlarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	Eşime yardım etmeye ya da anlayışlı olmaya çalışırken fazla dominant oluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6

1----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6

Beni hiç  
tanımlamıyor

Beni tamamen  
tanımlıyor

18	Eşimin bir sorununu çözmesine yardım ederken kontrolü elime almak yerine onunla iş birliği yapmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	Eşime herhangi bir konuda yardım ederken illa kendi bildiğim yolla yapmak isterim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	Eşime kendi problemlerini çözmede kontrolü elime almadan yardımcı olabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	Eşimin kendi problemlerini çözme çabasını her zaman desteklerim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	Eşim bana bir sorunundan bahsettiğinde, onun yaptıklarını eleştirmekte çok ileri gidebiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	Eşimin kendi problemlerini çözme ve kendi kararlarını alma becerisine her zaman saygı duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	Eşim bir karar almaya çalışırken sıklıkla ne yapması gerektiğini ondan önce ben söyleyiveririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	Eşimin sorunlarına ve dertlerine gereğinden fazla karışırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	Çoğu zaman eşimin problemlerine kendimi fazla kaptırırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	Eşimin sorunlarını üstüme alır sonra da bu sorunlar yüzünden kendimi tükenmiş hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	Eşimin dertlerini sanki kendi dertlerimmiş gibi üstüme alarak sorunlar yaratırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	Eşime, sorunlarına fazla burnumu sokmadan yardım ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	Gerektiğinde, eşimin bir sorunla ilgili yardım isteğine suçluluk hissetmeden 'hayır' diyebilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	Eşime karşı aşırı koruyucu olmamak ve ona çok karışmamak için kendimi kontrol ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	Gerektiğinde, eşimin ihtiyaçlarından önce kendi ihtiyaçlarımla ilgilenirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6

## APPENDIX G

### DYADIC ADJUSTMENT SCALE

Çift Uyum Ölçeği' den örnek maddeler aşağıda verilmiştir. Ölçeğe, Prof. Dr. Hürol Fıfılođlu'na başvurarak ulařılabilir.\*

“10. Önemli olduđuna inanılan amaçlar, hedefler ve konular”

Her zaman anlařırız	Hemen hemen her zaman anlařırız	Nadiren anlařamayız	Sıkça anlařamayız	Hemen hemen her zaman anlařamayız	Her zaman anlařamayız

“16. Ne sıklıkla boşanmayı, ayrılmayı ya da ilişkinizi bitirmenizi düşünürsünüz?”

Her zaman	Hemen hemen her zaman	Zaman zaman	Ara sıra	Nadiren	Hiçbir zaman

“23. Eřinizi öper misiniz?”

Her gün	Hemen hemen her zaman	Ara sıra	Nadiren	Hiçbir zaman

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## APPENDIX H

### EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS ON CAREGIVING SCALE

	Sensitive Caregiving	Controlling- Compulsive Caregiving	Caregiving Avoidance	Communality
2. When my partner is troubled or upset, I move closer to provide support and comfort	0.74			0.57
1. When my partner seems to want or need a hug, I'm glad to provide it.	0.69			0.49
10. I am very attentive to my partner's nonverbal signals for help and support.	0.68			0.56
4. I feel comfortable holding my partner when s/he needs physical signs of support and reassurance.	0.66			0.47
11. I can always tell when my partner needs comforting, even when s/he doesn't ask for it.	0.62			0.51
23. I always respect my partner's ability to make his/her own decisions and solve his/her own problems	0.62			0.41
6. When my partner cries or is distressed, my first impulse is to hold or touch him/her.	0.62			0.43
14. I'm good at knowing when my partner needs my help or support and when s/he would rather handle things alone.	0.60			0.36
29. I help my partner without becoming over-involved in his/her problems.	0.54			0.45
21. I am always supportive of my partner's own efforts to solve his/her problems.	0.53			0.31
18. When helping my partner solves a problem, I am much more 'cooperative' than 'controlling'.	0.50			0.36
20. I can help my partner work out his/her problems without 'taking control'.	0.44			0.31
9. I'm very good at recognizing my partner's needs and feelings, even when they're different from my own.	0.31			0.10



27. I tend to take on my partner's problems- and then feel burdened by them.	0.77	0.60	
25. I tend to get over-involved in my partner's problems and difficulties.	0.74	0.56	
26. I frequently get too 'wrapped up' in my partner's problems.	0.73	0.55	
28. I create problems by taking on my partner's troubles as if they were my own.	0.72	0.53	
24. I often end up telling my partner what to do when s/he is trying to make a decision.	0.67	0.48	
22. When my partner tells me about a problem, I sometimes go too far in criticizing his/her own attempts to deal with.	0.62	0.49	
17. I tend to be too domineering when trying to help and understanding.	0.50	0.35	
19. When I help my partner with something, I tend to want to do things 'my way'.	0.47	0.40	
12. Too often, I don't realize when my partner is upset or worried about something.	0.60	0.39	
30. When necessary, I can say 'no' to my partner's requests for help without feeling guilty.	0.59	0.36	
16. I sometimes 'miss' or 'misread' my partner's signals for help and understanding.	0.54	0.31	
13. I sometimes miss the subtle signs that show how my partner is feeling.	0.49	0.24	
32. When it's important, I take care of my own needs before I try to take care of my partner's.	0.48	0.23	
15. I'm not very good at 'tuning in' to my partner's needs and feelings.	0.46	0.45	
7. When my partner is crying or emotionally upset, I sometimes feel like withdrawing.	0.46	0.25	
3. I sometimes draw away from my partner's attempts to get a reassuring hug from me.	0.44	0.31	
5. I sometimes push my partner away when s/he needed hug or kiss.	0.39	0.33	
8. I don't like it when my partner is needy and clings to me	0.35	0.16	
Initial eigenvalues	6.90	3.40	2.06
Variance Explained	22.24	10.98	6.65
$\alpha$ values	0.84	0.84	0.72