

**AN EXPLORATION OF MASCULINITY, FEMININITY,  
SEXUAL FANTASY AND MASTURBATION  
AS PREDICTORS OF MARITAL SATISFACTION**

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## **ABSTRACT**

### **AN EXPLORATION OF MASCULINITY, FEMININITY, SEXUAL FANTASY AND MASTURBATION AS PREDICTORS OF MARITAL SATISFACTION**

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The major problems that this study addressed were the identification of group differences on masculinity, femininity, monthly frequency of sexual fantasy, monthly frequency of masturbation, and marital satisfaction, as well as the investigation of which predictor variables account for a significant proportion of the criterion variables monthly frequency of sexual fantasy, monthly frequency of masturbation, and marital satisfaction. BEM Sex Roles Inventory-Short Form (BSRI-SF), Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS), , and Demographic Information Form were administered 200 married individuals. To test the hypotheses of the study, ANOVA and Stepwise Multiple Regression Analyses were conducted. Results revealed that, gender differentiated the groups on masculinity, femininity, monthly frequency of sexual fantasy, and monthly frequency of masturbation. However, no difference was found for marital satisfaction. Apart from that, gender, frequency of sexual intercourse, and age found to be the predictors of monthly frequency of sexual fantasy. Another finding was that, gender,

the belief that masturbation is not socially accepted, marital satisfaction, and femininity significantly predicted monthly frequency of masturbation. Lastly, results revealed that monthly frequency of sexual intercourse and monthly frequency of masturbation contributed to the prediction of marital satisfaction. The findings were discussed in the light of the relevant literature.

Keywords: Masculinity, Femininity, Sexual fantasy, Masturbation, Marital Satisfaction, Demographic Characteristics.

## ÖZ

### EVLİLİK DOYUMUNUN ERKEKSİLİK, KADINSILIK, CİNSEL FANTEZİ VE MASTÜRBASYON ÜZERİNDEN YORDANMASI

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Bu araştırmanın temel amacı erkeksilik, kadınsılık, cinsel fantezi sıklığı, mastürbasyon sıklığı, ve evlilik doyumu üzerinde gruplar arasında anlamlı fark olup olmadığının belirlenmesi; ayrıca cinsel fantezi sıklığı, mastürbasyon sıklığı, ve evlilik doyumu üzerindeki varyansı anlamlı bir şekilde yordayan değişkenlerin tespit edilmesidir. 200 evli katılımcıya Çiftler Uyum Ölçeği (ÇUÖ), BEM Cinsiyet Rollerini Envanteri Kısa Formu (BCRE-KF), ve Bilgi Formu uygulanmıştır. Hipotezleri test etmek için ANOVA ve regresyon analizleri kullanılmıştır. Sonuçlar cinsiyetin erkeksilik, kadınsılık, cinsel fantezi sıklığı ve mastürbasyon sıklığı üzerinde anlamlı fark yarattığını göstermiştir. Ancak evlilik doyumu için böyle bir fark bulunamamıştır. Bunun yanı sıra, cinsiyet, cinsel ilişki sıklığı ve yaşın cinsel fantezi sıklığını anlamlı bir biçimde yordadığı bulunmuştur. Ayrıca sonuçlar, cinsiyet, mastürbasyonun ayıp olduğu düşüncesi, evlilik doyumu ve kadınsılığın mastürbasyonu anlamı bir biçimde yordadığını göstermiştir. Son olarak, bu çalışmada cinsel ilişki ve mastürbasyon sıklığının evlilik doyumunu anlamlı bir biçimde yordadığı bulunmuştur.

Arařtırmadan elde edilen bulgular ilgili literatür ışığında tartıřılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Erkeksilik, Kadınsılık, Cinsel Fantezi, Mastürbasyon, Evlilik Doyumu, Demografik Özellikler.

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## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

Gender is "... the socially determined role of individual that is ascribed as a result of his or her sex" (Juni & Grimm, 1994, p. 106 ). Gender roles is defined as "...expectations about what is appropriate behavior for each sex" ( Weiten, 1997, p. 325; cited in Holt, 1998). Both girls and boys grow up with different schemas, relevant with their gender roles; which widens the variance in their ways of living, cognitions, emotions, tendencies, dyadic and sexual relationships and in many areas in their lives ( Yüksel, Kayır, Sarımurat & Tükel, 1987). According to Bem (1981), and her gender schema theory, children not only learn specific information about what is expected from their own gender and develop a schema about being a male or female, but also process every knowledge coming form the outer world, according to this schema as they get older. As a results, in time, people learn to assess behaviors and features that people possess as " masculine" and "feminine". For that reason, gender roles, is an important aspect of every social contact. Recent research pay more attention on this issue, and studies try to investigate the relationship between gender roles, commonly masculinity and femininity and different psychological, physiological and social phenomena like coping mechanisms (Patterson & Mccubbin, 1984), seeking help (Turkum, 2005), genes (Choi, 2001), delinquency (Shower et. Al, 1979), caregiving stress in Alzheimer's caregivers (Ford, Goode, Barret, Harrel & Haley, 1997). One of these research areas is the sexuality.

Changing views about masculinity, femininity and sexual behaviors have been a matter of debate for the last several decades (Lucke, 1998). There are contradicting ideas on the relationship



between gender roles and sexual behaviors. Some research found no relationship (McCabe, 1982; cited in Lucke, 1998), whereas, other like Allgeier and Fogel (1978) claim that gender roles are related with sexual behaviors. Some studies support this view, with the evidence that women with more masculine traits are more experienced in sexuality, have more sexual partners, more likely to engage in oral sex and more likely to have intercourse at an early age ( Leary & Snell, 1988). Similarly, Lucke (1998) stated that women who possess masculine features and have an egalitarian view about the role of women report having multiple partners. On the other hand, in a study (Locke, Newcomb & Goodyear, 2005) with Latino males; traditional gender roles were found to be in relation with more frequent intercourse and use of condoms.

Sexual fantasies are thought to play an important role within the scale of sexual behaviors ( Nutter & Condron, 1983). Sexual fantasy is defined as “almost any mental imagery that is sexually arousing or erotic to that individual” (Leitenberg & Henning, 1995, p.407). Studies point gender differences in the incidence and frequency of sexual fantasies (Leitenberg & Henning, 1995). For example, men reported as having more fantasies during the day than women (Ellis & Symons, 1990; Knafo & Jaffe, 1984) As an explanation, different research come to a similar argument that women and men socialised differently about sex in Western cultures (Gagnon & Simon, 1973; cited in Leitenberg & Henning, 1995) and they argue that women are taught that being aroused outside the context of a relationship is not suitable, and they should hide it even if they are aroused (Leitenberg & Henning, 1995). So, one can claim that gender roles are important in explaining the differences in the incidence and frequency of sexual fantasies between women and men.

Another sexual behavior, that attract attention within the frame of sexual behaviors, is masturbation. Masturbation is “the stimulation of one’s own genitals for sexual pleasure”( Greenberg, Bruess & Hoffner, 2004, p. 366). Studies show the commonality of masturbation ( Lauman et al, 1994; Johnson et. a, 1990; cited in Lipsith, McCann, & Goldmeier, 2003). However, gender difference is beyond discussion, in the incidence and prevalence of masturbation. According to findings of many studies, men are more likely to masturbate than women ( Arafat & Cotton, 1974; Sigusch & Schmidt, 1973;) and women who masturbate do this less frequently than men who masturbate (Sigusch & Schmidt, 1973). This difference is explained by lack of desire in women, by some researchers ( Arafat & Cotton, 1974), while; by the different socialization processes that males and females are exposed to, by many researchers ( Clark & Wiederman, 2000; Shulman & Horne, 2003). So, conformity or non-conformity in traditional gender roles can affect the incidence and frequency of masturbation, especially for women.

Marital relationship is an appropriate context to study both sexuality, since marital relationship is viewed as the only institution that sexual intercourse is formally and legally accepted, ( Donnelly, 1993) and gender roles (Juni & Grimm, 1993). Related with that both sexuality ( Christopher & Sprecher, 2000) and gender roles (Isaac & Shah, 2004) have affects on marital satisfaction which is defined as “how content a person is with his/her marital interaction” (Pill, 1990). Literature displays different evidence about the relationship between masculinity and femininity and marital satisfaction. For example, Peterson, Baucom, Elliot, and Farr (1989) claim that feminine gender roles and marital satisfaction have a positive correlation for both women and men much more than masculine gender roles. On the other hand, in another study by Juni and Grimm (1993), it was found that, for women; femininity is related to more marital satisfaction and for men; masculinity is related to

more marital satisfaction. Zvonkovic et al. (1994; cited in Rosen-Grandon, Myers, & Hattie, 2004), stated that marital satisfaction remains high in couples with traditional gender roles, only if they mutually accept to have these roles. From the point of sexuality and sexual behaviors, research indicate strong evidence in relation with marital relationship. For example, studies show that happy couples have more frequent intercourse than unhappy couples (Barnett & Nietzel, 1979). In another study, Trudel (2002) claims as a result of a survey that sexual fantasy, depending its content, contribute to marital functioning. Also in his study about masturbation and marital relationship, Betchen (1991) claimed that, preferring masturbation over sexual intercourse might result in severe marital discord.

### **1.1 Purpose of the Study**

As the literature indicated, masculinity, femininity, sexual fantasy and masturbation are the variables that somehow contribute to the nature of marital satisfaction. So, the main purpose of this study was to gain an understanding of these factors that might affect marital satisfaction. However, since it was thought that femininity, masculinity, sexual fantasy, and masturbation were the variables which are also considered within the frame of marital relationship in this study, they were also measured as the second main variables of the study. Moving from this point, in the existing study, first aim was to find out whether gender and education level make a difference on masculinity, femininity, monthly frequency of sexual fantasy, monthly frequency of masturbation, and marital satisfaction.

The study also tries to understand whether age, gender, monthly frequency of sexual intercourse, monthly frequency of masturbation, the belief that sexual fantasy is not socially accepted, the belief that masturbation is not socially accepted, and length of marriage predict

masculinity, femininity, frequency of sexual fantasy, frequency of masturbation and marital satisfaction. Finally, an aim of this study is to gather information about the incidence and frequency of sexual fantasy and masturbation; and attitudes towards these behaviors of married people.

## **1.2 Hypotheses of the Study**

The possible outcomes that the study hopes to achieve are addressed in the following research hypotheses:

1. Gender and education level make a difference between participants on masculinity.

2. Gender and education level make a difference between participants on femininity.

3. Gender and education level make a difference between participants on monthly frequency of sexual fantasy.

4. Gender and education level make a difference between participants on monthly frequency of masturbation.

5. Gender and education level make a difference between participants on marital satisfaction.

6. Gender, age, length of marriage, monthly frequency of sex, femininity, masculinity, monthly frequency of masturbation, marital satisfaction, the belief that sexual fantasy is not socially accepted, and the belief that masturbation is not socially accepted predict monthly frequency of sexual fantasy.

7. Gender, age, length of marriage, monthly frequency of sex, femininity, masculinity, monthly frequency of sexual fantasy, marital satisfaction, the belief that sexual fantasy is not socially accepted, and the belief that masturbation is not socially accepted predict monthly frequency of masturbation.

8. Gender, age, length of marriage, monthly frequency of sex, femininity, masculinity, monthly frequency of sexual fantasy, monthly frequency of masturbation, the belief that sexual fantasy is not socially accepted, and the belief that masturbation is not socially accepted predict marital satisfaction.

### **1.3 Importance of the Study**

The idea that women can and should live their sexuality as free as men do begins to be accepted by both men and women (Lucke, 1998), however, some traditional viewpoints are still valid (Lawrance, Taylor & Byers, 1996). This study can give information about the location of married non-clinical Turkish population on this scale, in the name of gender roles, masculinity and femininity. Gender roles was matter of subject in a study (Spencer& Zeiss, 1987) searching for the effect of gender roles on sexual dysfunction. It was found that, masculine typed men was more affected by pressure from the partner. In the light of these findings, it may be concluded that exploring the effect of masculinity and femininity on any components of sexuality can be valuable.

Juni and Grimm (1993) suggested that couples' gender role orientation had an affect on their personal perceptions of marital satisfaction. Likewise, similar studies displays evidence on the relation between gender roles and marital satisfaction (Langts, Sabourin, Lusster & Mathieu,1994; Peterson, Baucom, Eliot & Farr, 1989). These findings indicates the importance of investigating the bound among masculinity and femininity, and marital satisfaction in understanding the contribution of a variable related with personality to a variable related with interpersonal relations.

In couple or individual therapies, sexual fantasies and masturbation are recommended especially to individuals who have

difficulties in sexual areas (Barbach, 1975; Heiman, Lopiccolo, & Lopiccolo, 1976; McGovern, Stewart, & Lopiccolo, 1975; Zeiss, Rosen, & Zeiss, 1977; cited in Leitenberg & Henning, 1995; Barbach, 1976; Dodson, 1996; Kaplan, 1974; Lobitz & LoPiccolo, 1972; Schover & Leiblum, 1994; cited in Bridges, Lease, & Ellison, 2004). However, while talking about masturbation, some studies show that women may replace self-stimulation with a sexual partner ( Davidson & Moore, 1994; cited in Bridges, Lease, & Ellison, 2004). And this can turn into a “pursuer/distancer cycle” (Betchen, 1991) that one of the spouses pursue for sexual intercourse, and the other put distance and go towards solo masturbation, which can cause a serious marital disharmony. So this can be a markable handicap for the sexual and marital relationship between husband and wife. For that reason, it is important to find out sexual fantasy and masturbatory behaviors and attitudes towards sexual fantasy and masturbation of married people, in order to use masturbation homeworks and be aware of the risks that fantasising and masturbation may bring.

Similarly, for sexual fantasy, studies show that 31 % of men and 24 % of women feel guilty about their sexual fantasies (Zimmer et al. 1983; cited in Leitenberg & Hening, 1995). Other than that, Yarab and Alleier (1998; cited in Byers & Sandra, 2000) indicated that people in committed relationships feel jealous about the sexual fantasies of their partners. These findings can be related with the information about socialisation processes and culture specific factors explained by gender roles, previously. So, it is important to have an idea about the attitudes of people about individual sexual behaviors like sexual fantasy and masturbation in a dyadic relationship like marriage. Thus, apart from giving descriptive information about the sexual behaviors of a non-clinical married population; this study will clarify the attitudes of married people towards sexual fantasy and masturbation in relation with their gender roles.

Marital satisfaction is claimed to be related to psychological adjustment (Wood, Rhodes,& Whelan,1989). On the other hand, Kitson (1992) found that dissatisfaction in a marriage can affect the child as well as the spouses. So, one can suggest that a satisfactory marriage is important for all the components in the family system. From this point of view, one can claim that the more knowledge gathered about the factors that affect or predict marital satisfaction, the better the academicians and clinicians develop interventions for marital disharmony.

In the Turkish literature, there is a lack of studies that investigate the relationship among gender roles, sexual fantasy, masturbation and marital satisfaction . What is more, information about the relationship among these variables cannot be found in the overall psychology literature. So, this study aims to be the first to search for the relationships among these variables.

#### **1.4 Implications of the Study**

Variables about sexuality and marriage (Basat, 2004) as well as gender roles (Bharat, 2001; cited in Isaac & Shah, 2004) are affected by many social and cultural variables. For that reason, the differences between cultures needed to be considered while looking for the effects of variables related with marriage, sexuality, and gender roles ( Kayır, Yüksel & Tükel, 1987; Bharat, 2001; cited in Isaac & Shah, 2004). Thus, this study will support the literature in Turkey by helping to gain more knowledge about the interrelation among those variables.

One of the most important implications of this study is that, professionals can use the information that will be derived from the study, while applying the usual treatment procedure, for example while recommending sexual fantasy or masturbation. With this study, a cultural knowledge about these behaviors of married people as well as

attitudes towards these behaviors will be obtained. That will help to understand the place of them in marital context, so may do further research on sexual disharmony, or choose to work on the the attitudes towards sexual fantasy and masturbation, in clinical or on public platforms.

This study may increase the clinicians awareness for finding answers to questions like how the couples' personal values and feelings about issues like fantasy and masturbation in their relationship are, what roles they posses in their relationship, and how these affect their overall relationship. The study may give valuable information about the relationship among those variables, so the clinicians, especially those who are working with couples, may use this information that will be displayed by the study, while trying to understand the dynamics of the dyadic relationship, the roles of husband and wife, their attitudes and beliefs about sexual behaviors and their place in the relationship, and how these affect their level of satisfaction in the relationship.

It is crucial to investigate the variables of marital satisfaction and dissatisfaction in order to develop strategies for early intervention or get tips in order to use for increasing the functioning later in the marriage. In addition to that, understanding the relationship among these variables counted above will help to identify the dynamic of the marital relationship. The results of the study are expected to provide new information considering the factors related with marital satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Thus, a more complete picture of these factors will have a considerable importance in preventing marital discord.

It is also clear that the effect of demographic variables like age, gender, education, length of marriage, and monthly frequency of intercourse will be important not only in predicting marital satisfaction, but also in broadening the understanding on marital satisfaction, masculinity, femininity, sexual fantasy, and masturbation. Considering the limited number of studies investigating the role of demographic



variables among those variables in Turkey, the necessity for studying them in order to reach a wider knowledge, is obvious.

## **CHAPTER II**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Gender Roles: Masculinity and Femininity as Two Dimensions**

##### **2.1.1 Definitions and History of the Concept**

There are many different aspects that distinguish men from women. The most obvious differences are the biological differences. In biological differences, chromosomal diversities, differences in the body parts, different tone of voices can be counted (Bird & Melville, 1994). On the other hand, there are also differences in the features that men and women learn during the process of socialisation, since childhood (Dökmen, 2004). Moving from this point, gender can be described as “the psychological, sociological and cultural aspects of being male and female” (Bird & Melville, 1994, p.34). In other words, gender identity helps individuals to interpret the meaning of their sexes and understand what it means to be a male or female in a specific society.

Gender roles refers to “what is said or done to indicate to others, and to oneself, one’s maleness or femaleness” (Bird & Melville, 1994, p.34). Gender roles are certain behaviors that are learned by every member of a society, and are encouraged to be displayed. Since individuals are exposed to their appropriate gender roles, they identify the choices in the life and guides one’s behaviors (Bird & Melville, 1994).

Until the 1970s, masculinity and femininity were considered as a single bipolar dimension. That is, an individual was thought to be either masculine or feminine (Auster, 2000). Females were expected to

display feminine behaviors, and be at the extremes of femininity; and males were expected to display masculine behaviors and be at the extremes of masculinity. Reverse occasions were considered as deviant. However, in 1970s, it was suggested that masculinity and femininity were two discrete dimension on which a person could either be low or high (Constantinople, 1973).

At that time, Bem (1981) suggested gender schema theory. According to that, the child while growing up, learns the rules, regulations and meanings of being a men or a women in the existing society. These affect the child's developing behaviors and attitudes about his/her own gender or the gender of others. On the other hand, these information allows the child to develop a schema and process the information according to that schema. In other words, the child learns to categorise the behaviors, attitudes and features as "masculine" and "feminine". If the child is raised in a society which strongly emphasises the differences between men and women, then the child becomes an adult who evaluates the world according to his/her gender schemas. In relation with her theory, Bem developed Bem Sex Roles Inventory, which measures masculinity and femininity as two independent dimensions, on which both men and women can score. Similarly, Bem (1974), was one of the first researchers who brought the term androgynous, referring to people who are high in both masculinity and femininity.

Considering the complex nature of the gender and gender roles, it is not surprising that, there is a growing tendency to investigate the answers for questions about the appropriate behavior patterns, attitudes and personality characteristics for both women and men ( Mintz & O'Neil, 1990). It may be helpful to examine both individual and relationship factors that are related to gender roles in order to have a better understanding of the concepts masculinity and femininity.

### **2.1.2 Individual Factors Related to Masculinity and Femininity**

In this section research on the individual factors and two dimensions of gender roles; masculinity and femininity will be presented.

Masculinity and femininity has been a widely used variable in psychological well-being studies. Whitley, Jr. (1983), stated that self-esteem is the most commonly used indicator in psychological well-being studies and In his meta –analysis with 35 studies; he studied gender roles and self-esteem. Results revealed that masculinity, femininity, and the interaction of them are all positively associated with self- esteem. In other words, people who are high on these features have also high self-esteem. However, masculinity is the strongest one in this association for both sexes. On the other hand, the author argued that because of methodological concerns no causality inferences can be made. That is, it is not possible to say that masculinity causes high self-esteem. Similar results were obtained by Burnett, Anderson, & Heppner (1995) in their study with undergraduate students. According to that Individual masculinity was significantly related to self-esteem for both men and women, meaning that as masculinity gets higher, self- esteem also heightened. On the other hand, individual femininity was not significantly associated with self-esteem in neither men nor women. On the contrary, another study comparing Hispanic and non-Hispanic professional men in U.S., reached different results. According to findings, there were no correlation between masculinity and self-esteem for Hispanic men. What is more, there is a negative relationship between masculinity and self-acceptance. That is, when masculinity increases, self-acceptance of Hispanic men decreases. (Long & Martinez, 1997).

Like psychological well-being, masculinity and femininity is found to be a predictor of personality factors and coping behaviors. Lengua and Stormshak (2000), conducted a study with participants from different ethnic backgrounds. Results showed that, masculinity significantly predicts higher levels of achievement orientation, active and positive cognitive coping, and lower levels of external locus of control, avoidant coping and depression. In other words, people who are high on masculinity also have higher levels of achievement orientation, active and positive cognitive coping, and lower levels of external locus of control, avoidant coping and depression. On the other hand high score on femininity predicts higher levels of affiliation orientation and avoidant coping and lower levels of achievement orientation, active coping, antisocial behavior, and substance use. As a result, it was claimed that, neither femininity nor masculinity is positive alone. A recent study by Hirokawa, Yagi and Mayata (2004) in Japanese universities showed evidence that, masculinity was strongly correlated with active coping, meaning that people who are high on masculinity are also high in active coping.

Similarly, in a study that investigates the relationship between sex role orientation and Type A behaviour, it was found that, masculine individuals had the highest Type A scores among the other groups. Authors claim that, a strong possession of masculine gender role, without the balancing effect of feminine gender role may cause physical dysfunction in the long term ( Batlis & Small, 1982). In another study by Dohi, Yamada, and Asada (2001), with undergraduate students in Japan, results revealed that both males and females who report higher levels of masculinity also have higher levels of Type A behavior patterns. Authors suggested that this may be because Type A pattern consist of many features that are also masculine characteristics, such as aggressiveness, ambition, dominance, etc.

The literature shows evidence about the association between psychological distress and masculinity and femininity. According to the findings of Whisman and Jacobson (1989), depressed women were less masculine than non depressed women. Referring to the other studies (e.g. Baucom, 1983; cited in Whisman & Jacobson, 1989), the authors replicated that masculinity might play the role of a “buffer” against depression, as the belief that one can cope with and control the environment is a masculine tendency. Another study, in which life stress adjustment was measured longitudinally, (Roos & Cohen, 1987) indicated that masculinity was significantly negatively associated with measures of psychological distress. In detail, the relationship between negative events and trait anxiety was not existent for the participants who were high in masculinity. Meyer, Blisset, and Oldfield (2000), investigated the relation between masculinity, femininity, and eating psychopathology. According to findings, femininity was found to be highly related with eating psychopathology, however, masculinity was found to be related with relatively healthy eating patterns.

In another study, Chomak and Collins (1987) investigated the relationship between alcohol consumption and masculinity and femininity. Results revealed that gender role orientation plays the most important role in the explanation of gender differences in alcohol consumption, when compared with biological sex, as a variable in explaining gender differences in alcohol consumption. That is, gender roles was the strongest predictor of alcohol consumption rather than biological sex. In addition to that, for both sexes, higher scores on feminine gender role behavior are connected to lesser alcohol consumption and, for only men, higher scores on masculine gender role behavior are connected to more alcohol consumption. On the other hand, same results were not obtained for smoking. Hunt, Hannah, and West (2004), in their studies comparing three generations, found no relationship between masculinity, femininity, and smoking for men.

However, the strongest association between femininity and smoking was found for 1950s generation among men. That is, for 1950s generation, higher scores on femininity was related with higher levels of smoking among men.

Although masculinity and femininity are a result of process, rather than being situational traits, there is still variables that masculinity and femininity can be affected by: socialisation and parental child rearing behavior. Burger (1975), in his study examined the groups of high masculinity/low masculinity, high femininity/low femininity in relation with high socialisation/low socialisation. According to that, perceived maternal behavior was significantly important in distinguishing the groups rather than perceived paternal behavior. In this sense, maternal acceptance, autonomy vs. rejection and control distinguished between high and low socialisation groups for high masculinity group among males and, high femininity/high socialisation and low femininity/low socialisation groups among females. By looking at the results, the author argued that, considering parental behavior the signs of masculinity, femininity and socialisation patterns can be interpreted.

### **2.1.3 Relationship Factors Related To Masculinity and Femininity**

In this section research on the relationship factors and two dimensions of gender roles; masculinity and femininity will be presented.

Being a male or female affects the positions of people their relationships, too. Bernard (1972, cited in Hill, Peplau, & Rubin, 1981) claims that men and women act differently in male – female relationship as a result of his or her sex role. A support for this view comes from the study of DeLucia (1987), indicating that, there is a relationship between gender role identity and self-reported dating behavior. The author used

a self-constructed scale to measure masculine and feminine dating behaviors. The partners who report that they possess feminine role traits display feminine dating behaviors, such as giving the other compliments, socialising with the other's friends, sensing the other is disturbed about something. Similarly, the people who report that they possess masculine role traits display masculine dating behavior, such as carrying packages for the other, using swear or curse words, expressing anger when angry. .

Within dating relationship, exhibiting violence was investigated (Ray & Gold, 1996) in relation to masculinity and femininity. Higher scores on masculinity, femininity and their interaction was found to be associated with perceived psychological maltreatment by the partner. If one of the partners scored high on masculinity or femininity, this increases the occurrence of verbal abuse, as perceived by men, in a dating relationship. In addition to that, hyperfeminine, in other words extremely feminine, women perceived their partners as using some emotional and jealousy tactics. Another study (Xu Xetal, 2005) with the Chinese population shows the evidence that dependence on traditional gender roles are related to a women's probability of reporting violent acts in a dating relationship..

Like intimate relationships, sexuality is another area that masculinity and femininity play an important role. The study by Lottes (1993) showed that, although the idea that females should experience sexuality as free as males was more accepted, there are still some traditional views keeping their validity. There are two important studies that support this finding: In the study by Lucke (1998), it was stated that women who possess non-traditional gender role traits and high masculine traits use alcohol or drugs before or during sex with non-steady partners and have two or more partners in the last 12 months. Spencer and Zeiss (1987), in another study, found support to their hypothesis that men who are masculine sex-typed are more likely to



report sexual dysfunction than men who are non-masculine sex typed. Authors explained that, especially men, who has a belief on maintaining a traditional gender role by initiating sexual activity and controlling the partner, when came across with a assertive sexual behavior or sense from a women, may perceive the sexual input as a threat and this may affect sexual functioning.

Related with sexuality, MacCorquodale (1984) found that gender role attitudes were associated with contraceptive attitudes and behavior. The more the person is egalitarian, the more he/she believes that contraception should be shared. The association between having egalitarian roles and use of contraception was stronger for men. That is, men who have egalitarian role, were more likely to think that contraception should be shared. In addition to that, women with more egalitarian gender role attitudes use contraception more frequently. On the other hand, traditionally oriented men used contraception less frequently and less effectively.

Gender roles affect not only the romantic and sexual relationships, they are important in family relations. In a study by Ganong and Coleman (1987), about the expression of love among family members, it was found that sex role orientation had a significant effect on expressing the feeling of love to a family member. The study supported the suggestion that expression of feelings to a family member was related with sex role than sex of the person. According to that, androgynous members of the family has a tendency to experience and express love more often than the other groups. The authors claimed that, not being androgynous might mean not having a flexibility in the expression of feelings and this might be a disadvantage in intimate relationships. In addition to that, authors suggested that, androgynous persons in the family can strengthen the loving relationship in the family.

Communication patterns are also areas to look for the signs of gender roles. It was found that hostile masculinity, consisting of dominance to sex, attitudes accepting violence against women, and hostility towards women, desire to be controlling and dominating and possessing an insecure and defensive orientation towards women, with sexual aggression, predict domination in conversations with a female (Malamuth & Thornhill, 1994). Authors argued that, this dominance and aggression might be a kind of test for sexually aggressive men in order to assess the vulnerability of their candidates for sexuality. Another explanation was also that, men who were slightly and subtly rejected by the female whom they were speaking to, tried to gain their self-esteem by this way. From another point of view, Hirokawa, Yagi, and Miyata (2004) in their study of communication and coping skills with Japanese participants, stated that masculinity is strongly related to overall communication skills. In the same study, for females, androgynous type was found to be related to higher emotional expressivity and social expressivity than the masculine type.

Studies about masculinity and femininity are also present in Turkey. Güvenç (1996) studied gender roles in the family among university students. It was found that, females' perceptions about gender roles were more egalitarian when compared to boys. Moreover, it was reported that males' perceptions about gender roles were related to empathy and perceived emotional support in the family. Again, Güvenç (1996), in a similar study, comparing male and female university students found significant differences in relation to global self esteem and morality perception of both sexes according to their gender role perception. In another study by Dökmen (1998) results revealed that the participants perceived their own-sex more favourably than the other-sex, but this perception was more in females compared to males. There were some differences between sex-typed and nonsex-typed persons. It was found that sex-typed males perceived their own-sex more

favourably in social morality, and sex-typed females perceived other-sex more favourably in positive social relations. Dökmen (2003) also conducted a study by employed, unemployed women, and women who were selling their own products, in terms of mental health, locus of control, and gender roles. According to results, although an interrelation was obtained among mental health, locus of control, and gender roles; no difference was found in terms of gender roles of women in these three groups.

Özkan and Lajunen (2006), in their study with young drivers, found that drivers with high masculinity scores had higher perceptual-motor skills, and drivers with higher femininity scores had higher the safety skills. Similarly, Özkan and Lajunen (2005), explored the effect of masculinity and femininity on risky driving. Results revealed that, participants with higher levels of masculinity had higher frequency of aggressive violations and offences. On the other hand, participants who were high in femininity had lower frequencies of errors, violations and accidents. In another study, Koca, Aşçı, and Kirazcı (2005), compared athletes and nonathletes in terms of their gender role orientation. According to results, athletes had higher scores of masculinity than nonathletes.

## **2.2 Sexual Fantasy**

Human beings are different from other creatures in terms of their sexuality. That is, humans sexuality is non-reproductive; so, means more than the function of one's genitals (Whipple & McGreer, 1997, cited in Samelson & Hannon, 1999). From this point of view, one can agree with Leitenberg and Henning (1995) who claim that human brain is an important sexual organ, and any thought or imagery can contribute to a person's sexuality. Therefore, when physical stimulation is absent, a sexual fantasy can be arousing.

Throughout the history, the presence of sexual fantasies were a matter of debate. Freud (1963; cited in Davidson & Hoffman, 1986) claimed that sexual fantasies occur in the absence of any satisfying sexual activity, and they, in fact, reflect sexual dissatisfaction and deprivation. In addition, he believed that having sexual fantasies might result in psychosis and neurosis. On the other hand, Hariton and Singer (1974), argued that sexual fantasies are healthy and can be considered as another normal form of sexual stimulation in order to get sexual enjoyment.

As can be seen from the historical continuum , sexual fantasies, defined as “ almost any mental imagery that is sexually arousing or erotic to that individual” (Leitenberg & Henning, 1995, p.407), are considered to be an important matter of research (Leitenberg & Henning, 1995), and are thought to play an important role within the scale of sexual behaviors ( Nutter & Condrón, 1983). There are many studies (for a review see Leitenberg & Henning, 1995) searching for the nature of the sexual fantasies while looking at age differences, and, the differences in the content, context, incidence and frequency; especially across gender.

Research show that age is an important variable in understanding sexual fantasies. Pellieter and Harold (1988) found that age is a significant variable related to fantasy frequency. That is, as age increases the number of fantasies also increses. At the same time, with the increase in age, number of different types of fantasies also increase. In another study Halderman, Zelhart, and Jackson (1985), in their study with different age groups, found that with the increment in the age, participants engage less in sexual fantasies. Also, the results displayed that, when people get older, they are less likely to engage in bizarre-improbable fantasies.

In terms of the content of sexual fantasies, there are similar findings. In a study (Knafo and Jaffe, 1984) it was suggested that, the most striking difference in the kind of fantasies across gender. According to that, fantasies about force and submission were more common among women than men. Likewise, Zurbriggen and Yost (2004) claimed that men fantasize more about dominance and women fantasize more about submission. Another evidence suggests that women prefer to fantasise about the activities that they had experienced before. For example in they have masturbated before, they prefer to fantasise about that activity (Pelletier & Herold, 1988). Hicks and Leittenberg (2001) collected data on the subjects of one's sexual fantasy, and found that a large proportion of men fantasize more about someone other than their current partners. Another finding was that, individuals who had been in a relationship for a long time were more likely to fantasize about someone other than their current partners.

According to research (Leitenberg & Henning, 1995), it was suggested that people have sexual fantasies during masturbation, during sexual intercourse, or during non-sexual activities. Knaffo and Jaffe (1984), support this finding in their study and found out that both men and women fantasise not only during intercourse but also during masturbation and nonsexual activities. Similarly, in a study, (Cado and Leitenberg, 1990), 84 % of the sample with intercourse experience reported that they have sexual fantasy during sexual activity with a partner at least some of the time. In comparison to the studies above, Pelletier and Harold's data (1988) indicated that the least common fantasies occurred as frequent in sexual as in non-sexual situations. On the other hand, the most common occurred about twice as frequent in nonsexual as in sexual situations.

Although Pelleiter and Herold (1988) stated that, without considering the context, more than 95% of men and women had experienced sexual fantasy, accumulating evidence on the frequency of

sexual fantasy address the gender differences. According to the study of Person, Terestman, Myers, Goldberg, & Salvadori (1989), among college students males reported to have more sexual fantasies than females. Similarly, in a total of 60 participants (30 male, 30 female), a higher percentage of males reported that they “often or always” have sexual fantasies during masturbation or nonsexual activity (Knafo & Jaffe, 1984).

There are different explanations for the significant gender differences in the frequency of sexual fantasy. One of these explanations comes from the study of Ellis and Symons (1990), claiming that as natural selection is for the individuals who behave in order to reproduce successfully, males, easily aroused by sexual imagery for potential partners, and potential pregnancies, and females, not easily aroused and search carefully for partners who have favourable resources for the offspring, would differ on the frequency of sexual fantasies.

Another explanation for the gender differences in the frequency of sexual fantasies is that, there are differences in the socialisation process of men and women about sex (Gagnon & Simon, 1973; cited in Leitenberg & Henning, 1995). That is, there are restrictions for women in terms of sexuality. Also, it was argued that while being exposed to different norms and roles about sexuality when compared to men, women learn to hide sexual interest and arousal if it is not within the context of a relationship (Gagnon & Simon, 1973; cited in Leitenberg & Henning, 1995; Hicks & Leitenberg, 2001). An empirical support can be found in the study of Knafo and Jaffe (1984) who found a significant gender difference in the themes of sexual fantasies. Authors argued that the reason why women fantasize more about submission is because these kind of themes are representing the conformity to cultural norms that, sexuality is something “dirty” or “naughty” for

women, so if there is force within the sexual activity, the woman cannot be blamed.

### **2.3 Masturbation**

Sexuality is determined by one's physiology, anatomy, the existing culture, interrelationships, and the experiences during developmental stages (Penteado, Fonseca, Bagnoli, Assis, & Pinotti, 2003). Similarly, attitudes, especially professional attitudes, towards sexuality can be determined by the findings of contemporary psychology, and what was considered as evil, sick, and pathological can be viewed as a healthy part of human development and tried to be understood by research rather than finding cures for it (Johnson, 1968; cited in Bird & Melville, 1994). One of the sexual behaviors that was judged at the past but has been found innocent in the current literature is masturbation.

Masturbation is defined as "the stimulation of one's own genitals for sexual pleasure" (Greenberg, Bruess & Hoffner, 2004, p. 366). The most significant point, which is mostly studied and found to be striking about masturbation, is the gender difference in the incidence and frequency of masturbation. In a study by Leitenberg, Detzer, and Srebnik (1993), it was found that men reported ever having masturbated approximately two times more than women in a college population. In addition to that, among men and women who reported that they were masturbating, frequency of masturbation of men was three times more than women. Likewise, Jones and Barlow (1990) found that while 45% of men reported that they masturbate at least once in a week, only 15% of women reported the same frequency in their sample. Meanwhile, 47% of women and only 16% men reported that they have never masturbated.

Studies were conducted in order to find out the reasons for gender differences in the incidence and frequency of masturbation. Leitenberg, Detzer, and Srebnik (1993) argued that for women masturbation is not as pleasurable and acceptable as it is for men. Authors believe that, searching for sexual and physical satisfaction for its own sake is a taboo for women, and efforts for encouraging women to own their sexuality did not change the situation.

Mosher and Vonderheide (1985) went a step further and found out that, masturbatory guilt not only inhibit incidence and frequency of masturbation, but also inhibits touching and fondling of genitals, which might also result in inhibiting insertion of diaphragm for birth control. They also stated that, masturbation guilt is an important issue for female sexuality and search for the answer of whether it might also inhibit fondling by self or the partner during sexual intercourse.

Frequency of masturbation also differ both among women and among men (e.g. Shulman & Home, 2003; Brody, 2004). While searching for the reasons, Shulman and Home (2003) found a relationship between body and frequency of masturbation among women. According to this, those who had higher frequency of masturbation per month reported higher levels of body satisfaction, when compared to the participants who had lower frequency of masturbation in a sample of women. In another study , Brody (2004) stated that slimness was associated with lower frequencies of masturbation for men and for sexes combined.

There are studies which search for dysfunctional aspects of masturbation. For example, Lipsith, McCann, and Goldmeier (2003), argue that, because cognitive and behavioral components affect the conditioning to a set of sexual behaviors, masturbation dependence occurs, which may result in a sexual dysfunction. Similarly, Betchen (1991) introduced a pursuer/ distancer cycle in a marital relationship, in which male prefers masturbation over sexual intercourse and put



distance, on the other hand female looks for sexual intercourse, therefore, pursues the male. Betchen (1991) claims that this may result in a severe marital discord.

A study by Ozan, Aras, Semin, and Orcin (2005) gives information about masturbatory behaviors of Turkish medical students. According to that, while 84.4% of males, in their sixth year of medical school, reported masturbation, this rate is only 11.1% for females. In addition to that, males reported their feelings of happiness and relaxation after masturbation; whereas, few females reported their feelings.

There is a lack of study about sexual fantasy and masturbation in Turkey. However, there are studies about sexuality and sexual dysfunctions. One of these studies was conducted by Tuğrul and Kabakçı (1996), investigating the predictors of vaginismus. According to results, trait anxiety level, wives' beliefs about their husbands being "undependable", and having authoritarian and oppressive type of parents were found to be the main predictor variables of vaginismus. In another study, risk factors for male sexual dysfunction for Turkish men was investigated. Results revealed that, the risk for male sexual dysfunction was higher for men who smoke, came from lower education level, and who had chronic medical illness (Oksuz & Malhan, 2005). In order to assess sexual, psychological and hormonal changes in menopausal women, Danacı, Oruç, Adıgüzel, Yıldırım, and Aydemir (2000) conducted a study with 70 women. Findings suggested that, participants who scored higher on Beck Depression Inventory, had lower frequencies of intercourse, individuals who were high on state anxiety, had higher frequencies of painful sexual intercourse, and participants who are high on trait anxiety had lower frequencies of sexual intercourse, sexual desire, and orgasm, and higher frequencies of painful sexual intercourse.

## **2.4 Marital Satisfaction**

### **2.4.1. Definition of Marriage and Marital Satisfaction**

Marriage is defined as “A formal and durable sexual union of one or more men and one or more women, which is conducted within a set of designated rights and duties” (Lantz & Snyder, 1969, p.16). From another point of view, marriage could be seen as a both individual and social matter (Bird & Melville, 1994). Marriage is the system of obligations, duties, rights, and privileges in the eyes of the society. On the other hand, it is the way of binding the individual to a loved one with intimacy and commitment (Bird & Melville, 1994). Another definition comes from Stephens (1963; cited in Bird & Melville, 1994), suggesting that marriage is a socially accepted sexual alliance, starting with a ceremony and going on with a clear contract which guarantees the permanence.

Despite the variation in the definitions, studies agree on the idea that happiness in marriages make valuable contributions to an individual’s well-being ( Suhail & Chaudhry, 2004). Thomas (1990) in her study with 41 black dual career couples, examined the contribution of 10 aspects of life to global happiness. According to the results, marital happiness is the strongest predictor of global life satisfaction for both husbands and wives.

On the other hand, apart from the consensus on the effects of marital happiness, there is a conceptual confusion in the definition of marital satisfaction. According to Fitzpatrick ( 1988; cited in Bird & Melville, 1994). Marital satisfaction is often used to explain marital success, and refers to “ how marital partners evaluate the quality of their marriage” (Fitzpatrick, 1988; cited in Bird & Melville, 1994, p. 192). Marital satisfaction is the subjective description of whether the marriage is happy, good, or satisfying. Instead of marital satisfaction marital

happiness, marital adjustment, or marital quality is also used (Bird & Melville, 1994). In this sense, White (2003) and Kamo (2001) argued using that marital satisfaction, marital happiness, marital adjustment and marital quality is not a serious mistake, because these concepts are highly correlated with each other and also they were found to have similar relationships with the same variables.

The process that the marriages go through and become satisfactory or dissatisfactory have been a matter of research. Karney and Bradbury (1995), in order to understand about the quality and stability of marriages, examined 115 longitudinal studies on marriages and the existing theories . At the end they ended up with a model that they used to understand marital development. According to the model, there are three major variables which seem essential: stressful events, enduring vulnerabilities, and the adaptive processes. Couples should adapt to various stressful life events that they meet throughout their lives. In the adaptation process, degree of the stressful events and the enduring vulnerabilities that each partner carried to the marital relationship are important variables. The model suggests that the adaptation processes affect the spouses' perceptions about the quality of their marriage. What is more, when the spouses carry few enduring vulnerabilities to the marriage, experience few stressful events, and use effective adaptation strategies, they would have more satisfying and happier marriages.

As a results, as Bird and Melville (1994) argued, if variables that are crucial for a satisfying, successful and happy marriage is defined, it would be possible to change the dissatisfactory ones. So, it is important to understand individual or relationship factors that contribute to marital satisfaction.

## 2.4.2 Individual Factors Related to Marital Satisfaction

In this section studies on the marital satisfaction and individual factors that were measured as variables will be presented.

One of the factors, investigated by the researchers, is the relationship between attachment and marital satisfaction. Kobak and Hazan (1991) studied working models of attachment, that is the mental representations of the self and the other in a relationship, in marital context. According to that, when partners agree on the working models, and when one partner accommodate the other partner's working model, it influences the relationship satisfaction. What is more, both husbands' and wives' perceived availability of their spouses was significantly associated with the self-reported relationship satisfaction. In another study by Feeney (2002) with 193 married couples and using both questionnaires and diaries, it was found that, secure attachment is linked with greater marital satisfaction. On the other hand, Meyers and Landsberger (2002) in their study searched for the mediating factors between attachment styles and marital satisfaction. Results indicate that, secure attachment is significantly and positively associated with marital satisfaction, but avoident and ambivalent attachment is significantly and negatively associated with marital satisfaction. However, psychological distress mediated the relationship between secure attachment and marital satisfaction, and social support mediated the association between avoidant attachment and marital satisfaction.

Like being a mediator, psychological distress and individual psychopathologies are also related with marital satisfaction. Snyder and Regts (1990) stated that scale 4, psychopathic deviance, in MMPI was found to be the best single predictor of marital dysfunction. In addition to that, the authors suggest that although cause-effect relations cannot be derived from their data, it can be hypothesised that "poor impulse control, hypersensitivity to criticism, exaggerated self-appraisal, history

of impaired interpersonal relationship, or experience of overt psychotic symptomology” may affect marital functioning. Similarly, Shek (1994), studied with 1,501 married Chinese couples, and compared less martially maladjusted and more martially maladjusted couples. According to that, those who showed more signs of marital maladjustment showed more psychiatric symptoms on a general health index.

Another study about the relation between psychopathology and marital satisfaction by Basco et al. (1992) compared depressed couples with control couples, and the results showed that depressed couples reported greater marital dissatisfaction than the control group. Similarly, Whisman, Uebelacker, and Weinstock (2004), in their study, measured both partners' level of anxiety and depression and their level of marital satisfaction. Results revealed that a person's own level of depression and anxiety was related with that person's own level of marital satisfaction. That is, greater the psychopathology the lower the level of marital satisfaction. Another indication of this study was that the association between psychopathology and the level of marital satisfaction was generally similar for women and men. In other words, the degree of association between marital satisfaction and psychopathology of wives did not differ from the degree of association between marital satisfaction and psychopathology of husbands.

There are studies about the relation between personality factors marital satisfaction. Gattis, Berns, Simpson, and Christensen (2004) looked for the relationship between six personality dimensions (Big Five personality factors and positive expressivity) and marital satisfaction by comparing 132 distressed and 48 nondistressed couples. According to the results, higher neuroticism, lower agreeableness, lower conscientiousness, and less positive expressivity are tied to marital dissatisfaction. However, the magnitude of the effects were small, and partner similarity on the variables were weak, indicating that there was

no strong evidence supporting the idea that mismatch on the fundamental personality factors is a good predictor of marital dissatisfaction. On the other hand, Blum and Mehrabian (1999) displayed a contrary finding in their study with 166 married couples. They assessed their participants on Pleasantness-Arousal-Dominance scales and their relation with marital satisfaction. Results indicated that participants with more pleasant and more dominant temperaments and those who have spouses with more pleasant temperament, were happier in their marriages. Also, as pleasantness was considered as a general index for psychological adjustment, the participants who are well adjusted and who has well adjusted spouses were happier in their marriages.

The relation between personality factors and marital satisfaction was also examined by Rogge, Bradbury, Hahlweg, Engl, Thurmaier (2006). The authors collected data on the contribution of hostility, neuroticism, and communication to marital functioning after 5 years of marriage. The results revealed that only hostility and neuroticism predicted marital satisfaction after 18 months. It was suggested that these factors had effects on the rapid and early declines in marital functioning, rather than communication itself, and while developing models for intervention, a wide range of behavioral variables should be taken into account in addition to communication problems.

Religiosity was studied in relation to marital satisfaction by researchers. In a study by Filsinger and Wilson (1984), religiosity was found to be the most important predictor of marital satisfaction. It was stated that, if the religiosity is greater, marital satisfaction is higher. As an explanation the authors claim that, religion may be seen as a resource of strength and vigour for the relationship and if marital adjustment is a process of adaptation, religiosity may help to accelerate that adaptation. In another study by Call and Heaton (1997), different dimensions of religiosity were assessed for their contribution to marital

stability. Results revealed that, among all the factors frequency of attendance to church was found to make the most significant effect on marital stability. Authors suggested that, sameness in religious attendance increases the couple's solidarity and that contributes to the marital stability. In a study from Turkey was conducted by Hünler and Gençöz (2005), with 92 married couples, it was found that religiousness is significantly associated with marital satisfaction. In other words, individuals who were high on religiousness, consisting of religious beliefs, religious behaviors, and religious feelings, had also higher levels of marital satisfactions.

### **2.4.3. Relationship Factors Related to Marital Satisfaction**

In this section, studies on the marital satisfaction and relationship factors that were measured as variables will be presented.

Intimacy was found to be correlated with marital satisfaction in some studies. Greeff and Malherbe (2001) in their study with 57 couples worked on the five aspects of experienced intimacy; which were sexual intimacy, recreational intimacy, emotional intimacy, intellectual intimacy, and social intimacy. Results revealed that, except from the social intimacy, experienced by women, all the other aspects of intimacy were positively correlated with marital satisfaction for both sexes. However, different results were obtained by Volsky (1998; cited in Basat, 2004). According to that, recreational and emotional intimacy predicted marital satisfaction for women, on the other hand, sexual and emotional intimacy predicted marital satisfaction for men.

The role of communication was a matter of debate in many research. Burlison and Denton (1997), explored the relationship between communication skills and marital satisfaction with 30 distressed and 30 non-distressed couples. According to the results, communication skills and marital satisfaction was positively associated

for non-distressed couples, however, negatively associated for distressed couples. In another study, Vangelisti and Banski (1993), searched for the association between debriefing of the day to the other spouse and relationships satisfaction. Results revealed that, there was a positive association between the amount of time that spouses spend to summarise the day and their relationship satisfaction.

In terms of the quality of communication, Montgomery (1981) suggested a connection between the concept of quality of communication and marital satisfaction. Quality of communication was defined as “ the interpersonal, transactional, symbolic process by which marriage partners achieve and maintain understanding of each other” (Montgomery, 1981). Openness, confirmation, transaction management, and situational adaptability were set of behaviors which contribute to quality of communication. The author suggested that, this model was an interactional one. That is, as the couple use quality communication, their relationship will improve. As the relationship improves, they will be motivated to use quality of communication.

Emotional skilfulness, ability to identify and communicate emotions, which can be considered as a form of communication was studied by Cordova, Gee, and Warren (2005) in relation to marital satisfaction. The results of the study suggested that, emotional skilfulness was associated with both own and the partner’s marital satisfaction. However, further analysis showed that although husbands’ emotional skilfulness was significantly related to their wives’ marital adjustment, wives’s emotional skilfulness was not significantly related to their husbands’ marital adjustment. The authors argued that this was because of the difference between men and women. That is, talking about feelings was an important aspect of women’s socialisation than men’s socialisation. A similar study by Yelsma and Marrow (2003) looked for the relation between emotional expressiveness and marital satisfaction. Results showed that the difficulty in expressing one’s



emotions affected both own and spouses marital satisfaction. Authors suggested that if one of the spouses' emotional expressiveness was lower than the other spouse their marital satisfaction will be negatively influenced.

As another extension of communication, conflict management was an important variable in marital satisfaction studies. Greeff and Bruyne (2000) studied the relationship between conflict management style and marital satisfaction. Evidence has accumulated which suggest that collaborative conflict management style displayed the highest level of marital satisfaction for both husbands and wives. On the other hand, when one or both of the couples use competitive conflict management style, the lowest level of marital satisfaction scores were obtained. The relationship between conflict resolution and marital satisfaction was also studied by Schneewind and Gerhard (2002) as conflict resolution being a mediator between personality traits and marital satisfaction. It was found that, conflict resolution styles became the strongest predictor of marital satisfaction over time. Also, it was argued that, the conflict management styles appear in the first year of marriage and then settled. Another finding was that, relationships personality variables were bound to conflict management styles, which then affected marital satisfaction. A study from Turkey displayed similar findings. According to the results of the study by Hünler (2002), couples ability to solve problems predict their level of marital satisfaction. That is, being able to solve problems in the marital relationship contributes to the couple's satisfaction, as helping for mutual decisions, being sensitive to each others' needs (Scanzoni, 1995; cited in Hünler & Gençöz, 2003).

The role of social support was also studied by marital researchers. Dehle, Larsen, and Landers (2001) assessed perceived adequacy of social support with married individuals of a collage sample. Results indicated that, perceived adequacy of social support was correlated with and account for the variance in marital quality. Another

study examined the role of social support from the point of long term marital success. Results revealed that, among three domains of social support (relationship-specific support, affective overlap, and general personal support), relationship-specific support displayed the strongest association with marital success, for both husbands and wives. Moreover, relationship-specific social support predicted a positive change in marital success over time, for both husbands and wives. A study with older couples on social support and marital satisfaction displayed evidence that, the association between social support and marital satisfaction is stronger for wives than it was for husbands (Acitelli & Antonucci, 1994).

Among other variables, sexual satisfaction distracts attention with limited studies in relation to marital satisfaction. However, studies pointed the strong relation between sexual satisfaction and marital satisfaction. Fields (1983) who studied satisfaction in long term marriages found that there was a significant relationship between sexual satisfaction and marital satisfaction. Another study with Chinese population, conducted by Guo and Huang (2005), showed that when controlling the other variables sexual satisfaction had a significant effect on marital satisfaction. A recent study from Turkey by Basat (2004) tried to explain the relationship between marital satisfaction and sexual satisfaction. According to the results, marital satisfaction was found to be a strong predictor of sexual satisfaction for Turkish married population.

There are also studies conducted in Turkey on marital satisfaction. Hamamci (2005) studied dysfunctional relationship beliefs and marital satisfaction. According to results, individuals with low levels of dyadic adjustment had more dysfunctional beliefs about the relationship than the married individuals who had higher levels of dyadic adjustment. In another research, Fıfılođlu (2001) studied consanguineous marriage and marital adjustment in Turkey. Results of

the study yielded that, individuals who were in consanguineous marriage group had lower levels of marital adjustment and experience more conflicts than the individuals in nonconsanguineous marriage group. In order to assess perceived dimensions of the marital relationship, İmamoğlu and Yasak (1997), conducted a study with 456 married couples. According to the findings, marital satisfaction of the other spouse was found to be related to the marital satisfaction of the husband and wife. Also, wives' willingness to be sexually possessed, the extent of the socio-economic development, and relations with the extended family were the predictors of marital satisfaction in women, whereas relations with the extended family was found to be the predictor of marital satisfaction for men.

## **2.5 Connection Between the Literature Review and Purpose of the Study**

A review of the literature displays the variables that affect marital satisfaction. It is clear that marital satisfaction is somehow studied within the frame of gender roles. However, the possible associations between gender roles and marital satisfaction has contradictory findings. For that reason, this study aimed to investigate the prediction relationship between masculinity, femininity, and marital satisfaction. Apart from that, literature shows evidence that, marital satisfaction was being studied with sexual satisfaction, and other relationship variables. However, the connection between sexual fantasy, masturbation, and marital satisfaction has hardly been measured. So, this study tried to search for this association.. To conclude, in this study the aim was to understand the nature of these variables and the interrelation among them.

## CHAPTER 3

### METHOD

#### 3.1 Participants

A total of 200 married individuals participated in the study from Ankara (44%), Eskişehir (23.5%), and Çanakkale (32.5%). There were 63 males (31.7%) and 136 females (68.3%). Participants ranged in age between 23 and 61, and the average age was 36.9 ( $SD = 8.52$ ). Most of the participants were high school graduates (32%), or have a university or a higher degree (44% and 10% respectively) . Participants who were raised in city (48%) or metropolis (32.5%) were Average length of marriage was 12.98 years ( $SD: 8.9$ ). Sample was obtained through snowball sampling technique.

#### 3.2. Instruments

Materials included Bem Sex Roles Inventory Short Form, in order to measure masculinity and femininity ( BSRI-SF, see Appendix A), Dyadic Adjustment Scale, in order to measure marital satisfaction ( DAS, see Appendix B), demographic data sheet (see Appendix C) and a data sheet concerning sexual variables ( see Appendix D).

##### 3.2.1 BEM Sex Roles Inventory Short Form (BSRI-SF)

The BSRI was developed by Bem (1974) in order to measure masculinity, femininity, and androgynity among men and women. The

original BSRI is composed of 60 items; 20 items related with masculine, 20 items related with feminine, and 20 items related with neutral personality features (Bem, 1974). In the short form of BSRI (Bem, 1981), half of the items were eliminated, so, 10 items belong to masculinity scale which includes personality characteristics that are perceived as men's characteristics (e.g. independent, assertive), 10 items belong to femininity scale which includes personality characteristics that are perceived as women's characteristics (e.g. tender, compassionate), remaining 10 items are neutral items, that is they perceived neither as women's nor men's characteristics. Participants responded to items by using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1= never true, 7= always true). In the present study, gender role traits were measured by using the short form of BSRI (Bem,1981).

For the original version of BSRI, high internal consistency and test-retest reliability was reported (Bem, 1974). According to that coefficient alphas for masculinity was .86 and for femininity was .82. Similarly, test-retest reliability of BSRI was high as reported after a four week time period ( Masculinity  $r = .90$ ; Femininity  $r = .90$ ; Androgyny  $r = .93$ ).

For the short form of BSRI, product-moment correlation scores are highly reliable ( $r = .76$  to  $.91$ ) (Bem, 1981). In addition to that, items from the masculinity and femininity scales that indicated poor item-total correlations were eliminated, therefore, the short version demonstrated higher internal consistency than the original form (Bem, 1981). Also, short form of BSRI displays high correlation (around .90) with the original version of BSRI.

Validity and reliability studies of the original version of BSRI in Turkey were conducted by Kavuncu (1987). Although, test-retest reliabilities of masculinity and femininity scales were found to be high (.89 and .75 respectively), BSRI was not found to be a valid instrument for men in this study. For that reason, Dökmen (1991) replicated the

study by concerning about the limitations and found that BSRI is a valid and reliable scale in order to measure masculinity and femininity in Turkish culture. Validity of the instrument was tested by criteria-validity and validity coefficients were found to be .51 for femininity and .63 for masculinity. Reliability coefficients were found to be .71 for masculinity subscale and .77 for femininity subscale.

Masculinity and femininity scales of the short form of BSRI was investigated in terms of validity and reliability, among Turkish university students by Özkan and Lajunen (2005). According to that, short form of BSRI was found to be a valid instrument for Turkish culture. Scree-plot and parallel analysis methods supported the two factor (masculinity and femininity) model of BSRI. Reliability coefficients were satisfactory for both men's (.80 for masculinity and .73 for femininity scale) and women's data (.80 for masculinity and .66 for femininity scale). In summary, BSRI Short Form was proved to be a reliable and valid instrument in the assessment of gender roles of the individuals in Turkey.

### **3.2.2 Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS)**

Dyadic Adjustment Scale, which is used to assess the adjustment, satisfaction, and quality in a relationship of both unmarried cohabiting and married couples, is composed of a total of 32 items (Spanier, 1976). The scale has four subscales that concern dyadic consensus, dyadic satisfaction, dyadic cohesion, and affectional expression. A participant can get a total ranging from 0 to 151. High scores indicate greater marital satisfaction (Spanier, 1976). Scores for the items range from always agree to always disagree or all the time to never, represented within a 5 to 7 point Likert-type scales. Also, there are two items which are responded as yes or no.

For the internal consistency reliability of DAS, Cronbach's alpha was reported as .96, for the total scale, and ranging from .73 to .94, for the subscales (Spanier, 1976). A replication study also confirmed the findings ( .95 for the total scale) (Carey, Spector, Lantinga, & Krauss, 1993). In addition to that, test- retest reliability of the DAS was .87 (Carey, Spector, Lantinga, & Krauss, 1993). In terms of content validity, items that the scale is composed of were judged by three judges. Concerning criterion validity, the correlation between the DAS and the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Test was reported to be .86 for married couples.

Dyadic Adjustment Scale was standardised into Turkish by Fıfılođlu and Demir (2000). Cronbach's alpha, that was calculated with a sample of 264 married individuals, was .92 for the total scale, and ranging from .75 to .83 for the subscales, which indicate high internal consistency and reliability. The split-half reliability coefficient was reported to be .86. When criterion validity was assessed, DAS found to be correlated with Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Test, with a correlation coefficient of .82. In terms of construct validity, the factor structure in the original scale was repeated in Turkish version. Based on these findings, DAS is reported as a reliable and valid scale for assessing marital satisfaction of Turkish populations.

### **3.2.3 Demographic Information Form**

In the first part of the demographic information form, participants were asked to state their age, gender, education level, place of growth (village, town, city, metropolis) and length of marriage. In the second part of the demographic information form, the aim was to gather information about perceived level of sexual knowledge before marriage, monthly frequency of sexual of intercourse, monthly frequency of sexual fantasy, monthly frequency of masturbation.

In addition, there were some questions asking about the participants' beliefs about sexual fantasy ( I think sexual fantasy is an act that is not accepted by the society and I think sexual fantasy is an act that is prohibited by religion). Same questions were asked with masturbation. These questions were rated on a 5 point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (I totally disagree) to 5 (I totally agree). Also “ Is your spouse your first sexual partner?” was included as a question to evaluate the past sexual experiences of the participants.

### **3.3 Procedure**

Snowball sampling procedure was used to reach the target sample in this study. As the sample was required from three different regions (Ankara, Eskişehir, Çanakkale) of Turkey, one or two acquaintances of the researcher in these regions were selected, and the scales were given to them in order to announce to their personal acquaintances that volunteers were needed for a study on different aspects of marital life.

Brief written instructions were given at the beginning of all instruments. Apart from that, definitions of sexual fantasy and masturbation were written before the related questions in order to control the participants' perceptions about these concepts. It took participants about 30 minutes to complete the instruments. Participants were given all the instruments in envelopes and requested to return them in closed envelopes, in order to protect confidentiality. Data collection continued for a 6-month period, between February and July of 2005.



### **3.4 Data Analysis**

Prior to the analyses, descriptive statistics of the sample were defined. Five different 2 (male, female) x 2 (lower education, higher education) factorial between-subjects ANOVA's were conducted in order to examine the group differences on masculinity, femininity, monthly frequency of sexual fantasy, monthly frequency of masturbation, and marital satisfaction. Additionally, the Pearson correlation coefficients were examined. Nine independent stepwise regression analyses were the procedure of choice in order to determine relationships among predictor variables (gender, age, length of marriage, monthly frequency of sex, femininity, masculinity, monthly frequency of sexual fantasy, monthly frequency of masturbation, marital satisfaction, the belief that sexual fantasy is not socially accepted, and the belief that masturbation is not socially accepted) and criterion variables (masculinity, femininity, monthly frequency of sexual fantasy, monthly frequency of masturbation, and marital satisfaction). All statistical analysis analyses in this study were conducted through different functions of SPSS program (Nie, Bent, Hull, 1970).

## CHAPTER 4

### RESULTS

This study, first, searched for group differences on gender roles, monthly frequency of sexual fantasy, monthly frequency of masturbation and marital satisfaction when subjects were grouped by their gender and education level. Second, this study examined which factors a) masculinity, b) femininity, c) marital satisfaction, d) monthly frequency of masturbation, d) age, e) gender, f) monthly frequency of sexual intercourse, g) the belief that sexual fantasy is not socially accepted, h) the belief that masturbation is not socially accepted, and i) length of marriage can predict the monthly frequency of sexual fantasy. Third, this research investigates which factors a) masculinity, b) femininity, c) monthly frequency of sexual fantasy, d) marital satisfaction, d) age, e) gender, f) monthly frequency of sexual intercourse, g) the belief that sexual fantasy is not socially accepted, h) the belief that masturbation is not socially accepted, and i) length of marriage can predict the monthly frequency of masturbation. And finally it was aimed to find out, which factors a) masculinity, b) femininity, c) monthly frequency of sexual fantasy, d) monthly frequency of masturbation, d) age, e) gender, f) monthly frequency of sexual intercourse, g) the belief that sexual fantasy is not socially accepted, h) the belief that masturbation is not socially accepted, and i) length of marriage can predict marital satisfaction. So, the major problems of this study addressed were, the identification of the group differences on main variables, as well as finding out predictor variables that account for a significant proportion of variance in the criterion variables monthly frequency of sexual fantasy, monthly frequency of masturbation, and marital satisfaction. Group differences were investigated through five different between-subjects ANOVA's. In

order to determine the contribution of each predictor variable to the prediction of monthly frequency of sexual fantasy, monthly frequency of masturbation, and marital satisfaction, the variables were analysed through three different stepwise regression analysis.

In the study, 209 married individuals were examined. Before conducting the analysis, all variables were investigated for accuracy of data entry, missing values, and fit between their distributions and assumptions of multivariate statistics. Out of 215 questionnaires returned, 5 were not included due to large amounts of missing, leaving 210 questionnaires. Analyses displayed 8 univariate outliers, which were excluded from the analyses. 2 multivariate outliers were detected through Mahalanobis distance ( $p < .001$ ) were excluded. As a result, the final data analysis sample included 200 participants (136 females and 63 males).

#### **4.1 Descriptive Analysis of the Sample**

Before the main analysis descriptive characteristics of the sample were examined. Descriptive analysis for the 200 participants in the final data analysis sample can be found in Table 1 and Table 2.

**Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, and Ranges of the Continuous Variables**

<b>Variables (N=200)</b>	<b>Male</b>			<b>Female</b>			<b>Total</b>		
	<b><u>M</u></b>	<b><u>SD</u></b>	<b><u>Range</u></b>	<b><u>M</u></b>	<b><u>SD</u></b>	<b><u>Range</u></b>	<b><u>M</u></b>	<b><u>SD</u></b>	<b><u>Range</u></b>
<b>Age</b>	39,09	8,0	26-55	35,84	8,6	23-61	36,94	8,5	23-61
<b>Length of marriage</b>	14,03	8,9	1-34	12,55	8,8	1-39	12,9	8,9	1-39
<b>Monthly freq. of sex</b>	8,14	6,5	0-35	8,37	5,7	0-28	8,9	8,4	0-35
<b>Monthly freq. of fantasy</b>	4,18	3,6	0-15	1,85	2,5	0-16	2,9	4,43	0-16
<b>Monthly freq. of masturbation</b>	1,14	1,4	0-5	,32	,90	0-5	,66	1,35	0-5
<b>BEM Femininity</b>	58,28	6,3	41-70	60,63	5,7	46-70	59,8	6,07	41-70
<b>BEM Masculinity</b>	50,82	6,5	37-67	48,41	8,1	23-70	49,1	7,77	23-70
<b>Dyadic Adjustment</b>	109,2	15,7	63-142	107,5	22,5	44-145	108,1	20,53	44-145

**Table 2. Frequencies and Percentiles of Categorical Variables**

Variables (N=200)	Male		Female		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
<b>Gender</b>	64	32,7	136	68,3	200	100
<b>Education Level</b>						
Primary School	3	4,8	8	5,9	11	5,5
Secondary School	9	14,3	7	5,1	17	8,5
High School	19	30,2	45	33,1	64	32
University	22	34,9	66	48,5	88	44
M.A./M.S./Ph.D	10	15,9	10	7,4	20	10
<b>Place of Growth</b>						
Village	8	12,7	5	3,7	13	6,5
Town	9	14,3	16	11,9	25	12,6
City	30	47,6	65	48,1	96	48,2
Metropolis	16	25,4	49	36,3	65	32,7
<b>Sexual knowledge prior to marriage</b>						
None	0	0	16	11,9	16	8,0
A little	16	25,4	56	41,5	73	36,7
Undecided	9	14,3	12	8,9	21	10,6
Fairly	31	49,2	44	32,6	75	37,7
Extremely	7	11,1	7	5,2	14	7,0
<b>Spouse is/not first sexual partner</b>						
First	25	40,3	121	89,6	147	74,2
Not first	37	59,7	14	10,4	51	25,8
<b>Belief that sexual fantasy is not socially accepted</b>						
None	24	39,3	78	57,8	118	59,9
A little	19	31,1	29	21,5	29	14,7
Undecided	13	21,3	19	14,1	38	19,0
Fairly	2	3,3	6	4,4	8	4,0
Extremely	3	4,9	3	2,2	4	2,0

**Table 2. Continued**

Variables (N=200)	Male		Female		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
<b>Belief that sexual fantasy is a sin</b>						
None	32	52,5	86	63,7	102	51,8
A little	10	16,4	19	14,1	48	24,4
Undecided	14	23	24	17,8	32	16,2
Fairly	2	3,3	5	3,7	9	4,6
Extremely	3	4,9	1	,7	6	3,0
<b>Belief that masturbation is not socially accepted</b>						
None	23	38,3	73	55,3	96	49,7
A little	11	18,3	24	18,2	36	18,7
Undecided	5	25,0	18	13,6	33	17,1
Fairly	15	8,3	9	6,8	14	7,3
Extremely	6	10,0	7	5,3	13	6,7
<b>Belief that masturbation is a sin</b>						
None	27	45,0	85	63,9	112	57,7
A little	6	10,0	12	9,0	19	9,8
Undecided	15	25,0	25	18,8	40	26,6
Fairly	7	11,7	8	6,0	15	7,7
Extremely	4	6,7	2	1,5	6	3,1

As seen from Table 1 and Table 2, average age of the participants was 36.9 (SD = 8.52). Most of the participants were high school graduates (32%), or have a university or a higher degree (44% and 10% respectively) . Participants who were raised in city (48%) or metropolis (32.5%) were more than the participants who were raised in town (12.6%) or village (6.5%) Average length of marriage was 12.98 years (SD: 8.9). 73% of the participants reported that their spouse is their first sexual partner, on the other hand, 25,5% reported having past

sexual experiences. The average monthly frequency of sexual intercourse is 8.91 (SD: 8.49). Similarly, average monthly frequency of sexual fantasy (2.99) and masturbation (.66) is very low among participants (SD:4.43 and SD:1.35 respectively). 36,7% of the participants reported that they have “a little”; 37,7% of the participants reported that they have “fairly more” sexual knowledge prior to marriage. In addition to that, 59,9% of the participants totally disagree with the idea that sexual fantasy is a sin, and 51,8% of the participants totally disagree with the idea that sexual fantasy is not accepted by the society. Likewise, 57,7% of the participants totally disagree with the idea that masturbation is a sin, and 49,7% of the participants totally disagree with the idea that masturbation is not accepted by the society. The mean score for BEM masculinity scale was 49,14; and the mean score for BEM femininity scale was 59,84. Additionally, mean score for DAS was 108,14.

#### **4.2 Testing Group Differences**

The current study investigated whether a difference exists between the groups on five dependent variables: masculinity, femininity, monthly frequency of sexual fantasy, monthly frequency of masturbation, and marital satisfaction. Thus, five different factorial between subjects ANOVA's were run. Prior to the analysis, subjects were grouped according to their gender, and education level, Gender was categorized into two groups as male and female. Likewise education was categorized into two groups as lower education group (primary, secondary and high school) and higher education group (university and graduate degree). Following the grouping process, the groups were analysed for masculinity, femininity, monthly frequency of sexual fantasy, monthly frequency of masturbation, and marital satisfaction, which were dependent variables of this study.

#### 4.2.1 Testing Group Differences: Masculinity as Dependent Variable

Means and standard deviations of masculinity scores of subjects which were grouped according to gender and education level were presented in Table 3.

**Table 3. Means and Standard Deviations of Masculinity Scores of the Participants Grouped by Gender and Education Level**

Gender	Education	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Male	Higher education	50,5234	6,1462
	Lower Education	51,1447	7,0821
	Total	50,8291	6,5768
Female	Higher education	48,3134	7,9296
	Lower education	48,5351	8,5576
	Total	47,5633	9,2697
Total	Higher education	48,9743	7,4818
	Lower education	49,4241	8,1409
	Total	49,1810	7,7748

Whether gender, education level, and city make a difference between groups on the scores of BEM Masculinity scale, 2 (male, female) x 2 (lower education, higher education) factorial between-subjects ANOVA was run. According to results, gender ( $F(1,194)=4,134, p<.05$ ), differentiated the groups on masculinity. Results of the analysis were also presented in Table 4.



**Table 4. Results of the Factorial Between Subjects ANOVA when Dependent Variable is Masculinity**

Source	Sum of Squares	df	<u>F</u>	Sig.
Gender	248,416	1	4,134	,043*
Education	7,599	1	,127	,722
Gender * Education	1,707	1	,028	,866
Error	11649,44	194		

\*p<.05    \*\*p<.01    \*\*\*p<.001

As can be seen in Table 4, the main effect gender is significant. As Table 4 presents male participants' level of masculinity (X= 50,83) was significantly higher than the female participants' (X= 48,41). For other mean differences see Table 3.

#### **4.2.2 Testing Group Differences: Femininity as Dependent Variable**

Means and standard deviations of femininity scores of subjects which were grouped according to gender and education level were presented in Table 5.

**Table 5. Means and Standard Deviations of Femininity Scores of the Participants Grouped by Gender and Education Level**

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Education</b>	<b><u>M</u></b>	<b><u>SD</u></b>
Male	Higher education	58,1613	4,4877
	Lower Education	58,4000	7,8595
	Total	58,2807	6,3481
Female	Higher education	59,8776	5,9287
	Lower education	61,5897	5,4288
	Total	60,6329	5,7564
Total	Higher education	59,3803	5,5841
	Lower Education	60,5031	6,4978
	Total	59,8964	6,0317

In order to investigate, whether gender and education level make a difference between groups on the scores of BEM Femininity scale, 2 (male, female) x 2 (lower education, higher education) factorial between-subjects ANOVA was run. Results revealed that, gender ( $F(1,194)= 7,244, p<.01$ ) differentiated the groups on femininity. Results of the analysis were also presented in Table 6.

**Table 6. Results of the Factorial Between Subjects ANOVA when Dependent Variable is Femininity**

Source	Sum of Squares	df	<u>F</u>	Sig.
Gender	255,127	1	7,244	,008**
Education	40,341	1	1,145	,286
Gender * Education	23,011	1	,653	,426
Error	6832,422	194		

\*p<.05    \*\*p<.01    \*\*\*p<.001

As can be seen in Table 6, the main effect gender is significant. As Table 6 presents female participants' level of femininity ( $X= 60,63$ )

was significantly higher than the male participants' ( $X = 58,28$ ). For other mean differences see Table 5.

#### 4.2.2 Testing Group Differences: Monthly Frequency of Sexual Fantasy as Dependent Variable

Means and standard deviations of monthly frequency of sexual fantasy scores of subjects which were grouped according to gender and education level were presented in Table 7.

**Table 7. Means and Standard Deviations Monthly Frequency of Sexual Fantasy Scores of the Participants Grouped by Gender and Education Level**

Gender	Education	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Male	Higher education	3,8148	3,1260
	Lower Education	4,6087	4,3037
	Total	4,1800	3,6961
Female	Higher education	1,5000	2,2051
	Lower education	2,3529	3,0121
	Total	1,8595	2,5991
Total	Higher education	2,1443	2,6887
	Lower education	3,0541	3,5918
	Total	2,5380	3,1347

To see, whether gender and education level make a difference between groups on the scores of monthly frequency of sexual fantasy, 2 (male, female) x 2 (lower education, higher education) factorial between-subjects ANOVA was run. According to results, gender ( $F(1,167) = 182,592, p < .001$ ) differentiated the groups on monthly frequency of sexual fantasy.

**Table 8. Results of the Factorial Between Subjects ANOVA when Dependent Variable is Monthly Frequency of Sexual Fantasy**

Source	Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig.
Gender	182,592	1	21,019	,000***
Education	23,705	1	2,729	,100
Gender * Education	3,05E-02	1	,004	,953
Error	1450,699	167		

\*p<.05    \*\*p<.01    \*\*\*p<.001

As can be seen in Table 8, main effect of gender is significant. As Table 8 presents, males reported significantly higher monthly frequency of sexual fantasy ( $X = 4,18$ ) than females ( $X = 1,85$ ) per month.

#### **4.2.3 Testing Group Differences: Monthly Frequency of Masturbation as Dependent Variable**

Means and standard deviations of monthly frequency of masturbation scores of subjects which were grouped according to gender and education level were presented in Table 9.

**Table 9. Means and Standard Deviations Monthly Frequency of Masturbation Scores of the Participants Grouped by Gender and Education Level**

Gender	Education	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Male	Higher education	1,1667	1,4162
	Lower Education	1,1154	1,4513
	Total	1,1429	1,4197
Female	Higher education	.1379	.5809
	Lower education	,3529	,8905
	Total	,3252	,9008
Total	Higher education	,5588	1,1482
	Lower education	,6104	1,1603
	Total	,5810	1,1504

To see, whether gender and education level make a difference between groups on the scores of monthly frequency of masturbation, 2 (male, female) x 2 (lower education, higher education) factorial between subjects ANOVA was run. Results showed that, gender ( $F(1,175)=20,887$ ,  $p<.001$ ) differentiated the groups on monthly frequency of masturbation. Results of the analysis were also presented in Table 10.

**Table10. Results of the Factorial Between Subjects ANOVA when Dependent Variable is Monthly Frequency of Masturbation**

Source	Sum of Squares	df	<u>F</u>	Sig.
Gender	25,035	1	20,887	,000***
Education	1,44E-04	1	,000	,991
Gender * Education	9,25E-02	1	,077	,782
Error	209,745	175		

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

As can be seen in Table 10, the main effect of gender is significant. As Table 10 presents male participants' monthly frequency of masturbation ( $X = 1,14$ ) was significantly higher than their male counterparts ( $X = .32$ ). For other mean differences see Table 9.

#### 4.2.4 Testing Group Differences: Marital Satisfaction as Dependent Variable

Means and standard deviations of frequency of marital satisfaction scores of subjects which were grouped according to gender and education level were presented in Table 11.

**Table 11. Means and Standard Deviations of the Marital Satisfaction Scores of the Participants Grouped by Gender and Education Level**

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Education</b>	<b><u>M</u></b>	<b><u>SD</u></b>
Male	Higher education	111,1122	14,8370
	Lower Education	107,3845	16,6654
	Total	109,2779	15,7476
Female	Higher education	105,9793	20,7172
	Lower education	109,6618	24,6805
	Total	107,5887	22,5219
Total	Higher education	107,5002	19,2397
	Lower education	108,8774	22,1757
	Total	108,1262	20,5838

To see, whether gender, education level, and city make a difference between groups on the scores of marital satisfaction, 2 (male, female) x 2 (lower education, higher education) . A significant

main or interaction effect cannot be found. ( $F(1,175) = 87,104$ ,  $p > .05$ ). Results of the analysis is shown in Table 12.

**Table 12. Results of the Factorial Between Subjects ANOVA when Dependent Variable is Marital Satisfaction**

Source	Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig.
Gender	87,104	1	.204	,652
Education	2,2E-02	1	,000	,994
Gender * Education	586,565	1	1,376	,242
Error	82675,6	194		

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

### 4.3 Correlations Between Variables

Before running regression analysis, the Pearson correlation coefficients of the variables which were included in regression analysis were computed (see Table 13). The first correlation matrix included marital satisfaction, masculinity, femininity, monthly frequency of sexual fantasy, monthly frequency of masturbation, gender, age, length of marriage, monthly frequency of sex, prior knowledge about sexuality, the belief that sexual fantasy is not socially accepted, the belief that sexual fantasy is a sin, the belief that masturbation is not socially accepted, and the belief that masturbation is a sin. According to results marital satisfaction significantly and negatively correlated with age ( $r = -.20$ ,  $p < .01$ ), length of marriage ( $r = -.20$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and monthly frequency of masturbation ( $r = -.20$ ,  $p < .01$ ), which means when age, length of marriage and monthly frequency of masturbation increases, marital satisfaction decreases. On the other hand, marital satisfaction was found to be significantly correlated with monthly frequency of sex ( $r = .28$ ,  $p < .01$ ). That is, the more people have sexual intercourse in a month, the more they experience marital satisfaction. Also, masculinity

significantly correlated with monthly frequency of sex ( $r = .29$ ,  $p < .01$ ), monthly frequency of sexual fantasy ( $r = .24$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and femininity ( $r = .21$ ,  $p < .01$ ). In other words, people who are high in masculinity report higher frequencies of sexual intercourse and sexual fantasy, and have similar levels of femininity. On the other hand, femininity significantly correlated with monthly frequency of sex ( $r = .29$ ,  $p < .01$ ), but significantly and negatively correlated with monthly frequency of masturbation ( $r = -.27$ ,  $p < .01$ ). It means that, people who are high in femininity report higher frequencies of sexual intercourse, but lower frequencies of masturbation. Moreover, monthly frequency of sexual fantasy significantly and negatively correlated with age ( $r = -.20$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and length of marriage ( $r = -.21$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and sex ( $r = -.34$ ,  $p < .01$ ). That is, when people are older and married for long time, and if they are female, their frequency of having sexual fantasy decreases. Similarly, monthly frequency of masturbation is significantly but negatively correlated with gender ( $r = -.33$ ,  $p < .01$ ), meaning that females are the ones who reported lower frequencies of masturbation.



Table 13. Correlation Matrix for the Variables in the Regression Analysis

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Marital Satisfaction		.13	.26**	.06	-.20**	-.03	-.21**	-.20**	.28**	.18**	.20	.10	.19	.10
2. Masculinity			.21**	.24**	-.03	-.15*	-.13	-.14*	.29**	.21**	.03	.03	.11	.15*
3. Femininity				-.05	-.27**	.18*	-.11	-.10	.23**	.09	-.07	.07	-.06	-.02
4. Monthly frequency of sexual fantasy					.15	-.34**	-.20**	-.21**	.31**	.25**	.04	.07	.16*	.11
5. Monthly frequency of masturbation						-.33**	.08	-.03	-.11	.03	-.10	-.07	-.15*	-.13
6. Gender							-.17*	-.07	.06	-.27**	-.14	-.13	-.17*	-.20**
7. Age								.89**	-.30**	-.24**	-.06	-.03	-.13	-.13
8. Length of Marriage									-.31**	-.37**	.01	.02	-.05	-.06
9. Monthly frequency of sex									.30**	-.07	-.07	.02	-.03	-.00
10. Prior sexual knowledge										.04	-.01	-.03	.05	
11. Belief that fant. not socially accepted											.64**	.56**	.54**	
12. Belief that fant. is a sin												.45**	.59**	
13. Belief that mast. not soc. accepted													.79*	
14. Belief that mast. is a sin														

\*\*p<.01\* p<.05

There are also other significant correlations among age, length of marriage, monthly frequency of sex, prior knowledge about sexuality, the belief that sexual fantasy is not socially accepted, the belief that sexual fantasy is a sin, the belief that masturbation is not socially accepted, and the belief that masturbation is a sin. Results revealed that, age significantly correlated with both length of marriage ( $r = .89, p < .01$ ), and monthly frequency of sexual intercourse ( $r = .30, p < .01$ ). In other words, participants reported that, their length of marriage increases but intercourse frequency decreases when they become older. Similarly length of marriage significantly and negatively correlated with intercourse frequency ( $r = -.31, p < .01$ ), indicating that when length of marriage increases, frequency of sexual intercourse decreases. Other than that, prior sexual knowledge is significantly correlated with monthly frequency of sexual intercourse ( $r = .30, p < .01$ ). According to that, when people have more knowledge about sexuality, they tend to have more frequent sexual intercourse. Lastly, results revealed that, the belief that sexual fantasy is not socially accepted is significantly correlated with the belief that masturbation is not socially accepted ( $r = .56, p < .01$ ), the belief that sexual fantasy is a sin ( $r = .64, p < .01$ ), and the belief that masturbation is a sin ( $r = .54, p < .01$ ). It means that when the belief that sexual fantasy is not socially accepted increases, the belief that masturbation is not socially accepted, the belief that sexual fantasy is a sin, and the belief that masturbation is a sin also increases. Lastly, the belief that sexual fantasy is a sin, and the belief that masturbation is a sin are correlated to each other ( $r = .59, p < .01$ ), meaning that when the belief that sexual fantasy is a sin increases, the belief that masturbation is a sin also increases.

#### 4.4 Predictors of Monthly Frequency of Sexual Fantasy

A stepwise regression analysis was run in order to find out to what extent gender, age, length of marriage, monthly frequency of sex, femininity, masculinity, monthly frequency of masturbation, marital satisfaction, prior knowledge about sexuality, the belief that sexual fantasy is not socially accepted, the belief that sexual fantasy is a sin, the belief that masturbation is not socially accepted, and the belief that masturbation is a sin associated with monthly frequency of sexual fantasy. The regression analysis results revealed that from thirteen predictor variables three variables entered the regression equation as significant predictors resulting in three models. First, gender had entered the model, then monthly frequency of sexual intercourse had entered the model, and then age had entered the model. In the first step, 12% of the variability in monthly frequency of sexual fantasy was predicted by gender [ $R^2 = .12$ ,  $F(1,142) = 19,779$ ,  $p < .001$ ]. In the second step, gender and monthly frequency of sexual intercourse were accounted for 20% of variance in monthly frequency of sexual fantasy [ $R^2 = .20$ ,  $F(2,141) = 17.445$ ,  $p < .001$ ]. In the third step, 23% of variance in monthly frequency of sexual fantasy was explained by gender, monthly frequency of sexual intercourse, and age [ $R^2 = .23$ ,  $F(3,140) = 13.647$ ,  $p < .05$ ]. Gender uniquely explained 12% of the variance ( $\beta = -.35$ ,  $t = -4.45$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $sri^2 = .12$ ). Monthly frequency of sexual intercourse uniquely explained 8% of the variance ( $\beta = .28$ ,  $t = 3.65$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $sri^2 = .8$ ). Age uniquely explained 3% of the variance ( $\beta = -.18$ ,  $t = -2.25$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $sri^2 = .03$ ). Table 14 displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (B), standardized regression coefficients ( $\beta$ ), the squared semipartial correlations ( $sri^2$ ), t, F change, R, and  $R^2$  for each model.

**Table 14. Stepwise Regression Results for Monthly frequency of Sexual Fantasy**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>sri<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>F change</b>
<b>Step 1</b>					
Gender	-2.33	-.35	-4.45***	.12	19.77***
R=.35***		R <sup>2</sup> =.12			
<b>Step 2</b>					
Gender	-2.38	-.36	-4.74***	.12	
Frequency.of sex.	.14	.28	3.66***	.08	13.39***
R=.46***		R <sup>2</sup> =.20			
<b>Step 3</b>					
Gender	-2.56	-.39.	-5.09***	.12	
Frequency.of sex.	.12	.23	2.95**	.08	
Age	-6.60E-02	-.18	-2.25*	.03	5.05*
R=.48*		R <sup>2</sup> =.23			
*p<.05		**p<.01		***p<.001	

#### **4.4 Predictors of Monthly Frequency of Masturbation**

A stepwise regression analysis was run in order to find out to what extent sex, age, length of marriage, monthly frequency of gender, femininity, masculinity, monthly frequency of sexual fantasy, marital satisfaction, prior knowledge about sexuality, the belief that sexual fantasy is not socially accepted, the belief that sexual fantasy is a sin, the belief that masturbation is not socially accepted, and the belief that masturbation is a sin with monthly frequency of masturbation. The regression analysis results revealed that from thirteen predictor variables three variables entered the regression equation as significant predictors resulting in three models. First, gender had entered the model, then the belief that masturbation is a sin had entered the model, after that marital satisfaction had entered the model. In the first step, 14% of the variability in monthly

frequency of masturbation was predicted by gender [ $R^2 = .14$ ,  $F(1,142) = 22.361$ ,  $p < .001$ ]. In the second step, gender and the belief that masturbation is a sin were accounted for 20% of variance in monthly frequency of masturbation [ $R^2 = .20$ ,  $F(2,141) = 17.625$ ,  $p < .001$ ]. In the third step, 24% of variance in monthly frequency of masturbation was explained by gender, the belief that masturbation is a sin, and marital satisfaction [ $R^2 = .24$ ,  $F(3,140) = 14.552$ ,  $p < .05$ ]. Gender uniquely explained 14% of the variance ( $\beta = -.37$ ,  $t = -4.73$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $sri^2 = .14$ ). The belief that masturbation is a sin uniquely explained 6% of the variance ( $\beta = -.26$ ,  $t = -3.36$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $sri^2 = .06$ ). Marital satisfaction uniquely explained 4% of the variance ( $\beta = -.20$ ,  $t = -2.63$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $sri^2 = .04$ ). Table 15 displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (B), standardized regression coefficients ( $\beta$ ), the squared semipartial correlations ( $sri^2$ ), t, F change, R, and  $R^2$  for each model.

**Table 15. Stepwise Regression Results for Monthly Frequency of Masturbation**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>sri<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>F change</b>
<b>Step 1</b>					
Gender	-.98	-.37	-4.73***	.14	22.36***
R=.37***		R <sup>2</sup> =.14			
<b>Step 2</b>					
Gender	-1.14	-.43	-5.54***	.14	
Belief that mast. is a sin	-.27	-.26	-3.36***	.06	17.36***
R=.45***		R <sup>2</sup> =.20			
<b>Step 3</b>					
Gender	-1.15	-.43	-5.68***	.14	
Belief that mast. is a sin	-.24	-.23	-3.03*	.06	
Marital Satisfaction	-1.13E-02	-.20	-2.63*	.04	6.92**
R=.49**		R <sup>2</sup> =.24			
*p<.05		**p<.01		***p<.001	

#### 4.5 Predictors of Marital Satisfaction

A stepwise regression analysis was run in order to find out to what extent gender, age, length of marriage, monthly frequency of sex, femininity, masculinity, monthly frequency of sexual fantasy, monthly frequency of masturbation, prior knowledge about sexuality, the belief that sexual fantasy is not socially accepted, the belief that sexual fantasy is a sin, the belief that masturbation is not socially accepted, and the belief that masturbation is a sin with marital satisfaction. The regression analysis results revealed that from thirteen predictor variables two variables entered the regression equation as significant predictors resulting in two models. First, monthly frequency of sex had entered the model, and then monthly frequency of masturbation had entered the model. In the first

step, 11% of the variability in marital satisfaction was predicted by monthly frequency of sex [ $R^2 = .11$ ,  $F(1,142) = 17,595$ ,  $p < .001$ ]. In the second step, monthly frequency of sex and the monthly frequency of masturbation were accounted for 13% of variance in marital satisfaction [ $R^2 = .13$ ,  $F(2,141) = 11.008$ ,  $p < .05$ ]. Monthly frequency of sex uniquely explained 11% of the variance ( $\beta = .33$ ,  $t = 4.19$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $sri^2 = .11$ ). Monthly frequency of masturbation uniquely explained 2% of the variance ( $\beta = -.16$ ,  $t = -2.01$ ,  $p < .05$ ,  $sri^2 = .02$ ) Table 16 displays the unstandardized regression coefficients (B), standardized regression coefficients ( $\beta$ ), the squared semipartial correlations ( $sri^2$ ), t, F change, R, and  $R^2$  for each model.

**Table 16. Stepwise Regression Results for Marital Satisfaction**

Variables	B	Beta	t	sri <sup>2</sup>	F change
<b>Step 1</b>					
Monthly freq. of sex	1,21	.33	4.19***	.11	17.59***
R=.33***		R <sup>2</sup> =.11			
<b>Step 2</b>					
Monthly freq. of sex	1.11	.30	3.83***	.11	
Monthly freq. of masturbation	-2.79	-.16	-2.01*	.02	4.04*
R=.37*		R <sup>2</sup> =.13			
*p<.05		**p<.01		***p<.001	

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **DISCUSSION**

In this chapter, first the findings of the study are discussed. Then implications for practice, limitations of the study, and finally suggestions for future research are presented.

#### **5.1. Evaluation of the results**

##### **5.1.1. Factors associated with Masculinity**

Results of this study indicate that gender affect the level of masculinity. That is, male participants' level of masculinity was significantly higher than the female participants'. This finding is in line with the literature (e.g. Lengua & Stormshak, 2000; Juni & Grimm, 1993), indicating that as males possess more masculine features than females, one can expect that males score higher on masculinity than females.

##### **5.1.2 Factors associated with Femininity**

Results of this study indicate that gender effect the level of femininity. That is, female participants' level of femininity was significantly higher than the male participants'. This finding is consistent with the existing literature (e.g. Whisman & Jacobson, 2000; Juni & Grimm, 1993), indicating that as females possess more feminine features than females, one can expect that females score higher on femininity than males.



### **5.1.3. Factors associated with Sexual Fantasy**

Results of the current study indicated that, gender has a significant effect on monthly frequency of sexual fantasy for married people. That is, frequency of sexual fantasy is higher for males than females per month. Similarly, gender contributes to the prediction of monthly frequency of sexual fantasy. According to that, again being female is a reason for a lower frequency of masturbation. This finding is consistent with the current literature, stating that males fantasize more than females (Ellis & Symons, 1990; Halderman, Zelhart, & Jackson, 1985; Person, Terestman, Myers, Goldberg, & Salvadori, 1989; Knaffo & Jaffe, 1984). The strongest explanation for that is the different socialization processes that males and females are exposed to. Leitenberg and Henning (1995) argues that females are taught not to be aroused outside of a relationship, or hide it even if they are aroused because of the different socialization processes that men and women are exposed to, about sex. However, in the current study, 51,8% of the participants totally disagree with the idea that sexual fantasy is not accepted by the society. For that reason, this explanation is not totally appropriate for this sample. At this point, Jones and Barlow's (1990) study's finding may be helpful by indicating that males and females do not differ on the internally triggered sexual fantasies, but they differ on externally triggered sexual fantasies. This finding receives support from Leitenberg and Henning (1995) concluding that, gender differences on sexual fantasy may be because men are exposed to more external stimulants than women, that triggers sexual fantasy. When considering the mass media in Turkey, it is obvious that there are many sexual images of women on television, internet, or in the newspapers, than sexual images of men. For that reason, this can be one of the possible explanations of the gender difference. On the other hand, when trying to find a reason why

there is more sexual imagery for men than women, it is very likely to come up with the difference in the socialization processes of males and females about sex, again. This means, in the core, being raised as a male or female make a significant difference on the sexual behaviors of both sexes.

Results yielded that, monthly frequency of sexual intercourse contributes to the prediction of monthly frequency of sexual fantasy, meaning that when monthly frequency of sexual intercourse increase, monthly frequency of sexual fantasy also increases. This finding is in line with the existing literature. Studies show that, sexual fantasizing for males and females is common during sexual intercourse, and no significant gender difference is observed (for a review see Leitenberg and Henning, 1995). Cado and Leitenberg (1990) in their studies about sexual fantasizing during intercourse, found that, people who are fantasizing during intercourse found it relatively normal, moral, socially acceptable, and more beneficial for their relationship. When this view is applied to the current study, one can firstly claim that, people who are fantasizing are more likely to do this during the intercourse. Secondly, people who are fantasizing during intercourse may have a belief that this is beneficial than being harmful for the existing relationship. Another explanation may be that, rather than being a part of the sexual intercourse, sexual fantasy may be a trigger of sexual intercourse in a marital relationship for both women and men.

Results of the present study displayed that, age contributed to the prediction of the monthly frequency of sexual intercourse. In other words, when people get older, their frequency of having sexual fantasies decreases. This finding is consistent with the present literature. Studies show that, with the increment in age, frequency of sexual fantasy decreases (e.g. Giambra & Martin, 1977; Halderman, Zelhart, & Jackson,

1985). One explanation for that is the changing attitudes towards sexual fantasy (Leitenberg and Henning, 1995). As people get older, they develop more negative attitudes towards the acceptability of sexual fantasies. That's why, they report having fewer fantasies. Another explanation might be that, when people get older, not only in sexual fantasies, but also in all areas of sexuality, a decrease can be observed.

### **5.1.3. Factors associated with Masturbation**

Results of the current study indicated that, gender has a significant effect on monthly frequency of masturbation for married people. Similarly, gender is also associated with monthly frequency of masturbation. That is, frequency of masturbation is higher for males than females per month. This finding is in line with the literature. According to that males masturbate more than females (e.g. Leitenberg, Detzer, & Srebnik, 1993; Jones & Barlow, 1990). A possible explanation is, as in the sexual fantasy, socialization about sexuality. According to Leitenberg and Henning (1995), masturbation involves physical satisfaction without any relationship purpose. So, this is contradicting with the female doctrine that is not accepting being stimulated outside of a relationship. For that reason, masturbation is more matching with male than female cultural norms. Another explanation is the lack of sexual desire of females (Abramson, 1973; cited in Baumeister, Catanese, & Vohs, 2001). That is, as males experience more sexual desire, they also need to masturbate more than females.

According to results, the belief that masturbation is a sin is significantly associated with monthly frequency of masturbation. If people report the belief that masturbation is a sin, they are less likely to masturbate. This finding is consistent with previous research. Mosher and

Vonderheide (1985) stated that masturbatory guilt prevents masturbation behavior. In another study by Lefkowitz, Gillen, Shearer, and Boone (2004), it was suggested that religious behavior was the strongest predictors of sexual behavior. This also indicates that if one believes that masturbation is forbidden by religion it is very likely that masturbatory behavior decreases. Similarly, Gil (1990), reported that the attitudes towards sexual fantasy is highly negative among conservative Christians, which may also be true for masturbation. For the current study, one can claim that, doing something that is sanctioned by religion results in shame and guilt, which will also result in a decrease in the behavior.

Results of the current study revealed that marital satisfaction contributed to the prediction of monthly frequency of masturbation. This finding is in line with the literature, and will be discussed in marital satisfaction section.

Although results of the study indicated some differences and associations among sexual fantasy, masturbation, and other variables, when we look at the descriptive statistics, despite gender differences, the overall frequency of sexual fantasy and masturbation is very low. This finding is contradicting with the existing literature, suggesting that, while 45% of men reported that they masturbate at least once in a week, 15% of women reported the same frequency (Jones & Barlow, 1990), or that both males and females have sexual fantasies at least one per week, despite the fact that males fantasize more than females (see for a review, Leitenberg & Henning, 1995). A reason for this might have been social or religious sanctions; however, 59,9% of the participants totally disagree with the idea that sexual fantasy is a sin, and 51,8% of the participants totally disagree with the idea that sexual fantasy is not accepted by the society. Likewise, 57,7% of the participants totally disagree with the idea that masturbation is a sin, and 49,7% of the participants totally disagree with the idea that masturbation is not accepted by the society. For that reason,

another explanation should be searched for. At this point, being married may be considered as a possible explanation. For sexual fantasy, it can be claimed that, as marital relationship is the most appropriate context, both socially and legally, for experiencing sexuality, people may have a chance to experience sexual intercourse, relatively, many times they wish. For that reason, instead of being an object of gratification, sexual fantasy may be the initiator of sexual intercourse, as discussed before. As a result, frequency of sexual fantasy may be limited to sexual intercourse frequency. On the other hand, there may be a different explanation for masturbation. According to Sarnoff and Sarnoff (1979) “masturbation is an object that separates the person from the world outside of him/her” (p. 202). In Turkey, because of the collectivist structure, if people somehow build a relationship, it is expected to be a unique system, and act like that. This is the same for marital relationship. After the marriage, couples are expected to go everywhere together, enjoy the same meal, even spend money from one source. For that reason, solo acts, especially in sex, like masturbation, may be seen as a threat for the relationship by both male and female. Apart from that, in the marital relationship any sexual activity other than sexual intercourse may be considered as cheating on the other spouse. For that reason, individuals may be inhibiting masturbation in the shadow of this belief.

It was hypothesised that, there will be an association among masculinity, femininity, sexual fantasy, and masturbation. No evidence was found for this hypothesis. One possible reason may be that, frequency of sexual fantasy and masturbation is associated with being a male or female and socializing according to that, rather than being more or less masculine and feminine.

#### **5.1.4. Factors associated with Marital Satisfaction**

According to results, monthly frequency of sexual intercourse contributes to the prediction of marital satisfaction. That is, when the frequency of intercourse increases, marital satisfaction also increases. This finding is consistent with the relevant literature, people who are engaged in sexually inactive marriages are not happy and this is a danger signal for many marriages (Donnelly, 1993). Apart from that, Schenk, Pfrang, and Rausche (1983), argued that, marital sexuality depends on the quality of the relationship. One of the explanations may correspond to the study of Basat (2004), suggesting a significant relationship between monthly frequency of sexual intercourse and sexual satisfaction, and a significant relationship between sexual satisfaction and marital satisfaction. Moving from here, one can claim that, in the marital relationship sexual intercourse is the most common form of sexual experience, so, frequency of intercourse has a significant contribution in the marital relationship.

Results of the current study revealed that monthly frequency of masturbation negatively associated with marital satisfaction, suggesting that the increase in the frequency of masturbation may result in a decrease in marital satisfaction. There is a lack of literature for this finding. However, one possible explanation can be found in Betchen's (1991) pursuer/distancer cycle in a marital relationship. According to that, sometimes one of the spouses has more sexual desire and prefers masturbation over sexual intercourse. So, the frequency of intercourse decreases and other spouse begins to pursue for the sexual intercourse. Authors suggested that this may result in severe marital discord. So, for the finding in this study, frequent masturbation may result in lower levels of marital satisfaction, as masturbation takes place of the sexual intercourse. Another explanation may be that, since it was suggested that marital sexuality depends on the

quality of the relationship (Schenk, Pfrang, & Rausche, 1983), when quality of sexuality decreases, individuals may search for other activities, like masturbation, for sexual gratification, which may both result in a decrease in the quality of the relationship.

## **5.2. Implications for practice**

Results of the present study have some implications for professionals in this area, in order to develop intervention and prevention strategies. First of all, as being the first study that search for the relationship among those variables, this study will trigger and be a guide for the future research on this area. Second, current study presented descriptive information, especially about the sexual behavior and attitudes of the non-clinical married sample. So, this may widen the understanding for professionals working in this area.

The current study indicated that masculinity and femininity associated with marital satisfaction. Moving from here, it is obvious that different gender roles that people possess affect all part of their lives, so does marital relationship. In the relationship, being more feminine and masculine may overall affect the relationship, on the other hand, individual roles may influence the dual relationship either being in harmony or discord. For that reason, professionals can make individuals being aware of their masculine or feminine features, and their spouses', in order to have a better understanding of their acts and attitudes inside the relationship. So this may bring an enlightenment for both sides. At the same time it will be helpful professionals to have a better understanding of the dynamic of the relationship as well as individual differences, to seek for the gender role features for both spouses especially during assessment and therapy other than evaluating them only according their being male or female.

In addition to that, this study offers a relationship between some aspects of sexuality and marital satisfaction. For that reason, while conducting marital therapy, sexual aspects on the bases of individual as well as relationship should be carefully considered. Similarly, it is better to keep in mind that, marital discord may be result of some individual or dual difficulties, other than a sexual dysfunction. For that reason, professionals may remember to asses those handicaps, even if they eliminate the presence of a sexual dysfunction.

Results of the current study indicated that being married may be a reason for less frequently having sexual fantasies or masturbating. Moreover, results revealed that, frequency of masturbation is negatively associated with marital satisfaction. In the sex therapy especially for sexual dysfunctions, sexual fantasy and sometimes masturbation is recommended. For that reason, especially for Turkish culture, a rigid evaluation is necessary in order to understand the attitudes of people who are seeking for help, before giving them as homeworks. Other than that, professionals should keep in mind that reporting to have sexual fantasies or masturbation may not mean that he/she is happy for that, because due to social or religious beliefs, guilt may occur.

According to findings of this study, for most of the participants their spouses is their first sexual partners and 37% of them reported that they have little sexual knowledge prior to marriage. From this point of view, it can be said that a complete sexuality generally starts with marriage in Turkey. Turkish people are likely to learn sexuality when they get marry. As a result, especially in the first years of the marriage, they lack theoretical and practical knowledge and experience. When the relationship between sexual variables and marital satisfaction is considered, a marital discord may be expected. For that reason, for the whole population, more informational studies on sexuality should be made. On the other hand, for



spouses who seek help, clinicians may undertake an educator role during the sessions, if needed.

Results indicated that age and length of marriage negatively correlated with marital satisfaction, monthly frequency of sexual intercourse and sexual fantasy. It is clear that as years pass, sexuality and marital relationship become less rewarding for Turkish married people. At this point, researchers and professionals may detect the psychological and physiological correlates of this decline, and can develop and implement some prevention strategies.

### **5.3. Limitations of the Study**

There are obviously some limitations of the current study that should be taken into consideration when considering the results. First, participants were volunteer for a study about their individual marital and sexual life. So, it is probable that this sample constituted from individuals who have more liberal attitudes, so this creates a difficulty for the generalisation of results to the whole population.

Similarly, the sample was selected from Ankara, Çanakkale, and Eskişehir which might result in a biased evaluation. That is, again makes it difficult to generalise the results to other regions of Turkey.

Also, in this study only monthly frequency of sexual fantasy and masturbation were studied. Thus, there is a lack of data on the content and types of sexual fantasies and the contexts of masturbations. For that reason, it is hard to say that the relationships in this study about sexual fantasy and masturbation were only derived from the monthly frequencies.

Another limitation is that, while coding education level, high school education was put in the lower education category, due to methodological reasons. However, when looking at the general population and access to

educational facilities in Turkey, categorising high school as higher education might have presented different results.

The last limitation of the study is that this study is cross-sectional. So, in this study only present levels of marital satisfaction were assessed. For that reason, a longitudinal study will measure more concretely whether the marital satisfaction of the participants was currently high or it has been high for a long time.

#### **5.4. Recommendations for Future Research**

The present study contributes to existing knowledge and expands the understanding of gender roles, sexuality and marital satisfaction. On the other hand, based on the findings of the study, some suggestions for future research could be taken into account. Firstly, this study selected married individuals for sample. Future studies may select couples as subjects of the study, so may have a better understanding of the dynamic of the marital relationship. Second, further research may focus on different sexual behaviors and marital relationship taking gender roles as moderates, in order to expand the view on the relationship among these variables. Third, in this study the definitions of sexual fantasy and masturbation were given, which might have result in more naive and ordinary perception of these concepts, even that is not the case. For that reason, future studies may be conducted without the definitions, to see the difference. Fourth, participants of the current study were selected from limited regions. If comparative studies can be conducted with participation of the data from the other regions of Turkey, professionals can reach to a very representative set of findings. Similarly, a more heterogeneous sample in terms of age, education, income, etc. will certainly widen the knowledge on this issue.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A

#### BEM SEX ROLES INVENTORY SHORT FORM

(BEM CİNSİYET ROLLERİ ENVANTERİ KISA FORMU)

Sample Items:

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelerin sizin için ne oranda doğru ya da yanlış olduğunu ve sizi ne oranda tanımladığını göz önüne alıp ilgili rakamı daire içine alarak belirtiniz.

	Tamamen yanlış	Çoğunluk la yanlış	Biraz yanlış	Ne doğru ne yanlış	Biraz doğru	Çoğunluk la doğru	Tamamen doğru
Sempatik	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kıskanç	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Çocukları seven	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Yazışma Adresi:

Türker Özkan, ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü, Ankara



## APPENDIX B

### DYADIC ADJUSTMENT SCALE

(ÇİFTLER UYUM ÖLÇEĞİ)

Sample Items:

- Eşinizi öper misiniz?

Her gün	Hemen hemen her gün	Ara sıra	Nadiren	Hiçbir zaman

- Siz ve eşiniz ev dışı etkinliklerin ne kadarına birlikte katılırsınız?

Hepsine	Çoğuna	Bazılarına	Çok azına	Hiç birine

Yazışma Adresi:

Prof. Dr. Hürol Fışiloğlu, ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü, Ankara

## APPENDIX C

### DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM

#### (BİLGİ FORMU)

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu anket bir yüksek lisans tezinin parçası olarak hazırlanmıştır. Ankette evlilik hayatınız ve kendinizle ilgili konulardaki tutumlarınıza yönelik sorular yer almaktadır. Lütfen soruları dikkatlice okuyunuz . Size en uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Lütfen tüm sorulara içtenlikle yanıt veriniz. Hiçbir soruyu boş bırakmayınız. Soruların doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur. Bizim için önemli olan sizin bireysel olarak ne düşündüğünüz ve ne yaşadığınızdır. Bu nedenle lütfen tüm sorulara tek başınıza cevap veriniz ve cevaplama sırasında soruları bir başkasıyla (ör: eşiniz, arkadaşınız) tartışmayınız. Ankete isminizi yazmayınız veya anketin sizin olduğunu belirtecek bir işaret koymayınız. Soruları cevaplama işlemini tamamladıktan sonra anketi size verilen zarfa koyup ağzını kapatınız ve bu şekilde geri veriniz.

Sorulara vereceğiniz cevaplar kesinlikle gizli tutulacaktır. Değerli katkılarınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Psikolog Aslı SOYER

ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü

Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans

Aşağıdaki bölümde size uygun olan seçeneğin yanına X işareti koyunuz ya da ilgili bölümü doldurunuz.

1. Yaşınız:-----

2. Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın Erkek

3. Eğitim Durumunuz: İlkokul Ortaokul Lise Üniversite  
Üniversite üstü (Yüksek Lisans/ Doktora)

4. Yaşamınızın büyük kısmını geçirdiğiniz yer: Köy İlçe Şehir  
Metropol(Büyükşehir)

5. Ne kadar süredir evlisiniz?

6. Dini inançlarınız ne kadar güçlüdür?

Hiç güçlü değildir Biraz güçlüdür Kararsızım Oldukça  
güçlüdür Çok güçlüdür

## APPENDIX D

### DATA SHEET CONCERNING SEXUAL VARIABLES

#### (CİNSEL YAŞAM BİLGİ FORMU)

**Aşağıdaki bölümde size uygun olan seçeneğin yanına X işareti koyunuz**

1. Mutlu bir evlilik sizin için ne kadar önemlidir?

Hiç      Biraz      Kararsızım      Oldukça      Çok

2.Cinsellik sizin için ne kadar önemlidir?

Hiç      Biraz      Kararsızım      Oldukça      Çok

3.Evlenmeden önce cinsellikle ilgili ne kadar bilgi sahibiydiniz?

Hiç      Biraz      Kararsızım      Oldukça      Çok

4.Eşiniz ilk cinsel partneriniz mi? (İlk cinsel birlikteliğinizi eşinizle mi yaşadınız?)

Evet                       Hayır

5.Eşinizle ayda ortalama kaç kez cinsel ilişkide bulunursunuz?

Bu bölümde size bazı tanımlar verilecektir. Lütfen soruları ilgili tanımları dikkate alarak cevaplayınız.

**Cinsel Fantezi**, kişinin zihninde canlanan ve cinsel olarak uyarılmasına neden olan herhangi bir görüntü ya da görüntülerdir. Cinsel fanteziler, cinsel aktivite veya cinsellikle ilgili olmayan aktiviteler sırasında ortaya çıkabilir. Tek bir görüntü veya bütün bir hikaye biçiminde olabilir. Tesadüfen ya da kişinin isteği doğrultusunda yaşanabilir.

Aşağıdaki soruları bu tanımı göz önünde bulundurarak size uygun olan biçimde cevaplayınız.

6.Ayda ortalama kaç kez cinsel fantezi kurarsınız? (Eğer **hiç** cinsel fantezi kurmuyorsanız **0** olarak belirtiniz)

**Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere ne kadar katıldığınızı verilen beş düzeyden birini seçerek belirtiniz.**

7.Cinsel fantezi kurmanın dinen yasaklanmış (günah) bir davranış olduğunu düşünürüm.

Hiç katılmıyorum      Biraz katılıyorum      Kararsızım  
Oldukça      Tamamen katılıyorum  
katılıyorum

8.Cinsel fantezi kurmanın toplum tarafından hoş görülmemeyen (ayıp) bir davranış olduğunu düşünürüm.

Hiç katılmıyorum      Biraz katılıyorum      Kararsızım  
Oldukça      Tamamen katılıyorum  
katılıyorum

**Mastürbasyon**, kişinin yalnızken cinsel zevk alma ve cinsel tatmin amacıyla kendi cinsel organını uyarmasıdır.

Aşağıdaki soruları bu tanımlı göz önünde bulundurarak size uygun olan biçimde cevaplayınız.

9. Ayda ortalama kaç kez mastürbasyon yaparsınız? (Eğer **hiç** mastürbasyon yapmıyorsanız **0** olarak belirtiniz)

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelerle ne kadar katıldığınızı verilen beş düzeyden birini seçerek belirtiniz.

10. Mastürbasyon yapmanın dinen yasaklanmış (günah) bir davranış olduğunu düşünürüm.

- Hiç katılmıyorum     Biraz katılıyorum     Kararsızım  
 Oldukça katılıyorum     Tamamen katılıyorum

11. Mastürbasyon yapmanın toplum tarafından hoş görülme (ayıp) bir davranış olduğunu düşünürüm.

- Hiç katılmıyorum     Biraz katılıyorum     Kararsızım  
 Oldukça katılıyorum     Tamamen katılıyorum