

Women's Marital Quality and Mothering Quality:
Determinants and Interrelations

Thesis Submitted to the
Institute for Graduate Studies in Social Sciences
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts
in
Educational Sciences

by
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Boğaziçi University

2006

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This thesis would never have been completed without the invaluable support and contributions of so many wonderful people. I would not be able to reach the end of this stressful road if I did not feel their support behind me. This study has turned out to be a worthwhile learning process not only academically, but also personally.

I feel very lucky that I had the chance to work with Dr. Ayşe Caner. Her kind personality, warmth, patience, support and experience have decreased the burden and the stress of this process. I always knew that she would welcome me whenever I needed her.

Assoc. Prof. Fatoş Erkman's contribution to my life is beyond being my thesis committee member or my student advisor. Her positive worldview, tolerance, empathy, warmth, and her love for humanity and her profession have become my inspiration in my way of perceiving the world and my profession. I wish every student had the chance to meet such a special instructor as she is.

I am very glad to meet Dr. Melis Gazioğlu who went through every single step of this study with me. Her warmth, patience, perfectionism, empathy and encouragement as well as her enthusiasm in research and constructive feedback have taught me so much. I would write much more here if words were ever adequate to express my gratitude to her.

I would also like to thank to Ayşesim Diri for her kindness, and tolerance towards my lack of knowledge on statistical analysis. Results of the study would not have been obtained without her valuable comments, suggestions, and continuous support in data analyses. I am very grateful to those persons who introduced me to her.

I would like to express my gratitude to Prof. Güzver Yıldırım de Weerd whose perfectionism guided my way in preparing the study. It was not an easy task to be her student, yet I learned that she had well prepared and equipped me for this research process. Her valuable comments and suggestions were in my ears when I was preparing and writing this thesis.

I would like to thank Necla Erinç for her genuine concern, support and friendship throughout my graduate study. I would probably have forgotten so many things if she had not continuously enlightened me with her experience on administrative work. I would also like to thank Sevda Akyüz who edited the thesis.

I am particularly indebted and grateful to my friends A. Aylin Buran, Meltem Canver Kozanoğlu, Mehtap Canver, Sevil Taner, Hande Ağaoğlu, Levent Özcan, Uğur Ozulu and to my sister Seda Çelik and my brother M. Seçkin Çelik who continuously listened to my anxious remarks about the thesis and gave me immeasurable support whenever I needed assistance. I feel very lucky for having those wonderful people in my life.

I would like to thank Assoc. Prof. Azmi Varan from Ege University for providing me with his article and for his valuable suggestions.

My thanks also go to day care centers and participants for their willingness to participate in the study. I am particularly grateful to Beyhan Aksu, Nilgün Binişik, Meryem İntaş, Nilüfer Taşkın, Lale Ünal, and Canan Ünlü for their sincere support and enthusiasm throughout my data collection process.

Even though it has been so long since I took courses from them, I can not neglect expressing my gratitude to Prof. Sevda Bekman and Dr. Nevin Dölek. I would like to thank to Prof. Sevda Bekman since her belief in the importance of early childhood has not only influenced my study and profession but also my way of

relating to my child. My special thanks go to Dr. Nevin Dölek who treated me as if I were her colleague even when I was an undergraduate student. She is a very important person in my life. Her kindness, genuine support and interest at every occasion I needed help contributed so much to my choice of profession.

Last but not least, I would like to thank my husband, A. Serhat Özbeklik who has shared my life, my good and bad days for many years. He has taught me the value of being loved and being supported as a woman and a mother which gave me the inspiration about the topic of this study. I am also grateful to him for his invaluable help in making our home a “liveable place” when I was so busy writing this thesis.

This study is dedicated to my mother, Ayten Çelik. I would have blamed myself for all that time I stole from my daughter, S. Doğa Özbeklik, if she had not been there with her to compensate for my absence throughout this long process. The study would never have been completed without her encouragement, patience and dedication.

ABSTRACT

Women's Marital Quality and Mothering Quality:

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by

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The aim of this study was to explore women's marital quality, quality of mothering and the relationship between quality of marriage and mothering with respect to 17 variables including mother, spouse and family characteristics.

216 women whose children (three to six years old) attended daycare centers in İstanbul were the participants of the study. Marital quality was assessed by DAS and mothering quality was measured by PARQ.

Findings revealed that six variables were related to women's marital quality. Linear combination of six variables, including spousal support for childcare, mother's satisfaction with the mothering she received in childhood, number of children, educational level of the woman, existence of stressful life events and satisfaction with job conditions predicted the marital quality.

Results indicated relationships between mothering quality and nine variables. Linear combination of four variables including mother's acceptance by her own mother during childhood, daycare center status, child temperament and satisfaction with job conditions predicted the mothering quality.

It was found that marital quality and mothering quality were positively related. Five variables were found to be relating to the direction of the relationship between marriage and mothering, including childhood history of mothering, stressful life events, satisfaction with job conditions, and spouse age.

Overall results of the study highlighted the need to consider several variables in order to understand the marital relationship quality, mothering quality and the relationship between marriage and mothering. This study also pointed out the importance of recognizing marital relationship quality as a factor concerning parenting quality.

KISA ÖZET

Kadınların Evlilik Kalitesi ve Annelik Kalitesi:

Belirleyenler ve Etkileşimleri

by

Seçil Özbeklik

Bu çalışma, anne, eş ve aile özelliklerini kapsayan 17 değişkene odaklanarak kadınların evlilik kalitesini, annelik kalitesini, ve evlilik kalitesiyle annelik kalitesi arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemeyi amaçlamıştır.

Araştırmanın örneklemini üç-altı yaş arasında çocuğu olan 216 kadın oluşturmuştur. Araştırma, İstanbul'da toplam sekiz çocuk yuvasında gerçekleştirilmiştir. Evlilik kalitesi Eşlerarası Uyum Ölçeği ile, annelik kalitesi ise Anne-Çocuk İlişkileri Formu ile ölçülmüştür.

Bulgular, araştırmanın altı değişkeninin evlilik kalitesiyle ilişkili olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır. Diğer yandan sırasıyla; eşin çocuk bakımına yardımı, kadının kendi annesiyle çocukluğunda yaşadığı ilişkiden memnuniyeti, çocuk sayısı, kadının eğitim seviyesi, stres yaratan hayat olaylarının varlığı ve kadının çalışma şartlarından memnuniyetinin evliliğin kalitesinde belirleyici olduğu bulunmuştur.

Sonuçlar, annelik kalitesinin araştırmanın dokuz değişkeniyle ilişkili olduğunu göstermektedir. Diğer yandan sırasıyla; kadının kendi annesi tarafından kabul edildiğini hissetmesi, çocuk yuvasının statüsü, çocuğun mizacı ve kadının çalışma şartlarından memnuniyetinin annelik kalitesinde belirleyici olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır.

Evlilik kalitesi ile annelik kalitesinin pozitif yönde ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Evlilik kalitesi ile annelik kalitesi arasındaki ilişkinin yönünün, kadının

çocukluk yıllarında gördüğü annelikle, stres yaratan hayat olaylarıyla, çalışma şartlarından memnuniyetiyle ve eşinin yaşıyla ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur.

Araştırmanın sonuçları, evlilik kalitesi, annelik kalitesi ve annelik kalitesi ile evlilik kalitesi arasındaki ilişkiyi anlamak için birçok değişkenin gözününde bulundurulması gerektiğini vurgulamıştır. Ayrıca bu araştırma, annelik kalitesinin değerlendirilmesi esnasında evlilik kalitesinin de değerlendirilmesinin önemini göstermiştir.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Marriage, which determines the formation of a family (Minuchin & Fishman, 1981), is regarded as the basic institution of society for individuals to meet their security and emotional needs as well as to procreate and provide early childcare (Sager, 1976). Thus, physiological and psychological health of children is often attributed to the spouses, particularly wives, via parenting (Cusinato, 1994; Demo & Cox, 2000; Holden & Edwards, 1989; Holden & Miller, 1999; Kuzcynski, 2003a). Due to this crucial functioning of the family within the society (Glick, Berman, Clarkin & Rait, 2000), both marriage and parenting appear as broad research areas (Belsky, 1984; Belsky & Fearon, 2004; Gable, Belsky, Crnic, 1992; Parke, 2004). However, there is still a need for a theoretical framework and consensus on the definition and determinants of marriage (Bradbury, Fincham & Beach, 2000; Fincham & Beach, 1999) and parenting (Belsky, 1984; Birns & Ben-Ner, 1988; Cusinato, 1994; Kuczynki, 2003a, 2003b).

Each individual member should perform multiple roles within the family such as a woman should be a wife for her husband and a mother for her children, and sometimes simultaneously be employed outside the family. Each role has its particular requirements with specific consequences for each member of the family and the whole family functioning (Glick, Berman, Clarkin & Rait, 2000; Minuchin & Fishman, 1981). Several approaches and theories, such as systemic approaches, social learning theories, and attachment theory, emphasize the interrelation of marital and parent-child relationships (Belsky & Fearon, 2004; Cox & Paley, 1997; Erel & Burman, 1995; Stafford & Bayer, 1993; Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000). Consequently, the quality of marital relationship and its impact on child development and parenting are widely explored in the literature (i.e. Belsky, Youngblade, Rovine & Volling, 1991; Belsky & Fearon, 2004; Davies & Cummings, 1994; Erel & Burman, 1995; Fincham, 1998; Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000).

Studies that investigate the relationship between marital quality and parenting proposed three competing hypotheses which define underlying mechanisms on the relationship between marriage and parenting: spillover, compensatory and compartmentalization hypotheses (Belky & Fearon, 2004; Erel & Burman, 1995; Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000; Stafford & Bayer, 1993). Spillover and compensatory hypotheses state that there is a relationship between marriage and parenting, either in a positive or negative direction, while compartmentalization hypothesis states that there is a nonsignificant relationship between these two domains. There is still a need to explore the underlying mechanism of relationship between marriage and parenting with the emphasis on the contextual and cultural variations (Erel & Burman, 1995; Fuller & Fincham, 1994).

Parents', particularly the mothers', impact on child functioning is assumed to be especially influential in the early childhood years, mainly before the child meets with formal education and various social environments and friends (Hortaçsu, 2002; Lamb, Hwang, Ketterlinus & Fracasso, 1999). However, a decrease in marital quality for the couple is likely to occur just after the birth of a baby. More specifically, the amount of negative interaction between the spouses is likely to increase whereas the amount of satisfaction gathered from the marriage tends to decrease (Belsky, Youngblade, Rovine & Volling, 1991; Cox, Paley, Burchinal, & Payne, 1999; Wallace & Gotlib, 1990). Moreover, this decrease in marital satisfaction tends to be more frequently pronounced by wives (Belsky & Hsieh, 1998; Belsky & Rovine, 1990). Cox & Paley (1997) suggest that often at about two years after the birth of the child, a recovery in marital relationship is likely to occur in which the perceived marital quality usually returns to prebirth levels.

Consequently, the aim of the current study is to explore the quality of marital relationship, quality of parenting and the relationship between marital and parenting quality in Turkey. In order to delve into the aim of the study, women with children between the ages of three and six are used as a sample population in order to ensure that mother's perception of marital quality is not influenced by the physical and social adaptations experienced after the birth of the child. Furthermore, the present study investigates the different parental and family variables which may have an influence on the perceived marital quality, mothering quality, and their interrelations.

1.1. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The significance of this study can be evaluated in terms of four major points: (a) the lack of consensus on the factors that may influence the quality of marriage, parenting and their interrelation (b) the lack of the information about the matter in Turkey, (c) cultural differences, and (d) social change.

First, a tremendous number of studies have explored marriage, parenting and the relationships between these two domains with an emphasis on different and overlapping variables notwithstanding its debates and confusions (Bradbury et al., 2000; Belsky, 1984; Kuczynski, 2003a, 2003b).

Second, in Turkey, there is no research that directly explored the parent-child relations with regards to marital relations, with a specific emphasis on the different parental and family variables. The literature in Turkey has mainly focused on children's psychological and achievement outcomes and their relation to parenting styles and family functioning, with an indirect emphasis on the marital relations (Bekiroğlu, 1993; Gökbörü-Ömeryüz, 2003; Ödi, 1986).

Third, the literature concerning the linkage between marital relations and parenting has mainly been conducted and interpreted from a Western perspective. However, as Fuller &

Fincham (1994) point out, society has a specific impact on the norms that govern the marital and parent-child relations while it sets both implicit and explicit rules on the appropriate behaviors for those relations. Furthermore, the differences within a society, as well as among societies in terms of the family norms and appropriate behaviors for families, need to be taken into account (Stevenson-Hinde, 1998).

Finally, social changes taking place within a country also have an impact on marital and mother-child relationships (Ambert, 1994). Consequently, when the rapid social, cultural and economic changes in Turkey are considered (Nauck & Klaus, 2004; Sunar & Fişek, 2003), it is expected that this study which will explore the quality of marital relationships, mothering and their interrelations in a Turkish sample will contribute to the national literature on these domains.

Additionally, this study will provide information to the individual, couple and family counseling practitioners through taking the marital relationship into account both for parents and children. Focusing on the marital relationships in addition to the emphasis on the mother-child dyads in child development, this study will provide educators and policy makers working on parenting practices with a better understanding of the context of marriage and parenting. The next chapter explores the literature concerning the marital relationship, parenting and the relationship between marriage and parenting.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The current literature review includes three main sections: (a) the quality of marital relationships, (b) parenting and (c) the relationship between the quality of marital relationships and parenting, respectively. In each section, the variables that may have an impact on these three domains are emphasized.

2.1 MARITAL RELATIONSHIP

This first section of the literature review includes six sub-sections on marital relationship, including the definition of marriage, consequences of marital relationship, operational definition of marital quality, determinants of marital quality, marital relationship through the transition to parenthood and marriage in Turkey.

2.1.1. Marriage

Glick et al. (2000) suggest that marital relationship is the most culturally defined and patterned as well as the most intimate relationship. Depending on the culture, marriage will be emphasized as a way to transfer property, as a way of intimate bonding of adults, or both. At the individual level, as Sager (1976) states, the act of marriage appears as an important level of commitment to a mate as well as to a new entity, the marriage. Individuals get married for specific purposes and goals and with their expectations from the partners as well as from the marriage as an institution (Sager, 1976). However, as two individuals get married, their relationship will be more than the sum of two people with individual expectations and needs; marital relationship will be a new and qualitatively different entity (Sager, 1976).

Yet, the decision to get married often occurs beyond the individual's awareness since it is often regarded as a natural progression through adult life (McGoldrick, 2004). As McGoldrick (2004) points out, individuals of nearly all cultures, either implicitly or explicitly, are expected to marry at one point in their lives, and they are also expected to stay married to the same person throughout their life.

Consequently, individual's choice of spouse is regarded as the most important

decision in the course of a lifetime (Glick et al., 2000), since this relationship is expected to have several positive or negative consequences for individuals as well as for society in general (Fincham & Beach, 1999; Gottman, 1998; Gurman & Fraenkel, 2002).

2.1.2 Consequences of Marital Relationship

Marital relationship may provide a setting that enriches and fosters personal growth of spouses, or it may be a draining experience for some couples in which the spouses feel as if “their emotional and physical survival is at stake” (Guerin, Fay, Burden & Kautto, 1987, p. 3).

On the positive side, it is stated that being married promotes financial satisfaction and improves the health conditions for individuals, since most of the individuals perceive marriage as a solution to the loneliness, economic uncertainty, and family of origin issues (McGoldrick, 2004; Stack & Eshleman, 1998). Stack & Eshleman (1998) studied 17 nations, from Australia to Japan and many European countries. They found marital status to be significantly related to personal well being and happiness.

On the other hand, long-term stability in the decreased marital quality and increased marital conflict will lead to negative consequences for the physical and psychological health of partners and/or their children (Faulkner, 2002; Fincham & Beach, 1999; Gurman & Fraenkel, 2002; Karney & Bradbury, 1995).

Specifically, negative marital quality is often associated with depression, eating disorders, and anxiety (Davilla, Bradbury, Cohan, & Tochluk, 1997), with increased risk of automobile accidents including fatalities and increased risk of

violence, suicide and homicide (Gottman, 1998), with specific illnesses such as cancer, cardiac disease and chronic pain (Burman & Margolin, 1992; Kiecolt-Glaser et al., 1996), poor parenting (Belsky & Fearon, 2004; Erel & Burman, 1995; Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000), poor child adjustment (i.e. Cummings & Davies; 2002; Fincham, Grych, & Osborne; 1994; Fincham, 1998; Hart, Nelson, Robinson, Olsen, McNeilly-Choque, 1998; Kerig, 1998; Vandervalk, Spruijt, Goede, Meeus, & Maas, 2004), problematic relational and attachment styles of children (Amato, 1996; Davies & Cummings, 1994; Ensign, 1998), increased likelihood of parent-child conflict (Shek, 2000) and conflict with siblings (Feinberg & Hetherington, 2001; Hoffman, 1991).

Given the negative consequences of unhappy marriages, first sociologists, then psychologists, tried to identify the differences between happily and unhappily married couples (Gottman, 1998; Gottman & Notarius, 2002). This interest brought the necessity of an operational definition of marital quality (Fincham, 1998; Fincham & Beach, 1999; Martin, 1987).

2.1.3 Operational Definition of Marital Quality

The paucity of theories explaining marriage and marital functioning (Faulkner, 2002) leads to a lack of clarity and consensus in the basic constructs or terms used in marital research and literature (Fincham, 1998). Marital satisfaction, marital adjustment, marital success, marital happiness, and marital consensus are some of the terms used in research literature to describe the quality of a marriage (Fincham, 1998; Faulkner, 2002).

Researchers often assess marital quality with commonly used global measures of marital quality such as Marital Adjustment Test (Locke & Wallace, 1959, as cited in Fincham 1998) and Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976), especially when a single, overall index of marital quality is needed (Finchem, 1998). In these measurement devices, global marital quality has been hypothesized to reflect both positive and negative dimensions of a marital relationship and items that are included in the devices range from couples' reports of specific behaviors to their inferences about their marriage (Fincham, 1998; Fincham & Beach, 1999).

Even though self-report measures of global marital quality are criticized for their several shortcomings, they are often good predictors of marital conflict incidences and marital tensions between the spouses (Bradbury, Fincham & Beach, 2000; Margolin, Christensen & John, 1996). Consequently, Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) (Spanier, 1976), is used in the present study to assess the mothers' perception of the marital quality. High scores on this measure indicated perception of a good marital quality whereas low scores indicated the perception of a poor marital quality.

Bradbury, Fincham & Beach, (2000), Fincham, (1998) and Faulkner (2002) state that self-report measures of marital quality are often used to identify distressed and nondistressed couples and to explore the determinants that differentiate the two groups of marital relationships. As they point out, the overall marital quality is differentiated through the use of dichotomies such as distressed versus nondistressed, functional versus dysfunctional, conflictual versus nonconflictual, satisfied versus dissatisfied, and good versus poor marriages. It also reveals that those dichotomies are used interchangeably and simultaneously in the articles that explored marital quality (Fincham, 1998; Faulkner, 2002). Inevitably, those

dichotomies mentioned above are also used interchangeably and simultaneously in the present study with regards to marriage and marital quality.

2.1.4 Determinants of Marital Quality

Glick, Berman, Clarkin & Rait (2000) state that crisis and conflict periods often appear in any long-term relationship, including marriages. Yet, the ways these periods appear in the normal course of marital life cycle and the determinants that differentiate satisfied versus dissatisfied marriages have been a frequent area of inquiry, notwithstanding its debates and confusions (Bradbury, Fincham & Beach, 2000; Faulkner, 2002; Gottman & Notarius, 2002).

Previous research reveal a U-shaped model of marital quality in which the perceived marital quality is relatively high at the beginning of the marriage, but gradually declines especially in the childrearing years and then increases when children leave the home (Faulkner, 2002; Karney & Bradbury, 1995). However, recent research indicates that marital quality follows a number of possible courses between couples, including initial rapid declines by the beginning of marriage, gradual linear decline, wide variability over time, or even increase over time (Karney & Bradbury, 1995). There seems to be different variables that may have an influence on the changes of marital quality over time (Bradbury, Fincham & Beach, 2000; Bradbury, & Karney, 2004; Karney & Bradbury, 1995). Some of the suggestions that are often referred to in the literature about the determinants of the marital quality are given below.

After they reviewed and analyzed 115 longitudinal studies about the longitudinal course of marital quality and stability, Karney & Bradbury (1995) outlined a

model for the prediction of the longitudinal course of marital quality and stability. According to their model, in any marital relationship, the interaction of spouses' enduring vulnerabilities and adaptive processes determine how the couple will adopt and respond to the stressful life events and family transitions. Enduring vulnerabilities and adoptive processes included in the model are the stable demographic, historical, personality-related, and experiential factors such as individuals' negative childhood histories, negative attitudes towards the institution of marriage, personality traits, interaction styles, depression, and so on. Similarly, in their review of the literature on the determinants of marital conflict, Fincham & Beach (1999) found out that several variables were studied with respect to marital conflict; including negative life events, attachment history, interaction styles of partners, degree of commitment to the marriage/the spouse, spouses' self-processes such as self-esteem, neuroticism, self-evaluation, and degree of social support.

By pointing out the variability of the determinants that are studied in the literature with respect to marital relationships, Bradbury et al. (2000) offer two basic themes to understand the variability in marital quality, namely the interpersonal processes within the marriage and contextual factors. According to them, interpersonal processes within the marital relationship should include an analysis of the interactional/behavioral patterns, cognitions, affect, physiological processes, degree of social support, and violence. They suggest that contextual factors should also be analyzed at two levels; micro and macro levels. At the micro level, spouses' backgrounds and characteristics, such as intergenerational transmission of affects, history of psychopathology, and attachment, the effects of children, life stressors and transitions should be investigated. At the macro level, cultural

factors, such as social and economic conditions and values of the particular society in which the marital relationship is embedded, should be considered.

Faulkner (2002) examined the first time marriages over a five year period and found that spouses' (a) demographic characteristics, including age, race, income, length of marriage and religiosity, (b) psychological characteristics such as depression, substance abuse, and anxiety disorders, (c) personality traits of neuroticism, anxiety and emotional stability, and (d) personality characteristics of agreeableness and expressiveness were all related to the long-term prediction of marital satisfaction and marital conflict. It also revealed in her study that wives' marital satisfaction and interpersonal functioning might be a greater predictor of husband's marital satisfaction and marital conflict than vice versa.

Bradbury & Karney (2004) point out to the importance of considering the three aspects of marriage for understanding marital relationships and for maximizing the intervention effects for poor marital quality. These three marital relationship aspects include (a) transactions and behaviors that occur between spouses, (b) spouses' individual strengths and vulnerabilities such as personality, ethnicity, culture, personal history, intergenerational transmission of relational patterns, habits and preferences, attitudes and values, and educational achievements, (c) ecological niches that couples inhabit such as developmental transitions, situations, incidents, and chronic and acute circumstances that spouses encounter.

As shall be seen from the studies mentioned above, research on the determinants of marital quality spread through several overlapping variables. Yet, the current literature on marital relationships is criticized with regards to its weakness on conceptualizing the whole picture of marital quality and its limited focus on sociocultural contexts (Bradbury, Fincham & Beach, 2000). Consequently,

Bradbury, Fincham & Beach (2000) state that, even by the end of 90's, there is still a need for a theoretical framework for understanding the nature and determinants of marital relationship which will guide preventive, clinical, and policy-level interventions.

Among the numerous determinants, transition to parenthood appears as a crucial period within the marital relationship in order to understand marital change patterns, yet there is a lack of consensus and emphasis on the cultural variations as well. Thus, the literature that deals with marital change across the transition to parenthood is investigated in the next section.

2.1.5 Marital Relationship through the Transition to Parenthood

Symbolically, marriage appears to mark the transition to adulthood requiring negotiation of new roles and responsibilities as a couple with many other systems, mainly with families of origin (McGoldrick, 2004; Sager, 1976). Yet, either implicitly or explicitly, the birth of the first child is a necessity for a couple to be identified as a family in most societies. Likewise, despite its discriminatory stance (i.e. of homosexual couples, couples with no children etc.), in most of the societies, family is defined as the legally married heterosexual couple “with children” (McGoldrick, 2004). Due to the attributed importance, changes in the marriage during the transition to parenthood have become an area of interest for many researchers (Isabella & Belsky, 1985), yet the results of the studies that investigate the changes in marital relationship after the birth of the first baby are often mixed.

While some studies revealed a decrease in marital adjustment (Belsky, Spanier & Rovine, 1983; Goldberg, et al., 1985), marital intimacy (O'Brien & Peyton, 2002), and love for the spouse (Belsky & Hsieh, 1998) after the transition to parenthood, other studies indicated an increase in marital adjustment with the birth of a baby (Belsky, 1979; Belsky & Rovine, 1990). Moreover, while some studies did not find any significant changes in marital relationship with respect to spousal feelings of love, (Hortaçsu, 1999) others stressed the importance of other factors in determining the direction of change in marital quality and adjustment after the birth of the baby (Belsky & Rovine, 1990).

Several factors were investigated in order to identify their influence on the patterns of marital change after the transition to parenthood. It is often stated a general decline will be observed in marital quality right after the birth of a baby, yet long term stability in change patterns in the marital relationship after the baby will depend on several factors including the degree of changes in the division of household labor, employment status for women, (Barnett, Brennen, Marshall, 1994; Belsky & Hsieh, 1998; DeMais & Perkins, 1996; Goldberg, Michaels & Lamb, 1985; Hortaçsu, 1999), the depressive symptoms of spouses (Cox, Paley, Burchinal & Payne, 1999), childhood history of marriage and parenting for new parents (Belsky & Isabella, 1985), levels of marital adjustment and marital interaction patterns before the birth of the child (Belsky & Hsieh, 1998; Belsky, Spanier, & Rovine, 1983; Cox, Owen, Lewis & Henderson, 1989; Cox, Paley, Burchinal & Payne, 1999), emotional and instrumental support received from the partner in terms of childcare, which is also referred to as coparenting (Gilliom & Costigan, 1998; McHale, 1995; Margolin, Gordis, & John, 2001; O'Brien & Peyton, 2002), differences between spouses in terms of attitudes toward child

rearing (O'Brien & Peyton, 2002), perceived parenting stress (Wallace & Gotlib, 1990), child's sex (Cox, Owen, Lewis & Henderson, 1989; Cox, Paley, Burchinal & Payne, 1999), and child's temperament (Belsky & Rovine, 1990; Isabella & Belsky, 1985; O'Brein & Peyton, 2002).

CHANGES IN THE DIVISION OF HOUSEHOLD LABOR (BARNETT ET AL., 1994; BELSKY & HSIEH, 1998; DEMAIS & PERKINS, 1996; GOLDBERG, MICHAELS & LAMB, 1985; HORTAÇSU, 1999) AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF WOMEN (GOLDBERG ET AL., 1985) ARE REGARDED AS THE MOST PROMINENT CHANGES THAT WILL BE OBSERVED IN THE MARITAL RELATIONSHIP WITH THE BIRTH OF THE FIRST CHILD. IT IS OFTEN STATED THAT BOTH THE PERCEIVED AND ACTUAL RESPONSIBILITIES OF WOMEN IN THE DOMESTIC LABOR INCREASE WHEREAS FULL-TIME EMPLOYMENT RATES FOR WOMEN IN THE JOB MARKET DECREASE. IT IS FURTHER EMPHASIZED IN ROGERS'S STUDY (1996) THAT THERE WILL BE AN INCREASE IN HOUSEHOLD DEMANDS AND RESPONSIBILITIES FOR WOMEN AS THE NUMBER OF CHILDREN INCREASE WITHIN THE FAMILY. AS A CONSEQUENCE, WORK-FAMILY ROLE STRAIN WAS FOUND TO BE HEIGHTENED FOR EMPLOYED MOTHERS AND MARITAL INTERACTION AND QUALITY WERE COMPROMISED WHEN DUAL-EARNER COUPLES HAD CHILDREN.

In a longitudinal study, Goldberg and her associates (1985) examined 39 couples who were expecting their first babies. The changes in the division of labor and employment status were assessed three times; in the early pregnancy, late pregnancy and 3-4 months postpartum. In the late pregnancy period, males were more likely to do feminine tasks such as cooking, washing the dishes and cleaning

house. However, changes in this pattern in the late pregnancy period were returned to more traditional sex-typed arrangements after the arrival of the baby. Over 90% of the wives were employed full-time whereas the percentage of working wives dropped to 34% (n=13) after the birth of the baby and only 4 of those women continued to be employed full-time. The results of the study revealed that fathers' greater involvement with the baby was associated with better marital and parental adjustment, whereas participation in feminine household tasks for fathers was correlated with lower marital adjustment. However, mothers' greater involvement with the baby was positively associated with maternal adjustment but negatively related to wives' marital adjustment.

Belsky, Spanier & Rovine (1983) explored the changes within the marital relationship with 72 couples from the last trimester of pregnancy to three and then nine months after postpartum. They found a linear decline in overall marital adjustment from the last trimester to nine months postpartum; yet, the eventual stressful effect of the baby is buffered by the initial positive reaction to having a baby within the first month after the delivery, especially if the couples were raising their first baby. It revealed that a decline in marital quality continue as additional children were added to the family. Wives' perception of marital adjustment was more likely to decrease than that of the husbands. Overall findings suggested that those couples who scored high or low in self-reported and observed marital functioning in the last trimester of pregnancy and following the first postpartum month performed similarly after three and nine months of experience with new infants and, for many, with their new roles as parents.

O'Brien & Peyton (2002) studied marital change with couples (n=97) over the first 3 years after the birth of the first baby and found that marital intimacy is

likely to decrease consistently after the birth of a baby for both wives and husbands if there is a higher perception of difficulty with parenting. Emotional support received from the partner within the marital relationship was likely to influence the couples' perceived support for their parental role, since both husbands and wives who perceive emotional support from their partners also felt more competent in parenting tasks. Wives whose husbands held more traditional child-rearing attitudes and whose beliefs about child rearing were not similar to their husband's, experienced steeper declines in marital intimacy from the first month of postpartum until the child's third year.

It is demonstrated in the study of Cox, Owen, Lewis & Henderson (1989) that the sex of the child played a significant role irrespective of marital quality and personal adjustment of parents. They found that, both mothers and fathers were found to hold more positive attitudes toward their infants and toward their roles as parents when their firstborn was a son. Similarly, Cox, Paley, Burchinal & Payne (1999) found that the birth of a female child was related to decreases in marital satisfaction and positive marital interaction for both husbands and wives.

Additionally, they found out that patterns of marital change were also related to whether the pregnancy was planned, to depressive symptoms of spouses, and to the couple's problem-solving interaction styles. More specifically, they found that couples' marital satisfaction would increase or at least did not change for two years following the birth of the first child if neither of the spouses had high depressive symptoms, or at least one of the spouses showed good problem-solving communication before the child's birth and if the first-born was a son.

Belsky and Rovine (1990) conducted a longitudinal study on marriage, parenting, and infant development that investigated 128 families from the last

trimester of pregnancy through their first child's third birthday. In their assessment of marital change across the transition to parenthood, they observed a significant decline in marital quality over time and the measured change was generally more pronounced in the case of wives than of husbands. However, in some families marital quality did not change but even improved through the transition to parenthood. Their study indicated that patterns of change in marital quality were determined by multiple factors which could be identifiable prior to the infant's birth. It revealed that husbands and/or wives would be more likely to experience a decline in marital quality when husbands or wives were younger and less educated, had been married fewer years, earned less income, and when the husbands had less interpersonal sensitivity and when husbands and/or wives had lower self-esteem. Decline in marital quality was also associated with higher romance scores that were assessed during pregnancy. Wives who experienced a decline in the quality of their marriages were more likely to have planned their pregnancies than women who had unplanned pregnancies. The unpredictability of the infant and mothers' description of the baby as difficult in temperament were found to be important in determining the change patterns of women's marital quality in a negative direction. Furthermore, it is demonstrated in Kalmuss, Davidson, & Cushman's (1992) study that women's adjustment to parenthood would be more difficult if prenatally women expected that things would be better for them after the birth of the first baby, and if they held high expectations regarding the spousal and extended family help for childcare.

Wallace & Gotlib (1990) studied the degree of marital adjustment of 97 couples during the transition to parenthood with respect to marital adjustment during pregnancy, spouses' perceptions of their own parents' care giving, current parenting stress, and current perceptions of their infant's temperament. They found that

postpartum marital adjustment would be identifiable from the level of marital adjustment during pregnancy and perceived parenting stress after the delivery. For husbands, their wives' prenatal marital adjustment was also found to contribute to the prediction of husbands' level of marital adjustment at six months of postpartum.

Even though the negative consequences of the birth of a baby into marital relationship are frequently presented in the literature, it was also found that at least for some families, attention directed toward the child after the birth provide a basis for pleasurable interaction between husband and wife (Belsky, 1979). Warm, nurturant and supportive parent-child relations and exposure to a harmonious marriage in one's own childhood would also forecast more positive and less negative changes in marriage for husbands and wives following the birth of their first baby (Belsky & Isabella, 1985).

Margolin, Gordis & John (2001) suggest that a significant experience is shared by the couple through the birth of the baby. On the personal level, new mother and father try to adapt to their new roles as parents. On the marital level, couple learns to adopt and share their respective roles, responsibilities, and contributions to their child. At this point, coparenting alliance and coparenting relationship are regarded as important dimensions of marital relationship for the construction of healthy child development, even in the case of separation and/or divorce (Gable, Belsky & Crnic, 1992; McHale, 1995; Margolin et al., 2001). Coparenting alliance is conceptualized as the capacity of a couple to understand, respect and value the parenting roles, responsibilities, and tasks of one another, and coparenting relationship is referred to as the extent to which couples either support or undermine each other around the issues and functions of parenting (Gable, Belsky & Crnic, 1992; McHale, 1995; Margolin et al., 2001).

The quality of coparenting relationship is often regarded as a function of the quality of the marital relationship. That is to say, spouses will be more likely to engage in coparenting process and function more effectively as parents in the case of good marital quality. However, in some families, the quality of marital relationship and coparenting as well as effective parenting will be unrelated due to the motivating factors underlying these relationships (Kurdek, 1996; Margolin et al., 2001). It is stated that effective coparenting is motivated by concern for the welfare of the child whereas a strong marital relationship is motivated by the concern for the partner and for oneself (Margolin et al., 2001) and satisfaction that an individual gathers from each relationship depends on different sets of perceived rewards, costs and expectations (Kurdek, 1996). Thus, it is proposed that some couples in negative marital quality will collaborate in child-rearing regardless of their strong negative feelings toward the partner (Margolin et al., 2001).

Belsky & Hsieh (1998) studied the parent personality, co-parenting and division of labor correlates of marital functioning with 99 husbands and wives from the transition to parenthood to five years of parenting. They observed a decline in feelings of love for the partner over time for both husbands and wives. It appeared in their analysis that men and women who were more neurotic or negatively emotional, less extraverted, and less agreeable were married to individuals who had similar personality characteristics. For this group of individuals, feelings of love for the spouse were more likely to deteriorate over time. However, marital processes, including co-parenting, and the division of labor, that were measured throughout the study distinguished marriages that looked similar in terms of marital quality at the beginning of the study but changed thereafter. Their study indicated that while personality traits predicted the marital quality in the initial assessments, marital

interaction patterns in terms of coparenting and the division of labor, predicted the quality of the marriage over time.

As shall be seen from the articles mentioned above, there is a considerable number of variables that were explored as determinants of marital quality and marital change and numerous results appeared by those studies indicated the need for a framework in order to understand the nature and predictors of marital quality (Bradbury et al., 2000). Furthermore, all the literature concerning marital relations that are mentioned above comes mainly from Western countries. Concern with cultural context, as well as the impact of different segments within the culture on the norms and appropriate behaviors for marital relations (Fuller & Fincham, 1994; Stevenson-Hinde, 1998), is rarely emphasized in the current literature on marriage (Hortaçsu, 1999b). Therefore, the next section explores the marriage and marital relationships in Turkey.

2.1.6 Marriage in Turkey

In the current review of literature, marriage in Turkey is discussed in terms of 3 major dimensions: (a) mate selection, (b) marital relationship with regards to marriage initiation forms, (c) marital relationship patterns in terms of gender role differentiation in decision-making, division of labor, marital communication and intimacy.

2.1.6.1 Mate Selection

Marriage and family are the most widespread and alternativeless institutions in Turkey, since they remain to be only acceptable ways of fulfilling

individuals' love, reproduction and security needs (Tekeli, 1986, cited in Nauck & Klaus, 2004). Over 95% of the individuals get married at one point in their lives, often at around the mean age of 22 for women and 25 for men (Nauck & Klaus, 2004; Sunar & Fisek, 2003). Meanwhile, there exists very low divorce rate, with only one percent of the population has been divorced, and most divorces occur in childless marriages (Nauck & Klaus, 2004). It seems that for an unhappily married individual, the decision to get a divorce depends more on the economic opportunities rather than the quality of marriage and this is particularly the case for women due to the stigmatization process of divorced women (Sunar & Fisek, 2003).

It is widely accepted that love, personal intimacy, and equality in marriage are emphasized in industrialized Western countries and it is suggested that mate selection in marriage is based on individuals' free choice and mutual emotional bond between spouses (Hortaçsu, 1999a). However, there seems to exist different values, expectations and forms exist in Turkey compared to Western countries with respect to mate selection and marital choice. Nauck & Klaus (2004) state that in Turkey, women and their families of origin expect more property, higher income, and higher education from prospective husbands whereas men and their families of origin prefer young, nice-looking, and well-educated wives. Consequently, material investments of families for the education of their children and achieved educational certificates for individuals seem to be the most reliable clues for the future marital status of the individual as well as the status of the future spouse.

It is also stated that families of origin have a significant impact on the mate selection and marital decisions; they also intervene and contribute to their

children's marital relationships after a decision to get married is made (Hortaçsu, 1999a; Nauck & Klaus, 2004). This pattern is ascribed to the socialization of children with the highly dominant values of interdependence and connectedness in the Turkish culture where the cultural context is still characterized as traditional, authoritarian, and patriarchal (Kağıtçıbaşı & Sunar, 1992; Sunar & Fisek, 2003). This pattern is also attributed to be a consequence of the norms that point out the importance of family and kinship in the provision of social security on one hand, and on the other hand, to the unavailability of an effective social security system in Turkey where those security needs for an individual is largely provided by the family (Nauck & Klaus, 2004). Unlike Western love marriages, in Turkey, individuals' particular concern in mate selection is given to the similarity of political orientation, similarity of social background, relationships with in-laws, and socioeconomic factors for mate selection instead of romantic feelings of love (Fox, 1975; Hortaçsu, 1999a).

2.1.6.2 Marriage Arrangement

There exists mainly two forms of marriages based on the type of mate selection in Turkey: family-initiated and couple-initiated marriages (Fox, 1975; Hortaçsu, 1999a, 1999b; İmamoğlu & Yasak, 1997; Nauck & Klaus, 2004; Sunar & Fisek, 2003). Nauck & Klaus (2004) state that family formation process in family-initiated marriages begin with the initiation of families, and legal and/or religious marital ceremony takes place with or without the consent of the future spouses. The first child often is born within the first year of the marriage and this brings economic security to the couples as well as prestige and status to the spouses, especially to the wives. With time, feelings of love for the spouse are

formed and intensified. Primary focus in the family-initiated marriages is on the exchange of goods and human capital within or among kinship systems and the primary concern is on intergenerational solidarity and benefits (Nauck & Klaus, 2004). Family-arranged marriages also serve as a way of stabilization of existing marriages and prevention of daughters and sons from unwanted marriages (Hortaçsu, 1999a). There exists marriages that were arranged solely by the family and without the consent of future spouses, yet there is a shift to a milder version of arranged marriages in which the prospective spouses are introduced by families and are given the freedom to choose or reject their initiated partners (Hortaçsu, 1999a).

The other form of marriage, namely couple-initiated marriage, is characterized by autonomous partner selection (Nauck & Klaus, 2004) and by its emphasis on love, intimacy and equality (Hortaçsu, 1999a). Nauck & Klaus (2004) state that family formation process in the couple-initiated marriages are supposed to follow a sequential process in which the couple who fell in love should acquire the necessary economic conditions, such as the material prerequisites for a separate household, in order to be married and then have children. Even though the sequential steps of couple-initiated marriages are nearly similar in most countries, other than cohabitation processes that occur in some Western countries, couple-initiated marriages in Turkey are also different from the Western type of love marriages in terms of the mate selection criteria that were previously stated and on the observed marital relationship patterns depending on the demographic variables (Hortaçsu, 1999a).

In terms of the distribution of marriage types in Turkey, it is stated that there is a shift from family-arranged marriages to couple-initiated marriages

especially in urban settings (Fox, 1973; Hortaçsu, 1999a; İmamoğlu & Yasak, 1997; Nauck & Klaus, 2004). However, family-arranged marriages still prevail in the total population, namely 52% of first married women live in family-arranged marriages with respect to 40% who live in couple-initiated marriages (Hortaçsu, 1999a; Nauck & Klaus, 2004). Hortaçsu (1999b) states that young individuals from urban residences, and those who are in the upper social strata, in terms of economic conditions and educational levels, prefer couple-initiated marriages, nuclear households, postponement of marriage and parenthood, restrictions on the number of children, and they value and invest more in daughters than in sons.

Hortaçsu (1999a) conducted a study with 137 couples (N=274) in order to compare the first year of family-initiated and couple-initiated marriages in terms of demographic measures, marital functioning, and relationships with social network. It was found that there were earlier parenting, greater decision power of women in house-work related topics, and less frequent interaction with wife's than husband's family during the first month of marriage for family-initiated marriages than couple-initiated marriages. However, results revealed more similarities between those two groups of marriages rather than differences. The two groups of marriages did not differ significantly in terms of age at first marriage, and patterns of division of household labor with respect to gender and husbands' relative power in marital decision making. There was also a high degree of emotional involvement and positive feelings for the spouse in both forms of marriages and this pattern did not change with time. Two groups similarly reported low rates of conflict between the spouses, close feelings for the families of origin and in-laws, and almost weekly contacts with families of origin. The most significant differences between the two groups emerged in the

postponement of pregnancy and the practice of birth control in couple-initiated marriages. There was also a higher educational level both for husbands and wives of couple-initiated marriages than family-initiated marriages.

2.1.6.3 Marital Relationship Patterns

Interdependence between individuals and families, division of marital labor in terms of gender stereotypes and pregnancy soon after marriage is regarded as normative in marriages in Turkey (Hortaçsu, 1999b). Hortaçsu (1999b) studied differences among couples who did or did not become parents in the first year of marriage in terms of division of labor and satisfaction of division of labor, decision- making, conflict and conflict management, feelings for spouse and families, and frequency of interaction with different sectors of social network. She found that couples who became parents in the first year of the marriage were less educated than couples who did not have children within a year of marriage. Secondly, wives who became parents in the first year were more likely to be housewives. They were also more close to the families of origin and conflicts in those marriages were more likely to result from husband dominance. These two groups did not differ in terms of division of household labor and decision making correlates before the birth of the baby. Couples who became parents reported more gender stereotypic division of labor and husband dominant decision-making. Wives were more dissatisfied with division of labor in this group. Even though the husband dominance in decision making increased with the birth of the baby, more frequent wife dominance in conflict and more instances of change on the conflictual issues after the conflict broke out between parents with respect to childless couples. This pattern was attributed to the increase of women's decision

making power in household related issues after the birth of a baby. Unlike Western literature that often indicates a decrease in marital adjustment (i.e., Goldberg, et al., 1985; Belsky & Rovine, 1990) and feelings of love for the spouse (Belsky & Hsieh, 1998) after the birth of a baby, this study did not indicate a decline in positive affect for the spouse during the first year of marriage either for parents or for childless couples. However, higher frequencies of marital conflict and higher levels of conflict with families of origin occurred after the birth of a baby.

Marital relationship in Turkey is often characterized by a clear hierarchical organization with age and gender, male dominance in decision making, clear boundaries in terms of gender stereotyped role allocation, and low communication between spouses, yet these characteristics of the marital relationships also tend to vary depending on the demographic variables (Fox, 1973; Fox, 1975; Hortaçsu, 1999a, 1999b; İmamoğlu & Yasak, 1997; Kağıtçıbaşı & Sunar, 1992; Olson, 1982; Nauck & Klaus, 2004; Sunar & Fişek, 2003).

Olson (1982) offers the term “duofocal family structure” in order to explain the traditional sex role differentiation in terms of communication and division of labor of Turkish wives and husbands. It is stated that wives and husbands live in separate worlds, since wives are often placed at home, with female relatives, neighbors, and children whereas husbands’ world is often placed outside the household with male relatives, friends, and work mates. In these separate worlds, there are also clear boundaries in division of labor between husbands and wives, in that wives are held responsible for domestic labor and childcare whereas men are responsible for providing the family income. This pattern in role division often continues in dual-earner marriages (Acar & Ayata, 2002; Ayata, 2002; Okman-Fişek,

1982; White, 2002), in which especially the childcare and its responsibilities are attributed to mothers whereas the father is still regarded as the “helper” in this domain. More specifically, women continue to perceive their primary responsibility in the area of childcare and in homemaking role, yet better educated and employed middle and high SES urban wives often hire lower class or immigrant women in the household domestic labor in order to find time for effective childcare (Ayata, 2002; Özyeğin, 2002).

In fact, it is stated that the majority of employed mothers of childbearing age are not satisfied with working outside the home (Özbay, 1982). Sunar & Fişek, (2003) suggest three explanations regarding this dissatisfaction. First, in low SES families, woman’s employment, especially in menial and poorly paid jobs, does not positively contribute to the woman’s status within the family whereas it seems to contribute to a loss of prestige for husband as the breadwinner. Second, employment outside the home seems to increase the work load of mothers along with traditional domestic labor and childrearing responsibilities. Furthermore, in the absence of institutions for childcare, especially in the low SES families, women rely on the help of relatives, neighbors, or older children, which can in turn increase their dissatisfaction in being employed.

The results of Fox’s (1975) and İmamoğlu & Yasak’s (1997) studies indicated the importance of education and socioeconomic status of the spouses, particularly those of women, in predicting the marital power structure and marital satisfaction. Fox (1975) explored the determinants of power structure within marriage by comparing the husband and wife resources in terms of education, number of generations living in urban areas, education and occupational prestige of husband’s and wife’s fathers. He found that the amount of the resources that

the wife brought into marriage would increase her ability to participate in decision-making process and to counteract her husband's power to forbid, whereas the amount of resources that were contributed by the husband did not play such a role in determining the power structure of the marriage.

Imamoğlu & Yasak (1997) studied 456 married couples recruited from different urban settings of Turkey in order to find out the basic underlying dimensions and interrelationships of Turkish urban marriages. Predictors of wives' marital satisfaction were found as (a) husbands' marital satisfaction, (b) wives' desire for sexual possessiveness, (c) extent of socioeconomic development of wives, which was defined in terms of educational level and occupational status, type and length of marriage, number of children and attitudes toward marriage, and (d) relations with the extended family. It was also indicated that wives' marital satisfaction and husbands' relations with the extended family predicted the husbands' marital satisfaction. In terms of husbands' and wives' perception of their marital relationship, Kastro (1998) found a significant difference between wives' and husbands' perception of marital satisfaction in that wives' reports of marital satisfaction were significantly more negative than that of their husbands'.

Over the past decades, a trend toward more egalitarian marriages is observed within the high SES, urban families and within families where the wives are better educated and employed in prestigious occupations; the marital communication, intimacy and role-sharing are increased, and the level of male decision-making power decreased (Nauck & Klaus, 2004; Sunar & Fişek, 2003). Nevertheless, increased potential for marital conflict and uncertainty between spouses in terms of role allocation and hierarchical organization often accompany egalitarian and modern marriages, since spouses do not have role models and

prescriptions for their idealized marital intimacy, equality and companionship (Sunar & Fişek, 2003).

According to the current literature review, it is observed that there is a variety of approaches to the study of marriage. However, there is still a need for a theoretical framework and consensus on the definition (Fincham, 1998) and determinants of marital quality (Bradbury, et al., 2000). Among the numerous determinants, transition to parenthood appears to be a crucial process within the marital relationship, yet there is a lack of consensus and emphasis on the cultural variations as well.

Although there is a limited number of studies that has directly explored the marital relationships in Turkish culture (Fox, 1973, 1975; Hortaçsu, 1999a, 1999b; İmamoğlu & Yasak, 1997; Kastro, 1998) cultural features were found to have an impact on marital expectations as well as on the daily functioning of marriages. More specifically, it was stated that there are differences among marriages of Western culture and marriages of Turkish culture. In order to understand this difference, the first aim of this study is to explore the variables that may influence and predict the marital quality of Turkish women who have a child between the ages of three to six.

2.2 Parenting

This section of the literature review is organized as follows: (a) historical trends on the study of mothering, (b) construction of parenthood and motherhood, (c) effective parenting, (d) determinants of parenting in general, and finally (e) parenting in Turkey.

2.2.1 Historical Trends on the Study of Mothering

Since the emergence of psychology as a distinct discipline by the beginning of the 20th century, theories of socialization and personality development have emphasized the crucial importance of parent-child relationships (Lamb, Hwang, Ketterlinus & Fracasso, 1999). The socialization process of children involves promoting the optimal social and psychological development of children as well as helping children adopt the values of the society (Grusec & Ungerer, 2003). Parents are regarded as the primary actors for children throughout the socialization process that takes place in the family scene (Holden & Edwards, 1989; Holden & Miller, 1999; Kağıtçıbaşı & Sunar, 1992; Minuchin & Fishman, 1981). As such, parents, mostly mothers, are frequently referred to as the main sculptors in shaping children's behavioral, emotional, personality-related, and cognitive development (Holden & Edwards, 1989).

Psychology's emphasis on parents as the primary actors in children's socialization and personality development is largely attributed to Freud's psychoanalytic theory (Demo & Cox, 2000; Lamb et al., 1999). Demo & Cox (2000) state that starting from Freud's emphasis on the infant-mother relationship as a unique form of relationship, as a first love object and also as the prototype of all later love objects for the individuals, psychology has focused on the mother-child relationships, especially when explaining personality development. Similarly, Lamb et al. (1999) claim that the two aspects of psychoanalytic theory are especially important in the current emphasis on parent-child relationships: (a) the emphasis of psychoanalytic theory on the crucial formative role of mother-child relationships on individual development, and (b) its description of the complex ways in which children's early experiences have enduring influences on their personalities.

Although biological, learning, and psychoanalytic accounts have been influential in explaining the importance of parent-child relationships in the formative years, current research on the parent-child relationship in the early childhood years has been mainly guided by Bowlby's attachment theory (Demo & Cox, 2000), which is described in detail in the next section of this literature review. While much of parent-child research has been conducted through the attachment theoretical lens in early childhood years, literature on parent-child relationships in middle and late childhood and adolescence has diverged into several theoretical orientations and covers several dimensions of parent-child relationships, including the parental characteristics such as parental well-being, childrearing styles, and practices as well as the processes and contexts of parent-child relationships (Demo & Cox, 2000; Lamb et al., 1999; Kuczynski, 2003a).

It is important to point out that up until the late 60's, parenting, frequently the mothering was studied as an independent variable and child outcomes, such as psychological wellbeing, achievement, sex role behavior, etc, were perceived as depending solely on parenting (Kuczynski, 2003a). In other words, mostly mothers were held responsible for all the problems their children exhibited, as if the mothers were all-powerful creatures who alone could shape their children's fate (Cusinato, 1994). On the other hand, in the unidirectional era of research on parent-child relations, in which the parent-child relationships were studied as mother-to-child relationships, the ongoing and underlying processes under which the mothers behave in certain ways instead of others were left unanswered (Belsky, 1984; Cusinato, 1994; Kuczynski, 2003a, 2003b).

As a consequence, this unidirectional approach to parenting led to a serious and a widespread phenomenon to called "mother blaming"; the term that describes

mothers as solely responsible for all kinds of actions, behavior, health, and well-being of their children (Birns & Ben-Ner, 1988; Jackson & Mannix, 2004; Kuczynski, 2003a). Caplan & Hall-McCoquadle (1985) examined 125 articles of major clinical journals in the years 1970, 1976, and 1982 to find out the prevalence of mother blaming phenomenon. They found that in 82% of those articles, mothers were designated responsible for seventy two kinds of problems and psychopathology that were detected in their children. Those problems ranged from bed-wetting to schizophrenia. They also found that factors that might have had a stronger or equally important influence on childhood psychopathology, such as the role of fathers, genetics, ecological factors and the contribution of children, were totally neglected in those articles. However, contrary to the previous claims on parent child relations that assign parents as the responsible agents in childhood, recent research suggest that only 26% of variability of children's and 21% of adults' psychological adjustment can be accounted for solely on parenting, according to the degree of love or rejection parents exert on their children. (Rohner and Khaleque, 2005).

Consequently, although the former researchers devoted much of their effort to understand the child development and adjustment via parenting variables, there is also a growing body of literature that put specific emphasis on the experience of parenthood for individuals (Arendell, 2000; Birns & Hay, 1988; Stern, 1991; Stern, & Bruschiweiler-Stern, 1998) and the determinants of parenting (Belsky, 1984; Cusinato, 1994; Demo & Cox, 2000; Holden & Hawk, 2003; Kuczynski, 2003a). As Kuczynski (2003a) points out, researchers today tend to emphasize the parent-child relationships as the "primary proximal context that creates distinctive dynamics within parent-child interactions" (p. xii). Family systems and ecological systems, goodness-of-fit between the child and the parent, the processes underlying the

transformation and change in parents, children and parent-child relationships are some of the factors that are found to contribute to the parent-child relations that are all under investigation in today's studies (Kuczynski, 2003a); yet there is still a need for a theoretical and methodological framework for parent-child relations (Cusinato, 1994).

2.2.2 Construction of Parenthood and Motherhood

The birth of a child simultaneously marks the birth of a mother and father; the birth of a new identity and the sense of being a parent (Stern & Bruschweiler-Stern, 1998). It is also the beginning of one of the most definitive stages in the life of an individual (Carter, 2004). It is often stated that life will not be the same for individuals once there is a child; for better and for worse (Carter, 2004; Stern & Bruschweiler-Stern, 1998). Most of the individuals who have children consider their new babies as fascinating, delightful and unique additions to the family (Carter, 2004) and define their children as the primary source of love and happiness (Umberson, 1989). Despite its complexities and difficulties, as Carter (2004) suggests, parenting makes it possible for a human being to experience all the joys and pleasures of "physical, sensory, intellectual, emotional, and spiritual connectedness to another human being through love" (p. 271). Furthermore, it is postulated that parent-child relations will set an environmental context by which openness to new learning and coping strategies will be stimulated (Palkovitz, Marks, Appleby & Holmes, 2003).

From a developmental viewpoint, Cusinato (1994) conceptualized parenthood as a subjective, cultural and social experience. He suggests that being a parent means to have children and each individual can experience parenting through their daily

interactions with their child; yet daily experiences of any single individual's parenting continually change in relation to the physiological and psychological changes within the self, as well as factors associated with the child's physiological and psychological development. Meanwhile, individuals' social background and culture, more specifically society and historical trends and expectations, also directly influence the daily experiences of parenting by shaping the meaning of parenthood. Therefore, he claims that a dialectic relation between parenthood and parenting exists, and the parenting experience of an individual is anticipated, accompanied and condensed by the meaning of parenthood. In fact, the majority of cultures either explicitly or implicitly, view parenthood as a necessity for an individual's well-being and maturation to adulthood (Carter, 2004; Umberson, 1989).

Contrary to historical and traditional expectation that parenthood increases individual's psychological well-being, Umberson & Gove (1989) found from a sample that consisted of 1753 individuals that children had both positive and negative impacts on the psychological well being of parents. Nonparents, when compared with parents living with young children were found to exhibit lower levels of life-meaning, yet nonparents' well-being on affective and satisfaction measures were better than that of parents. It was also found that parents with adult children living away from home tended to have higher levels of affective well-being, satisfaction and life-meaning than nonparents and parents with young children. The results of their study indicated that divorced parents experienced the greatest costs of parenthood.

Historical, cultural, and social phenomena are also important in conceptualizing the meaning of motherhood. Traditionally, womanhood and motherhood are used as synonymous identities (Arendell, 2000). Carter (2004) states

that in most cultures, for a female to be accepted as a “real” woman, she needs to have a child. Similarly, most cultures expect that women be the ones to primarily adopt parenting practices (Arendell, 2000). Even though association of womanhood and motherhood is often perceived as a natural byproduct of females’ biological capacity to conceive, gestate, give birth and lactate, there are both similarities and variations in the definitions and practices of mothering, depending on the cultural, social, historical, and demographical trends (Arendell, 2000; Cusinato, 1994).

It is pointed out that mothering will include dialectical tensions for the daily lives of women (Arendell, 2000; Carter, 2004). Arendell (2000) states that women may experience personal fulfillment, growth and joy through mothering or mothering experience may for some women increase tensions, depression and anxiety. As such, it is indicated in Crnic & Booth’s study (1991) that mothers and fathers report more parenting hassles in their daily lives as children grow older and as the daily hassles increase, mothers’ indices of parenting satisfaction, life satisfaction and social support decrease. However, as the intimate partner’s and community’s support increase, mother’s satisfaction with parenting and life satisfaction also increase even in the case of frequent and intense reported daily parenting hassles.

In order to understand the mothering experience and mother-child relationship between mother-child dyad, Stern (1991) proposes a complicated model. According to him, mental representations of the child in the mother’s mind and of the mother in the child’s mind constitute a pervasive and powerful role in shaping the mother-child relations. He states that mother’s mental representations, specifically sets of relationships that are represented in the mother’s mind, consist of several dimensions that include the representational sets concerning the baby, herself, her mother and father, parental figures that played an important role in her life, her

family groupings, family and cultural phenomena, etc. In other words, the relationship a mother establishes with her child will be based on several mental representations including mother's representations of her baby as a person with specific personality traits; herself, her spouse, and her family members with distinct and various characteristics.

As a conclusion to the construction of parenthood and motherhood concepts, it may be further stated that parenthood, more specifically motherhood, and childhood constitute the two dimensions of the same coin. As Arendell (2000) states, conceptualizations of parenthood and motherhood are inevitably shaped by the individual, cultural, theoretical, and empirical conceptualizations of childhood and by the attributions about children's needs and whether their needs are being met by parents. Therefore, the following section deals with the accounts of effective parenting by which the needs of children are met appropriately.

2.2.3 Effective Parenting

“Ordinary sensitive mother” (Bowlby, 1988), “good enough mothering” (Winnicott, 1998) and “ordinary devoted mother” (Mahler, Pine & Bergman 1975) are examples of terms that are used in describing the characteristics of mothers through whom healthy psychological development of children are promoted. In general, a child is expected to be loved and accepted by his/her mother who is sensitive of the child's needs and behave accordingly to those needs while also giving appropriate levels of nurturing, protecting and caring (Bowlby, 1988; Cusinato, 1994; Mahler, Pine & Bergman, 1975; Winnicott, 1998).

Bee (1995) identified four major dimensions of parenting that were found as significant in the literature concerning parent-child relationships for effective parenting and for healthy child development. These are the emotional tone of the parent-child relationships, degree of responsiveness, methods of control over the child, and communication patterns. According to her, these dimensions interact with each other and create a style or pattern of child rearing. By reviewing the research on these four dimensions, she suggested that warm and sensitive parents, who understand and respond to the child's signals appropriately; who set consistent rules; who have higher expectations from the child within the limits; who are moderately restrictive or permissive about their rules; and who have open and good communication with their children will be more likely to promote healthy development of their children.

Grusec & Ungerer (2003) regard effective parenting as a problem-solving activity that points out a dyadic process requiring an understanding of the child's characteristics and individual contributions in a variety of situations and contexts. Effective parents, in this case effective problem solvers, are those who know their children and how they will react and who are willing to put that knowledge into effect. The degree of sensitivity or awareness to a given child's characteristics and cognitions is expected to have an influence on the effectiveness of the parents. Parents will be more likely to know their children if they spend time with them and listen to their children while creating environments in which the children feel free and secure to express themselves. Furthermore, effective parents are open and receptive to their children's cues, see themselves as capable in the care giving role, accept their children as they are, respect their children's separateness,

independence and difference, and are committed to the care-giving role while consistently and appropriately responding to the needs of their children.

According to Holden & Hawk (2003), effective parenting includes “metaparenting”, that is “a class of evaluative parental thought concerning the child rearing domain that typically occurs before or after parent-child interactions” (p.191). There are four components of metaparenting, namely anticipating, assessing, problem-solving and reflecting. According to Holden & Hawk (2003), metaparenting is more likely to increase self-regulatory mechanisms, proactive and sensitive parenting, monitoring, and parental self-efficacy. It will, on the other hand, reduce child-rearing stress and promote social connectedness and social support by prompting the parent to seek support from others. Metaparenting also drives parental change or transformation as needed. Parental involvement with the child rearing activities, parents’ cognitive abilities and resources, and sufficient time and energy set the necessary conditions for metaparenting. It requires parents to be involved, concerned, and caring about the child’s well-being and development and it is affected by the presence of physical and mental health problems, economic conditions, cultural beliefs, and the characteristics of the child.

Baumrind (1972, cited in Bee, 1995) combined four aspects of parenting, including warmth or nurturance, maturity demands, clarity and consistency of rules and communication. She offered three styles of parenting based on those four dimensions of parenting. Styles of parenting include permissive parenting style (high in nurturance but low in maturity demands, control and communication), authoritarian parenting style (high in control and maturity demands but low in nurturance and communication), and authoritative parenting style (high in all four aspects). Although it is perceived in her parenting typology that authoritative style of

parenting will be more effective in parent-child relations, a growing body of research done with minority groups challenged her view about the effectiveness of the authoritative parenting style (Rohner & Khaleque, 2005).

Parental Acceptance Rejection Theory (PART) points out the importance of the warmth dimension of parenting regarding positive outcomes for children's healthy psychological development (Rohner & Khaleque, 2005). This theory basically assumes that all individuals have an enduring and biologically based emotional need for positive response from significant others including warmth, affection, nurturance, comfort, etc. This need will be fulfilled by non-parent attachment figures but for most of the time, significant others are the parents for children and partner/spouse fulfill this emotional need in the adulthood. This theory further suggests that parent-child relations have an utmost importance in shaping the personality development of children over time. Moreover, it suggests that individuals' sense of emotional security and well-being throughout their lives are likely to be dependent on the amount of warmth they received from their parents.

In PART, Rohner and his associates (Rohner & Khaleque, 2005) draw attention to the "quality of the affectional bond between parents and their children and to the physical and verbal behaviors [they] use to express these feelings" (p.5). They placed parenting behaviors into a continuum that puts parental acceptance at one end and parental rejection on the other end. Parental acceptance refers to all kinds of love that children can experience from their parents and primary caregivers that include warmth, affection, care, concern, nurturance, support, and comfort. On the other hand, parental rejection constitutes an absence or withdrawal of these loving feelings and behaviors from children that are replaced with psychological and physical hurtful behaviors and affects. If children and adults do not receive the

necessary warmth from the significant figures and if they feel rejected by them, those children and adults will be more likely to become dependent individuals. They will also tend to have impaired self-esteem and self-adequacy, and they are more likely to be emotionally unstable in their abilities to cope with stress. They will be more likely to hold negative mental representations of themselves, others and the world in general. Depression, and depressed affect, behavioral problems including conduct disorders, externalizing behaviors, and delinquency, and substance abuse are more likely to be detected in individuals who have felt rejected or who cannot receive necessary warmth from their parents and/or significant others. Consequently, it is stated that only 20% of the individuals all over the world who have felt rejected by their parents will overcome the negative effects of rejection on their mental health and enduring personality dispositions. (Rohner & Khaleque, 2005).

In this section of the literature review, only a limited number of the assumptions which draws attention to the characteristics of effective parents that promote optimal child development are included; there still remains numerous assumptions on effective parenting that may be included here. In fact, the underlying factors such as contextual factors, psychological and social resources of parents that may influence parents in their parenting efforts have been understudied (Belsky, 1984; Cusinato, 1994; Demo & Cox, 2000; Holden & Hawk, 2003; Kuczynski, 2003a). One of the intentions of the current study is to explore the factors that may influence and predict the quality of mother-child relationships; therefore, the following section explores the determinants of mothering.

2.2.4 Determinants of Parenting

Belsky (1984) considers personal psychological resources of parents, child characteristics, and contextual factors of stress and support as multiply predicting the parental functioning at varying degrees. He describes personal psychological resources of a parent as his or her personality and personal developmental history. Belsky (1984) further argues that a parent's psychological resources are more influential determinants of parenting than the child's characteristics and contextual factors of stress and support. In his model, child characteristics are conceptualized as the temperament of the child and the goodness-of-fit between the parent and child. He defines three dimensions relating to the contextual sources of stress and support, namely the marital relationship, social networks, and employment of parents. According to Belsky, personal psychological resources of parents directly affect parental functioning and have indirect effects on shaping the quality of marital relations, social network support and work conditions. Moreover, it is stated that contextual sources of stress, such as low marital quality, unemployment especially in fathers, and social isolation where a lack of significant others in supporting parents' parental functioning, will also lead to a negative impact on the personality of parents and their psychological well-being. Similarly, Crittenden (1996) points out the negative impacts of several contextual factors, including low income, limited education, large number of children, family instability and occurrence of family crises (i.e. divorce, death, unemployment) on parenting failure and parental maltreating.

Palkovitz, Marks, Appleby & Holmes (2003) perceive parenting as a context for adult development and emphasize the influence of five factors on the individuals' parenting experiences and their involvement in parenting role. They argue that these five factors interact in complex and changing configurations and influence the degree

of individuals' qualitative developmental change through parenting as well as their daily parenting experiences. Five factors that are included in their model are (a) child characteristics, (b) parents' demographic factors, (c) parents' personal factors, (d) competing and complementary role demands expected from parents, (e) parents' relational factors. Child's age, gender, personality and temperament, health and developmental status are referred to as child characteristics. Parents' demographic factors are identified as parents' age, education, income, marital and employment status, residential status, cultural identity and religiosity and the timing of transition to parenthood. Parents' functionality, preparation for parenthood, relational style, motivation, skills and abilities, view of parenting role, and parenting identity are identified as parents' personal factors. Family, work and community demands constitute the competing and complementary role demands on parents. Parents' relationships with others such as the quality of marital relation, degree of gatekeeping between couples in terms of parent-child relationships, quality of the parents' relationships with their own parents and social supports are identified as parents' relational factors.

Rohner & Khaleque (2005) identify primary emotional relationships that were received mainly in childhood and current social supports as important factors in determining parental acceptance and rejection. For example, single young parents without any social and emotional support and who live under economic distress or poverty are in great risk of rejecting their children, mostly because they lack the necessary conditions that could enable them to provide love and affection for their children. However, Rohner & Khaleque (2005) caution against deriving conclusions from those incidences, since only 25% of parents around the world tend to reject

their children and even in the case of negative life conditions, parents are capable of raising their children with loving care.

Simons, Whitbeck, Conger & Melby, (1990) conducted a study with both the mothers and fathers of 63 seventh grade children in order to correlate parenting behaviors with respect to parents' level of depression, education, marital satisfaction, economic distress, their perception of their child as easy or difficult to raise, their individualistic values (in terms of economic prosperity, wealth, success, etc.) and their beliefs about parenting. Observational indices in conjunction with video recordings were collected from mothers and fathers in their homes in order to assess parenting behaviors. The results indicated that mothers' constructive parenting was more likely to be negatively related to depression and individualistic values whereas it was positively related to marital satisfaction and education. For mothers, education, perceptions of their child as difficult, and individualistic values were significantly related to destructive forms of parenting. Mothers who were in satisfying and supportive marital relationships were found to be more available, sensitive, and responsive to their children's needs. Economic distress was indicated as a mediating variable in marital satisfaction and parenting. In financially deprived homes, there was a decrease in mothers' level of marital satisfaction and an increase in the perception of the child as difficult. Those factors together were thought to decrease mothers' amount of warmth and nurturance towards their children.

Simons, Beaman, Conger, & Chao (1993) stress the importance of viewing the parenting practices as an ongoing relationship between the child and the parent. They argue that expectations parents have formed as children through their interaction with their own parents, their availability of alternative sources of reward in the current parent-child relationship, the degree of correspondence between the

child's actions and the parent's hierarchy of valued outcomes, etc. are altogether important factors in determining parental behavior. As such, they found that the quality of parenting received as a child, satisfaction with the parent-child relationship, education and various parenting beliefs predicted the parenting practices of both mothers and fathers. They found an indirect relationship between emotional well being of parents and parenting in which the emotional well being had an impact upon satisfaction with the parent-child relationship. For husbands, their wives' degree of satisfaction with the child and parenting beliefs of their wives influenced their quality of parenting, whereas wives' quality of parenting were not influenced by their husbands' degree of satisfaction with the child and their husbands' parenting beliefs.

Voydanoff & Donnelly (1998) propose a hypothetical model in their study of parent-child relationships. They applied the concepts of risk and protective factors into the study of parental well being and parental behavior. They defined risk factors as economic strain, single-parent family status, husband's and wives' long hours in paid work, and neighborhood problems. Protective factors were defined as marital happiness, and parents' community resources. Their hypothesis state that there would be a negative correlation between risk factors and parental well being while protective factors were expected to buffer those relationships. They expected a positive relationship between parental well being and protective factors on the nurturing and supportive parenting. In investigating their hypotheses, they interviewed 929 parents whose children were aged between 10 and 17. They found a significant negative relation between parental well being and risk factors, especially economic strain and long paid work hours. Two protective factors, namely marital happiness and positive school environment for adolescents were found to be

positively related to parental well being. In terms of parental behavior, parental well being, marital happiness and parents' community resources revealed modest positive relationships with nurturing and supportive parenting behavior.

Bluestone & Tamis-LeMonda (1999) studied the correlates of parenting styles, namely the disciplinary and parenting practices of 114 working middle-class (in terms of income and education) mothers who had children aged between 5 to 12 years. Mothers' level of depression, sociodemographic variables, such as income, occupation and level of education, and mothers' child rearing history by their mothers were assessed in order to correlate those variables with their parenting styles and disciplinary strategies. The results of this study showed that mothers who were more educated, less depressed and who reported less rejection during their childhoods were more child-centered in their parenting styles. Consequently, even in a low-risk group, mothers' level of depression and child rearing history were found to have an influence in their parenting styles. Level of depression was regarded as a mediating variable between child rearing history and current parenting styles. Depressive mothers tended to engage in less optimal parenting behaviors in terms of child centered parenting and reasoning, but depression alone was not associated with negative forms of parenting such as punishment or scolding.

The mothers' educational level is regarded as an important determinant in parent-child relationships. Thus, an increase in the quality of mother-child relationship is expected as the educational level of the mother increases. Yet, Pridham, Denney, Pascoe, Chiu & Creasey (1995) could not find any such relationship contributing to the quality and quantity of mothers' solution to child rearing problems. In their study, they investigated the quantity and quality of mothers' solutions to child rearing problems and the problem-solving processes

mothers employed. They found that the set of problem solving processes including problem clarifying, contingent planning, and perspective taking made a contribution to the quantity and quality of child rearing solutions beyond the contribution made by maternal education and parenting experience. Contrary to these results, the results of a cross-national study conducted in Italy, Germany, Canada, and Norway, with 24,546 married mothers and fathers, indicated significant differences on child care time of parents with respect to educational level (Sayer, Gauthier & Furstenberg, 2004). It was found that more educated mothers spent more time with their children than less educated mothers. On the other hand, educational level of the fathers was not found as contributing to the time spent with children for fathers.

Employed mothers' involvement with household tasks and child rearing activities cause an overwhelming effect on the women's daily routines, increasing their feelings of agitation (Umberson & Gove, 1989). As expected, DeMeis & Perkins (1996) found that employment status of the mothers did not have an influence on the mothers' involvement in household tasks and child rearing activities that were performed in their daily routines. Employed and unemployed mothers similarly regarded the household tasks as obligatory, yet the amount of actual time spent in the household tasks was found to be slightly less in employed mothers on weekdays. The number and quality of the mothers' activities with their children also did not change due to the employment status of the mothers. It was more likely that full-time employed women workers were also full-time mothers and full-time homemakers. The results of their study suggest the importance of examining mothers' perception of womanhood roles in relation to their objective behaviors in studying employment effects. Moreover, Belsky (1984) points out that, for both parents, satisfaction with employment status and

job conditions contribute to the quality of parenting more than that of employment status of parents.

In order to investigate the relationships between parent role quality and levels of psychological distress with regards to gender, Barnett, et. al. (1994) measured the influence of psychological stress, role quality in terms of parental, marital, and job roles, occupational prestige, education, household income, years together, and number of children, and made a differential analysis for 180 married men and women in dual-earner couples. The results of their study demonstrated that if parent-child relationships were positive, mothers and fathers were equally likely to report low levels of stress. Secondly, this study revealed that positive and negative relationships with children had similar effects on women's and men's mental health. It was also found that in dual-earner couples, positive job and marital experiences were associated with low levels of distress. Even though women reported somewhat higher levels of distress than did their husbands for parental demands as well as for the quality of experience in the roles (i.e. being an employee, spouse, and parent), there were not any statistically significant differences between men and women. Researchers attributed this difference to the division of household and child care labor or to the sex role attitudes held by the mothers, and not to their employment status. Parental role quality was found to be an important determinant of parental psychological well being for both men and women in dual-earner couples.

Child maltreatment studies in general suggest an intergenerational transmission in negative parenting practices (Erickson & Egeland, 1996). Belsky, Jaffee, Sligo, Woodward & Silva (2005) explored the effects of warm, stimulating and sensitive parenting parents received in childhood on their actual parenting

practices. Their sample consisted of more than 200 parents who were followed since age 3 and who had a 3-year-old child. Measures of family climate, parenting, or parent-child relationships were gathered from a broader, longitudinal investigation when current parents were 3, 5, 7, 9, 13, and 15 years of age. Researchers found that warm, sensitive and stimulating parenting was intergenerationally transmitted through one generation to the next for the mothers but not the fathers. In other words, mothers who experienced more supportive parenting throughout their own childhoods provided such care when interacting with their young children, yet child rearing history of fathers did not have an effect on the fathers' current parenting styles.

Erickson & Egeland (1996) point out that there were also parents who broke the cycles of intergenerational transmission of poor parenting and provided a good care for their children even though they were maltreated in their childhood. The presence of a loving and supportive adult during childhood, a supportive partner and therapeutic intervention are regarded as the three important factors that distinguish between parents who broke the cycle of maltreatment from those that did not. Phelps, Belsky & Crnic (1998) defined parents who have developed an integrated and coherent perspective on their difficult childhood experiences and provided positive parenting to their children as "earned secures". They found that even in high stress conditions, earned secures provided positive parenting to their children as much as the parents who received positive parenting in their childhood. Earned secures' parenting practices were found to be significantly more positive than that of the insecure parents who could not overcome the effects of maltreatment they received in their childhood.

Davies & Cummings (1994) suggest an emotional security hypothesis that they built on attachment theory in which the level of marital conflict is identified as a moderating variable between parenting and child adjustment. It is suggested that marital conflict will lead to an emotionally unpleasant family life, threaten the children's emotional or even physical well-being, result in a breakdown of discipline practices, and reduce the emotional availability or sensitivity of parents. Exposure to constructive conflicts instead of destructive conflicts, secure parent-child attachment, parental warmth, and children's easy temperaments and positive affect within high-conflict families were outlined as protective factors for children's feelings of emotional security from marital conflict (Davies & Cummings, 1994).

In accordance with the previous hypothesis, McHale (1995) proposes that preexisting and enduring personal adjustment problems and marital problems will disrupt parents' ability to establish respectful, supportive patterns of coparenting and this will in turn affect their warmth and involvement with the children. The results of his study indicated a significant relationship between marital relationship and coparenting, since significant relationships were found between marital conflict and the hostile-competitive coparenting, and between problems in the allocation of power and parenting discrepancies. Margolin and associates (2001) also found that coparenting would mediate the relationship between marital conflict and parent-child relations. Their results stated that marital stress and conflict were significantly associated with impaired parenting, but coparenting dimensions in the family were more influential in predicting the processes underlying higher levels of parenting stress and impaired parenting practices.

FLOYD, GILLIOM, AND COSTIGAN (1998) STUDIED COUPLES WHO HAD SCHOOL-AGE CHILDREN WITH MENTAL RETARDATION AND

INVESTIGATED HOW MARRIAGE AND PARENTING ALLIANCES AFFECTED PARENTING EXPERIENCES OVER TIME WITHIN TWO YEARS OF FOLLOW-UP. RESULTS INDICATED THAT, FOR BOTH MOTHERS AND FATHERS, INCREASED MARITAL QUALITY AS ASSESSED BY DAS AND THE EXCHANGE OF RELATIVELY POSITIVE COMMUNICATION SKILLS BETWEEN SPOUSES WERE SIGNIFICANTLY RELATED TO CHANGES IN PERCEIVED PARENTING COMPETENCE. MOTHERS' REPORTS OF POOR MARITAL QUALITY WAS ALSO FOUND AS SIGNIFICANTLY RELATED TO THE OBSERVED NEGATIVE MOTHER-CHILD INTERACTIONS. IN ALL CASES, THE PARENTING ALLIANCE MEDIATED THE EFFECTS OF MARRIAGE ON PARENTING PRACTICES. IT WAS INDICATED THAT TEENAGERS, AS OPPOSED TO YOUNGER CHILDREN, WERE MORE REACTIVE TO NEGATIVE FEATURES OF THEIR PARENTS' MARITAL FUNCTIONING AND PARENTING ALLIANCE.

2.2.5 Parenting in Turkey

Turkey is characterized as a traditional, authoritarian and patriarchal culture, especially in the case of gender and family relations; since superiority is attributed to the older members of the family over the young and men over women. Meanwhile, emotional and material interdependencies between the family members including the intergenerational relationships are highly valued and expected (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1996, 2000; Kağıtçıbaşı & Sunar, 1992; Nauck & Klaus, 2004; Sunar & Fişek, 2003). As Nauck & Klaus (2004) state, these characteristics of Turkish culture guide the parents' childrearing practices and expectations and children's socialization processes within the family, as well as the relationships between parents and

children. Consequently, mother-child relationships in Turkey are discussed in terms of three major aspects: (a) value of children, as they relate to the daily practices of parenting in Turkey, (b) socialization and parenting practices, including disciplinary practices, (c) gender differences on parent-child relationships.

2.2.5.1 Value of Children

Turkish children are highly valued for material and emotional reasons (Nauck & Klaus, 2004), which are influential as reasons to have children (Kağıtçıbaşı & Sunar, 1992; Sunar & Fişek, 2003; Nauck & Klaus, 2004). More specifically, children are seen as a source of security against illness, unemployment, and old age and as a source of emotional support and way of increasing their parents' status within the society, especially for mothers. However, values attributed to children are mainly influenced by the social-ecological context of the family (Nauck & Klaus, 2004) and striking urban and rural differences exist that also lead to differences in the socialization processes, parenting practices, and parent-child relationships (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1996; Kağıtçıbaşı, 2000; Kağıtçıbaşı & Sunar, 1992; Nauck & Klaus, 2004; Sunar & Fişek, 2003). In the rural regions of Turkey, children are valued for their potential economic contributions to the family income. A higher value is attributed to sons over daughters in rural families; a pattern that is related to the higher instrumentality of boys for their economic contribution to the family (Nauck & Klaus, 2004). On the contrary, psychological values attributed to children, such as mutual love and emotional interdependencies exceed the influence of attributed material values in urban families. Boy preference decreases and daughter preference increases in urban middle class mothers (Sunar & Fişek, 2003).

2.2.5.2 Socialization and Parenting Practices

Besides the values attributed to children, there are also differences between urban and rural families in terms of socialization processes. Kağıtçıbaşı & Sunar (1992) state that young children are expected to be obedient to their parents while they are not desired to be independent and self-reliant in traditional Turkish families. In a similar vein, adult children are expected to be close, loyal and faithful to their parents and family of origin. Furthermore, children are also brought up with an emphasis on (a) conformity, (b) sensitivity to the needs of others even if it means to subordinate their own interests, ambitions, and achievements, (c) identification of sex roles, and (d) minimization of family conflict (Kağıtçıbaşı & Sunar, 1992; Nauck & Klaus, 2004; Sunar & Fişek, 2003). In the educated urban families, parents' emphasis on obedience decreases, yet closeness, mutual emotional interdependence and sensitivity to the needs of others increases (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1996, 2000; Sunar & Fişek, 2003). On the other hand, unlike rural families, child's autonomy, success, and achievement are encouraged in urban families. Kağıtçıbaşı & Sunar, (1992) and Nauck & Klaus (2004) state that daughters and sons are taught to be reliable, loyal, and sensitive to the needs of others in the same way and to the same extent, both in rural and urban families. Consequently, sons also learn some expressive behavioral patterns that are viewed as feminine in Western societies.

Parenting disciplinary practices are influenced by the attributed value of children and expectations from children in conjunction with the social-ecological context of the family influence (Hortaçsu, 1995; Nauck & Klaus, 2004; Sunar & Fişek, 2003). Rural-origin, traditional Turkish mothers who expect obedience from their children tend to use power assertive disciplinary techniques on their children, which include physical punishment, scolding, and threats of bodily harm, scaring

with supernatural agencies, and shaming (Kağıtçıbaşı, Sunar & Bekman, 2001; Sunar & Fişek, 2003). Nauck and Klaus (2004) state that for those parents, the coercive acts of violence toward children are seen as legitimate ways to discipline and educate them. On the other hand, middle class urban parents who hold more democratic views on childrearing, encourage autonomy in their children, rely on a combination of rewards, reasoning and shaming in order to educate their children and rarely use physical punishment (Nauck & Klaus, 2004; Sunar & Fişek, 2003).

Hortaçsu (1995) studied 107 fourth grade children, their mothers and fathers (N=321) in order to investigate the relationships between parents' educational levels, parents' beliefs concerning children, children's cognitions related to themselves and their relationships, and academic achievement. She found that as the mothers' level of education decrease, mothers are more likely to hold categorical beliefs that imply beliefs in single causes, either heredity or environment, as determinants of children's developmental outcomes and as explanations of child outcomes that are situation specific. Mothers' with lower level of education were more likely to use strict discipline as a method for child rearing. The results indicated that children of mothers who held categorical beliefs are more likely to have decreased child efficacy and academic achievement and have insecure attachment prototype. On the other hand, mothers with higher levels of education were more likely to hold perspectivistic beliefs which imply a conception of child development within a dynamic system of multiple influences and which emphasize the importance of sensitive and responsive parenting. It was also found in the study that a high level of maternal education was significantly related to higher academic achievement of children, lower child insecurity, and lower perception of external control by children.

Both in urban and rural families, there is a considerable emphasis on control in childrearing practices, since child's autonomous-relational self is the goal rather than separateness of the child from family members (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1996, 2000). Nauck & Klaus (2004) further point out the different aspects of control that characterize the parents' educational styles with younger and older children. More specifically, they suggest that protective control or overprotectiveness is used by parents in younger children and authoritative control is used in late childhood and adolescence. Turkish children are reared in family climates where mutual emotional attachment and loyalty among family members exist. Consequently, children do not perceive parental control as an aspect of parental rejection (Sunar & Fişek, 2003) even in adolescence (Aydın & Öztütüncü, 2001). Additionally, parental love mediates the relationships between punishment and children's level of psychological adjustment (Erkman & Rohner, in press).

Aydın & Öztütüncü (2001) found that decreased family cohesion was significantly related to the degree of negative thoughts and depressive mood of adolescents whereas perceived control within the family was not. In a similar vein, Erkman & Rohner (in press) studied 427 Turkish children between the ages of 10 and 18 in order to investigate the relationships between corporal punishment, perceived parental acceptance, and psychological adjustment. They found that the youths' self-reported level of psychological adjustment was significantly related to the perceived maternal and paternal acceptance as well as perceived harshness of maternal and paternal punishment and justness of maternal punishment. It is revealed in their study that the Turkish youths' perceived parental acceptance mediate the associations between parental punishment and the youths' psychological adjustment.

2.2.5.3 Gender Differences on Parent-Child Relationships

Sunar & Fişek (2003) suggest that high levels of emotional closeness between mothers and children exist in Turkish families. Mothers often openly express their affection towards their children either physically with kisses and hugging or with words and encourage their children to return those behaviors (Nauck & Klaus, 2004; Sunar & Fişek, 2003). Fathers also care for their infants and younger children through physical contact and play (Nauck & Klaus, 2004; Sunar & Fişek, 2003). However, as children grow older, fathers' emotional closeness toward their children decrease whereas emotional distance between father and children and the authority of fathers increase (Nauck & Klaus, 2004). Thus, mothers take the role of a mediator between fathers and children, especially in cases of father-child conflict. As Okman-Fişek (1982) suggests, in traditional Turkish families there is an absence of open communication and expression of emotional closeness between husbands and wives and this leads mothers to seek emotional closeness and unitedness with their children. However, the results of Hortaçsu, Oral & Yasak-Gültekin (1991) study do not indicate such a pattern, at least for university students.

Hortaçsu, Oral & Yasak-Gültekin (1991) investigated the differences between Turkish university students' relationships with their parents and friends. Their analysis revealed that Turkish university students reported closest relationships with their same-sex friends followed by their mothers and fathers. They found that men were closer to their fathers than women. Yet, the results did not indicate a difference in men and women in terms of closeness to mothers and friends. Quality of the relationships with mothers was found to be more important in predicting the quality of relationships with fathers than vice versa. Contextual factors including parents' age, employment status of the mother, number of siblings were found to be important

in predicting the relationships with parents, however, patterns of interactions between same-sex members of the families were less sensitive to the contextual factors than those between opposite-sex members, i.e. mother-son, and father-daughter. It was also found that there were different processes in the men's and women's relationships with significant others. It was found that higher levels of alienation from same-sex parents was related to higher levels of communication and trust with friends for men; however, higher levels of alienation from same-sex parents was related to lower levels of communication and trust with friends for women.

Relationships with parents, especially with mothers, seem to affect Turkish children's relationships with significant others. Varan (2005) studied the relationships between perceived parental acceptance-rejection in childhood and perceived partner acceptance-rejection in adulthood with a sample of 245 dating or married individuals. The sample was divided into two groups with respect to their levels of perceived satisfaction (n=174) or dissatisfaction (n=71) in their current intimate relationships. It was found that dissatisfied respondents reported significantly higher levels of rejection than satisfied respondents both in their current intimate relationships and in their childhood relationships with their parents. He found that maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection were significantly related to intimate partner acceptance-rejection, yet maternal acceptance emerged as a stronger predictor of intimate partner acceptance than paternal acceptance. Furthermore, the relationship between perceived maternal acceptance and intimate partner acceptance was found to be significantly higher for males than for females.

2.3 The Relationship between Marriage and Parenting

Belsky & Fearon (2004) state that by the late 1970's and early 1980's, investigation of the relationships between marriage, parenting and child development was spread to a variety of disciplines, such as psychology, sociology, anthropology, and subfields within the discipline of psychology such as developmental and clinical psychology. However, each discipline and subfield explored those relationships from different perspectives and for different purposes (Belsky & Fearon, 2004; Gable, Belsky & Crnic, 1992; Jacob, 1987; Stafford & Bayer, 1993).

Some investigators tried to understand the origins, course and consequences of marital and family change across the family life cycle, whereas others tried to understand mother-child, father-child, marital and family relationships for the course, etiology, treatment and prevention of pathological disorders as well as the healthy development of children (Belsky & Fearon, 2004; Gable, Belsky & Crnic, 1992; Jacob, 1987; Stafford & Bayer, 1993). As a result, different theories, perspectives, and hypotheses simultaneously exist in the current literature that contribute to the understanding of the relationship between marital and parent-child relationships (Belsky & Fearon, 2004; Gable, Belsky & Crnic, 1992).

In accordance with the research literature, this section begins with the frequently referred theories or perspectives that have been given as the theoretical framework in explaining the relationship between marital and parent-child relationships. These theories are (a) systemic approaches, including family systems theories, pragmatic/communication perspective, ecological systemic approaches, life-span theories, structural approach, and interpersonal relationships perspective (Belsky & Fearon, 2004; Cox & Paley, 1997; Erel & Burman, 1995; Fincham, 1998; Gable, Belsky & Crnic, 1992; Jacob, 1987; Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000; Stafford & Bayer, 1993), (b) social learning theory and sociological theory on family stress

and role strain (Belsky & Fearon, 2004; Erel & Burman, 1995; Fincham, 1998; Jacob, 1987; Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000), and (c) attachment theory (Davies & Cummings, 1994; Fincham, 1998; Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000; Lamb et al, 1999). Following the overview of the major theoretical frameworks, the three competing hypotheses, namely (a) spillover hypothesis, (b) compensatory hypothesis, and (c) compartmentalization hypothesis that are described in the literature as the underlying mechanisms on the association between marital and parent-child relationships will be explained (Belsky & Fearon, 2004; Erel & Burman, 1995; Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000; Stafford & Bayer, 1993).

2.3.1 Theoretical Perspectives

2.3.1.1 Systemic Approaches

Literature on the interrelation of marital and parental relationships frequently referred to systemic approaches for theoretical background. Systemic approaches, which are attributed primarily to general systems theory and Ludwig von Bertalanffy (1968, cited in Cox & Paley, 1997), are regarded as the most prominent approaches to understanding families (Parke, 2004). Cox & Paley (1997) suggest that systemic approaches that use the perspective of the family as a system contribute to the understanding of child development as well as adult adaptation and the development of close relationships by considering multiple influences on development and adaptation.

Even though there is no one systems approach (Stafford & Bayer, 1993), there exists common interrelated assumptions in all systemic approaches (Cox & Paley, 1997; Stafford & Bayer, 1993; Steinglass, 1987). These interrelated assumptions are (a) wholeness, organization, and circularity, (b) interdependence of

systems elements, (c) subsystems, (d) boundaries between and interactions among subsystems, (e) homeostasis and change (Cox & Paley, 1997; Stafford & Bayer, 1993).

Systemic approaches assume that “the family functions as an entity, as a whole, with its own structure, rules, and goals” (Napier & Whitaker, 1988; p. 47) and the individual, who is embedded in the family system, can never fully be understood independent of the context of that system (Fincham, 1998). In the family system, individual family members are interdependent and continuously influence each other reciprocally (Cox & Paley, 1997). Thus a linear cause and effect relationship in understanding the relationships is irrelevant (Stafford & Bayer, 1993).

Family is also viewed as a hierarchically organized system that consists of smaller subsystems which define many family roles and functions. Examples of subsystems are individual, marital, parental, sibling subsystems, as well as parent-child subsystems which are simultaneously embedded within larger systems such as the community. Interactions occur among these systems and subsystems at various levels (Cox & Paley, 1997; Minuchin & Fishman, 1981).

Boundaries within the family system are the lines that define and differentiate the subsystems. For the healthy functioning of the family and the individual family members, boundaries are expected to be clear and flexible in such a way that the family members are allowed to function with and within the subsystems without interference from other family members. Boundaries are also expected to allow the family members to access resources from the larger family unit, as well as from the larger systems like community (Cox & Paley, 1997; Minuchin & Fishman, 1981; Stafford & Bayer, 1993).

Families resist change, even when the change is demanded by normal life-course changes and developments or by unexpected events, like economic strains, illnesses, deaths, etc. With this assumption, it is proposed that families try to maintain the status quo by maintaining the current patterns of interaction within the family. However, since change is inevitable in the life course, families change and modify their interaction patterns as a result of each member's development and of the events that occur in time such as the birth of a new member (Glick, et.al, 2000; Guerin, et.al., 1987; Minuchin & Fishman, 1981; Stafford & Bayer, 1993).

Systemic approaches also classify and analyze the sources of influences and interactions within the family and between subsystems at three interrelated levels (a) intrapsychic level, including individual's biological, psychological and social needs and demands; (b) interpersonal level, including the family in general, and the relationships between family members and family subsystems; and (c) extrafamilial level, including the family's and individual family members' relationships with the individuals, groups or institutions outside the family as a source of stress or support (Martin, 1987; Steinhauer, 1990). However, it appears that it is not an easy task to include all kinds of systemic approaches' assumptions, such influences and interactions within the scope of an empirical study (Gable, et.al, 1992; O'Connor, Hetherington, & Reiss, 1998; Parke, 2004).

O'Connor, Hetherington, & Reiss (1998) claim that even though systems approaches provide an important model for studying individuals, roles, and relationships in the context of family system, systemic approaches' assumptions are not clearly operationalized. According to O'Connor et al., these circumstances, with the necessity of including so many variables to investigate simultaneously, lead to

difficulties in incorporating the systems approaches into empirically testable proposals.

As a consequence, instead of considering the family as an identifiable and separate unit of analysis, parent-child, marital, and sibling subsystems and relationships between them are the most researched aspects of the families (Parke, 2004). As such, those different aspects of families that systemic approaches highlight such as climates in which a specific family unit is embedded and the processes by which the family life is affected, including paradigms, myths, stories, and rituals are rarely pointed out in empirical studies (Parke, 2004).

Instead of including all aspects of families, the marital subsystem and the boundaries that define the marital relationship are regarded as the basic element in determining the quality of family life through a crucial linkage with parent-child relationships (Belsky, 1984; Belsky & Fearon, 2004; Erel & Burman, 1995; Gable, et.al, 1992; Glick, Berman, Clarkin, & Rait, 2000; Fincham, 1998; Guerin, Fay, Burden & Kautto, 1987; Minuchin & Fishman, 1981; Stafford & Bayer, 1993). Thus, relationships between husband-wife and parent-child subsystems are assumed to be fundamental in systemic approaches and those relationships are frequently investigated (Erel & Burman, 1995).

Erel & Burman (1995) and Krishnakumar & Buehler (2000) suggest that systemic approaches assume three possible mechanisms in predicting the relationship between marital and parent-child relationships. The first mechanism implies that couples' reactions to marital stressors will result in disturbed parenting practices and parent-child relationships. In the second mechanism, couples who can not fulfill their affection and satisfaction needs in their marriages will try to compensate for those needs with their children. By doing so, children are usually caught in the middle of

marital tensions and they are openly pressed to ally with one parent against the other. This pattern of interaction between one parent and child is referred to as triangulation and often marked by overindulgence and loose parenting discipline. The last mechanism suggests that, a third factor, such as a chronic illness or unemployment will also affect marital and parent-child relationships simultaneously.

2.3.1.2 Social Learning Theory

Second theoretical perspective that is frequently referred to in the literature on the relationship between marital and parent-child relationships is the social learning theory (Belsky & Fearon, 2004; Erel & Burman, 1995; Fincham, 1998; Jacob, 1987; Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000; Robinson & Jacobson, 1987). However, like systemic approaches, there is no one specific social learning theory (Jacob, 1987). As Jacob (1987) puts forward, social learning theory does not have tightly defined set of concepts drawn from and evaluated within a single discipline, rather it is influenced by many different disciplines. The roots of social learning theory are accepted to go back to social psychology, psychiatry and experimental psychology (Jacob, 1987; Robinson & Jacobson, 1987). Yet, the underlying assumptions of this theory, especially those regarding the role of family, are usually attributed to the works of Albert Bandura (1977, as cited in Robinson & Jacobson, 1987) who had broadened the earlier learning models through a greater emphasis on the social aspects of learning and the mutual, interactive effects of behavior, person and environment (Jacob, 1987; Robinson & Jacobson, 1987).

Throughout the 1980's, social learning theory was revised, elaborated and integrated with other frameworks and models, including operant learning theory, social exchange theory, general systems theory, and attribution theory (Jacob, 1987).

Jacob (1987) summarized two important distinguished features of social learning theory. According to him, the first distinguishing feature of social learning theory is its emphasis on behavioral systems and on the circular, bidirectional interactions among family members. The second one is its emphasis on variations in behavior as a function of changes in the environment with continued incorporation of individuals' cognitions, perceptions, and attributions.

In terms of the relationships between marriage and parent-child relationships, social learning theory suggests that couples' paucity of basic interpersonal skills, such as paucity of patience and tolerance often have a negative impact both on their marital and parent-child relationships (Erel & Burman, 1995; Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000). Moreover, their children vicariously learn negative interpersonal skills by modeling their parents' behaviors in marital relationships and use those negative interpersonal skills in relating with their parents. This process will further escalate negative marital and parent-child relations (Erel & Burman, 1995; Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000).

Aside from the lack of basic interpersonal skills, social learning theory emphasizes the importance of cognitions, attributions and perceptions in interpersonal relationships (Jacob, 1987; Robinson & Jacobson, 1987). However, these variables have rarely been studied in the literature especially for their effect on the relationship between marital and parent-child relations (Robinson & Jacobson, 1987). As such, perceived parenting efficacy and stress (Cox, Owen, Lewis, & Henderson, 1989; O'Brien & Payton, 2002, Wallace & Gotlib, 1990), attributions, values, perceptions and attitudes toward marriage, parent-child relationships and childrearing (Barnett, et al., 1994; O'Brien & Payton, 2002; Simons, Whitbeck, Conger, & Melby, 1990) will be identified as relatively new areas of research.

2.3.1.3 Attachment Theory

Attachment theory that uses concepts from ethnology, psychoanalysis, cybernetics and general systems theory was formed by the joint work of John Bowlby and Mary Ainsworth (Bretherton, 1996). Attachment theory mainly focuses on the interaction of the child and the primary caregiver, often the mother, and his/her influence on the child's development through the provision of a secure and nurturant environment (Bowlby, 1988).

According to attachment theory, each human infant, as well as most of the mammals, are born with an innate need of physical and emotional nurturance, and with a need of forming strong emotional ties with their caregivers for their survival and security (Bowlby, 1988). With this regard, Bowlby (1988) assigns a significant responsibility to parents in shaping out the mental health of the next generation, since he believes that the attachment bonds that develop during infancy between the infant and the mother will be significant in forming the relational mental representations of an infant from birth to death. According to him, through the provision of a secure base for the infant and the formation of strong affectional bonds with the infant, primary caregiver will teach his/her child that s/he is of value as well as others and the world in general.

Bowlby (1988) uses the term "ordinary sensitive mother" for the mothers who provide a secure base for the infant. He suggests that an ordinary sensitive mother "is attuned to her child's actions and signals, responds to them more or less appropriately, and is then able to monitor the effects of her behavior on her child to modify it accordingly" (p.13). He further claims that parenting behavior for the mothers has strong biological roots but mother's unique style of relating to her child

also depends on her experiences during childhood, experiences during adolescence, experiences before and during her marriage, and to her experiences with each individual child. The style of mothering will also depend on the amount of emotional support, or the lack thereof she herself receives during the time of her mothering.

With these assumptions, attachment theory has recently come to the attention of investigators studying marriage, parenting and child development and their relationships (Belsky & Fearon, 2002; Bretherton, 1996; Byng-Hall, 1996; Davies & Cummings, 1994; Owen & Cox, 1997; Volling, Notaro, Larsen, 1998). As Bretherton (1996) states attachment theory and research are moving forth in three major areas. On one front, psychological, internal, or representational aspects of attachment including the intergenerational transmission of attachment patterns are the unit of analysis. The second area of studies includes adult attachment patterns, including romantic relationships and marriages, and their relationship with the childhood antecedents. Finally, the role of attachment on the development of psychopathology in families with specific problems including depression, maltreatment, and low social support compose the third unit of analysis.

Attachment theory and its relationship with the interrelation of marriage and parent-child relationships have a relatively new but a growing body of literature (Ainsworth, 1996; Volling, Notaro, Larsen, 1998). Even in those circumstances, it is often proposed that an individual's mental representations in forming affectional bonds will be similar in parent-child relationships and marital relationships (Ainsworth, 1996; Weiss, 1996). In other words, parent-child relationships and marital relationships are conceptualized as attachment relationships, in which individuals' mental representations are expected to follow similar patterns in marital

and parent-child interactions with the mental representations that were originally gathered through from the relationships with the primary caregiver.

In a similar vein, it is also proposed that individuals seek to obtain an experience of security and comfort from their intimate partners and fulfilling of those needs by the partner will enable the individual to engage in other activities such as sensitive parenting (Ainsworth, 1996; Weiss, 1996). Ainsworth (1996) further suggests that husband's provision of help and care for his wife will provide a secure base for his wife for caring her child even in cases in which the husband gives little or no direct care to his child.

2.3.2 Three Competing Hypotheses

The quality of marital relationship is frequently explored with regards to its potential source of influence on parenting and child development (Belsky & Fearon, 2004). Consequently, three competing hypotheses are proposed in the literature as the underlying mechanisms for the relationship between marriage, parent-child relationships, and child development. Two of the hypotheses, namely spillover and compensatory hypotheses, suggest the existence of a relationship between marriage and parent-child relationships in either positive or negative direction. On the other hand, a rarely mentioned compartmentalization hypothesis proposes a nonsignificant relationship between these variables (Belsky & Fearon, 2004; Erel & Burman, 1995; Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000; Stafford & Bayer, 1993).

2.3.2.1 Spillover Hypothesis

Main assumption of the spillover hypothesis suggests that mood, affect, or behaviors from marital relationship are directly transferred to the parent-child relationships, and parents' marital quality influences the quality of their parent-child relationships (Almeida, Wethington & Chandler, 1999; Erel & Burman, 1995). This hypothesis proposes that parents who have satisfying and supportive marital relationships will be more likely to respond sensitively to the needs of their children. On the contrary, parents who experience negative and conflictual marital relationships will be irritable and emotionally drained, and therefore they are less attentive and sensitive to their children's needs. In other words, well functioning marriages and skilled parenting go together. In a similar vein, the problems that exist in parent-child relationship can not be extinguished as long as the marital relationship is poor (Belsky & Fearon, 2004; Erel & Burman, 1995).

The studies of Erel & Burman (1995) and Krishnakumar & Buehler (2000) are identified as the two important meta-analyses to date that investigated the relationship between the marital relationships and parent-child relationships (Belsky & Fearon, 2004). Erel & Burman (1995) examined 68 studies in order to determine whether a relationship exists between marital and parent-child relationship quality. They found a significant positive correlation between the quality of marriage and parent-child relationships that supported the spillover hypothesis. Yet, the results indicated moderate effect sizes for global marital quality and parent-child relationship quality ($d = -.49$) and overt interparental conflict and negative parenting ($d = .44$). Krishnakumar & Buehler (2000) examined the association between interparental conflict and parenting by using meta-analytic review techniques. They analyzed 39 studies and found out a moderate association between interparental conflict and parenting; the average weighted effect size was $-.62$. The results also

indicated that interparental conflict decreased the amount of parental acceptance and increased the probability of harsh discipline

Mann & MacKenzie (1996) examined the effects of marital variables and parenting variables on oppositional behavior problems in 50 intact families with boys who were in elementary school age. Marital dissatisfaction and overt marital conflict were found as contributing to maternal rejection and either lax and/or inconsistent discipline practices by the mothers. They also found that marital dissatisfaction is directly related to fathers' emotional negativity directed to their children, and which is in turn directly related to child's oppositional behaviors. Father's marital satisfaction and overt marital conflict did not reveal as contributing to the variations in their disciplinary practices.

Almeida, et al., (1999) proposed that stressors from outside and inside the family will raise the demands for adaptation in parents that may in turn lead to marital tensions and negative interactions with children. In order to test their proposal, they examined the dynamic and stable moderators of tension spillover from marital dyad to the parent-child dyad and vice versa by charting the experiences of 117 families over the course of 42 days. They found that: a) mothers are likely to report more marital tensions than fathers, b) mother-child tensions occurred more than father-child tensions, c) both mothers and fathers were more likely to report tense interactions with their children on days when there had been some marital tension the previous day and father-child relations appear to be more systematically related to marital relations than mother-child relations, d) on days when fathers experienced other stressors such as work overloads or home demands, they were more than twice as likely to experience tension spillover than on stress-free days, e) fathers also reported more spillover when their wives were working full-time, f)

mothers had more tension spillover if there was an adolescent in the house. Similarly, Margolin, Christensen & John (1996) found that distressed families that have both marital problems and child conduct problems were more likely to have a marital, parent-child, or sibling tension at the same time of the next day, i.e. evening to next evening. They also found that in distressed families, marital tensions increased the likelihood of parent-child, child-child, and whole family tensions.

Kitzmann (2000) studied indirect effects of marital conflict on children through disruptions in family alliances and parenting. In her experimental design, couples engaged in two discussions, one of which was pleasant and the other was conflictual, and parents were observed interacting with their children immediately after each discussion. Children had no direct exposure to the discussions of their parents. After a conflictual discussion, a significant number of parents engaged in disrupted parenting, yet the same parents' showed democratic parenting after a pleasant discussion. Fathers' supportive parenting toward their children was significantly lower after a conflictual discussion. Couples' negativity during the discussions was found to be significantly related to the negativity in family interactions. When mothers' satisfaction with their marital quality was high, families showed higher cohesion and warmth after the pleasant marital discussion than families in which the mothers were dissatisfied with their marital quality.

2.3.2.2 Compensatory Hypothesis

Compensatory hypothesis contradict spillover hypothesis and assume a negative relationship between marital and parent-child relationship quality (Belsky & Fearon, 2004; Erel & Burman, 1995; Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000). It is proposed that individuals seek satisfaction in one system to make up or compensate for

deficiencies in another system (Erel & Burman, 1995), and problems in marriage lead individuals to seek gratification from parent-child relationships, or vice versa. It suggests the probability of a stronger involvement and investment with the child in the case of a poor marital quality, since the individuals' needs for intimacy and love are not fulfilled through marriage. On the contrary, individuals may also view their children as an intrusion to the high marital quality; thereby tensions in parent-child relationships are created (Erel & Burman, 1995).

Erel & Burman (1995) and Krishnakumar & Buehler (2000) point out an association between compensatory hypothesis and notions of triangulation and cross-generational coalitions that were derived from general systems theory. As they stated, triangulation and cross-generational coalitions occur in families if there are conflicts or oppositions between spouses, resulting in the children being pressed to ally with one parent against the other. Thus, the compensatory hypothesis potentially connotes a spillover process between the marital and parent-child quality with one parent, and a negative relationship between the marital and parent-child quality with the other parent (Erel & Burman, 1995). It is often stated that mothers are more likely to compensate for their psychological needs by children, whereas fathers' negativity in their marriage are more likely to spillover on to the quantity and quality of their relationships with children (Belsky, 1979; Coiro & Emery, 1998; Belsky, Youngblade, Rovine & Volling, 1991; Lindahl, & Malik, 1999). Furthermore, it is also revealed in a lot of research that besides the gender of parents, gender of children also influence the direction of the relationship between the quality of marital relationship and parenting (Kerig, Cowan, and Cowan, 1993; Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000; Margolin et al., 2001).

Belsky (1979) studied family interactions of 40 middle class couples with their 15-month-old infants through naturalistic home observations. Results of the study indicated that wives would be more influential in involving their husbands in parenting than vice versa. More specifically, he found that wives who spoke frequently about their babies were more likely to have husbands who engaged their children in cognitively stimulating verbal interaction, physical contact during play, and object-mediated play. Meanwhile, when frequent non-baby related conversation between the spouses were observed, husbands and wives were relatively unlikely to be engaged in parenting. It appeared that, for some families, attention directed toward the child would provide the basis for pleasurable interaction between husband and wife, whereas involvement with marriage would decrease parents' abilities on parental involvement.

It is demonstrated in another study (Belsky et al., 1991) that there were more systematic associations between marital change patterns and father-child interaction than between marital change patterns and mother-child interaction. More specifically, fathers' behaviors were more negative and intrusive, and children's behaviors were more negative and disobedient in deteriorating marriages. However, mothers were more likely to be more positive and supportive to their child in the case of a decrease in marital quality.

Lindahl & Malik (1999) carried out a research with ethnically diverse sample of families to explore the influence of marital conflict and power balance on parenting. They found that demographic characteristics (i.e. age, income, education, length of the marriage, and ethnicity), conflict management styles, and balance of power between spouses did not differ between couples who were distressed or nondistressed in their marriages. Fathers from marriages in which destructive conflict

exist, were more coercive, rejecting, withdrawn, and less supportive with their sons than fathers from either harmonious or disengaged marriages. Conflict management style in the marriage and destructive conflict were found to be related to mothers' withdrawal from the child in European American mothers, but not in Hispanic American mothers, which indicated a moderating effect of ethnicity for mothers. In terms of balance of power relations between couples, European mothers from male dominant marriages were found to be more supportive of their children than European mothers from power-struggle marriages. For Hispanic American mothers, egalitarian power balance was found to be more related to supportive parenting. For fathers, but not for the mothers, every dimension of parenting observed in mother-father-child setting varied by the style of marital conflict management and level of marital distress. As a result, this study found marital conflict to be more related to fathers' parenting than to mothers' parenting.

KERIG, COWAN, AND COWAN (1993) EXPLORED THE DIFFERENTIAL EFFECTS OF GENDER ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MARITAL QUALITY AND PARENTING WITH A SAMPLE OF 38 MOTHERS AND FATHERS AND THEIR 3.5 YEAR-OLD-FIRST-BORN SON AND DAUGHTERS (N=114). THERE WERE NO EFFECTS OF MARITAL ADJUSTMENT ON PARENTS' RESPONSES TO CHILDREN'S POSITIVE BEHAVIOR, YET GENDER DIFFERENCES ARE FOUND IN NEGATIVE RESPONSES. THAT IS, DAUGHTERS WERE MORE LIKELY THAN BOYS TO EXPERIENCE PARENT NEGATIVE RESPONSES FOR THEIR ASSERTIVE BEHAVIOR. FATHERS TENDED TO BE MORE NEGATIVE AND MOTHERS WERE MORE POSITIVE, ESPECIALLY TOWARD THEIR DAUGHTERS. MOREOVER, FATHERS WHO REPORTED LOWER LEVELS OF MARITAL

SATISFACTION WERE FOUND TO BE GLOBALLY NEGATIVE TOWARD THEIR DAUGHTERS, REGARDLESS OF THEIR DAUGHTERS' BEHAVIOR DURING INTERACTION. IN TURN, DAUGHTERS OF LESS HAPPILY MARRIED PARENTS WERE LESS COMPLIANT WITH THEIR FATHERS THAN WERE WITH THEIR MOTHERS. MOTHERS IN LOWER MARITAL ADJUSTMENT WERE MORE LIKELY TO RESPOND NEGATIVELY TO THEIR DAUGHTERS' ASSERTIONS THAN MOTHERS WHO HAD HIGHER LEVELS OF MARITAL ADJUSTMENT. LOWER MARITAL ADJUSTMENT SCORES WERE NOT RELATED TO GLOBAL NEGATIVITY BETWEEN MOTHERS AND THEIR CROSS-SEX CHILDREN; HOWEVER IT WAS FOUND THAT MOTHERS WHO REPORTED LOWER LEVELS OF MARITAL SATISFACTION WERE MORE LIKELY TO RECIPROCATE THEIR SONS' NEGATIVE AFFECT THAN MOTHERS WHO WERE SATISFIED WITH THEIR MARRIAGES.

THESE RESULTS ARE CONSISTENT WITH THE HYPOTHESIS PROPOSING THAT THE NEGATIVE QUALITY OF THE HUSBAND-WIFE RELATIONSHIP HAS PROBLEMATIC CONSEQUENCES, ESPECIALLY FOR THE FATHER-DAUGHTER RELATIONSHIP. IT WAS SUGGESTED THAT AS FATHERS TEND TO WITHDRAW EMOTIONALLY FROM THEIR WIVES IN THE FACE OF MARITAL DISTRESS, THEY MAY ALSO WITHDRAW FROM THEIR DAUGHTERS. SIMILARLY, KRISHNAKUMAR & BUEHLER'S (2000) META-ANALYSIS INDICATED THAT WHEN PARENTS WERE MORE AGGRESSIVE IN THEIR MARITAL RELATIONSHIP, THEY ACTED OUT MORE AGGRESSIVE PARENTAL BEHAVIORS. YET, THEIR OVERALL PARENTING BEHAVIORS WERE MORE NEGATIVE TOWARD THEIR

DAUGHTERS THAN THEIR SONS. HOWEVER, MARGOLIN ET AL. (2001) FOUND THAT IN THE CASE OF MARITAL CONFLICT, FATHERS WERE MORE LIKELY TO BE MORE AUTHORITARIAN, CONTROLLING AND PHYSICALLY ABUSIVE TO THEIR SONS WHEREAS MOTHERS WERE MORE LIKELY TO FORM SPECIAL ALLIANCES WITH THEIR SONS.

2.3.2.3 Compartmentalization Hypothesis

Compartmentalization hypothesis suggests that there is no relationship between the quality of marriage and parent-child relationships, neither in a positive nor in a negative direction (Belsky & Fearon, 2004; Erel & Burman, 1995; Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000; Kurdek, 1996). This hypothesis points out that there are different underlying motivating factors as well as perceived rewards, costs and expectations regarding marital and parent-child relationships (Kurdek, 1996; Margolin, Gordis & John, 2001). It is assumed that effective parenting emphasizes the concern for the welfare of the child, whereas satisfied marriages are motivated by the concern for the spouse and for oneself (Margolin et al., 2001). Therefore, it is proposed that individuals are able to compartmentalize their marriage and parenting roles; parents are able to keep the negative emotions created by unhappy and conflicted marriages within the boundaries of their marriages (Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000).

Furthermore, it is also mentioned that, spouses have the necessary skills to cooperate as parents for the welfare of the child even in the case of conflictual marriages (Belsky & Fearon, 2004; Floyd, et al., 1998; Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000; Margolin et al., 2001) and parents who work together as a cooperative and harmonious unit around issues of childrearing are more likely to compartmentalize

their marriage and parenting roles (Belsky & Fearon, 2004; Floyd, et al., 1998; Margolin et al., 2001). In other words, supportive coparenting and parenting alliance are conceptualized as important protective factors that reduce the negative effects of poor marital quality on both parent-child relations and child development (Belsky & Fearon, 2004; Margolin et al., 2001).

Compartmentalization hypothesis received minimal attention in the marriage and parenting research (Erel & Burman, 1995; Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000). Consequently, current researcher could identify only Kurdek's study (1996) which directly investigated the compartmentalization hypothesis. Kurdek (1996) studied married couples over four years by including both of the couples in the study and investigated the relationship between parenting satisfaction and marital satisfaction. The results indicated that for both fathers and mothers, the relationship between parenting and marital satisfaction was weak or nonsignificant and change in marital satisfaction was not related to change in parenting satisfaction. Furthermore, he found that mothers and fathers were more similar in their level of marital satisfaction than in their level of satisfaction with the parenting role. These findings indicated a spillover between couples' level of marital satisfaction. However, results did not support spillover hypothesis between marital and parenting satisfaction as well as between couple's level of parenting satisfaction. Consequently, he proposed that satisfaction with parenting role and marital role may be unrelated due to nonoverlapping sets of perceived rewards, costs and expectations attributed to marriage and parenting roles.

In general, number of studies that point out the existence of a spillover process between marriage, parenting, and child development exceed the number of studies that highlight compensation and compartmentalization (Belsky & Fearon,

2004; Erel & Burman, 1995; Krishnakumar & Buehler, 2000). In fact, Erel & Burman (1995) point out to the limitations of the studies that explored the interrelations between marriage and parent-child relationships. First, the influences of potential moderator or mediator variables, such as family status, race, child temperament, socioeconomic conditions are not identified in most of the studies. Secondly, sample characteristics of the studies are almost similar and most of the respondents come from middle class, Caucasian and intact families. Finally, studies frequently connote the influence of marriage on parent-child relationships; yet, neither the possible influence of parent-child relationships on marital relationships nor the influence of a third factor such as the occurrence of a stressful life on both marriage and parent-child relationships are identified. Furthermore, Belsky & Fearon (2004) argue that most of the studies supporting the spillover hypothesis find moderate or low positive correlations, which also indicate that there are other types of families. Thus, the relationship between marriage and parenting may only be explained in the remaining families by compensatory or compartmentalization hypotheses. However, these families are not detected due to the limitations of standard correlational and regression analyses which were used in most of the studies.

Consequently, Belsky & Fearon (2004) carried out a complicated longitudinal study to explore families in terms of marriage-parenting typologies, their contextual variables and developmental sequelae. Data of the study were obtained from 828 intact families by including father, mother, child and child's first grade teacher during the infancy, toddler, and/ or preschool years. They found that marital and parenting quality were positively correlated across 74% of the sample (i.e. good marriage/good parenting, moderate marriage/moderate parenting, poor marriage/poor

parenting), which supported the spillover hypothesis for those families. However, compensatory hypothesis was supported across the remaining 26% of the sample, which included good marriage/poor parenting (7% of the sample) and poor marriage/good parenting (19% of the sample) groups. When the sample was compared in terms of child outcomes, it revealed that children of poor marriage/poor parenting group had significantly more teacher-child conflict and externalizing problems whereas lower social, language and mathematical skills, and less cognitive test performance in the first grade than the remaining four groups of children. Even though parenting was found as more influential than marriage with respect to child development, children of poor marriage/good parenting group exhibited more externalizing problems and fewer social skills in the first grade than children of good marriage/good parenting group.

In terms of contextual differences between families, it was found that poor marriage/poor parenting group had significantly lower social, psychological and economic resources than the remaining four groups. More specifically, there were more individuals in this group who had non-White ethnicity, had lower income for their needs and who did not plan their pregnancies; mothers were younger, had higher depression levels and had less social support; and fathers' occupational status were significantly less prestigious than other groups' fathers. There were also significantly more mothers in this group who held traditional attitudes for childrearing. When the poor marriage/good parenting group was compared with good marriage/poor parenting group, it was observed that the former group scored higher than the latter in terms of maternal age, father's occupational status, and maternal progressive childrearing attitudes. There were also more individuals in the poor marriage/good parenting group who were White and who had planned their

pregnancies. Furthermore, when good marriage/good parenting group was compared with poor marriage/good parenting group, it was found that the mothers in the latter group were older, scored higher in terms of depression whereas lower in terms of social support. However, this group also appeared to have more progressive childrearing attitudes than the mothers of good marriage/good parenting group.

The literature in Turkey has mainly focused on children's psychological and achievement outcomes and their relation to parenting styles and family functioning, with an indirect emphasis on the marital relations (i.e. Bekiroğlu, 1993; Gökbörü-Ömeryüz, 2003; Ödi, 1986). However, the researcher could not find any study which explores the relationship between marriage and parenting in Turkey. Finally, research literature has demonstrated that there is a need for studies that explore marital relationship, parenting and the relationship between marriage and parenting by considering the impact of several variables.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The current chapter has five subsections. It begins with the statement of the problem and research questions. Secondly, the participants which constitute the sample of this study are described. Thirdly, the instruments of the study are presented. Then, the procedure of the study is provided. Finally, the data analysis is discussed.

3.1 Statement of the Problem and Research Questions

The aim of this study was to investigate the quality of marital relationship, quality of mothering and the relationship between marriage and mothering. Consequently, the literature on marital relationships, parenting and the relationship between marriage and parenting were reviewed in the previous chapter.

Based on the review of literature, the researcher identified 17 variables that are frequently referred to in the literature on marital relationships, parenting and the

interrelation of marriage and parenting. These 17 variables were referred to as *study variables* in the present study and consisted of:

- a. *mother characteristics* including mother's age, educational level, employment status, satisfaction with job conditions, perception of mothering mother received in the family of origin, and mother's satisfaction with her mother's mothering,
- b. *spousal characteristics* including spouse's age, educational level, employment status, support for childcare, and
- c. *family characteristics* including years of marriage, number of children, child temperament, household composition, support for childcare from others, occurrence of stressful life events within the previous year, and status of the day care center.

Consequently, the questions of the study are as follows:

1. What are the impacts of the study variables on the woman's perception of her marital quality?
2. What are the impacts of the study variables on mothering quality?
3. Is there any relationship between the woman's perception of her marital quality and her mothering quality?
4. What are the impacts of the study variables on the relationship between the woman's perception of her marital quality and her mothering quality?

3.2 Participants

The participants of this study were selected from eight day care centers located in İstanbul. Two day care centers were located in Bağcılar and owned by Bağcılar Municipality, four of them were located in Kadıköy and owned by Kadıköy

Municipality. Two day care centers had private owners and were located in Levent and Bahçeköy. Families' monthly tuitions to Bağcılar Municipality day care centers were 250 YTL, and to Kadıköy Municipality day care centers 400 YTL. Annual tuition for Yüzyılışıl and Pinokyo was 13,000 YTL. The day care centers were distributed as low, medium and high status schools, according to their location and annual tuitions. Low, medium and high status day care centers included two Bağcılar Municipality, four Kadıköy Municipality and Yüzyılışıl or Pinokyo day care centers, respectively (Table1).

Table1. *Day care centers*

	Status		n	%
Daycare Centers	Low	Bağcılar Belediyesi Ateştuğla Ç. Y.	21	10
	Low	Bağcılar Belediyesi Güneşli Ç. Y.	26	12
	Middle	Kadıköy Belediyesi Bahriye Üçok Ç. Y.	22	10
	Middle	Kadıköy Belediyesi Dursun Demirli Ç. Y.	20	9
	Middle	Kadıköy Bel. Hasan Ali Yücel Ç. Y.	42	19
	Middle	Kadıköy Bel. İsmail Hakkı Tonguç Ç. Y.	50	23
	High	Ö. Pinokyo Işıl Anaokul	9	4
	High	Ö.Yüzyılışıl Anaokulu	26	12

The sample for the study consisted of 216 mothers whose children attended one of the above stated day care centers. Mothers who (a) were living in intact families, (b) in their first marriages, (c) who were rearing at least one child between 3 to 6 years old, and (d) whose spouses were also in their first marriages were included in the study. Mothers who did not meet those criteria were excluded from the statistical analyses. Consequently, there were 134 participants from one of the four Kadıköy Municipality day care centers, 47 participants from two Bağcılar Municipality day care centers and 35 participants from Yüzyılışıl or Pinokyo, 26 and 9, respectively.

The descriptive statistics of the sample with respect to mother's age, spouse's age, years of marriage, number of children, mother's age at marriage, mother's age at first child, age difference between husband and wife, educational level and employment statuses of mothers and spouses, number of children, and household composition are presented in Table2. The distribution of the sample according to the day care centers with respect to the study variables are shown in Table3.

Table2. *Descriptive statistics of the sample with respect to study variables*

		MEAN	SD	MIN.	MAX.
Age (Mother)		33.28	4.61	22	45
Age (Spouse)		37.20	5.25	23	53
Years of marriage		8.80	3.56	3	23
Number of children		1.57	0.66	1	4
Age at marriage (Mother)		24.48	3.90	15	39
Age at first child (Mother)		27.40	4.41	17	41
Husband-wife age difference		3.93	3.76	-4	19
				n	%
Educational level (Mother)	Elementary			19	9
	Middle			5	2
	High School			55	26
	University			114	53
	Above University			23	11
Educational level (Spouse)	Elementary			12	56
	Middle			9	4
	High School			56	26
	University			101	47
	Above University			38	18
Employment Status (Mother)	Unemployed			78	36
	Part-time employed			18	8
	Full-time employed			110	51
	Other			10	5
Satisfaction with job Conditions (Mother)	Satisfied			110	80
	Dissatisfied			27	20
Employment Status (Spouse)	Unemployed			2	1
	Part-time employed			5	2
	Full-time employed			202	94
	Other			7	3
Spousal support for childcare	Available			192	89
	Unavailable			24	11
Number of	1			109	51

Children	2	95	44
	3	8	4
	4	4	2
Perception of child temperament	Difficult	21	10
	Easy	42	19
	Neither easy nor difficult	153	71
Support for childcare (Others)	Available	91	42
	Unavailable	125	58
Household Composition	Nuclear	170	79
	Extended	23	11
	Other	23	11
Stressful life events	Existent	60	28
	Non-existent	156	72
Perception of mothering received by own mother during childhood	Acceptance	161	74
	Rejection	55	26
Mother's satisfaction with mothering (Family of origin)	Satisfied	140	65
	Dissatisfied	76	35

(N=216)

Table3. *Distribution of the sample according to day care centers*

		HIGH	MEDIUM	LOW	TOTAL
Age (Mother)	Mean	35.9	34.4	28.7	33.3
	Min-Max	26-45	27-45	22-39	22-45
Age (Spouse)	Mean	38.1	38.4	33.1	37.2
	Min-Max	32-45	29-53	23-50	23-53
		n	n	n	n
Educational level (Mother)	Elementary & Middle	0	6	18	24
	High School	5	28	22	55
	University	18	90	6	114
	Above University	12	10	1	23
Employment status (Mother)	Unemployed	11	40	27	78
	Employed	24	94	20	138
Satisfaction with job conditions	Satisfied	18	77	15	110
	Dissatisfied	6	16	5	27
Educational level (Spouse)	Elementary & Middle	0	9	12	21
	High School	6	30	20	56
	University	16	71	14	101
	Above University	13	24	1	38
Spousal support for childcare	Available	33	124	35	192
	Unavailable	2	10	12	24
Number of children	One	20	74	15	109
	Two or more	15	60	32	107
Perception of child temperament	Difficult	4	10	7	21
	Easy	8	25	9	42
	Neither easy nor difficult	23	99	31	153
Support for childcare (Others)	Available	27	54	10	91
	Unavailable	8	80	37	215

Household composition	Nuclear	33	122	38	193
	Extended	2	12	9	23
Stressful life events	Existent	7	37	16	60
	Non-existent	28	97	31	156
Mothering in fam. of origin (Mother)	Acceptance	32	97	32	161
	Rejection	3	37	15	55
Sat. with mothering (Fam. of origin)	Satisfied	28	81	31	140
	Dissatisfied	7	53	16	76

The mean age of mothers was 33.28 (SD=4.61) with minimum being 22, maximum 45 years old. The average of the husbands' age was 37.20, with age range from 23 to 53 years old. In general, husbands were older than their wives, the mean age difference between husbands and wives were 3.93 (SD=3.76). The average years of marriage was 8.8 years (SD=3.56) ranging from 3 to 23 years. Number of children for mothers ranged from 1 to 4 with a mean of 1.57 (SD=.66). The average age at marriage for mothers was 24.48 (SD=3.90) minimum being 15 and maximum 39 years old. The average mother age at first child was 27.40 years (SD=4.41) ranging from 17 to 41 years old.

Most of the participants in the sample consisted of mothers who had university degrees (n=114, 53%) and 47% of the mothers had spouses with university degrees (n= 101). There were 19 mothers and 12 spouses who had received only elementary school degree that made up the 9 percent and 6 percent of the sample, respectively. 5 mothers (2%) and 9 spouses (4%) were middle school graduates, and 55 mothers (26%) and 56 spouses (26%) were high school graduates. There were 23 mothers (11%) and 38 spouses (18%) who had received a higher degree of education after university.

36 percent of the mothers were unemployed (n=78) whereas 64 percent were employed, either full-time (51%) or part-time (8%), or a combination of part-time and full-time occupations (5%). 80 percent (n=110) of the employed mothers (N=138) were satisfied with their job conditions whereas 20 percent (n=27) were

unsatisfied with their job conditions. Only 2 of the spouses of the participants were unemployed whereas the sample consisted of 5 part-time employed, and 202 full-time employed spouses. The frequency of the spouses who worked either shift or home-office occupations was 7.

95 mothers of the sample had two, 8 mothers had three, and 4 mothers had four children, whereas 109 of the mothers had one child. Consequently, 50 percent of the sample had one child with respect to 50 percent of mothers having two or more children. 71% of the participants reported that their child's temperament were neither easy nor difficult. However, 19% of the mothers perceived their children as easy and 10% of the mothers identified their children as difficult. 89 percent of the participants (n=192) reported that they received spousal help for childcare whereas 11 percent of the mothers (n=24) reported the unavailability of spousal help for childcare. Furthermore, 58 percent of the mothers reported that they did not receive any support for childcare from others, whereas 42 percent of mothers received help from others in terms of childcare.

Most of the mothers lived in nuclear family households (n=170, 79%). 23 mothers lived also in nuclear family households, yet they had one or more personnel, such as childcare providers in the house (12%). Only 8 percent of the sample (n=18) lived in extended family households. 156 mothers did not experience any stressful life event within the previous year. However, 60 mothers reported that they experienced one or more stressful life events within the previous year (i.e. economic problems, illness, death, etc.).

161 participants of the sample felt accepted by their own mothers in their childhood whereas 55 participants reported that they perceived rejection by their own mothers. Meanwhile, 140 participants of the sample felt satisfaction by their own

mothers' mothering that they received in their childhood. However, 76 mothers were not satisfied with their own mothers' mothering that they received in their childhood.

3.3 Instruments

The instruments used in the current study were (a) Mother Information Form, (b) Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS / Spanier, 1976) and (c) Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire-Mother Form (PARQ-Mother / Rohner, Saavedra & Granum, 1980 as cited in Anjel, 1993). They are described below.

3.3.1 Mother Information Form

Mother Information Form was developed by the current researcher in order to receive data on mother characteristics (6 items), father characteristics (4 items), and family characteristics (6 items) (See APPENDIX A). The responses given to the 16 items included in the form were used to analyze their impact on the mother's perception of marital quality, mothering quality and on the direction and strength of the relationship between marital and mothering quality. Mother Information Form was designed in order to get three groups of information:

1. Mother characteristics:

- (a) 1st item, *age*.
- (b) 2nd item, *educational level*.
- (c) 3rd item, *employment status*.
- (d) 4th item, *satisfaction with job conditions*. This item was responded only by working mothers.

(e) 15th item, *perception of mothering the mother received in the family of origin*. This item had five response options. Four options were prepared in accordance with the dimensions of Parental Acceptance Rejection Theory (Rohner & Khaleque, 2005. pp. 5-6) that were also used in Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire-Mother Form (Rohner et al., 1980). “Other” option is added. Individuals were asked to select only one option.

(f) 16th item, *mother’s satisfaction with her mother’s mothering*.

2. Father characteristics:

(a) 6th item, *age*.

(b) 7th item, *educational level*.

(c) 8th item, *employment status*.

(d) 9th item, *support for childcare*.

3. Family characteristics:

(a) 5th item, *years of marriage*.

(b) 10th item, *number of children*.

(c) 11th item, *child temperament*.

(d) 12th item, *household composition*.

(e) 13th item, *availability of childcare support from others*.

(f) 14th item, *occurrence of stressful life events*. Economic problems, illness, death, and “other” options were included. Individuals were allowed to select more than one option.

An instruction sheet was prepared and added on the front page of Mother Information Form. It provided detailed instructions to the respondents. Three questions were also included in the Instruction Sheet regarding the marital status of the mothers and spouses. Those mothers who were (a) in their first marriages, (b)

living in intact families and (c) the first wives of their husbands were asked to fill out the instruments in booklets. Others that do not meet the criteria for the current study were asked not to answer the remaining items of the booklet, since they were discarded from the statistical analyses of the current study.

Prior to data collection, the form was given to 8 mothers from different educational backgrounds in order to detect and correct possible wording problems.

3.3.2 Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS)

DAS is a 32-item self-report, paper and pencil type instrument developed by Spanier (1976) in order to assess the quality of marriage and other similar dyadic relationships as perceived by married or cohabiting couples (See APPENDIX B).

It has four subscales that are conceptualized as the components of dyadic adjustment; namely *dyadic satisfaction* (10 items), *dyadic cohesion* (5 items), *dyadic consensus* (13 items) and *affectional expression* (4 items). Subscales can be used separately or the total score can be used in order to assess the general dyadic relationship quality and as a tool to discriminate the distressed from the nondistressed couples. The total score ranges from 0 to 151. Higher scores are expected to reflect higher perception of the dyadic relationship quality. DAS is one of the most frequently used instruments in assessing the quality of marital relationships (Belsky & Isabella, 1985; Fincham, 1998; Floyd, et. al., 1998; Yavuz, 1995). Additionally, Yavuz (1995) stated that the DAS was used in more than 1000 studies in order (a) to develop new measures of marital interaction, satisfaction or adjustment; (b) to be used as an initial measure in marital therapies and to measure the effectiveness of marital therapies; and (c) to discriminate distressed couples from nondistressed ones.

Studies evaluating the reliability of the Total DAS score indicate that the reliability for the total scale is .96. Reliability for the subscales was computed as .90, .94, .86 and .73 for consensus, satisfaction, cohesion, and affectional expression, respectively (Fredman & Sherman, 1987; Spanier, 1976).

Three judges, other than the developer of the scale, evaluated the content validity of the items. Items were excluded if (a) they did not consider relevant measures of dyadic adjustment for contemporary relationships; (b) they were not consistent with the operationalized definitions of dyadic adjustment and its components; and (c) they were not worded with appropriate responses. The total score taken from the scale was higher for married individuals than the divorced ones (114.8 versus 70.7). Correlation between The Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Test, which has been the other frequently used scale for marital adjustment, and the DAS was found out to be .86 for the married sample and .88 for the divorced sample (Fredman & Sherman, 1987; Spanier, 1976).

Yavuz (1995) carried out the reliability and validity study of the Turkish version of DAS that will be used in this study. 129 women from middle-high SES were the participants of her study. The internal consistency was found to be .95 for the total score. Subscales' coefficient alpha values were measured as .91, .78, .88, and .76 for satisfaction, cohesion, consensus and affectional expression subscales respectively. Satisfaction subscale's correlation with the total DAS score was computed as the highest of the other three subscales. In order to assess construct validity, the subjects were given the Turkish version of DAS and General Functioning (GF) subscale of the Family Assessment Device (FAD) (Bulut, 1990). The correlation between GF/FAD score and DAS total score was found to be -.78.

The DAS was used in this study in order to measure the mother's perception of their marital quality. Lower scores on the total scale indicated poor marital quality as perceived by the mother. On the contrary, higher scores indicated perception of good marital quality.

3.3.3 Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ)-Mother Form

Rohner, Saavedra & Granum (1980, as cited in Anjel, 1993) developed the original form on a rational-theoretical basis in order to assess the mother's perception of the interactional behavior towards her child (See APPENDIX C). It is a 56-item self report, paper and pencil type instrument which will be given to mothers who have children of at least 3 years of age. It has four subscales: *parental warmth and affection* (20 items), *parental hostility and aggression* (15 items), *parental indifference and neglect* (15 items), and *undifferentiated rejection* (10 items). Items are rated on a four point Likert type scale. In the scoring *Almost Always True* is given 4 points, *Sometimes True* is given 3 points, *Rarely True* is given 2 points, and *Almost Never True* is given 1 point. Parental Warmth and Affection Subscale is reversely scored. The total score gives the rejection score which means that a high score on the total scale points out a high level of rejection of the child by the mother. PARQ-mother form is identical with PARQ-child and PARQ-adult form. They only differ in tense, pronoun and some wording. Therefore only partial validation procedures were applied and accepted as a reliable and valid measure (Anjel, 1993; Öner, 1997).

The transliteral equivalence, reliability and validity study of the Turkish PARQ-Mother form was carried out by Anjel (1993). In the Turkish version of PARQ-Mother, there are 20 items in the *parental warmth and affection* subscale, 16 items in the *parental hostility and aggression* subscale, 12 items in the *parental*

indifference and neglect subscale, and 8 items in the *undifferentiated rejection* subscale with a total of 56 items.

Anjel (1993) carried out a pilot study and then a research study to establish the reliability and validity study of the Turkish PARQ-Mother form. 139 mothers in the pilot study that consists of low, middle and high education groups and 229 mothers in the proper study were the participants. Mean scores and standard deviation scores were computed.

Kuder Richardson reliability was found to be .90. Item-subscale correlation coefficients were between .16 to .59. Due to these results, some items were excluded in order to increase the internal consistency. The questionnaire was administered between two- and three-week intervals and test-retest reliability was computed as .46.

A significant relationship was found between mothers' rejection scores in PARQ-Mother form with regards to Family Environment Questionnaire (FEQ)-Cohesion subscale and Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI)-Democracy subscale. Rejecting mothers also took high scores from Trait Anxiety Scale of STAI, "rejecting home-making role" and "strict discipline" subscales of PARI. Education of the mother was found to be an important factor in the total rejection scores, such that as the education level increases, parental rejection scores decrease. In the factor analysis, it was found that the items were clustered around one factor, namely the rejection.

Erkman (2002) further revised PARQ-Mother and included those four items that were excluded in Anjel's study (1993) into the Turkish version of PARQ-Mother. This version was used in the current study.

The quality of the mothering was measured in this study by PARQ-Mother Form. A high score will indicate poor mothering and it will reflect the maternal care that is cold, hostile, indifferent, and/or rejecting. Low scores will indicate a good mothering that is warm and affectionate.

3.4 Procedure

This study was carried out in İstanbul with the mothers who had a child in one of the eight day care centers that work with 3 to 6-year-old children. Names and characteristics of the day care centers were mentioned previously. The purpose of selecting the day care centers was to include sufficient number of respondents from low, middle and high status day care centers in terms of location and annual tuitions.

The researcher contacted the owners or the principals of the day care centers personally. They were informed about the content and the procedure of the study. In response for data collection, principals of Kadıköy Municipality and private day care centers requested researcher to conduct trainings for parents on a topic of their choice. Training for Kadıköy Municipality day care centers was conducted on the 9th of March, 2006. The dates of training and two workshops for private day care centers were arranged to be conducted on the 15th and 26th of April, and on the 3th of May, 2006. Kadıköy Municipality and private day care centers' principals also requested that the researcher share the results of the study. Those requests will be arranged by the researcher upon the submission of this thesis.

A booklet including an instruction sheet, the Mother Information Sheet, the Dyadic Adjustment Scale, and the Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire was prepared for each respondent. Instruction sheet of the booklet included three questions about the marital conditions of respondents for inclusion criteria. Booklets

were excluded from the statistical analyses if mothers and/or their spouses had married more than once and/or if the couple did not live together in the same household.

Booklets were distributed and collected personally by classroom teachers in the municipality day care centers whereas Yüzyılışıl and Pinokyo day care centers mailed them to the home addresses of the participants. Respondents were asked to return the booklets in closed envelopes with their children to the teachers within in a week period. The returned envelopes were kept in the principals' offices and the researcher collected the returned booklets from the principals. Booklets were distributed with respect to day care centers and numerated by the researcher after each collection.

It took four weeks to collect all of the completed booklets, since the researcher went several times to the same day care centers for the late returns. 600 booklets with envelopes were distributed to eight day care centers according to the number of children attending each center, yet 240 booklets were returned. The return rate was highest for Kadıköy Municipality day care centers and lowest in two private day care centers. Therefore, the purpose of selecting different day care centers in order to include sufficient number of respondents that represent low, middle and high day care center status with respect to location and annual tuitions could not be fulfilled in the current study. 216 of the returned booklets were completed accordingly by the participants and met the inclusion criteria. The responses of 216 participants were used in the statistical analyses.

3. 5 Data Analysis

Data was coded to Statistical Program for Social Sciences (SPSS) software. In order to run statistical analyses, descriptive statistics were obtained for (a) 17 study variables that were gathered through the Mother Information Sheet, (b) for perceived marital quality as assessed by DAS, and (c) mothering quality as measured by PARQ-Mother. Employment status of the spouse variable was discarded from the analyses due to the insufficient frequency of unemployed spouses in the sample (n=2). Consequently the impact of 16 variables for the 1st, 2nd and 4th research questions were analyzed.

For each research question, types of analyses were selected with respect to the sample and variable characteristics. Three groups of arrangements were done in mothers' responses to some items in the Mother Information Form in order to carry out appropriate statistical analyses for research questions.

In the case of educational level of mothers, since the frequency of mothers who had a middle school degree was low (n=5), this group was joined with elementary school group in the statistical analyses (n=19). The remaining responses in the educational level item were taken as they appeared. Similar arrangements were done for spouses' educational level. Elementary school group (n=12) was added to middle school group (n=9) and they together appeared as elementary and middle school group (n=21). As such, responses given to the mother's employment status were divided into two groups as working (n=138) and not working (n=77); number of children responses were categorized as one child (n=109) and two or more than two children (n=107); and responses to the existence of stressful life events were divided as existent (n= 60) or non-existent (n=156) categories. As mentioned before, employment status of the spouses was discarded from the statistical analyses due to the insufficient number of individuals who had unemployed spouses (n=2). There

were respondents who signed the “other” option in the household composition item, yet instead of any relative living in the household, they reported having childcare providers and/or hired personnel in the household (n=23). Consequently, household composition variable was divided into two categories as nuclear (n=193) and extended categories (n=23) and those respondents who were living with childcare providers were added to the nuclear household category.

In the multiple regression and chi-square analyses the sample was divided into two groups according to mothers’ age (M=33.28, SD=4.61), spouses’ age (M=37.20, SD=5.25), and years of marriage (M=8.80, SD=3.56) variables; those who were at or below the sample mean and those who were above the sample mean. However, in the Pearson Moment Correlation analyses, those variables were not categorized, but taken as they appeared.

In the 15th question of the Mother Information Sheet, the responses were divided into two categories as perceived acceptance (n=161) or rejection (n=55) that the mother received in her family of origin. Consequently, the first response appeared as perceived acceptance and the other three responses appeared as perceived rejection. Respondents who chose “other” option (n=29) were categorized in the perceived rejection category, since all of them described a form of perceived rejection by their mothers.

There was one missing response in DAS in one booklet. Consequently, this booklet was used in the statistical analyses of the second research question, in which the variables that influence the quality of mothering were explored. However, this booklet was discarded from the analyses of other three research questions. As a result, there existed 216 Mother Information Sheet responses and PARQ scores whereas there were 215 DAS scores in the study.

For the 1st and 2nd research questions, (a) Pearson Moment Correlation Coefficients, (b) t-tests, and (c) one-way ANOVA were conducted to find out the variables that may have a relationship with DAS and PARQ scores. Post hoc comparisons were carried out to see the differences between groups for variables if one-way ANOVA comparisons indicated significant results. Multiple regression analyses were used to predict DAS and PARQ scores.

Pearson Moment Correlation Coefficients analyses were used to identify the correlation between DAS and PARQ scores for the 3rd research question.

In order to find out variables that may have an impact on the relationship between the mother's perception of marital quality and mothering quality for the 4th research question, four groups were formed with respect to the sample DAS and PARQ mean scores. The groups were named as (a) good marital quality/good mothering, (b) poor marital quality/poor mothering, (c) good marital quality/poor mothering, and (d) poor marital quality/good mothering groups. The groups were tabulated according to each of the 16 study variables and then frequencies and percentages were gathered. Chi-square analyses were conducted to find out differences between those four groups according to 16 study variables.

The responses given to (a) "describe" option of 9th item, (b) "other" option of the 12th item, and (c) "other" option the 14th item that appeared in the Mother Information Form were further tabulated in order to get further insight on those variables.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter begins with the descriptive statistics of the Mother Information Form, DAS and the PARQ. Then, the results of the statistical analyses with respect to each research question are presented with the question order. Finally, the tabulated responses of the 9th , 12th and 14th items of the Mother Information Form are described in order to get further insight on the spousal support for childcare, others' help for childcare and occurrence of stressful life events variables that appeared in the current sample.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics of Mother Information Form, DAS and PARQ

The variables that were used in the statistical analyses of the present study consist of (a) 16 study variables that were gathered through Mother Information

Form, (b) mother's perception of marital quality as assessed by DAS; and (c) mothering quality as measured by PARQ. As mentioned previously in Chapter 3, several arrangements were held in the responses of some items in the Mother Information order to carry out appropriate statistical analyses for research questions. The distribution of the sample according to the study variables that were gathered from Mother Information Sheet is presented in Table4. Descriptive statistics about DAS, PARQ and their subscales are presented in Table5.

There existed 215 DAS scores (N=215, M=107.37, SD=18.09) in the study. The possible total scores are given as being ranged from 0 to 151 in DAS total and higher scores are expected to reflect higher perception of the dyadic relationship quality (Spanier, 1976). Scores in the current study ranged from 32 to 141. There were 216 PARQ scores (N=216, M=81.04, SD=11.03) Scores on the standard PARQ spread from a possible low of 60 (revealing maximum perceived acceptance) to a high of 240 (revealing maximum perceived rejection) (Rohner & Khaleque, 2005). In the current study, minimum total PARQ score was 63 and maximum total score was 136.

Table4. *Distribution of the sample according to Mother Information Form*

		n	%
Day Care Center	Low status	47	22
	Medium Status	134	62
	High Status	35	16
Mother Age (M=33.28, SD=4.61)	At or below the mean	114	53
	Above the mean	101	47
Educational Level (Mother)	Elementary & Middle	24	11
	High School	55	26
	University	114	53
	Above University	23	11
Employment Status (Mother)	Employed	138	64
	Unemployed	77	36
Satisfaction job cond. (working mothers)	Satisfied	110	80
	Dissatisfied	27	20
Years of marriage	At or below the mean	101	47

(M=8.80, SD=3.56)	Above the mean	115	53
Age (Spouse) (M=37.20, SD=5.25)	At or below the mean	109	51
	Above the mean	106	49
Education (Spouse)	Elementary & Middle	21	10
	High School	56	26
	University	101	47
	Above University	38	18
Support for childcare (Spouse)	Available	192	89
	Unavailable	24	11
Number of children	One	109	50
	Two or more	107	50
Child temperament	Difficult	21	10
	Easy	42	19
	Neither easy nor difficult	153	71
Household Composition	Nuclear	193	90
	Extended	23	10
Support for childcare (others)	Available	91	42
	Unavailable	125	58
Stressful life events	Existent	60	28
	Non-existent	156	72
Mothering in fam. of origin (Mother)	Accepted	161	75
	Rejected	55	26
Satisfaction with mothering (fam. of origin)	Satisfied	140	65
	Dissatisfied	76	35

Table5. *Descriptive statistics of DAS, PARQ and their subscales*

		N	MIN.	MAX.	MEAN	SD
PARQ	Warmth	216	20	41	24,95	3,69
	Hostility	216	15	47	23,39	4,89
	Indifference	216	15	29	19,06	3,23
	Undifferentiated Rejection	216	10	26	13,64	2,90
	TOTAL	216	63	136	81,04	11,03
DAS	Satisfaction	215	13	49	38,49	6,16
	Consensus	216	8	60	46,23	8,39
	Cohesion	216	1	24	13,60	4,34
	Affectional Expression	216	2	12	9,12	2,11
	TOTAL	215	32	141	107,37	18,09

4.2 Research Question 1

Two groups of analyses were computed for the first research question. First group analyses were run in order to investigate the relationships between study

variables and DAS and then multiple regression analysis was carried out to find out predictor variables on DAS.

4.2.1 Relationships between Study Variables and Mother's Perception of Marital Quality

In order to explore the relationships of study variables and perceived marital quality, three groups of analyses were computed due to the characteristics of 16 variables with respect to the total DAS scores. First, Pearson Moment Correlation Coefficients were carried out for mother's age, spouse's age, years of marriage and number of children variables with respect to DAS. Second, eight variables including employment status of the mother, satisfaction with job conditions, spousal support for childcare, household composition, availability of others' support for childcare, existence of stressful life events within the previous year, mother's perception of acceptance or rejection received by her own mother in the family of origin, and mother's satisfaction with her childhood mother-child relationship were compared with DAS scores by using t-tests. Third, one-way ANOVA's were performed for the status of the child care center, educational level of mother, educational level of spouse, and mother's perception of her child's temperament variables according to DAS scores. Each of these analyses is described below respectively.

The results of Pearson Moment Correlation Coefficients analyses for DAS yielded significant positive correlation for number of children variable ($r=.140$, $p<.05$). This result indicated a relationship between increases in perceived marital quality and increases in the number of children. No significant relationships were obtained from the remaining three variables, namely, mother's age, spouse/husband's

age, and years of marriage. The results of correlational analyses are presented in Table6.

Table6. *Pearson Moment Correlation Coefficients of DAS with mother's age, spouse's age, years of marriage, and number of children*

	(r)
Mother's age	.000
Spouse's age	-.055
Years of marriage	-.068
Number of children	.140*

* $p < .05$

The t-test analyses were carried out to find out about the relationships between eight study variables and DAS scores separately. Variables, their means, standard deviations, and results are presented in Table7.

Table7. *t-tests for 8 variables with DAS scores*

		n	mean	sd	t	df	sig.
Employment status (Mother)	Employed	138	108.24	16.34	-.987	212	.325
	Not employed	76	105.88	21.00			
Satisfaction with job cond.	Satisfied	110	109.15	16.96	-1.393	135	.166
	Dissatisfied	27	104.26	13.39			
Support for childcare (Spouse)	Available	191	109.81	15.03	6.004	213	.000*
	Not available	24	88.00	27.18			
Household composition	Nuclear	192	107.57	18.20	-.328	214	.743
	Extended	23	106.26	17.31			
Support for childcare (Others)	Available	91	108.76	14.97	.962	213	.337
	Not available	124	106.35	20.08			
Stressful life events	Exist	60	102.40	23.50	2.570	214	.011*
	Not exist	155	109.37	15.14			
Mothering in fam. of origin(Mother)	Accepted	160	109.19	17.54	-2.551	213	.011*
	Rejected	55	102.07	18.79			
Satisfaction with	Satisfied	139	109.35	18.08	-2.182	213	.030*

mothering (fam. of origin)	Dissatisfied	76	103.76	17.67			
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N=215, M=107.37, SD=18.09

* p< .05

The results of the t-test analyses revealed that four of the eight variables had significant relationship with DAS scores. More specifically, mothers who perceived their spouses as helping them with childcare had significantly higher scores on DAS, $t(213)=6.004$, $p<.05$. It also showed that mothers who experienced one or more stressful events within the previous year received significantly lower scores on DAS than mothers who did not live any stressful life event, $t(214)=2.570$, $p<.05$. Results of t-test analyses also indicated that mothers who perceived themselves as having been accepted by their mothers in their childhood had significantly higher scores on DAS than mothers who felt rejected in childhood, $t(213)=-.255$, $p<.05$. It revealed that mothers who were satisfied with their own mothers' mothering received significantly higher scores on DAS than mothers who were dissatisfied with their childhood relationships with their own mothers, $t(213)=-2.18$, $p<.05$.

No significant results were obtained from respondents on DAS with respect to the remaining four variables, namely mother's employment status, mother's satisfaction with job conditions, household composition, and availability of support for childcare from others.

One-way ANOVA's were performed for the remaining four variables, including four levels of education of mothers and spouses, three levels of mothers' perception of the child temperament, and three levels of status of the childcare centers according to DAS scores. Descriptive statistics and results are presented in Table8.

Table8. *One-way ANOVA's for mother's and spouse's educational levels, child temperament, and day care center status according to DAS scores*

		n	mean	sd	F	df	sig.
Education Level (Mother)	Elementary & middle	24	106.42	20.13	2.274	3	.081
	High school	54	111.22	19.14			
	University	114	104.74	17.88			
	Above university	23	112.39	11.64			
Education level (Spouse)	Elementary & middle	21	96.00	29.52	3.583	3	.015*
	High school	55	109.91	15.82			
	University	101	107.26	15.43			
	Above university	38	110.29	17.94			
Child temperament	Difficult	21	102.33	15.89	.915	2	.402
	Easy	42	107.52	18.56			
	Neither easy nor difficult	152	108.03	18.24			
Day care center	Low	47	106.45	20.03	.719	2	.488
	Medium	133	106.82	18.71			
	High	35	110.71	12.00			

N=215, M=107.37, SD=18.09

* p< .05

Results of one-way ANOVA's that were computed for four variables separately indicated one significant difference on DAS scores. More specifically, it revealed in the one-way ANOVA that spouses' education were related to the mean scores of DAS with $F(3)=3.58$, $p<.05$ level, which highlighted an increase in mothers' perceived quality in their marriages with respect to their spouses' educational level. Consequently, post-hoc comparisons were carried out for the spouses' educational level on DAS scores with using Scheffe analyses to find out which groups' means differed significantly from other groups.

The results of further analysis of spouses' level of education with respect to DAS revealed that the mean scores of mothers who had spouses with elementary or middle school degrees had significantly lower scores on DAS than the mean scores of mothers who had spouses with high school degrees and whose spouses had received a higher degree of education after university ($p<.05$). On the other hand, the

mean DAS scores of mothers' who had spouses with elementary or middle school degrees were not significantly different from mothers who had spouses with university degrees.

Mean scores with respect to mothers' perception of their children's temperament, mothers' educational level, and day care centers' status did not indicate significant results for DAS scores.

As a summary of the previous three groups of analyses, it was found that 6 of the 16 variables had significant relationships with DAS scores. More specifically, DAS scores of mothers increased as the number of children increased ($r=.140$, $p<.05$). DAS scores of mothers who received spousal support for childcare were significantly higher than mothers who did not receive spousal support for childcare, $t(213)=6.004$, $p<.01$. Mothers who perceived themselves as accepted by their own mothers during childhood received significantly higher scores on DAS than mothers who felt rejected by their own mothers, $t(213)=-2.551$, $p<.05$. Similarly, mothers who were satisfied with their own mothers' mothering obtained significantly higher scores on DAS than mothers who were dissatisfied, $t(213)=-2.182$, $p<.05$.

On the other hand, mothers who lived one or more stressful life events within the previous year received significantly lower scores on DAS than mothers who did not experience stressful life events, $t(214)=2.570$, $p<.05$. Similarly, DAS scores of mothers whose spouses graduated from elementary or middle schools were significantly lower than mothers whose spouses received a higher educational degree after university, $F(3)=3.583$, $p<.05$.

The other 10 variables, including the day care center status, mother' age, educational level, employment status, satisfaction with job conditions, child temperament, spouse's educational level, years of marriage, household composition,

availability of support for childcare from others did not appear to be related to the DAS scores.

4.2.2 Variables that Predict the Mother's Perception of Marital Quality

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to evaluate how well the variables predicted DAS scores. The predictor variables were the 16 variables, while the criterion variable was the DAS scores. The linear combination of six variables, including perceived spousal support for childcare, mothers' satisfaction with their mothers' mothering, number of children, educational level of the mother, existence of stressful life events within the previous year and satisfaction with job conditions, was significantly related to the DAS scores, $F(6)=11.625$, $p=.000$. The sample multiple correlation coefficient was .50, indicating that approximately 25% of the variance of DAS scores in the sample can be accounted for by the linear combination of those six variables.

Mother's perceived spousal support for childcare, as a single variable, predicted approximately 15% of the variance of DAS scores. The results indicated that unavailability of spousal support for childcare emerged as a significant negative predictor of the DAS ($\beta=-22.34$, $p=.000$), in that as the mothers did not perceive spousal support for childcare, the DAS scores were significantly decreased. Satisfaction with childhood mother-child relationships predicted the DAS scores on a positive direction ($\beta=6.10$, $p=.008$), in that as mothers perceived satisfaction in childhood mother-child relationships, their DAS scores increased. Similarly, number of children predicted DAS scores in a positive direction ($\beta=4.27$, $p=.012$), in that as the number of children increased, DAS scores increased. However, results indicated the educational level of the mother and existence of stressful life events within the

previous year to be negative predictors of the DAS ($\beta=-6.79$, $p=.005$; $\beta=-5.65$, $p=.023$, respectively), in that as the educational level of the mother decreased and as stressful life events existed within the previous year, the DAS scores decreased. Satisfaction with job conditions is found to be a significant positive predictor of the DAS scores ($\beta=4.66$, $p=.046$).

4.3 Research Question 2

As in the first research question, two groups of analyses were carried out in which the first group analyses were computed in order to explore the relationships of study variables with the quality of mothering (PARQ-Mother) and then multiple regression analysis was run to find out predictor variables on PARQ-Mother.

4.3.1 Relationships between Study Variables and Quality of Mothering

In order to investigate the variables that might have a relationship with the quality of mothering, Pearson Moment Correlation Coefficients, t-tests, one-way ANOVA's were computed with 16 variables for PARQ scores. Types of analysis for each variable were selected according to the characteristics of the variables.

Pearson Moment Correlation Coefficients were carried out for mother's age, spouse's age, years of marriage and number of children variables with respect to PARQ scores. The t-tests were performed in order to find out the relationships between PARQ scores and eight study variables, namely employment status of the mothers, satisfaction with job conditions for employed mothers, spousal support for childcare, household composition, availability of support for childcare from others, existence of stressful life events within the previous year, mothers' perceived acceptance or rejection by their own mothers' during their childhood and mother's

satisfaction with their mothers' mothering. Then one-way ANOVA's were carried out for four variables, namely day care center status, educational level of mother, educational level of spouse, and mother's perception of her child's temperament according to PARQ scores. The results of the analyses are explained below respectively. The results of correlational analyses are presented in Table9.

Table9. *Pearson Moment Correlation Coefficients of PARQ with mother's age, spouse's age, years of marriage and number of children*

	(r)
Mother's age	-.176**
Spouse's age	-.139*
Years of marriage	-.134*
Number of children	.061

**p<.001 * p< .05

Results of Pearson Moment Correlation Coefficient analyses revealed significant negative correlations with mother's age and PARQ score ($r=-.176$, $p<.01$); between spousal age and PARQ ($r=-.139$, $p<.05$); and years of marriage and PARQ score ($r=-.134$, $p<.05$). However, no significant relationship could be found with regards to the number of children variable.

The t-test analyses were carried out separately for 8 variables in order to explore their influence on PARQ scores. The results of t-tests for those eight variables on PARQ scores are shown in Table10.

Table10. *t-tests for 8 variables with PARQ scores*

		n	mean	sd	t	df	sig.
Employment status (Mother)	Employed	138	80.32	10.78	1.145	213	.254
	Not employed	77	82.11	11.38			
Satisfaction with job	Satisfied	110	79.26	10.05	2.469	135	.015*

cond.	Dissatisfied	27	84.89	12.70			
Support for childcare (Spouse)	Available	192	80.72	10.87	-1.201	214	.231
	Not available	24	83.58	12.14			
Household composition	Nuclear	193	80.85	11.07	.772	214	.471
	Extended	23	82.61	10.82			
Support for childcare (Others)	Available	91	81.12	10.37	.095	214	.924
	Not available	125	80.98	11.52			
Stressful life events	Exist	60	83.37	12.86	-1.938	214	.054
	Not exist	156	80.14	10.14			
Mothering in fam. of origin(Mother)	Accepted	161	79.13	9.61	4.541	214	.000*
	Rejected	55	86.62	12.97			
Satisfaction with mothering (fam. of origin)	Satisfied	140	79.27	10.00	3.264	214	.001*
	Dissatisfied	76	84.29	12.12			

N=216, M=81.04, SD=11.03

* p< .05

Results of the t-test analysis indicated that 3 of those 8 variables were significantly related to PARQ scores. Employed mothers who were not satisfied with their job conditions received significantly higher scores on PARQ as compared to employed mothers who were satisfied with their job conditions, $t(135)=2.469$, $p<.05$. It also revealed that mothers who perceived themselves as rejected by their own mothers in their childhood had significantly higher scores on PARQ than mothers who felt accepted by their mothers, $t(214)=4.541$, $p<.05$. Results also indicated that mothers who were dissatisfied with their own mothers' mothering received significantly higher scores on PARQ than mothers who were satisfied with their own mothers' mothering, $t(214)=3.264$, $p<.05$. No significant results were obtained from respondents on PARQ with respect to mothers' employment status, availability of spousal support for childcare, household composition, availability of support for childcare from others, and existence of stressful life events. However, it is important to note that t-test results for existence of stressful life events on PARQ almost reached significant levels, $t(214)=-1.938$, $p=.054$ which indicated that mean PARQ

scores of mothers who experienced one or more stressful life events tended to be higher than that of mothers who did not experience any stressful life event within the past year.

One-way ANOVA's were performed with four levels of education of mothers and spouses, three levels of child temperament, and three day care center status on PARQ scores. Descriptive statistics and results of one-way ANOVA'S are presented in Table11.

ANOVA yielded significant results for three variables according to PARQ scores. In other words, results revealed significant differences on PARQ scores with respect to mothers' educational level, $F(3)=2.70$, $p<.05$, mothers' perception of their children's temperament, $F(2)=5.20$, $p<.05$, and day care center's status, $F(2)=5.935$, $p<.05$. Yet, no significant results were obtained on PARQ with respect to educational level of spouses.

Table11. *One-way ANOVA's of mother's and spouse's educational levels, child temperament, and the day care center status according to PARQ scores*

		n	mean	sd	F	df	sig.
Education Level (Mother)	Elementary & middle	24	85.21	11.15	2.704	3	.046*
	High school	55	80.73	12.45			
	University	114	81.28	10.63			
	Above university	23	76.22	7.34			
Education level (Spouse)	Elementary & middle	21	81.14	11.34	1.937	3	.125
	High school	56	83.59	13.40			
	University	101	80.69	9.39			
	Above university	38	78.13	10.64			
Child temperament	Difficult	21	87.86	13.45	5.198	2	.006*
	Easy	42	78.71	9.48			
	Neither easy nor difficult	153	80.74	10.77			
Day care center	Low	47	85.83	13.42	5.935	2	.003*
	Medium	134	79.73	10.12			
	High	35	79.60	9.21			

N=216, M=81.04, SD=11.03

* $p<.05$

Post-hoc comparisons were carried out using Scheffe analyses for three variables that indicated significant results in order to find out which groups' means in each variable differed significantly from other groups.

The results of further analysis of mothers' level of education with respect to PARQ revealed that the mean scores of mothers who had graduated from elementary or middle schools had significantly higher scores on PARQ than the mean scores of those with above university degrees ($p < .05$). In fact, no mean differences were obtained between other groups' PARQ mean scores.

Mean scores of mothers who perceived their children as difficult were significantly higher on PARQ than mothers who perceived their children as easy or neither easy nor difficult groups ($p < .05$). No differences were observed between easy and neither easy nor difficult groups.

Mothers who had their child in a low status day care centers gathered significantly higher scores on PARQ than mothers whose child attended a medium or high status day care center ($p < .05$). However, PARQ mean scores of mothers who had a child in high and medium day care centers did not differ significantly.

As a summary of the previous three groups of analyses, nine of those 16 variables indicated significant differences on PARQ mean scores and one variable appeared to reach a significant level of difference. More specifically, it revealed that there were significant negative relationships between mother's age and PARQ, ($r = -.176$, $p < .001$), spouse's age and PARQ ($r = -.139$, $p < .05$) and years of marriage and PARQ ($r = -.134$, $p < .05$). Employed mothers who were satisfied with their job conditions had significantly lower scores on PARQ than mothers who were dissatisfied with their job conditions, $t(135) = 2.469$, $p < .05$. Those mothers who perceived themselves as accepted by their own mothers had significantly lower

scores on PARQ than mothers who felt rejected by their own mothers, $t(214)=4.541$, $p<.05$. Similarly, those mothers, who were satisfied with their mothers' mothering had significantly lower scores than that of mothers who were dissatisfied with their own mothers' mothering, $t(214)=3.264$, $p<.05$.

On the other hand, those mothers who perceived their children's temperament as difficult obtained significantly higher scores on PARQ than mothers who perceived their children as easy or neither easy nor difficult, $F(2)=5.198$, $p<.05$. Similarly, mothers who had received elementary or middle school degrees scored significantly higher on PARQ than mothers who had above university degrees, $F(3)=2.704$, $p<.05$; however, no significant differences were found between other groups' PARQ scores. Mothers whose child attended a low status day care center obtained significantly lower scores on PARQ than mothers whose child attended a medium or high status day care center, $F(2)=5.935$, $p<.05$. Furthermore, the mean PARQ scores of mothers who experienced one or more stressful life events tended to be higher than mothers who did not experience any stressful life event, yet the results did not indicate significant results, $t(214)=-1.938$, $p=.054$.

Number of children, mothers' employment status, availability of spousal or others' support for childcare, household composition and spouses' educational level did not reveal to be related the PARQ scores.

4.3.2 Variables that Predict Mothering Quality

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to evaluate how well the variables predicted PARQ scores. The predictor variables were the 16 variables, while the criterion variable was the PARQ scores. The linear combination of four variables, including mothers' perceived acceptance by their own mothers in the

family of origin, low status of childcare center, perception of child temperament as difficult, and satisfaction with job conditions was significantly related to the PARQ scores, $F(4)=10.89$, $p=.000$. The sample multiple correlation coefficient was .41, indicating that approximately 17% of the variance of PARQ scores in the sample could be accounted for by the linear combination of those four variables.

Mother's perceived acceptance received by her own mother, as a single variable, predicted approximately 9% of the variance of DAS scores. The results indicated that mothers' perceived acceptance by their own mothers in the family of origin is a significant negative predictor of the PARQ scores ($\beta=-6.63$, $p=.000$), in that mothers who felt accepted by their own mothers had significantly lower scores on PARQ. Low status of childcare center emerged as a significant positive predictor of PARQ scores ($\beta=4.46$, $p=.010$) in which mothers whose child attended a low status day care center had significantly higher scores on PARQ. Perception of child temperament as difficult emerged as a positive predictor of PARQ scores, ($\beta=5.91$, $p=.013$), in that as the mothers perceived their child difficult in temperament, their PARQ scores increased. Satisfaction with job conditions also predicted PARQ scores negatively, ($\beta=-3.02$, $p=.034$), such that as the mothers were satisfied with their job conditions, their PARQ scores decreased.

4.4 Research Question 3

Pearson Moment Correlation Coefficients were calculated in order to explore the relationship between mother's perception of marital quality (DAS) and the quality of mothering (PARQ). The results revealed a significant negative correlation between DAS and PARQ scores ($r=-.201$, $p<.001$). The negative correlation between DAS and PARQ scores indicated a positive relationship between perceived marital

quality and quality of mothering; since the higher the DAS score, the higher the perceived marital relationship quality is, whereas the lower the PARQ score, the higher the mothering quality is.

4.5 Research Question 4

In order to explore if the relationship between mother's marital quality and mother-child relationship quality appear in different directions, either positive or negative, first the sample was divided into two groups twice with respect to the mean scores of DAS (M=107.37, SD=18.09) and PARQ (M=81.04, SD=11.03). Those mothers who received DAS scores that were at or less than the sample mean scores of DAS were identified as poor marital relationship quality group (n=94), and others were termed as good marital relationship quality group (n=121). On the contrary, those mothers who obtained PARQ scores that were at or less than the sample PARQ mean scores were termed as good mother-child relationship group (n=120), whereas those mothers whose PARQ scores were more than the sample PARQ mean scores were categorized as poor mother-child relationship group (n=96). The distribution of the sample according to the sample mean scores of DAS and PARQ are presented in Table12.

Table12. *The distribution of the sample according to DAS and PARQ mean scores*

		n	%
DAS (N=215, M=107.37, SD=18.09)	Good	121	56.3
	Poor	94	43.7
PARQ (N=216, M=81.04, SD=11.03)	Good	120	55.6
	Poor	96	44.4

After the sample was distributed with regards to DAS and PARQ mean scores, a new DASPARQ group was formed which had four subgroups. DASPARQ group (N=215) consisted of (1) good marriage/good mothering (n=77, 35.8%), (2) poor marriage/poor mothering (n=51, 23.7%), (3) good marriage/poor mothering (n=44, 20.5%), and (4) poor marriage/good mothering (n=43, 20%) subgroups. With this distribution, 59.50 percent of the sample revealed as having a positive relationship between perceived marital quality and mothering quality, with a negative correlation coefficient between DAS and PARQ scores. The remaining 40.50 percent of the sample indicated a negative relationship between the quality of marriage and mother-child relationship, and a positive correlation coefficient between DAS and PARQ scores. Table13 represents the distribution of the sample according to the four DASPARQ groups.

Table13. *Distribution of the sample according to DASPARQ groups*

	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4
	Good marriage/ Good mothering	Poor marriage/ Poor mothering	Good marriage/ Poor mothering	Poor marriage/ Good mothering
n	77	51	44	43
%	35.8	23.7	20.5	20.0

N=215

After the groups were identified, they were tabulated with respect to the each of the 16 study variables. The distribution of the DASPARQ groups with respect to the study variables are provided in Table14.

Pearson chi-square analyses were run for each variable to detect whether or not there were any significant differences between four DASPARQ groups with respect to 16 study variables. The results revealed significant differences between

four DASPARQ groups with respect to 5 study variables, including mothers' satisfaction with job conditions, spousal age, existence of stressful life events, mothers' perceived acceptance or rejection received by their own mothers' in the family of origin and mothers' satisfaction with their childhood mother-child relationships. Even though the results of the chi-square analyses did not indicate significant differences between DASPARQ groups with respect to other variables, the distribution of the sample according to 5 variables showed variances. Results of chi-square analyses with respect to study variables and DASPARQ groups are provided in Table 15 and described respectively.

Table14. *Distribution of the DASPARQ groups according to 16 study variables*

		Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4	TOTAL
		Good mar/ Good moth.	Poor mar/ Poor moth.	Good mar/ Poor moth.	Poor mar/ Good moth.	
		n	n	n	n	
Day care center	Low Status	14	13	14	6	47
	Middle Status	51	29	24	29	133
	High Status	12	9	6	8	35
Age (Mother) MEAN=33,28 SD=4.61	At or below mean	41	28	25	20	114
	Above mean	36	23	19	23	101
Educational Level (Mother)	Elementary & middle	6	6	8	4	24
	High School	25	10	11	8	54
	University	36	31	21	26	114
	Above university	10	4	4	5	23
Employment status (Mother)	Employed	55	30	26	27	138
	Not employed	22	21	17	16	76
Satisfaction with job conditions	Satisfied	48	19	20	23	110
	Dissatisfied	6	11	6	4	27
Years of marriage MEAN=8.80 SD=3.56	At or below mean	37	27	21	16	101
	Above mean	40	24	23	27	114
Age (Spouse) MEAN=37,2 SD=5.25	At or below mean	36	28	29	16	109
	Above mean	41	23	15	27	106
Educational Level (Spouse)	Elementary & middle	6	4	5	6	21
	High School	22	14	13	6	55
	University	31	26	21	23	101
	Above university	18	7	5	8	38
Spousal support for childcare	Available	69	42	43	37	191
	Not available	8	9	1	6	24
Number of children	One	37	29	21	22	109

	Two or more	40	22	23	21	106
Perception of child temperament	Difficult	6	9	5	1	21
	Easy	18	11	4	9	42
	Neither easy, nor diff.	53	31	35	33	152
Household Composition	Nuclear	68	46	40	38	192
	Extended	9	5	4	5	23
Support for Childcare (Others)	Available	30	20	21	20	91
	Not available	47	31	23	23	124
Stressful life events	Exist	14	18	17	10	59
	Not exist	63	33	27	33	156
Mothering in the fam. of origin (mother)	Accepted	65	28	32	35	160
	Rejected	12	23	12	8	55
Satisfaction with mothering (fam. of or.)	Satisfied	59	25	27	28	139
	Dissatisfied	18	26	17	15	76

Table15. Results of chi-square analyses with respect to 16 study variables and DASPARQ groups

	Value	df	sig.
Day care center (3X4)	5.203	6	.518
Age (Mother) (2X4)	1.06	3	.787
Education level (Mother) (4X4)	8.61	9	.474
Employment status (Mother) (2X4)	2.69	3	.442
Satisfaction with job conditions (2X4)	8.57	3	.036*
Years of marriage (2X4)	2.41	3	.492
Age (Spouse) (2X4)	8.04	3	.045*
Education level (Spouse) (4X4)	8.46	9	.489
Support for childcare (Spouse) (2X4)	6.05	3	.109
Number of children (2X4)	1.15	3	.765
Perception of child temperament (3X4)	10.75	6	.096
Household composition (2X4)	.316	3	.957
Support for childcare (others) (2X4)	1.39	3	.707
Stressful life events (2X4)	8.04	3	.045*
Perception of childhood mother-child rel. (2X4)	15.41	3	.001*
Satisfaction with childhood mother-child rel. (2X4)	10.49	3	.015*

2X4 chi-square analysis indicated significant differences among four DASPARQ groups in terms of satisfaction with job conditions for employed mothers, $X^2 (3) = 8.57, p < .05$. 44% of mothers who were satisfied with their job conditions were in the good marriage/good mothering group. However, only 22% of the dissatisfied mothers were in this group. On the contrary, the percentage of dissatisfied mothers who were in the poor marriage/poor mothering group was 41% with respect to 17% of satisfied mothers. Furthermore, 20% of the job-satisfied mothers were classified in the good mothering group even though they had poor marriages. Only 15% of the dissatisfied mothers were in the poor marriage/good mothering group, with respect to 22% of dissatisfied mothers in the good marriage/poor mothering group.

DASPARQ groups differed significantly according to the spousal age with a 2X4 chi-square analysis, $X^2 (3) = 8.04, p < .05$. The percentage of mothers whose spouses were older than the sample mean age was nearly similar with the mothers whose spouses were younger than the sample mean age in good marriage/good mothering (39% to 33%) and in poor marriage/poor mothering group (22% to 26%). Yet, most prominent differences were observed in good marriage/poor mothering and poor marriage/good mothering groups with respect to spousal age. 27% of mothers whose spouses were younger than the sample mean were identified in the good marriage/poor mothering group whereas only 14% of the mothers whose spouses were older than the sample mean age were in this group. On the contrary, it was detected that those mothers whose spouses were older than the sample mean age would be more likely to be in one of the good mothering groups, even in the case of poor marital quality. More specifically, 25% of mothers of with older spouses fell in

the poor marriage/good mothering group with respect to 15% of mothers with younger spouses in the same group.

Stressful life events revealed significant differences in the DASPARQ groups, $X^2 (3) = 8.04$, $p < .05$. 40% of the mothers who did not experience any stressful event in their lives within the previous year were identified in the good marriage/good mothering group with respect to 24% of mothers who lived one or more stressful life events. 21% of the mothers who did not experience any stressful event in their lives within the previous year were identified in the poor marriage/poor mothering group with respect to 31% of mothers who lived one or more stressful life events appeared in this group. 17% of mothers who did not experience any stressful live event were in the good marriage/poor mothering group whereas 29% of mothers who lived one or more stressful events were in this group.

Results of a 2X4 chi-square analysis indicated that four DASPARQ groups differed significantly with respect to mother's perceived acceptance or rejection by their own mothers in their childhood, $X^2 (3) = 15.41$, $p < .05$. 41% of mothers who felt accepted by their own mothers in their childhood appeared in the good marriage/good mothering group and only 22% of accepted mothers appeared in poor marriage/poor mothering group. However, the weight of percentages of mothers who perceived their own mothers as rejecting reversed within those two DASPARQ groups. Specifically, only 18 % of rejected mothers were in the good marriage/good mothering group whereas 42% of rejected mothers appeared in the poor marriage/poor mothering group. Furthermore, 22% of mothers who felt accepted by their own mothers were in the good mothering group even though they had poor marriage with respect to 15% of mothers who felt rejected by their own mothers in the poor marriage/good mothering group.

Finally, a 2X4 chi-square analysis indicated significant differences between four DASPARQ groups in terms of mothers' satisfaction with their own mothers' mothering, $X^2(3) = 10.49, p < .05$. 42% of mothers who were satisfied with their own mothers' mothering appeared in good marriage/good mothering group whereas only 18% of satisfied mothers were in poor marriage/poor mother-child relationship group. Yet, only 24% of dissatisfied mothers were in good marriage/good mother-child relationship group with respect to 34% of dissatisfied mothers in the poor marriage/poor mother-child relationship group.

While the chi-square analyses did not reveal significant differences among four DASPARQ groups in terms of mothers' educational level, mothers' employment status, spouses' educational level, spousal support for childcare, and perception of children temperament variables, the distribution of the sample reflected some variances that may be of importance to consider.

First, DASPARQ groups' distribution revealed some differences in terms of educational level of mothers and spouses. 46% mothers who received high school degrees and 43% mothers who received a higher degree of education after university were in the good marriage/good mothering group, with respect to 25% of elementary and middle school graduates and 32% of university graduates that appeared in this group.

A somewhat similar distribution was obtained with respect to spousal education. Specifically, 40% of mothers whose spouses had graduated from high school and 47% of mothers whose spouses received a higher education degree than university were in the good marriage/good mothering group with respect to 29% mothers whose spouses were elementary and middle school graduates and 31%

mothers whose spouses were of the university graduates in the good marriage/good mothering.

The third difference in the distribution of the sample was observed in terms of the employment status of mothers. 40% of the employed mothers were included in the good marriage/good mothering group with respect to 29% of unemployed mothers in the same group. Similarly, the percentage of employed mothers was less than the percentage of unemployed mothers in the poor marriage/poor mothering group (22% and 28%) and good marriage/poor mothering group (19% and 22%).

The next variance in the DASPARQ groups was obtained in terms of mother's perceived spousal support for childcare. 36% of the mothers who received spousal support, with respect to 33% of mothers who did not receive spousal support were in the good marriage/good mothering group. In fact, only 22% of mothers who received spousal support, with respect to 38% of mothers who did not receive spousal support appeared in the poor marriage/poor mothering group.

Finally, perception of child temperament also indicated some variances in the distribution of DASPARQ groups. Only 29% of the mothers who perceived their children as difficult were in the good marriage/good mothering group with respect to 43% of mothers who perceived their children as easy and 35% of mothers who perceived their children as neither easy, nor difficult. On the contrary, 43% of mothers who perceived their children as difficult were in the poor marriage/poor mother-child relationship group, whereas 26% of mothers who perceived their children as easy and 20% of mothers who perceived their children as neither easy nor difficult were in that group. The results also indicated that mothers who perceived their children as easy would be more likely to be in one of the good mother-child relationship groups, even in the case of poor marital relationships. More specifically,

only 10% of mothers who perceived their children as easy were in good marriage/poor mother-child relationship group with respect to 21% of mothers who perceived their children as easy were in the poor marriage/good mother-child relationship group, whereas only 5% of mothers who perceived their children as difficult appeared in good mother-child relationship group in the case of poor marriage.

Overall, the result of the analyses computed for the 4th research question revealed that the percentage of mothers whose perceived marital quality and the quality of mothering were positively related (59.5%) slightly exceeds the percentage of mothers whose perceived marital quality and the quality of mother-child relationships were negatively related (40.5%). However, the results of chi-square analyses indicated that the distribution of the sample according to DASPARQ groups were significantly related to five variables, namely, satisfaction with job conditions for employed mothers, $X^2(3) = 8.57, p < .05$, spousal age, $X^2(3) = 8.04, p < .05$, existence of stressful life events, $X^2(3) = 8.04, p < .05$, mothers' perceived acceptance or rejection from their own mothers in their childhood, $X^2(3) = 15.41, p < .05$, and mothers' satisfaction with their childhood mother-child relationships, $X^2(3) = 10.49, p < .05$. It also revealed that the distribution of the sample according to DASPARQ groups tended to vary with respect to five variables, including educational level of the mothers and spouses, employment status of the mother, availability of spousal support for childcare, and mothers' perception of their children's temperament. Yet, those variances did not yield significant results in the analysis.

4.6 Further Analyses

In order to get further insight about the 9th, 12th and 14th items of the Mother Information Form responses were tabulated by the current researcher. They are described in the following sections.

4.6.1 Spousal Support for Childcare

24 individuals reported that they did not receive any help from their husbands for childcare with respect to 192 individuals who reported spousal help for child care. 30 individuals responded to the item only by signing “yes” response without explaining the areas of help. 75 individuals reported that they received spousal help for childcare on every topic and 10 individuals reported that the spousal childcare consisted of making joint decisions on every topic regarding to children. Four mothers reported that they received help from their husbands on every topic regarding to childcare and household tasks. 14 mothers stated that they received help on every topic from their husbands on childcare if and only if they needed it. For example, four mothers reported that they received help only when their children were ill. 16 individuals received spousal help only on topics regarding children’s education. 14 husbands were reported to help with childcare only during social activities including playing, and taking children outside, specifically on weekends. 29 individuals reported that their husbands help them with childcare activities including dressing the child, taking care of his/her physical hygiene, feeding and assisting with the child’s sleeping schedule. These individuals either identified one or more of these childcare practices.

As a result, it is revealed in those reports that only 46% of mothers (n=89) who reported that they perceived spousal help on childcare (n=192) actually received spousal help on every topic, either instrumental and/or emotional support regarding

to childcare. 15% (n=29) of mothers who perceived spousal help received spousal childcare help only on feeding, getting child to dress and sleep; 7% (n=14) of the husbands were of assistance only in social activities, such as playing with the child and taking the child out; and 8% received spousal help only in children's education. However, 9% of mothers (n=18) who perceived spousal childcare help received it in the case of necessity such as illness. 15% of mothers did not identify the areas of spousal help on childcare.

4.6.2 Availability of Support from Others in Childcare

It is indicated in the sample that 125 mothers (58%) did not receive any support for childcare and 91 mothers (42%) reported that they received help on childcare from others. Mothers who reported that they receive help identified one individual (n=73) or two individuals (n=18) for supporting them on childcare. 27 of the mothers reported the help of hired childcare providers and 18 mothers reported the help of a relative (i.e. mother, mother-in-law, sister, etc.) in conjunction with hired childcare providers. 46 mothers reported the support of a relative for childcare (i.e. mother, mother-in-law, sister, etc.).

4.6.3 Stressful Life Events

Frequency of respondents who reported the existence of one stressful life event was 50 (n=50, 23%), and who reported more than one event was 10 (5%). Mothers reported that they had economic problems (n=25) and/or illness (n=10) in the family and/or death of a close relative (n=14). 21 individuals responded to the "other" option. The birth of a baby (n=8), change in the address and/or occupation

(n=7) and conflict in the family (n=4) were the most frequent responses for the “other” option.

CHAPTER 5

The purpose of the current study was to investigate the quality of marital relationship, quality of mothering and their interrelations with respect to 17 variables. The sample of this study consisted of women who (a) had a child between the ages of 3-6 attending a day care center, (b) were living in intact families and (c) were in their first marriages as a couple (i.e. both husband and wife were in their first marriages).

Based on the analyses that were presented in detail in Chapter 4, this chapter discusses the findings regarding the quality of marital relationship, the quality of mothering, and the relationship between the quality of marital relationship and mothering, respectively. Secondly, clinical implications and educational implications are presented. Finally, the limitations of the study are discussed and recommendations for further research are provided.

5.1 Discussion

5.1.1 The Quality of Marital Relationship

Within the 16 variables that were investigated, six variables including the number of children, spousal support for childcare, mother's perception of acceptance-rejection received by her own mother, mother's satisfaction with her own mother's mothering, occurrence of stressful life events within the previous year, and spouse's educational level indicated significant relationships with the mother's perception of marital quality. Furthermore, spousal support for childcare, satisfaction with mother's mothering, number of children, educational level, occurrence of stressful life events within the previous year and satisfaction with job conditions appeared as significant predictors of the mother's perception of marital quality.

Coparenting, or the degree of support between the couples on issues of parenting is regarded as a function of marital relationship quality and it is proposed that spouses who were in harmonious relationships tended to support each other on parenting tasks (Belsky, 1984; Belsky & Hsieh, 1998; Gable et al., 1992; Lindahl & Malik, 1999; McHale, 1995; Margolin et al., 2001). In line with the previous Western research findings, availability of spousal support for childcare emerged as a significant positive predictor of women's marital relationship quality and women who perceived their husbands as helpful with childcare also perceived their marital quality more positively than the women who did not receive spousal help with childcare. This finding will be discussed from different perspectives.

Belsky and Hsieh's study (1998) indicated that coparenting and division of household labor were predictors of the change in marital relationship quality after the birth of the first child. Therefore, it can be discussed that those women who do not

receive spousal support for childcare after the birth of their child are more likely to have decreased marital quality over time. On the other hand, it can be also said that mothers who are not satisfied with their marital relationships before the birth of child do not allow their spouses to be involved in parenting. Given the literature that points out the similarities between couples' evaluations of their marriages (Kurdek, 1999), another hypothesis can also state that fathers who are not satisfied with their marriages are more likely to withdraw from their paternal roles and their children with respect to mothers (Belsky et al., 1991; Almeida et al., 1999; Mann & MacKenzie, 1996).

Furthermore, when the responses given to the spousal support in childcare were analyzed, it was found that only 46% (n=89) of the mothers who perceive spousal help for childcare (n=192) reported help on every topic regarding to childcare in the present study. For many mothers, activities such as playing with the child, educating the child, or helping in the case of necessity were attributed to spousal help with childcare. This positive evaluation will be related to mothers' positive feelings for their spouses or their attributions of childcare as the responsibility of mothers.

In the review of the related literature, childhood history of parenting for couples is revealed to be a significant factor in determining the quality of marriage both in theories (attachment theory, parental acceptance-rejection theory) and in several models (Bradbury et al., 2000; Bradbury & Karney, 2004; Fincham & Beach, 1999; Karney & Bradbury, 1995). Furthermore, the results of the several studies found significant relationship between marital/intimate partner relationship quality and childhood history of parenting (Belsky & Isabella, 1985; Belsky & Hsieh, 1998; Wallace & Gotlib, 1990; Varan, 2005). In accordance with the related literature, the

results of the current study indicated that women who felt accepted by their own mothers were found to have significantly more positive marital relationships than women who felt rejected by their own mothers. It was also found in the current study that women who were satisfied with their own mothers' mothering tended to have more positive marital relationships than women who were dissatisfied with the mothering they received in their childhood. However, it should be kept in mind that the current study only dealt with the childhood history of mothering and did not include the childhood history of fathering and marital relationships.

The negative relationship between the existence of stressful life events and the quality of marital relationships that appeared in the results of the current study is in line with the previous literature (Bradbury et al., 2000; Bradbury & Karney, 2004; Fincham & Beach, 1999; Karney & Bradbury, 1995). However, results also indicate a difference of this current study with respect to the previous literature that should be pointed out. In order to find out the variables that may have an impact on the marital quality, two groups of analyses were carried out. When all the variables of the study were entered into the multiple regression analysis with respect to DAS scores, existence of stressful life events ranked in the fifth order and came after the availability of spousal support for childcare, satisfaction with own mother's mothering received in childhood, number of children and women's educational level variables. This finding is similar to the previous literature that highlights an indirect relationship between stressful life events and marital relationships; in that spouses' enduring individual strengths and vulnerabilities interact with each other to determine how the couple will adopt and respond to the negative life events (Bradbury et al., 2000; Bradbury & Karney, 2004; Karney & Bradbury, 1995). However, in the present study, the existence of stressful life events also appeared as

significantly and directly related with the marital quality negatively even when the other variables were not taken into account in the statistical analysis. Consequently, it will be discussed that even though the other variables were held constant, the occurrence of stressful life events will be directly related with the women's marital quality negatively.

In relation to marital quality, findings of the present study indicated interesting results that were different from the previous literature. First, increase in the number of children appeared as having a positive influence on women's perception of marital quality. This finding contradicts the findings of previous Western research findings which emphasize a decrease in marital quality with the birth of a child and with an increase in the number of children (Belsky, et al, 1983; Belsky & Hsieh, 1998; Goldberg, et al, 1985; O'Brien & Peyton, 2002). Different from the findings of this current research, Hortaçsu's (1999) study shows that feelings of love for the spouse is not influenced by having a child or not. However, as stated by Nauck & Klaus (2004), for many families in Turkey, women get pregnant right after the marriage ceremony and children bring economic security as well as prestige and status especially to the wives. Meanwhile, children are also seen as a way to stabilize the existing marriages. On the other hand, divorce rates in Turkey (1% of population) have been still lower than many other Western countries and most of the divorce occurs in childless couples. Furthermore, Sunar & Fişek (2003) suggest that a decision to get a divorce is difficult for many women due to the stigmatization process of divorced women. Consequently, when cultural norms, practices and expectations in Turkey are taken into account, it can be said that even for educated and employed women that appeared in the sample, the existence of children has a stabilizing influence on marriages either through increasing women's

positive evaluations of their marriages in the case of having more than one child. It can be also discussed that in Turkey, being the mothers of several children will increase the status of women within the family and decrease the relative importance of marriage and marital relationships; thereby decrease the conflicts between spouses on marital issues.

The second interesting domain of findings will be discussed with respect to the impact of sociodemographic characteristics of spouses on marital quality. Even though there are still debates on their degree of influence on marital quality, in the results of previous study findings sociodemographic characteristics of couples such as age, educational level, employment status, years of marriage, household income (Barnett et al, 1994; Belsky & Hsieh, 1998; Belsky & Rovine, 1990; DeMais & Perkins, 1996; Fox, 1973, 1975; Hortaçsu, 1999a, 1999b; İmamoğlu & Yasak, 1997) as well as children's temperament (Belsky & Rovine, 1990; Isabella & Belsky, 1985; O'Brien & Peyton, 2002) were all regarded to be important factors in predicting the degree of marital quality for couples. However, in the present study, only educational level of the women and their spouses and satisfaction with job conditions variables showed significant influence on women's perceived marital quality whereas the other variables did not.

Employment status of women did not seem to influence the women's perceived marital quality in the current study. On the other hand, women who were employed but were not satisfied with their job conditions had significantly poorer marital quality than women who were satisfied with their job conditions and women who were unemployed. It can be argued that employment in satisfactory job conditions may have a positive effect on women's psychological well-being thereby increasing their adaptive processes in their marital relationships. It will also have a

positive impact on the marital relationship patterns. Furthermore, it will also be argued that a woman who is not satisfied with her job conditions but perceives her employment as obligatory in order to compensate for her husband's role as the breadwinner is more likely to have decreased marital quality.

In relation to marital quality, educational levels of women and spouses seem to have mixed results in the current study. Women who had graduated from universities received the lowest mean scores on DAS who were followed by women who were elementary or middle school graduates. Participants who were more satisfied with their marital relationships appeared to be women who received a higher degree after university, followed by women who were high school graduates. Furthermore, the results indicated significant differences with respect to spouses' educational levels on women's marital quality. More specifically, participants who had spouses with a higher degree of education after university and women whose husbands were high school graduates obtained the highest mean scores on DAS; whereas women whose husbands were elementary or middle school graduates received the lowest scores on DAS. Taken together, educational degrees received from universities, both for the participants and for their spouses, were found to be related with women's marital adjustment negatively as in the case of educational degrees received from elementary or middle schools. On the other hand, educational degrees received from high school and higher degrees of education after university have a similar positive effect on women's marital quality. However, these mixed results of the study do not allow for a coherent and logical explanation.

5.1.2 The Quality of Mothering

Nine of the 16 variables explored in this study indicated significant differences on mothering quality and existence of stressful life events variable showed a tendency to relate with mothering quality. Specifically, mother's age, spouse's age, years of marriage, satisfaction with job conditions, mother's perceived acceptance received by her own mother and satisfaction with their own mothers' mothering had significantly positive relationships with the mothering quality. On the other hand, perception of child temperament as difficult, mothers' elementary or middle school education level, location in low status neighborhoods, and the experience of stressful life event appeared to negatively influence the participant's mothering quality. Moreover, linear combinations of four variables including mothers' perceptions of the rejection they received by their own mothers, residence in low status neighborhoods, children with difficult temperaments, and unsatisfactory job conditions appeared as negative predictors of participants' mothering quality.

The impact of the mothering quality on the physiological and psychological well-being of children has been widely explored in the literature and consequently, mothers were often regarded as supernatural creatures who had all the power to shape their children's fate (Birns & Ben-Ner, 1988; Cusinato, 1994; Jackson & Mannix, 2004; Kuczynski, 2003a, 2003b). However, exploring the factors that might have an influence on the quality of mothering that mothers express to their children is a relatively new area of research (Belsky, 1984; Kuczynski, 2003a, 2003b). When the 10 variables that were found in the present study to be related with women's mothering quality are taken into account, the results of the present study further contribute to the literature to highlight the need to investigate variables that may have an impact on mothering quality.

As suggested in several theories (attachment theory, parental acceptance-rejection theory, social learning theories, etc), models of parenting (Belsky, 1984; Palkowitz, et al., 2003; Stern, 1991) and previous studies (Belsky et al., 2005; Bluestone & Tamis-LeMonda, 1999; Erickson & Egeland, 1996; Phelps et al., 1998; Simons et al., 1993) participants' childhood history of mothering revealed a significant impact on their current mothering quality. It will be important to further investigate the protective factors that will minimize the effects of negative mothering received in childhood on the current quality of mothering in order to carry out effective prevention and education practices.

In line with the previous studies (Barnett et al., 1994; Belksy, 1984; DeMais & Perkins, 1996; Voydanoff & Donnelly, 1998), participants' employment status was not found to be influencing mothering quality, but positive job experiences and/or satisfaction with job conditions appeared to positively influence the mothering quality. This pattern will be explained by Belksy's (1984) proposition that stresses the importance of satisfaction with job conditions as one of the contextual support mechanisms for effective parenting. More specifically, he proposes that satisfaction with job conditions will have a positive impact on the personality and psychological well-being of individuals and thereby lead to an increase in parental role quality.

Previous studies indicate contradicting and mixed findings with respect to the impact of educational level on the quality of parenting. Some studies indicate significant impact of educational level on parenting (Hortaçsu, 1995; Hortaçsu et al., 1991; Sayer et al., 2004) whereas others found no significant relationship between educational level and the quality of parenting (Pridham et al, 1995). Even though the current study findings indicated differences on mothering quality with respect to educational level, the most prominent differences on mothering were observed

between participants who received elementary or middle school degrees and participants who received a higher degree of education after university. In other words, mothers who were elementary or middle school graduates appeared to have the highest rejection scores on the PARQ whereas participants who had a higher degree of education than university received the lowest rejection scores on PARQ. However, educational level of the mother did not appear to predict the mothering quality in the multiple regression analysis. Consequently, the results of the current study do not allow for a coherent and logical explanation with respect to the impact of mothers' educational level on their mothering quality.

The results indicated positive relationships between mother's age and mothering quality, spouse's age and mothering quality and years of marriage and mothering quality. However, when the relatively low mean ages at marriage and first child in Turkey (Nauck & Klaus, 2004; Sunar & Fişek, 2003) as well as the families' tendency to have children within the first year of marriage (Nauck & Klaus, 2004; Hortaçsu, 1999b) are taken into account, it will be discussed that the first child of the families will receive parenting that will be lower in quality than the second or third child in Turkey.

When the predictor variables of the quality of mothering that appeared in the study are analyzed carefully, it will be discussed that negative predictors of mothering quality tend to be mostly out of mothers' control. More specifically, one predictor will be attributed to the participants' own mothers' mothering quality; two of them, namely child's attendance to low status day care centers and unsatisfactory job conditions will be attributed to contextual factors; and one of the variables will be attributed to child characteristics. As pointed out in the relevant literature, it will be discussed that it is difficult to deal with the constant needs of children if one is

overwhelmed by several life conditions. However, broad generalizations can be misleading. Yet, it will also be discussed that women who have poor social skills and negative cognitions can perceive themselves as rejected by their mothers, their children's temperament as difficult and their job conditions as unsatisfactory.

5.1.3 The Relationship between the Quality of Marital Relationship and Mothering Quality

It appeared in this study that as the mothers' perception of marital quality increased, their mothering quality also increased. The results indicated a spillover mechanism between women's perceived marital quality and their mothering quality. However, it should be noted that the strength of the correlation was weak and less than the previous research findings (Belsky & Fearon, 2004; Erel & Burman, 1995; Krishnakumar & Buehler). Meanwhile, when the number of variables that were found to be related to marital relationship quality and mothering quality are taken into account, it will be discussed that even this weak correlation coefficient is important in pointing out the relationships between marriage and mothering in a Turkish sample.

In this study, only 59.5% of the sample appeared to be supporting spillover hypothesis and having positive relationships with quality of mothering and marital relationship (i.e. good marital quality/good mothering quality and poor marital quality/poor mothering quality). Meanwhile, 20.5% of the sample in the study was distributed in the good marriage/poor mothering group whereas only 7% percent of the sample appeared in that group in Belsky & Fearon's (2004) study. This distribution will be partly explained by the limitations of the current study. First neither PARQ, nor DAS have some absolute clinical cutoff scores and all such value-

laden labeling (i.e. good mothering, poor marriage) were based on the relative standing of the participants with respect to DAS and PARQ sample mean scores. Second, it would have been more appropriate to discriminate groups after the participants who obtained scores that were one standard deviation lower and above in the DAS and PARQ mean scores were separated. However, sample size and distribution of the sample with respect to the study variables did not allow for such a method in the statistical analyses. Thus, participants' distribution to the DASPARQ groups might have been influenced by the sample characteristics, sample size and or the excessive numbers of variables that were investigated with respect to the relationships between marriage and mothering.

Even though there were limitations in the study in terms of distributing the sample on DASPARQ groups, the distribution of the sample according to DASPARQ groups yielded significant differences with respect to five variables. These variables were the participants' childhood history of mothering they received in the family of origin, their satisfaction with job conditions, existence of stressful life events, and spouse's age. Furthermore, educational level of the mother and spouse, availability of support for childcare, employment status of the mother, perception of child temperament variables indicated some variances in the distribution of the sample to the DASPARQ groups. Mothers who (a) were employed, (b) were satisfied with job conditions, (c) did not experience any stressful life event, (d) perceived acceptance by their own mothers, (e) were satisfied with their own mother's mothering they received in their childhood, (f) were high school graduates or those mothers who received a higher degree of education after university, (g) whose spouses were high school graduates or whose spouses received a higher degree of education after university, (h) perceived spousal support for

childcare, and (i) perceived their children as easy or neither easy nor difficult tended to appear either in the good marriage/good mothering group or in good mothering group instead of appearing in poor marriage/poor mothering group. It is demonstrated in the Belsky & Fearon's (2004) study that children who were experiencing both good marital relationships between their parents and good parenting would be more likely to show greater cognitive and social competencies and fewer problems than children who experience either poor marriages or poor parenting or both. Therefore, results of the current study will be used in further studies in which the relationships between marriage, parenting and child outcomes are investigated in Turkey.

5.2 Implications of the Study

The results of the current study imply (a) the relative importance of concerning the impact of four variables on the women's marital relationship quality, mothering quality and the relationship between marital and mothering quality, (b) the significant relationship between the quality of marriage and mothering and (c) the influence of several factors in determining the strength and direction of the relationships between the quality of marriage and mothering. These are discussed respectively.

In the overall results of the current study, mother's childhood history of mothering she received in the family of origin, her satisfaction with job conditions and existence of stressful life events within the previous year appeared to be influential both in her marital quality, mothering quality and in the interrelations of marriage and mothering.

In relation with the childhood history of mothering, it will be discussed that mothers who felt accepted by their own mothers and women who were satisfied with their mothers' mothering will be more likely to (a) have satisfied marital relationships, (b) accept their children and express warm and affectionate mothering, and (c) be in family environments where mutual love and warmth is observed among family members. Even in the case of conflictual marriages, they will be more likely to be effective mothers for their children. On the other hand, those women who felt rejected by their own mothers and who were dissatisfied with their mothers' mothering will be more likely to have conflictual marriages and mother-child relationships. Consequently, emotional tone in their families will be negatively influenced.

As will be expected, the occurrence of stressful life events appeared as a significant negative factor that influence marital relationship, mothering and family environment. It will be argued that individual's psychological wellbeing is negatively affected by negative life events while her psychological need for support and love increases. Consequently, her life satisfaction, marital satisfaction, parenting satisfaction will decrease. Meanwhile, she will be more likely to express a form of rejection to her child. Finally, she will have a family in which she can not be satisfied either with her marital relationship or mothering experience. This will further decrease her coping skills in order to overcome the negative effects of stressful life events.

Employment status of the mothers did not turn out to be related to the quality of marriage and mothering. However, the percentage of employed mothers who were assigned to the good marriage/good mothering group (40%) exceeded the percentage of unemployed mothers that appeared in the same group. Furthermore, the

woman's satisfaction with her job conditions was significantly related positively both with her marital relationship, her mothering behaviors and her distribution to the DASPARQ groups. Consequently, in contrast with some of the previous research findings, it can be argued that to be employed has positive impacts on woman's psychological well-being, personal worth and self-esteem which will in turn lead to positive consequences for her relationships with their spouses and children. On the other hand, it will be concluded that negative job conditions decreases women's psychological well-being and makes women more vulnerable in their relationships with their spouses and children.

A significant positive relationship appeared between the quality of marriage and mothering. Consequently, the results of the study implied the necessity to evaluate marital relationships even when working with children and their mothers. Furthermore, as the results of the current study implied, several factors can be influential in predicting the direction and strength of the relationship between the quality of marriage and mothering. When the literature on the relationship between marriage, parenting and child development is taken into account, it can be concluded that interventions and preventive strategies with regards to children's empowerment can emphasize several factors such as parents' childhood history of parenting and current marital relationships between parents, children's temperament and contextual factors of support and stress.

5.2.1 Clinical Implications

In the evaluation of marital relationships, mother-child relationships and family evaluations, psychiatrists, psychologists and psychological counselors should consider the impacts of several variables. Especially, women's relationships with

their own mothers should be an important evaluation criterion. Erickson & Egeland (1996) argue that in the case of rejecting parents, a loving and supportive adult during childhood, a supportive partner during adulthood and/or therapeutic intervention may help individuals break the cycles of intergenerational transmission of negative parenting practices and relational patterns. Consequently, instead of directly intervening on the symptoms of marriage, mothering or both, clinicians may first help individuals overcome the effects of negative parenting experiences on interpersonal relationships.

Furthermore, it is demonstrated in the current study findings that contextual sources of stress, including experiencing stressful life events and/or unsatisfactory job conditions would lead to negative impacts on women's relationships with their spouses and children which may further negatively influence their coping skills. Therefore, in order to increase the positive effects of psychological interventions and decrease the amount needed for therapy and/or counseling, clinicians should carefully examine the occurrence of contextual sources of stress.

5.2.2 Educational Implications

Women should be educated about the effective mothering behaviors regardless of their formal educational levels, since their mothering practices will have a significant effect on their children's future relationships. However, it should also be noted here that stigmatizing or blaming mothers with respect to their mothering practices will neither be constructive nor fair. Several factors may be affecting a woman's mothering behaviors. Therefore, attention should also be given to the context of mothering and family before an intervention and/or educational policy is planned.

It is important to note here that participants of the study were the mothers whose child attends a day care center. Their warmth scores were higher and rejection scores were lower than the participants of the previous studies conducted by using PARQ. Mothers' efforts in sending their children to day care centers will be attributed to their concern for their children's psychological and educational development at first hand. On the other hand, it will be also argued that mothers whose children attend a daycare center can benefit from the educational processes during their children's attendance to day care centers. Consequently, it will be worthwhile to recognize day care centers' contribution to the quality of mothering.

5.3 Limitations and Recommendations for Further Research

The limitations of the current study are discussed with respect to three dimensions: (a) sample characteristics, (b) questionnaires of the study, and (c) the variables included in the study.

In terms of sample characteristics, it should be noted that a majority of the women included in the current study had graduated from universities. Women who had elementary or middle school degrees were underrepresented in the current study. Most of the women in the current study were employed full-time. Most of the mothers were recruited from Kadıköy Municipality day care centers, yet Kadıköy is often regarded as one of the high or middle SES neighborhoods of İstanbul. Sample's mean age at marriage and first child, both for mothers and spouses were somewhat higher than the populations mean ages. Majority of the families had only one child which is less than the general population. The sample of this study consisted of mothers whose children attended day care centers, yet attendance rates to the day care centers in Turkey are not as high as represented in this sample. Mothers who

have a child between the ages of 3 to 6, who were in their first marriages, who lived in intact families were used as the sample of the study. However, there are several different types of families, who have older children, separated or divorced households, etc. Consequently, given the significant results of the present study, further research should be conducted on the current topic with different sample populations.

During data collection, it was observed that mothers who had graduated from elementary or middle schools had difficulties in understanding the items of DAS and PARQ. Thus, in order to investigate the current topic, it will be more appropriate to use different methods (i.e. observational studies, interviews, etc.) than self report instruments with these low educated groups.

Perception of child temperament item that was assessed by the Mother Information Form was a three point likert type; therefore mothers frequently respond to “neither easy nor difficult” option. This item should be changed to two point or four point likert type.

PARQ-Mother form assesses the mothers’ perception of their mothering behaviors. However, there will be discrepancies between the perceived and observed behaviors. Furthermore, since mothering is a dyadic activity which includes child and mother, children can also be asked to evaluate their mothers’ mothering. The same is true with marriage which is also a dyadic activity. Thus, spouse perception of marital quality and other individuals’ observations can also be assessed in further studies.

Even though more than 16 variables were included in this study, there are certainly other variables that can be included. For example, one of those variables can be the mother’s psychological well-being which was frequently referred to in the

current literature review regarding its influence on the marital relationship, mothering and their interrelations. With respect to childhood history of relationships, participants were asked to evaluate only their mothers' mothering and significant influences of childhood mothering experiences revealed with respect to the quality of mothering, marital relationships and their interrelations. Yet, participants' relationships with their own fathers and marital relationships of parents that were observed throughout childhood years can also be explored with respect to the quality of current parenting and marital relationships. Meanwhile, the sample size can also be increased in order to recruit sufficient number of participants for the dimensions of each variable.

This study mainly explored three broad areas of inquiry, namely quality of marital relationships, quality of mothering and their interrelations by focusing on 17 variables for each domain. When the (a) paucity of theories explaining the quality of marriage, mothering and their interrelations, (b) lack of consensus in the basic constructs and determinants revealed in the literature on each topic, (c) limited information about those topics in Turkey, and (d) significant results revealed in the study are taken into account, it can be concluded that this study highlighted the need for considering several variables in order to understand the marital relationship quality, mothering quality and the relationship between marriage and mothering. This study also pointed out the importance of recognizing marital relationship quality as a factor concerning parenting quality.

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APPENDIX A

Mother Information Form

Tarih:.....
Okul:.....

Sayın Veli,

Bu araştırma Boğaziçi Üniversitesi, Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışmanlık Bölümü'nde yüksek lisans tezi olarak yapılmaktadır. Araştırmanın amacı, annenin evliliğinin, çocuğuyla olan ilişkisine etkisini incelemektir. Sizin ve diğer velilerin bu

sorulara vereceği cevaplar, uzmanların annelerin çocuklarıyla ilişkilerini daha iyi anlamasına ve anne-babalara daha iyi yol gösterebilmelerine yardımcı olacaktır.

Araştırmanın amacı, tek tek kişiler hakkında yorum yapmak değildir. Bu yüzden doldurduğunuz kitapçığa isminizi yazmanız istenmemektedir. Vereceğiniz cevaplar tamamen gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırma amaçlı kullanılacaktır.

Kitapçıktaki hiçbir sorunun doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur. Sorulara vereceğiniz cevaplarda sizin algı ve düşünceleriniz önemlidir. Bu yüzden araştırmaya katılmayı kabul etmeniz halinde, sorulara samimi cevaplar vermeniz beklenmektedir.

Araştırmanın amacı doğrultusunda, araştırmaya katılacak olan annelerin ve eşlerinin, ilk evliliklerinin olması ve karı-kocanın aynı evde birlikte yaşamaları gerekmektedir. Dolayısıyla, elinizdeki kitapçıktaki diğer sorulara geçmeden önce aşağıdaki soruların yanıtlanması gerekmektedir.

1. Evlilik durumunuz (*a ve b şıklarından biri sizin için doğru değilse, araştırmanın sorularını cevaplamayı bırakabilirsiniz*)
 - a. () Resmi nikahla evli ve kocasıyla yaşıyor.
 - b. () İmam nikahıyla evli ve kocasıyla yaşıyor.
 - c. () Boşanmış
 - d. () Dul
 - e. () Boşanmamış, ayrı yaşıyor
 - f. () Diğer (Belirtiniz).....
2. Şu anda sürdürdüğünüz sizin ilk evliliğiniz mi? (*Yanıtınız hayır ise araştırmanın sorularını cevaplamayı bırakabilirsiniz*)
 - a. () Evet
 - b. () Hayır
3. Eşinizin ilk evliliği mi? (*Yanıtınız hayır ise araştırmanın sorularını cevaplamayı bırakabilirsiniz*)
 - a. () Evet
 - b. () Hayır

İlk evliliğinizse, eşinizin ilk evliliğiyseniz, eşinizle birlikte aynı evde yaşıyorsanız ve araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ederseniz elinizdeki kitapçıktaki soruları yanıtlamaya başlayabilirsiniz. Elinizdeki kitapçıkta bir bilgi formu, iki adet test bulunmaktadır. Testlerden biri eşinizle ilişkiniz, diğeri çocuğunuzla ilişkiniz hakkındadır.

Yardımlarınız ve zaman ayırdığınız için şimdiden teşekkürler...

SEÇİL ÇELİK ÖZBEKLİK

ANNE BİLGİ FORMU

1. Doğum tarihiniz:.....
2. Eğitiminiz (*mezun olduğunuz son okul*)
 - 1.() İlkokul
 - 2.() Ortaokul
 - 3.() Lise veya dengi okul
 - 4.() Üniversite ya da yüksek okul
 - 5.() Yüksek lisans veya üstü

- 6.()Diğer (belirtiniz).....
3. Çalışma durumunuz:
1.()Çalışmıyor (*Çalışmıyorsanız 5. soruya geçiniz*)
2.()Yarım gün çalışıyor 3.()Tam gün çalışıyor
4.()Diğer (Belirtiniz).....
4. Çalışma şartlarınızdan memnun musunuz?
1.()Evet 2.()Hayır
5. Evlendiğiniz yıl:.....
6. Eşinizin doğum tarihi:.....
7. Eşinizin eğitimi:
1.()İlkokul 2.()Ortaokul 3.()Lise veya dengi okul
4.()Üniversite ya da yüksek okul 5.()Yüksek lisans veya üstü
6.()Diğer (belirtiniz).....
8. Eşinizin çalışma durumu:
1.()Çalışmıyor 2.()Yarım gün çalışıyor 3.()Tam gün çalışıyor
4.()Diğer (Belirtiniz).....
9. Çocuklarınızın bakımıyla ve yetiştirilmesiyle ilgili eşinizden yardım alırmısınız?
1.()Hayır
2.()Evet (Hangi konuda/konularda yardım aldığınızı belirtiniz).....
.....
.....
10. Çocuk ya da çocuklarınızın:
- | | <u>Doğum tarihi</u> | <u>Cinsiyeti</u> |
|----|---------------------|------------------|
| 1. | | Kız / Erkek |
| 2. | | Kız / Erkek |
| 3. | | Kız / Erkek |
| 4. | | Kız / Erkek |
11. Bazı çocuklar büyütülmesi ve bakılması özellikle “zor” ya da özellikle “kolay” olarak değerlendirilirler. Bu yuvadaki çocuğunuzu siz nasıl değerlendirirsiniz?
1.()Zor 2.()Kolay 3.()Ne çok zor, ne çok kolay
12. Evde karı-koca ve çocuklar dışında devamlı sizinle yaşayan kişiler var mı?
1.()Hayır
2.()Evet
1.() Annem ve/veya Babam 2.() Eşimin anne ve/veya babası
3.() Kardeş veya kardeşlerim 4.()Eşimin kardeş veya kardeşleri
5.() Diğer (belirtiniz).....

13. Çocuklarınızın bakımıyla ve yetiştirilmesiyle ilgili size sürekli/hergün yardımcı olan biri ya da birileri var mı? (örneğin: anne, kayınvalide, akrabalar, bakıcı, vs.)

1.() Hayır 2.() Evet(Belirtiniz).....

14. Son bir sene içinde aileniz için çok önemli bir değişiklik yaşandı mı? (Birden fazla şıkkı işaretleyebilirsiniz)

1.()Hayır

2.()Evet

1.()Maddi sıkıntılar (Belirtiniz).....

2.()Hastalık (Belirtiniz).....

3.()Ölüm (Belirtiniz).....

4.()Diğer (Belirtiniz).....

15. Kendi annenizle çocukluğunuzda yaşadığınız ilişkiyi aşağıdakilerden hangisi en iyi anlatır? (Sadece bir şıkkı işaretleyiniz)

1.()Annem tarafından sevildiğimi ve annemin bana değer verdiğini hissederdim

2.()Annemden sözel ve/veya fiziksel olarak şiddet görürdüm

3.()Annem fiziksel ve/veya duygusal ihtiyaçlarımla ilgilenmezdi.

4.()Annemin benimle ilgilenmediğini, beni sevmediğini ve/veya bana değer vermediğini hissederdim.

5.()Diğer (Belirtiniz).....

16. Her şeyi düşünerek değerlendirdiğinizde, annenizle çocukluğunuzda yaşadığınız ilişkinin sizi tatmin eden, doyurucu bir ilişki olduğunu söyleyebilir misiniz?

1.()Evet

2.()Hayır

APPENDIX B

Dyadic Adjustment Scale

(DAS)

Eşler Arası Uyum Ölçeği*

Aşağıda eşler hakkında bazı cümleler bulunmaktadır. Size uyan seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Her cümle için uzun uzun düşünmeyiniz. Mümkün olduğu kadar çabuk

* Yavuz, A. A. (1995). Dyadic Adjustment Scale: A validation study with a Turkish sample. Yayımlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi. Boğaziçi Üniversitesi, İstanbul.

ve samimi cevaplar veriniz. Kararsızlığa düşerseniz, ilk aklınıza gelen seçeneği cevaplayınız. Lütfen her cümleyi cevapladığınızdan emin olunuz.

Birçok çiftin ilişkisinde fikir ayrılıkları yaşanmaktadır. Lütfen aşağıdaki cümleler hakkında eşinizle ne kadar anlaştığınızı ya da anlaşamadığınızı işaretleyin.

		Her zaman anlaşırız	Hemen her zaman anlaşırız	Arada bir anlaşamayız	Çok sık anlaşamayız	Hemen her zaman anlaşamayız	Hiçbir zaman anlaşamayız
1	Aile gelirinin idaresi						
2	Eğlenceyle ilgili konularda						
3	Dini konularda						
4	Sevgi gösterme şekillerinde						
5	Arkadaşlar						
6	Cinsel ilişkiler						
7	Toplumsal örf ve adetlerle ilgili olarak						
8	Yaşam felsefesi						
9	Kendinizin ya da eşinizin ailesiyle ilişkilerde						
10	Önemli olduğuna inanılan amaç, hedef ve diğer konularda						
11	Birlikte geçirilen zaman konusunda						
12	Çok önemli kararlar verirken						
13	Ev işlerinde						
14	Boş zaman ilgi ve uğraşlarında						
15	Mesleki kararlarda						

		Her zaman	Çoğu zaman	Yeterince	Ara sıra	Nadiren	Hiç
16	Boşanmayı ayrı yaşamayı veya ilişkinizi sonlandırmayı ne sıklıkta tartışıyor veya düşünüyorsunuz?						

17	Kavga sonrasında siz veya eşiniz ne sıklıkta evi terk eder?						
18	Size genellikle, siz ve eşiniz arasında işler ne sıklıkta yolunda gider?						
19	Eşinize içinizi döker misiniz?						
20	Evlendiğiniz (veya birlikte olduğunuz) için hiç pişmanlık duyar mısınız?						
21	Eşinizle ne sıklıkta münakaşa edersiniz?						
22	Eşinizle ne sıklıkta birbirinizi sinirlendirecek şeyler yaparsınız?						

		Her gün	Hemen her gün	Arada sırada	Nadiren	Hiç
23	Eşinizi öper misiniz?					

		Hepsi	Çoğu	Bazıları	Çok azı	Hiçbiri
24	Eşinizle ev dışındaki meraklarınızın ne kadarını birlikte gerçekleştirirsiniz?					

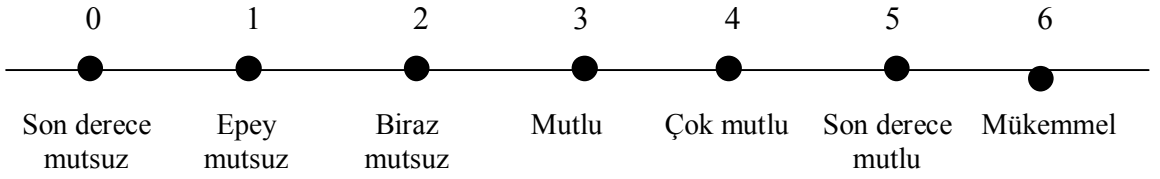
Aşağıdakilerin siz ve eşinizin arasında ne sıklıkta olduğunu söyleyebilir misiniz?

		Hiç	Ayda birden az	Ayda bir veya iki	Haftada bir veya iki	Her gün bir kere	Daha sık
25	Heyecan verici, keyifli fikir alışverişleri						
26	Berber gülme						
27	Birlikte sakin bir şekilde tartışma						
28	Bir konu üzerinde beraber çalışma						

Aşağıdakiler, çiftlerin bazen anlaşış bazen karşıt düştüğü şeylerdir. Aşağıdaki konular geçtiğimiz birkaç hafta içinde aranızda fikir ayrılığı yarattıysa veya ilişkinizde sorun haline geldiyse, bunu belirtiniz. (Evet veya Hayır olarak işaretleyiniz.)

		Evet	Hayır
29	Cinsel ilişki için fazla yorgun düşmek		
30	Sevgi göstermemek		

31. Aşağıdaki çizgi üzerindeki noktalar ilişkinizdeki değişik mutluluk derecelerini ifade etmektedir. "Mutlu" noktası çoğu ilişkideki mutluluk derecesini ifade eder. Lütfen, her şeyi düşünerek ilişkinizin mutluluk derecesini en iyi tarif eden noktayı çerçevesine bir daire çizerek gösterin.



32. Aşağıdaki cümlelerin hangisi, ilişkinizin geleceğiyle ilgili hissettiklerinizi en iyi anlatır?

- 5 İlişkimin başarılı olmasını son derece fazla istiyorum ve öyle olması için her türlü şeyi yaparım.
- 4 İlişkimin başarılı olmasını çok istiyorum ve öyle olması için elimden gelen her şeyi yaparım.
- 3 İlişkimin başarılı olmasını çok istiyorum ve öyle olması için kendi payıma düşeni gerçekleştiririm.
- 2 İlişkim başarılı olsa iyi olurdu ve başarılı olması için şimdi yaptığımdan daha fazlasını yapamam.
- 1 İlişkim başarılı olsa iyi olurdu, fakat ilişkiyi sürdürmek için şu an yaptığımdan daha iyisini yapmayı reddediyorum.
- 0 İlişkim hiçbir zaman başarılı olamaz ve ilişkiyi devam ettirmek için daha fazla yapabileceğim bir şey yok.

APPENDIX C

Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire/

Mother Form

(PARQ-Mother Form)

Anne-Çocuk İlişkileri Formu *

* Ronald P. Rohner, 1989, 1997; Çeviri: M. Anjel & F. Erkman, 1993; Düzeltmeler: F. Erkman, 2002.

İlişikteki sayfalarda annenin çocuğuna karşı çeşitli davranış şekillerini içeren ifadeler verilmiştir. Her ifadeyi dikkatle okuyup, sizin bu yuvadaki, 3-6 yaş arasındaki çocuğunuza karşı olan davranışınıza ne derece uyduğunu düşününüz. Hızlı çalışınız. İlk aklınıza gelen düşünceye göre yanıtlayınız ve bir sonraki ifadeye geçiniz. Hiçbir ifade üzerinde çok zaman harcamayınız. Fazla zaman kaybetmeden ilk düşüncenizi kaydediniz.

Her cümlemin yanında dört tane kutu var. Eğer ifade, sizin çocuğunuza karşı davranışınız hakkında temelde doğru ise, kendinize sorun; “Hemen hemen her zaman mı doğru?” yoksa “Bazen mi doğru?”. Eğer çocuğunuza karşı hemen hemen her zaman böyle davrandığınızı düşünüyorsanız, HEMEN HEMEN HER ZAMAN DOĞRU kutusuna, bazen böyle davrandığınızı düşünüyorsanız BAZEN DOĞRU kutusuna X işareti koyun.

Eğer cümle sizin çocuğunuza karşı davranışınızı doğru olarak anlatmıyorsa, ona karşı davranışlarınıza temelde uymuyorsa, o zaman kendi kendinize sorun; “Nadiren mi doğru?” yoksa “Hemen hemen hiçbir zaman doğru değil mi?”. Eğer çocuğunuza karşı nadiren böyle davranıyorsanız, “NADİREN DOĞRU” kutusuna, eğer hiçbir zaman böyle davranmıyorsanız “HEMEN HEMEN HİÇ BİR ZAMAN” kutusuna X işareti koyun.

Unutmayın, doğru ya da yanlış bir yanıt yoktur. Onun için mümkün olduğu kadar dürüst ve açık olun. Cevaplarınızı nasıl olmak isteyebileceğinize göre değil, gerçekte nasıl olduğunuzu hissediyorsanız ona göre verin.

Örnek: Eğer çocuğunuz iyi davrandığında hemen hemen her zaman ona sarılıyor ve onu öpüyorsanız, o zaman ifadeyi aşağıdaki gibi işaretlemelisiniz.

	BENİM İÇİN DOĞRU		BENİM İÇİN DOĞRU DEĞİL	
	Hemen hemen her zaman doğru	Bazen doğru	Nadiren Doğru	Hemen hemen hiçbir zaman doğru değil
Çocuğum iyi davrandığında ona sarılır ve öperim.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

BENİM İÇİN DOĞRU		BENİM İÇİN DOĞRU DEĞİL	
Hemen hemen her zaman doğru	Bazen doğru	Nadiren Doğru	Hemen hemen hiçbir zaman

dođru deđil

- | | | | | | |
|----|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1 | Ben ocuđum hakkında gzel
Őeyler Őoylerim. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2 | ocuđum kt davrandıđında ona
Őoylenir veya onu cezalandırırım. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3 | ocuđuma sanki orada yokmuŐ
gibi davranırım. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4 | ocuđumu gerekten sevip
sevmediđimden Őphe ediyorum. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5 | Gndelik genel yapılacakları
ocuđum ile konuŐur ve
Őyleyeceklerini dinlerim. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6 | ocuđum beni dinlemediđi zaman
ocuđumu baŐkalarına Őikayet
ederim. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7 | ocuđumla yakından ilgilenirim. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8 | ArkadaŐlarımı eve getirmesi iin
ocuđumu cesaretlendiririm ve
onların iyi vakit geirmesi iin
elimden geleni yaparım. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9 | ocuđumla alay ederim | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 10 | Beni rahatsız etmediđi srece
ocuđumun varlıđını bilmezlikten
gelirim. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 11 | Kızgın olduđum zaman ocuđuma
bađırırım. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 12 | ocuđumun bana aılabilmesini
kolaylaŐtırırım. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 13 | ocuđuma karŐı sertimdir. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 14 | ocuđumun etrafımda
olmasından hoŐlanırım. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 15 | ocuđum bir Őeyi iyi yaptıđında
kendisi ile gurur duymasını
sađlarım. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

BENİM İİN DOĐRU

**BENİM İİN DOĐRU
DEĐİL**

		Hemen hemen her zaman dođru	Bazen dođru	Nadiren Dođru	Hemen hemen hiçbir zaman dođru deđil
16	Haketmediđi zaman bile çocuđuma vururum.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17	Çocuđum için yapmam gereken şeyleri unuturum.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18	Çocuđum benim için bir yüküdür.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19	Çocuđumu başkalarına överim.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20	Kızgın olduđum zaman çocuđumu cezalandırırım.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21	Çocuđumun sađlıklı ve dođru yiyecekleri yemesine çok dikkat ederim.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22	Çocuđumla şefkat ve sevgi dolu konuşurum.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23	Çocuđuma karşı çok sabırsızım.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24	Çocuđumun sorularına cevap veremeyecek kadar meşgulüm.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25	Çocuđuma içerliyorum.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26	Çocuđumu hak ettiđi zaman överim.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27	Çocuđum sinirime dokunur.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28	Çocuđumun kimlerle arkadaşlık ettiđi ile ilgilenirim.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29	Çocuđumun hayatındaki olaylarla gerçekten ilgilenirim.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30	Çocuđumla kırııcı konuşurum.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31	Çocuđum yardım istediđi zaman anlamazlıktan gelirim.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

BENİM İÇİN DOĐRU

**BENİM İÇİN DOĐRU
DEĐİL**

	Hemen hemen her zaman dođru	Bazen dođru	Nadiren Dođru	Hemen hemen hiçbir zaman dođru deđil
32	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
36	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
37	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
38	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
39	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
40	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
41	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
42	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
43	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
44	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
45	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

BENİM İÇİN DOĐRU

**BENİM İÇİN DOĐRU
DEĐİL**

		Hemen hemen her zaman dođru	Bazen dođru	Nadiren Dođru	Hemen hemen hiçbir zaman dođru deđil
46	Çocuđumdan Őikayet ederim.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
47	Çocuđumun grŐlerine saygı duyarım ve aıka sylemesi iin onu cesaretlendiririm.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
48	Çocuđumu olumsuz bir Őekilde baŐka ocuklarla kıyaslarım	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
49	Plan yaptığım zaman ocuđumu da gz nnde bulundururum.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
50	Benim iin uygun olmasa bile, ocuđumun nemli grdđ Őeyleri yapmasına izin veririm.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
51	Çocuđum uygunsuz davrandığı zaman onu olumsuz bir Őekilde baŐka ocuklarla karŐılaŐtırırım.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
52	Bakmaları, ilgilenmeleri iin ocuđumu baŐkalarına bırakırım. (rn: bir komŐu veya akrabaya)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
53	Çocuđuma istenmediđini hissettiririm.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
54	Çocuđumun yaptığı Őeylere ilgi duyarım.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
55	Çocuđumun canı yandıđında veya hasta olduđunda kendisini daha iyi hissetmesi iin elimden geleni yaparım.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
56	Çocuđum kt davrandığı zaman ondan utandıđımı sylerim.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
57	Çocuđuma onu sevdiđimi hissettiririm.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
58	Çocuđuma nazik ve yumuŐak davranırım.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
59	Çocuđum yanlış davrandıđında onu utandırmaya veya sulu hissettirmeye alıŐırım.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
60	Çocuđumu mutlu etmeye alıŐırım.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

