

THE ROLE OF GENDER, ATTACHMENT DIMENSIONS,
AND FAMILY ENVIRONMENT IN LONELINESS

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ABSTRACT

THE ROLE OF GENDER, ATTACHMENT DIMENSIONS, AND FAMILY ENVIRONMENT IN LONELINESS

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The main purpose of the present study was to investigate predictive value of gender, attachment dimensions, and family environment in determining students' loneliness level. For this purpose, firstly, the effect of gender, attachment types and family environment on loneliness level was investigated.

The participants of the study were 473 (281 females and 192 males) students from different departments of Ankara University. Participants were administered UCLA Loneliness Scale, Family Environment Assessment Scale, and Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire.

Data analysis were carried out by three-way ANOVA (2 gender X 2 Family Environment X 4 Attachment Type) to investigate the effect of gender, attachment types and family environment on loneliness level and Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis to investigate predictive value of gender, attachment dimensions, and family environment in determining students' loneliness level.

The results of three-way ANOVA yielded that while main effects were significant, interaction effects were not significant. Post-hoc analysis revealed that male students were lonelier than females; Families with low coherence scores were lonelier than families with high coherence scores and individuals with fearful pattern of attachment were lonelier than individuals with secure, dismissing, and

preoccupied patterns of attachment. Stepwise multiple regression analysis also showed that, attachment types, family environment and gender together explained the 19 % of variance in loneliness.

Key Words: Loneliness, Attachment, Family Environment, Gender, University students.

ÖZ

CİNSİYETİN, BAĞLANMA TİPİNİN VE AİLE YAPISININ ÜNİVERSİTE ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN YALNIZLIK DÜZEYİ ÜZERİNDEKİ ROLÜ

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Bu çalışmanın temel amacı, bağlanma boyutları, cinsiyet ve aile yapısının, yalnızlığı ne derecede yordadığını araştırmaktır. Bu doğrultuda, öncelikle, bağlanma türleri, cinsiyet ve aile yapısının yalnızlık üzerindeki etkisine bakılmıştır.

Çalışmaya, Ankara Üniversitesi'nde değişik bölümlerinde okumakta olan 473 (281 kız ve 192 erkek) öğrenci katılmıştır. Katılımcıların yalnızlık düzeyleri UCLA Yalnızlık Ölçeği, aile yapıları, Aile Yapısını Değerlendirme Aracı, bağlanma türleri Yakın İlişki Yaşantıları Envanteri-(Yenilenmiş) ile saptanmıştır.

Bağlanma türleri, cinsiyet ve aile yapısının yalnızlık üzerindeki etkisine Üç Yönlü ANOVA (2 Cinsiyet X 2 Aile yapısı X 4 Bağlanma) Analizi kullanılarak ve bağlanma boyutları, cinsiyet ve aile yapısının, yalnızlığı ne derecede yordadığını ise (Stepwise) Çoklu Doğrusal Regresyon Analizi kullanılarak bakılmıştır.

Üç Yönlü ANOVA sonuçları temel etkiler anlamlı olduğu halde ve etkileşim etkilerinin anlamlı olmadığını göstermiştir. Ayrıca post hoc analizi sonuçları, erkeklerin kızlardan, düşük uyum gösteren ailelere sahip olanların yüksek uyumlu ailelerden, korkulu kaçınan bağlanma türüne sahip olanların güvenli, kayıtsız kaçınan ve saplantılı bağlanma türüne sahip olan bireylerden daha fazla yalnızlık düzeyine sahip olduğunu göstermiştir. Çoklu regresyon analizi sonuçları, bağlanma boyutu, aile yapısı ve cinsiyetin bir arada yalnızlığın % 19' unu açıklamıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Yalnızlık, Bağlanma, Aile Yapısı, Cinsiyet, Üniversite öğrencileri

*To my grandmother,
For her unbelievable sacrifice,
Rest in peace*

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Loneliness is a universal phenomenon (Peplau & Perlman, 1982), it visits every human soul at some time in every culture, race, class, age, and at all times in human history. It is inescapable, and has been expressed through music, literature, and art for ages. Feelings of loneliness make us understand that we are somehow fundamentally separated from each other, doomed to speak and yet never fully understood by which we join the rest of humanity in acknowledging that (Peplau & Perlman, 1982; Peplau & Goldston, 1984). Loneliness is not only so pervasive, but also associated with a variety of different emotions. People who feel loneliness describe it as painful, and it is associated very strongly with feelings of depression, suicide, low self-esteem, and aggression (Pilkonis, 1988).

Many authors (e.g., Hymel et al., 1990; McWhirter, 1990; Medora and Woodward, 1986; Peplau & Perlman, 1982; Rotenberg, 1999), have proposed that loneliness is one of the basic unpleasant facts and thus is experienced at different levels by everyone at some point in their lives. Wood (1986) has even suggested, “Failure to experience loneliness appropriately calls into question one's very nature as a social being” (p. 184). Loneliness has no age, gender, race, marital status, socioeconomic status, or health status limits (Medora & Woodward, 1986; Neto & Barros, 2000). Thus, loneliness is a universal experience, a consequence of the universal human need for belonging (Rotenberg, 1999).

From needs perspective, loneliness is caused by the absence of a needed relationship or set of relationships, which may not be necessarily intimate or confidential in nature, but rather meet one's inherent social needs, such as attachment, social integration, nurturance, reassurance of worth, reliance alliance, and guidance (Weiss, 1987). This perspective draws heavily on Bowlby's attachment theory (Weiss, 1987). According to attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969), children become attached to their parents which give them a sense of warmth, intimacy, and

security during infancy. When separated from attachment figures, children show signs of separation anxiety, such as restlessness, stress, discomfort, and social withdrawal (Stokes, 1987). Bowlby (1969) has suggested that secure early attachments are necessary for developing the capacity for warm and close relationships later in life. Moreover, during the transition period from childhood to adolescence and young adulthood, in which parents are replaced with peers such as friends and romantic partners as primary attachment figures, loss or absence of attachment figures causes distress in the individual, irrespective of his or her age (Weiss, 1987). Besides, the quality of adult attachment has some influence on social functioning. The fearfully attached group is mostly found to be the loneliest, and followed by preoccupied and dismissing types successively. Secure group seems to be the least lonely (Man & Hamid, 1998). Furthermore, securely attached individuals are socially skilled and report lower levels of loneliness (DiTommaso, McNulthy, Ross, & Burgess, 2003).

Family environment has a great impact on the development of individuals' attachment patterns (Vasta, Miller, & Ellis, 2004). Interactions within a family influence one's psychological and socio-emotional functioning which includes secure attachment cognitions and their close relationships with others apart from the family members, such as friendships or romantic relationships (Collins & Read, 1990; Feeney & Noller, 1990).

Furthermore, individuals who report that their parents have not spared enough time for them, nor understood them, or that they have not seek help of their parents are more likely to experience loneliness (Hojat, 1982).

Low family cohesion is associated with various personality and social difficulties including loneliness, depression, aggression, and subsequent poor social adjustment (Cummings et al., 1994; Harold & Conger, 1997; Johnson, LaVoie, & Mahoney, 2001; Perry, Perry, & Kennedy, 1992; Wentzel & Feldman, 1996). There are many studies, which investigated the relation of different aspects of loneliness and family. These studies displayed a strong relation between loneliness and family environment.

Loneliness and family cohesion were found to be correlated for both males and females. Low family cohesion was related to higher loneliness for females, and

males. On the other hand, individuals, who have high coherent families reported lower levels of loneliness (Cummings et al., 1994; Harold & Conger, 1997; Johnson, LaVoie, & Mahoney, 2001; Perry, Perry, & Kennedy, 1992).

Loneliness is a life- span phenomenon with which all people have to cope with at one time or another. The quality of adult attachment and perceived family environment has some influence on social functioning and loneliness. The purpose of this study is to shed light on the influence and prediction of gender, attachment dimensions and family environment on loneliness level.

1.1. Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the present study was to investigate predictive value of gender, attachment dimensions, and family environment in determining students' loneliness level. For this purpose, firstly, the effect of gender, attachment types and family environment on loneliness level was investigated.

1.2. Problem

The following questions were sought to be answered.

What are the possible differences among the loneliness level of the participants by gender, attachment type, and family environment?

To what extent loneliness is predicted from gender, attachment styles, and family environment?

1.3. Definition of Terms

Loneliness: It is an unpleasant feeling that is experienced when a person's of social networks are significantly deficient in either quality or quantity (Peplau & Perlman, 1982).

Attachment Styles: These are cognitive representations acquired early in life. The terms attachment, attachment style, attachment orientation, and attachment

status are used interchangeably (Bowlby, 1973).

Family Environment: It includes expectations, secrets, perceptions on environment, emotional bond among family members. It involves the unity and interaction among the members (Gülerce, 1996).

1.4. Limitations of the Study

Some limitations of the study should be mentioned. First, family environment and attachment types were investigated as predictors of loneliness. Yet, other possible factors, which may affect loneliness level, were not taken into consideration.

Second, the sample was chosen from Ankara University Cebeci Campus, which limits the generalizability of the results. Findings could be generalized in terms of institutional similarities to Ankara University Cebeci Campus.

Another limitation of the study is the instruments used to assess loneliness level, family environment and attachment styles. Results are based on data gathered by UCLA Loneliness Scale, Family Environment Assessment Scale and Experiences in Close Relationship–Revised which are all self-report scales. The limitations of self-report measures should be kept in mind before interpreting the results of this study. Some potential problems are fakebility and social desirability.

Socio-economic status, cultural, and educational background of the individuals were not controlled. In addition to this, instruments' validity and reliability analyses which were done in the study were not re-examined.

1.5. Significance of the Study

Social relationships have an important place in human life. Individuals as social beings are in interaction with environment. This interaction, which begins immediately after the birth, continues whole life. Loneliness is one of the results of social patterns that are established right after birth with the establishment of relationship with caregiver.

Attachment styles have their roots in the family environment; as a result, these concepts have importance on young adults' personality and relationships in different ways. The results of this study may show the possible interactions of attachment styles and family environment in university students. Findings of the present study may also help counselors gain greater insight into parent-child interactions and understand influences of parent- child interactions on relationship patterns in the adulthood.

Also, close inspection of all related research results seem to indicate that, the role of family environment, and attachment dimensions in predicting loneliness cannot be ignored. So it may be meaningful to inform parents or prospective parents about this relationship and the environment that may be prepared for the child's healthy emotional and social development. Findings of this study can enable parents and counselors to help children grow into adults with healthy social relationships.

The present study is considered important because research conducted on family environment, attachment dimension and loneliness in Türkiye appears rather limited.

Moreover, this research may also have implications for school counselors, teachers, and school administrators. That is, they may need to become aware of symptoms of loneliness, its predictors in adolescents' lives. This awareness may help them figure out some solutions to avoid loneliness and the consequences of loneliness. Loneliness related drug abuse, dropouts, academic failure, and violence can be prevented.

Finally, results of this study can give light to further research. It is hoped that this study may encourage other researchers to investigate the other correlates and predictors of loneliness in Turkish culture.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Loneliness

2.1.1. Definition of Loneliness

In the literature, loneliness has been defined in numerous ways. Sullivan (1953) described loneliness as a powerful response which is experienced when the basic human need for interpersonal intimacy is not fulfilled. Medora and Wodward (1986) stated that loneliness reflects an individual's subjective perception of deficiencies in his or her network of social relationships.

The most common definition of loneliness is the one that Peplau and Perlman (1984) have made. They describe loneliness as an unpleasant experience that occurs when a person's social relationship network is significantly deficient either qualitatively or quantitatively. Many other scholars share three points of view of this definition. First, loneliness results from a deficiency in a person's social relationships. It sometimes occurs when a person's actual social relations and his or her desires and needs are inharmonious. In addition to this, loneliness can stem from a shift in an individual's social needs rather than from a change in their actual level of social contact. Second point of agreement is that loneliness is a subjective experience. That means people can be alone in the crowd too. Third, the experience of loneliness is an aversive one. It is unpleasant and distressing even though it may give way to personal growth. In other words, loneliness can be described as a situation experienced by the individual when there is an unpleasant or inadmissible lack of quality of certain social relationships.

Loneliness was found to be related with the manner of the person who

perceives, experiences, and evaluates his or her isolation and lack of communication with other people. (Peplau & Perlman, 1984; Weiss, 1984; Williams, 1983).

Loneliness is generally associated with negative feelings about problems in social relationships (Russel, Peplau, & Cutrona, 1980). According to Williams (1983, p. 52), loneliness involves human need for intimacy in interpersonal relationships and results from the painful awareness of feelings that are not actually related with desired close relationships with others. Williams (1983) has indicated that loneliness is strongly related to the perception of and satisfaction with one's relationship rather than to objective or quantitative characteristic of relationship.

Loneliness is usually an aversive experience. It is generally associated with negative feelings such as anxiety, anger, boredom, sadness, and feelings of marginality (Jones, Freemon, & Goswick, 1981). Moreover, loneliness causes feelings of hopelessness, emptiness, worthlessness and failure, and the desire to deny one's loneliness (Gordon, 1976). Buchholz and Catton (1999) has defined loneliness as an aversive state arising from a sense of yearning for another person(s), and associated with negative feelings such as sadness and hopelessness.

Weiss (1984) concludes that loneliness is widely common and severely distressing. Weiss (1984) has also stated that loneliness consists of two separate dimensions; emotional isolation and social isolation. While social isolation is the absence of a place in an accepting community or the lack of a recognized social role, emotional isolation is the absence of a loved one.

Different researchers make various definitions of different dimensions types of loneliness. According to Weiss (1984), people experience two types of loneliness: emotional and social loneliness. Emotional loneliness is felt when one does not closely, intimately attached to another person. Individuals who have experienced life chances such as divorce or separation may feel emotional loneliness. Social loneliness, on the other hand, is felt in lack of social relationships in which the person is part of a group of friends who share common interests and activities (Russell, Cutrona, Rose, & Yurko, 1984)

Jong-Gierveld (1987) has also distinguished three dimensions of loneliness.

The first one is associated with the absence of an intimate attachment, feelings of emptiness or abandonment. This so-called deprivation component was considered as the core of the concept of loneliness. The second one refers to time perspective, and the third involves emotional aspects (Jong-Gierveld, 1987).

Archibald and Bartholomew (1995) have described loneliness from two perspectives; social needs perspective and cognitive discrepancy model. The social needs perspective of loneliness stresses actual level of contact. This perspective proposes that people experience loneliness when people's demands are not met because of the absence or loss of interpersonal relationships. On the other hand, cognitive discrepancy model emphasizes the perceived discrepancy between actual and desired level of contact and suggests that actual level of loneliness is important to the extent that it differs from desired level.

Peplau and Goldston (1984) have classified loneliness as transient, chronic, severe, and persistent. Transient feelings of loneliness are both common and relatively harmless. However, severe and persistent feelings of loneliness are extremely painful experiences that may cause psychological dysfunction and mental disorder.

Young's (1982) classification of loneliness is similar to Peplau and Goldson's (1984): transient, situational, and chronic loneliness. Transient loneliness is experienced everyday and includes brief and occasional lonely moods. Situational loneliness is valid for people who had satisfying relations until some specific change occurred in life. Finally, chronic loneliness appears when people lack satisfactory social relations for two or more years.

Major attributes of a lonely person are clustered in three categories by Horowitz, French, and Anderson (1982). First cluster includes feelings and thoughts of being different, isolated, and separate from others. The second covers negative feelings of depression, sadness, anger, and even paranoia. The last one involves actions, such as avoiding social contacts or working long hours.

Another categorization discriminate two types of loneliness: unidimensional or multidimensional phenomenon (Schmidt & Sermat, 1983).

Unidimensional conceptualization of loneliness displays it as a unit, global phenomenon while multidimensional conceptualization of loneliness suggests that this experience has various manifestations. Multidimensional conceptualization of loneliness does not cover all areas of individual's experience, unlike unidimensional perspective.

Loneliness is correlated with different dimensions of personal characteristics, social relations, and social skills.

Loneliness is associated with a perceived lack of interpersonal intimacy and negatively related to willingness to self- disclosure (Chelune, Sultan, Williams, 1980). Lonely individuals tend to score high on negative intrapersonal traits like pessimism (Davis, Hanson, Edson, & Ziegler, 1992; Ernst & Cacioppo, 1998). Loneliness has also strong negative correlation with happiness (Booth, Bartlett, & Bohansock, 1992) and life satisfaction (Riggio, Watring, & Throckmorton, 1993).

Loneliness was also found to be positively correlated with low peer acceptance (Sletta, Valas, Skaalvik, & Sobstad, 1996), and peer rejection (Cassidy & Asher, 1992; Rotenberg & Bartley, 1997).

Medora and Woodward (1986) reported a relationship between loneliness and ease of making friends. Participants who stated that they were "very happy" were significantly less lonely than those who said that they were "very unhappy". It was also found that the attentional and perceptual building blocks of socially skilled behavior remained intact, and perhaps enhanced in lonely individuals (Gardner, Pickett, Jefferis, & Knowles, 2005).

Russell, Cutrona, Rose and Yurko (1984) indicated that depression was best predicted by emotional loneliness and anxiety was associated with social loneliness.

The study of Ruchkin, Eisemann, and Hagglöf (1999) investigated possible interrelations among hopelessness, loneliness, self- esteem, and personality in a sample of delinquent adolescents by using UCLA Loneliness Scale, Beck's Hopelessness Scale, Rosenberg's Self- Esteem Scale, and Claninger's Temperament and Character Inventory and showed that loneliness and hopelessness scales were highly interrelated. Moreover, they were correlated with the temperament dimension

of harm avoidance and negatively correlated with the character dimension of self-directedness. Self-esteem appeared to be exclusively related with self-directedness (Ruchkin, Eisemann, & Hagglöf, 1999).

Personality and social network factors were also found to be related to the feelings of emotional and social loneliness. (vanBaarsen, Snijders, Smit, & vanDuijn; 2001).

Moreover, children's experiences of loneliness were predicted by a combination of personal factors such as children's sense of coherence; interpersonal factors such as peer reciprocal acceptance (friendship) and peer reciprocal rejection (enemies) (Margalit, Tur-Kaspa, & Most, 1999). Studies have found that children and adolescents who report higher levels of overall sense of community in both their neighborhood (Chipuer et al., 1999) and at school (Chipuer, 1999; Goodenow, 1993) report lower perceptions of loneliness and better psychological health.

Demir and Fıfılođlu (1999) investigated the relationship between loneliness and marital adjustment in Turkish couples. The results have shown that there is a negative relationship between loneliness and marital adjustment. A low level of loneliness seems to be associated with good marital adjustment.

In their studies, Kara and Mirici (2004) tried to identify differences among Turkish patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease and their spouses on loneliness, depression, and social support. Levels of loneliness, depression, and perceived social support from family and friends were similar for patients and spouses. Loneliness and depression were positively related, but both loneliness and depression seemed to increase with low perceived social support from family and friends for both patients and their spouses (Kara & Mirici, 2004).

Lonely people were found to perceive themselves in a negative and self-depreciating manner, believing that they were inferior, worthless, unattractive, unlovable, and socially incompetent individuals (Horowitz et al., 1982; Jones, Freeman, & Goswick, 1981; Jones & Moore, 1987; Jones et al., 1983).

Moreover, lonely people have negative perceptions not only about themselves but also about others (e.g., Henwood, & Solano, 1994; Jones et al., 1981;

Wittenberg & Reis, 1986). Compared to nonlonely people, lonely people perceive others as less trustworthy (Ernst & Cacioppo, 1999; Rotenberg, 1994), less supportive (Vaux, 1988), less communicatively competent (Jones et al., 1981), as well as less attractive and socially desirable (Jones et al., 1981; Jones et al., 1983). Lonely individuals are also more cynical, less accepting of others, and more likely to expect (as well as fear) negative evaluations from others (Jones et al., 1981; Jones et al., 1983). These negative attitudes also appear to be generalized to the social world, which is expressed as misanthropy (Hojat, 1982), social alienation, hostility, and as fewer 'just world' beliefs (Jones et al., 1981).

Loneliness is a life-long phenomenon with which all people have to cope at one time or another. Rokach (2001) investigated influences of age and gender on coping with loneliness. Adolescents (13-18 years old), young adults (19-30 years old), adults (31-58 years old) and seniors (60-80 years old) were compared on the bases of age and gender. Results have revealed that adult group deals with loneliness more effectively and that women appear to cope with loneliness better than men do (Rokach, 2001).

Schultz and Moore (1988) have found that high school students are lonelier than college students, although loneliness seems to be widespread during the initial college transition (Brennan, Clark, & Schaver, 1988; Cutrona, 1982). Indeed, Culp, Clyman, and Culp (1995) have shown that 66% of high school students consider loneliness as a problem they experienced last year. In a review study, Perlman and Landolt (1999) concluded that prevalence of loneliness appeared to peak during adolescence, drop between young adulthood and middle age, and then perhaps rise slightly in old age.

People in different age groups experience loneliness differently. Medora and Woodward (1986) reported the incidence of loneliness among various populations, but adolescents in general are at high risk for loneliness. John- Gierveld (1987) has proposed that age and loneliness are largely independent. Woodward and Frank (1998) reported that age and loneliness were widespread and especially intense during adolescence. Davis (1990) and Euphemia (1988) suggested that loneliness

was especially a painful experience during adulthood years.

A curve depicting the ratio of different age groups reporting loneliness displays a shallow 'u' shape. And adolescents report loneliness to a somewhat higher extent than adults and young-old retirees (Andersson, 1982; 1993; Peplau et al., 1982). Although there are not many findings, it seems that there is an increase of loneliness in the oldest age group whose ages approximately over 75. It should be noted that even when the loneliness levels are the same, the contents of the feeling of loneliness might differ for different age groups (Perlman & Peplau, 1984).

Loneliness experiences differ during adolescence. Brage, Meredith, and Woodward (1993) found that older adolescents were lonelier than younger adolescents. It has been suggested that loneliness is experienced and is a major problem among late adolescents (Roscoe & Skomski, 1989; Russell et al., 1980; Schultz, & Moore, 1986).

Schmitt and Kurdek (1985) showed that college women expressed more dissatisfaction with large group relationships when compared with elderly women, whereas elderly women expressed more dissatisfaction with their romantic/ sexual relationships. This indicates the possibility that loneliness is evaluated according to different criteria at different stages of life. The study conducted by Logo and Schatten-Jones (2000) examined social network correlates of social and emotional loneliness in order to demonstrate that social and emotional loneliness are different constructs. Secondly, researchers investigated the possibility of age differences in the relationship between loneliness and social characteristics. Results showed that social and emotional loneliness were moderately correlated with one another and had different network correlates for both young and older adults. Similarly, emotional loneliness was related to the presence of a romantic partner in the network for both age groups, though, this relationship was stronger for older adults. Correlates of social loneliness also differed between young and older adults. The presence of an intimate person and size of the network predicted social loneliness for young adults, whereas average closeness of the network predicted social loneliness for older adults (Logo & Schatten-Jones, 2000).

2.1.2. Gender Differences in Loneliness

Research findings about loneliness are contradictory for gender. Although most studies show that women report loneliness to a higher extent than men do, some studies report no gender differences (Andersson, 1982; Peplau et al., 1982; Qureshi & Walker, 1989).

Many of the studies have revealed that males are lonelier than females (Roscoe & Skomsky, 1989; Russell, Peplau, & Cutrona, 1980; Schultz & Moore, 1986). Wiseman and Gutfreund (1995) found that among those who seek counseling in a sample of university students, males were lonelier than females. Norman and DeWayne (1986) reported that males within a sample of undergraduate university students were significantly scored higher than females. Wittenberg and Reis (1985) also stated that individuals high in femininity and masculinity were less lonely. In a study, Toivonen, Salmela-Aro, and Eronen (1997) investigated the strength of the association of loneliness with cognitive and attribution strategies people adopt in social situations. It was found that a pessimistic avoidance strategy was associated with subsequent feelings of loneliness, even after the level of self-esteem was controlled. Both optimistic planning strategy and self-serving attribution bias were negatively associated with feelings of loneliness among men but not among women.

On the other hand, some researchers suggests that females have reported substantially higher loneliness scores than males (Medora & Woodward, 1986; Sundberg, 1988; Woodward & Frank, 1988). Medora and Woodward (1991), also, reported that female alcoholics' loneliness level was significantly higher than men alcoholics'. Page and Cole's (1991) study supports this finding. They indicated that, loneliness increases alcoholism risk among late adolescent females, but does not influence alcoholism risk among males of the same age.

Terrell, Terrell, and Von Drashek (2000), found that females who had been taught to distrust strangers experienced more loneliness than their male counterparts did as well as females and males who were not taught to distrust strangers.

Moreover, some of the studies indicate no gender differences with regard to

loneliness (Kalliopuska & Laitinen, 1991; Jackson & Cochran, 1990; Jones, Freeman, & Goswick, 1981; Moraldo, 1981). Medora and Woodward (1986) found that females reported significantly higher loneliness scores than males. Peplau and Perlman (1982) reported no gender differences when UCLA Loneliness Scale was administered but women tended to describe themselves lonelier than men when respondents were asked to respond to direct questions on their loneliness. The study conducted by Logo and Schatten-Jones (2000) yielded no gender differences with regard to loneliness. Christensen and Kashy (1998) found no gender difference for loneliness which was assessed by UCLA Loneliness Scale. Koenig, Isaacs, and Schwartz (1994) showed that higher levels of depression were associated with greater loneliness for both boys and girls.

2.1.3. Loneliness and Family Environment

The family, in many ways, is the birthplace of society. It is the most basic economic, political, and social unit. It is within the family that individuals first learn the value of work and the worth of their possessions, first experience authority, cooperation, and governance. Families teach individuals how to relate to and treat one another. Families provide an appropriate space for nurturing, growth, and education. They are truly schools where social and emotional skills are acquired and attachment styles are formed (Batgos & Leadbeater, 1994). As given above; attachment refers to the emotional and physical bond between infant, and primary caregiver (Ülku, 2001). Infant needs a safe, dependable, nurturing environment to grow (Adams & Gullota, 1989). Through repeated interaction with the primary caregiver, a child develops an internal working model of this care giving relationship (Batgos & Leadbeater, 1994).

Family cohesion (i.e., the emotional bonding among family members and the feeling of closeness) is expressed by feelings of belongingness and acceptance within the family system (McKeown et al., 1997).

It is believed that these childhood experiences have an important effect on relationships later in life (Bowlby, 1969; Herzberg & Hammen, 1999). Bowlby (1969) proposes that in order to be able to predict and manage their world, individuals need an inner model of their environment and a model of their own skills, and potentialities.

In this respect, quality of interactions between family members, supportive behaviors of parents towards their children, coherence, communication, intimacy, closeness, and feeling of security in the environment have inevitable significance (Allen, Hauser, Bell, & O'Conner, 1994; Barnes & Olson, 1985).

Family environment has a great impact on the development of individuals' attachment styles. Interactions in a family influence the individuals' psychological and socio-emotional functioning which include secure attachment cognitions and their close relationships with others outside the family environment, such as peer or romantic relationships (Collins & Read, 1990; Feeney & Noller, 1990). Inner working models are thought to develop out of child's relationship history, as the child explores his or her relationships by demanding attention and comfort. Similarly, Bretherton (1992) emphasizes that the caregivers' sensitivity to individuals' attention, comfort, or encouragement requests is crucial for the development of inner working models in childhood and adulthood. Bowlby (1988) argues that a secure relationship between an infant and his or her attachment figure is related to each partner's ability to engage in emotionally open, fluent, and coherent communication (Freeney & Nooley, 1996).

Attachment theory and research suggest that developing positive relationships with consistently available and responsive alternative adults can help ameliorate the effects of parental loss or problems, whereas instability in the caregiving situation does not. (Howes, 1999; Stovall & Dozier, 1998). When parents are supportive and cooperative in their interactions with their children, the children are likely to develop secure inner working models which enable them to have positive relationships with others, as well as to explore the environment with a sense of confidence and mastery (Freeney & Noller, 1990). In addition, it is believed that

attachment to parents has an effective function of providing emotional well-being, social competency, and security in their relationships (Kobak & Sceery, 1988). Kobak and Sceery (1988) also stated that, secure adolescents tended to see their parents as loving and available during distressing events. In other words, attachment styles have their roots in the family environment; as a result, these concepts have importance for young adults' personality and relationships in different ways.

Green and Goldwyn indicate that disorganized attachments are associated with specific forms of distorted parenting, which are distinct from general parental insensitivity and associated with unresolved loss or trauma in the caregiver. There are also links with neurovulnerability aspects of the child. Attachment disorganization is a powerful predictor of a range of later social and cognitive difficulties and psychopathology (Green & Goldwyn, 2002). Dismissing adolescents who experienced rejection and lack of love from parents had difficulty in recalling distressing events in childhood. Preoccupied adolescents recalled distressing events in a confused or incoherent manner. Secure adolescents' representations were related with family environment, lack of idealization and good recall of attachment experiences. In contrast, dismissing and preoccupied adolescents experienced lack of coherence (Green & Goldwyn, 2002).

Research findings generally indicate that cohesive family environment help individuals develop secure attachment style. Attachment relationships provide the context for the development of mental representations of self and others (Bowlby, 1973; 1982; Bretherton, 1990; 1993) that guide an individual's behavioral and emotional reactions and provide a lens for interpreting future interactions, thus reflect developmental trajectories leading toward interpersonal competence or incompetence (Bowlby, 1982; Bretherton, 1996; Bretherton & Munholland, 1999; Milan & Pinderhughes, 2000). Bretherton (1990) also states that secure attachment of a child is associated with open, fluent, and coherent communication with the early attachment figures. According to Bretherton (1990), an open communication is observed between a securely attached child and his or her parent. In contrast,

avoidant children and their parents resist closeness. Anxious/ ambivalent children, on the other hand, display ambivalent feelings towards parents when they are together.

The attachment literature highlights the importance of emotionally open communication in relationships (e.g., Bretherton, 1990; 1995; Bretherton & Page, 2004). Telling children about difficult situations in honest, sensitive, and developmentally appropriate ways affirms their trust in caregivers. In contrast, when information is hidden, distorted in a manner that contradicts the child's experience, or includes details that frighten the child, distrust or mental health problems may ensue (Bowlby, 1973). Santrock (1997) declared that family cohesiveness is a mediating factor for adolescents to have secure relationships with their parents. Harvey and Byrad (2000) display similar findings. They reported that adolescent who perceived their families as cohesive had secure attachment style and consider themselves active in dealing with problems. They also had social support and help when needed in this coherent environment. Furthermore, secure attachment was closely correlated with a sense of organisms because they have a working model for problem solving as comprehensible and manageable and were more active in solving problems than those both with avoidant and anxious/ ambivalent attachment style who experienced high levels of conflict.

Herzberg and Hammen, (1999) reported that insecurely attached dyads were characterized with impaired communication of feelings between mother and child in the past. In this regard, young adults with insecure working models described their relationships as emotionally nonsupportive. On the contrary, secure attachment style in young adults was associated with higher levels of perceived and active support.

Thus, family environment and family relationships are significant issues to be concerned. Early family environment appears to have a strong effect on future intimate relationships of both adolescents and adults. Put it differently, attachment relationships occur within the context of the family (Donley, 1993) and early attachment experiences are connected to later relational behavior (Herzberg & Hammen, 1999).

As mentioned above, people need a safe, dependable, nurturing environment in which they can grow (Adams & Gullota, 1989). Generally, it is known that homeless and bad-housed children and adolescents suffer all developmental, health, and nutritional risks that others living in poverty do (Adams & Gullota, 1989).

Farrell and White (1998) have studied aspects of family life qualitatively and found that the meaning attributed to parent-child interactions is an important determinant of the observable activity of children's drug use. They argue that the importance of parental involvement in teenagers' lives frequently overlooked. In their study of peer influences and drug use among urban adolescents, Farrell and White (1998) found that an adolescent's relationship with his or her father was a significant resiliency factor which determines the likelihood of an adolescent's drug abuse.

Interestingly, Robertson (1999) has observed that delinquency becomes a satisfactory choice for youth who are trying to meet their need for social connection and the healthy sense of self it provides when their families, especially fathers, are unavailable to meet children's requirements for recreational activities.

Weingarten (1998), based on her qualitative studies on mother-daughter relationships, argues that mothers remain an important resource for the overall health of their older children.

Wentzel and Feldman (1996) and McKeown et al. (1997) have found that adolescents' perceptions of low cohesion within their families were associated with heightened feelings of depression and reduced social acceptance. In another study it was suggested that low cohesion, expressed by feelings of disbelonging, is associated with children's and adolescents' feelings and behaviors reflecting their family environment (i.e., loneliness) (Reinherz, Stewart-Berghauer, Pakiz, Frost, & Moeykens, 1989). However, Wentzel and Feldman (1996) noted that levels of cohesion reported by male and female adolescents had different implications for their personal and social adjustment. Lower levels of family cohesion were associated

with female reports of feeling excluded and depressed, whereas there was no such association for males.

Also, low family cohesion is associated with various personality and social difficulties including depression, loneliness, aggression, and subsequent poor social adjustment (Cummings et al., 1994; Harold & Conger, 1997; Johnson, LaVoie, & Mahoney, 2001; Perry, Perry, & Kennedy, 1992; Wentzel & Feldman, 1996).

There are so many studies, which has investigated the relation of different aspects of loneliness and family. These studies displayed a strong relation between loneliness and family environment.

Solano (1994) investigated the relationship among family members regarding to the level of loneliness and tried to determine the predictors of loneliness for each family member. Results indicated that loneliness of children was significantly correlated with their mothers' levels of loneliness of, but not with their fathers'. For family relations as a whole, loneliness was associated with using fewer relationship- enhancing strategies. For children and mothers, negative attitudes toward others were associated with greater loneliness.

Hojat (1982) tested the hypothesis that those who report unsatisfactory relationships with their parents were likely to experience loneliness in adulthood. Results confirmed the hypotheses. Participants who reported that their parents had not devoted enough time to them, nor understood them, that they had not gone to their parents for help were found to be more likely to experience loneliness.

The study conducted by Johnson, La Voie and Mahoney (2001) addressed the proposed notion that late adolescents' perceptions of their family environment are associated with their reports of loneliness, social anxiety, and social avoidance. They suggested that interpersonal conflict and family cohesion were positively associated with adolescents' feeling of loneliness. In addition, gender was expected to moderate the association between adolescents'. Reports of loneliness and perceptions of interparental conflict and family cohesion were correlated with scores on a measure of loneliness for both males and females. Low family cohesion and interparental conflict were related to reported loneliness for females, demonstrating a strong

family environment component, whereas only interparental conflict was found to predict reported loneliness in males.

Terrell, Terrell, and Von Drashek (2000) investigated the feelings of loneliness and fear of intimacy among adolescents regarding whether they were taught not to trust strangers during childhood. They used UCLA Loneliness Scale and Fear of Intimacy Scale. Researchers found that, participants whose parents had taught them not to trust strangers in their childhood had great fear of intimacy. Moreover, females who had been taught to distrust strangers also experienced more loneliness than did their male counterparts as well as females and males who were not taught to distrust strangers.

Lastly, in Turkey, Uruk and Demir (2003) investigated the relative contribution of three groups of predictors: family environment, peer relationships, and demographic variables on the loneliness levels of adolescents. Results indicated that the most significant predictor of loneliness was peer relations. Moreover, results yielded that there was a negative relationship between loneliness and willingness to self- disclosure to peers, indeed, greater willingness to self- disclosure to peers resulted in feeling less lonely.

2.1.4. Loneliness and Attachment

The central importance of parent-child attachment in Freud's theory of personality is perhaps best captured in his characterization of the infant-mother relationship - without parallel, established unalterably for lifetime as the first and strongest love object and as the prototype of all love relationships. (Freud, 1958)

Attachment theory (Bowlby, 1982; 1988) is principally concerned with the nature of close, enduring emotional bonds or attachments, and how these unique relationships affect the life course. Attachment refers to the emotional and physical bond between infant, and primary caregiver (Gezer, 2001). Infant needs a safe, dependable, nurturing environment to grow (Adams & Gullota, 1989). Through repeated interaction with the primary caregiver, a child develops an internal working model of this care giving relationship (Batgos & Leadbeater, 1994). First attachments

are usually formed within 7 months, only to a few persons, and virtually all infants become attached (Akister, 1998). The internal models developed through relationship with primary caregiver, can be considered as mental representations of the self in relation to others (Batgos & Leadbeater, 1994). In other words; feelings of warmth, trust, and security that infants derive from healthy attachments with their caregiver are the basis for adaptive psychological functioning later in life (Bowlby, 1973). From the vantage point of attachment theory (Ainsworth, 1973; Ainsworth et al., 1978; Bowlby, 1969), maternal behaviors during an infant's first year of life are critical to the formation of a secure attachment relationship.

Bowlby developed attachment theory in the 1950s and 1960s as an extension of psychoanalytic theory (Peluso, Peluso, White, & Kern, 2004). Bowlby's theory is based on the assumption that the attachment system is wired- in evolutionary survival system. Seeking and maintaining contact with the caregiver are primary motivations in human beings and innate survival mechanisms providing the individual with a secure base in a potentially dangerous world (Pines, 2004). Main and Bowlby have described different styles of attachment both in childhood and more recently in adulthood relationships. Four categories were established for infant attachment. First one is secure / B type. When separated from the parent, infant shows signs of distress, seeks proximity on reunion, and then returns to play. Second type is called avoidant/ A and an infant with an avoidant attachment shows little or no distress upon separation and ignores and avoids the parent on reunion. Ambivalent/ C is the third type. Ambivalent infant is greatly distressed and highly focused on the parent, cannot be settled easily by the parent and may seek proximity and display anger in quick succession. Disorganized/ D is the last type. For infants with disorganized attachment pattern, the attachment figure itself is also a source of alarm and is unpredictable (Akister; 1998).

Therefore, Bowlby describes attachment behavior as “any form of behavior that results in a person attaining or retaining proximity to some other differentiated and preferred individual, usually conceived as stronger and/ or wiser.” (Bowlby 1973, p. 292).

Ainsworth et al. (1978) did the first detailed study on individual differences in attachment. As a result, three types of attachment patterns identified depending on internal working models and responsiveness of the primary caregiver. Bowlby's attachment theory and Ainsworth's assessment technique dealt primarily with the infant and caregivers relationship. According to Bowlby, two sets of stimuli trigger fear for infant: presence of clues to danger or the absence of an attachment figure. Therefore, separation is the leading cause of anxiety and then comes the strange situation depending on the separation and reunion episodes (Bowlby, 1973).

Bowlby (1973) stated that there is a sensitive period during when sense of confidence is developed. This confidence can be defined as the availability of an attachment figure whenever one desires it. The sensitive periods are immature years, infancy, childhood, and adolescence. According to Weiss (1982), central features of infant-mother attachment should also be fulfilled by adult relationships. However, of course the attachment in immature years and attachment in adults are not exactly the same. For later years, one's primary attachment figure is the romantic partner and it serves different functions. In particular, romantic love is defined as reciprocal care giving in which partners provide support for each other.

According to Bowlby (1973) experiences with one's caregiver are internalized through internal working models of his or her own self worth, expectations of care and support from others. Bowlby suggests that early healthy attachments enable later positive relationships, while frustrated attachments produce defensive detachment or extreme anxiety. (Hecht & Baum, 1984) Furthermore, attachment relationships are internalized by the child, and the expectations of self and others become generalized to form the blueprint for future interactions with others outside the primary attachment relationship (Peluso, Peluso, White, & Kern, 2004).

Adult attachment styles define peoples' comfort and confidence in close relationships, their fear of rejection and yearning for intimacy, and their preference for self- sufficiency or interpersonal distance. Attachment styles are formed in response to real- life experiences with caregivers and other people, and they reflect

mental representations: (Internal working models) of others, of oneself in relations to others, and of relationships in general (Meyer, 2001).

Hazan and Shaver (1987) state that childhood attachment representations are translated into later dyadic relationships. In Hazan and Shaver's study (1987), anxious ambivalent strategy was associated with inconsistent responsiveness, and anxious/ambivalent individuals see their parents as unfair. Therefore, they develop a strategy to spend much of the time and effort to keep others close. In addition, it is marked by a chronic fear of interpersonal rejection and abandonment. People displaying an avoidant or resistant adult attachment orientation, have internalized negative expectations about their personal competence and lovability, the availability, and responsiveness of intimate others in their social worlds, or both sets of expectations. In this regard, young adults with insecure working models describe their relationships as emotionally non-supportive interactions (Peluso, Peluso, White, & Kern, 2004). In romantic attachment, anxious ambivalent strategy is associated with obsessive preoccupation, falling in love frequently, being extremely jealous, having low self-esteem and experiencing high rate of indiscriminant self disclosure.

Avoidant attachment strategy is associated with consistent unresponsiveness and avoidant individuals describe their mothers as cold, and rejecting. This strategy can be characterized by maintaining self- security by escaping from intimate social contact, especially in stressful circumstances. In adult romantic attachment, avoidancy is expressed in fear of intimacy and close relationship and the pessimistic views of relationship (Peluso, Peluso, White, & Kern, 2004).

On the other hand, secure attachment is believed to result from consistent responsiveness. Secure attachment is characterized by intense feelings of intimacy, emotional security, and physical safety (Peluso, Peluso, White, & Kern, 2004). Those people reported warmer relationships with their parents, held positive mental representations of self and others, were more self- confident and interested in establishing and maintaining relationships (Hazan & Shaver, 1987).

Based on three-category measure, Hazan and Shaver found that the

distribution of categories was similar to that observed in infancy. In other words, about 60% of adults classified themselves as secure, about 20% as avoidant, and about 20% as anxious-resistant.

On the contrary, people with secure adult attachment orientation are presumed to experience low levels of anxiety and avoidance. (Lopez, 2002) As a result, this type of attachment is associated with higher levels of perceived and enacted support (Hazan & Shaver, 1987).

Attachment, which is formed in infancy, influences one's future life (Ainsworth, 1972). Nevertheless, the tendency to establish attachment continues throughout life. The point is that; in different stages of life, individuals develop alternative attachment relationships (Collins & Read, 1990). While the caregiver is the attachment figure in infancy, this situation changes in adolescence and Peers become primary attachment figures (O'Koon, 1997). Since adolescents have greater opportunities for independence from parents and have greater capacity to see themselves as part of a larger community, new relationships begin (O' Koon, 1997).

In adolescence, secure attachment is positively linked to several inter- and intrapersonal outcomes ranging from peer popularity to higher self- esteem and negatively related to others like depression and delinquency. (Allen, Moore, Kuperminc, & Bell, 1998; Kobak, Sudler, & Gamble, 1991; von Ljendoern, & Bakermans-Kronenburg, 1996). Furthermore, female adolescents' and their infants' attachment patterns suggest an intergenerational continuity (Ward & Carlson, 1995).

While research on childhood attachment styles refers to how infants organize their attachment behavior with respect to a particular caregiver (Ainsworth, 1989; Ainsworth et al., 1978), Hazan and Shaver (1987) define adult attachment either in terms of internal representations or models that guide interpersonal behavior and information processing or in terms of characteristic strategies that individuals use to maintain "felt security". As in the research on attachment style in infancy (Ainsworth et al., 1978), Hazan and Shaver (1987) have adopted a tripartite typology of secure, avoidant, anxious- avoidant, anxious- ambivalent attachment styles for classifying adults.

In adulthood, the attachment feelings are directed towards someone with whom adult life may be shared (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

There is now an increasing amount of research which suggests that adult romantic relationships function in the same ways as infant-caregiver relationships do, with some noteworthy exceptions, of course. Naturalistic research on adults separating from their partners at an airport demonstrated that behaviors indicative of attachment-related protest and care giving were evident, and that the regulation of these behaviors was associated with attachment styles (Fraley & Shaver, 2000).

Hazan and Shaver (1987) conducted a study to determine the parallelisms between childhood attachment experiences and adulthood romantic relations. They found that three attachment styles, which are anxious / ambivalent, secure, and avoidant, were as common in adulthood as they are in infancy, in fact they become different. (Shaven, Hazan, & Bradshaw, 1988). Hazan and Shaver's study was followed by different studies examining the quality of adult romantic relationships and other relevant variables such as loneliness. Children and adults' proportions fallen under each attachment category show similarities; and proportions for adults are as follows: 55% secure, 20% anxious/ambivalent, and 25% avoidant in adulthood.

However, attachment researchers who use Ainsworth's typology note cross-cultural differences in attachment style distributions. In collectivistic cultures, percentage of insecure anxious/ ambivalent strategy is higher than that of insecure avoidant strategy which is contrary to individualistic cultures (Hazan and Shaver, 1987).

Bartholomew (1990) systematized Bowlby's conceptions of internal working models in order to explain adult attachment by combining model of self with others. Both models are dichotomized as positive and negative. Model of self describes whether self is deemed as worthy of love and support or not, and model of others reflects whether others are seen as trustworthy, and available or unreliable and rejecting. Through this combination, a four- category model is achieved.

Bartholomew and Horowitz's (1991), four-category model differs from Hazan and Shaver's (1987) tree-category model. In the four-category model,

avoidant category is split into two patterns: fearful avoidance and dismissing avoidance. The differences in the self-model are supported by empirical evidence, which consistently report higher self-esteem and lower actual/ideal self-discrepancies among dismissing individuals rather than fearful individuals.

Griffin and Bartholomew (1994) also argued that these four types could be embedded into two dimensional space in terms of two underlying dimensions mental model of self (anxiety) and mental model of other (avoidance) dimensions. However, Bartholomew's (1994) assessment procedure does not directly measure these two underlying measures. Rather, they are derived from the combinations of four prototype ratings, and these two dimensions are not independent.

In recent studies, underlying dimensions of attachment were re-conceptualized and some investigators attempt to capture the two dimensions that stand out in the analysis referred to above. In a recent study, Brennan, Clark, and Shaver (1998) conducted a large sample factor analytic study in which all of the self-report measures were included. Further factor analysis with these factors yielded, two global factors. In other words, intersection of anxiety and avoidance dimensions gives Bartholomew's four category. Results indicated that the anxiety dimension consists of need for approval, and preoccupation with relationships. It is similar to Bartholomew's model of self. Fear of being abandoned and avoidance dimensions which consist of discomfort with intimacy and closeness factors were obtained clearly and this dimension is similar to model of other dimension in Bartholomew's approach. Dimensional measure of Brennan, Clark and Shaver's Experience of Close Relationships (ECR) instrument gives two- dimensional scores for anxiety and avoidance. This measure provided the highest scores for internal validity among all dimensional measures. Brennan, Clark, and Shaver (1998) demonstrated that four categories that were obtained by this new scale on the basis of anxiety and avoidance dimensions explained more variance on touch and sex subscales than Bartholomew's measure. Moreover, these emotional scores can easily be converted to the four-category model.

Research has found that attachment quality is effective throughout human

life.

Clegg and Sheard (2002) suggested that early attachment relationships were highly predictive of later relationships: secure infants are most likely to become secure adults, while insecure and disorganized relationships create distinct but predictable developmental pathways. Students without such problems were significantly less likely to exhibit rebellious behaviors, while those with problems were significantly more likely to leave home.

Also, in middle childhood, children with secure maternal attachments report lower levels of loneliness than children with insecure maternal attachments (Kerns, 1996).

According to the intergenerational transmission hypothesis, the offspring of parents who are not available and responsive to their needs are likely to experience later difficulties in developing stable couple relationships and in serving as a secure base for their own children (Bretherton & Munholland, 1999).

A quantitative study which examined the association among family environment, attachment, and identity formation partially supported the hypothesis and revealed that unresolved spouse conflict was associated with low levels of attachment in adolescents; and attachment to father was linked to identity achieved and the diffused identity. Besides, parental coalition was negatively correlated with moratorium and diffused identity statuses. These findings support the link between parent/adolescent relationships and the identity formation process (Faber, Edwards, Bauer, & Wetchler; 2003).

The study of Caldera, and Hart (2004) investigated whether quantity of child care exposure and maternal sensitivity predicted attachment style. They depicted that mothers with higher levels of education placed their infants in child care for more hours per week. Maternal sensitivity was positively and significantly related to involvement. Maternal involvement was negatively related to fussy temperament. Maternal sensitivity and involvement were positively related to attachment security. Mothers who were rated high on these two measures assigned their toddlers higher scores on attachment security. Finally, temperament was

negatively related to attachment security. Children with more difficult temperaments were rated as having lower security scores (Caldera & Hart, 2004).

Gezer (2001) tested differences among four attachment styles of male and female students as a function of being raised in high and low coherent families. Research findings showed that individuals who were raised in low coherent family atmosphere had either fearful, preoccupied, or dismissing attachment styles while students who were brought up in highly coherent families had secure attachment style.

Caldera and Hart (2004) investigated whether security of attachment is differentiated by quality of parenting and quantity of exposure to childcare. The scores that less sensitive mothers assign their toddlers is higher when their children are in child care for more hours per week; whereas the scores that more sensitive mothers assign their toddlers is lower when their children are in child care for more hours per week. These contrasting patterns suggest that the effects of parenting style on attachment security are moderated by quantity of exposure to childcare.

Neal and Frick-Horbury (1993) examined the idea that parental behavior characteristic of authoritative, authoritarian and permissive parenting styles seem to parallel the parental behavior connected with secure, avoidant, and ambivalent attachment styles. Since it has been demonstrated that attachment styles result in an internal working model that guides intimate relationships as an adult, it is hypothesized that parenting styles which mirror the attachment pattern will also predict relationship abilities as an adult. Results show that although 92% of the students with authoritative parenting styles are also securely attached, that only attachment styles predict intimacy patterns. Those students who were securely attached to their parents scored significantly higher on tests of personal intimacy and belief in other's abilities to be intimate as opposed to those students with authoritarian or permissive parents (Neal & Frick- Horbury, 1993).

Research has found that attachment quality has effect on completely human life. Such as, adult attachment influences marital quality even in midlife (Hollist and Miller, 2005). Their results indicated that secure attachment styles and behaviors

have less influence on marital quality in relationships that are least 10 years in duration while insecurely attached individuals are vulnerable to the effects of contextual stressors.

Pines (2004) also found a negative correlation between secure attachment style and burnout and a positive correlation between burnout and insecure attachment styles, i.e, avoidant and anxious/ ambivalent. These results support the hypothesis that a history of secure attachment in childhood helps people positively appraise burnout- causing situations, while avoidant or anxious ambivalent attachment styles in childhood is likely to lead to poor coping and burnout.

Hortaçsu, Cesur, & Oral (1993) aimed to test two predictions derived from attachment theory on a sample of Turkish children. First, institution-reared children who were separated from their parents at an early age are less likely to have secure attachment schemata than those children from two- parent families. Second, depressive schemata are positively related to insecure attachment schemata and negatively related to secure attachment schemata. The results supported both predictions.

Research also indicated that development of secure attachment is closely associated with resiliency in high-risk children and adolescents (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). Relationships between 43 high-risk adolescents and their caregivers were examined qualitatively by Ungar (2004). Parents and other formal and informal caregivers such as youth workers and foster parents were found to exert a large influence on the behaviors that bolster mental health among high-risk youth marginalized by poverty, social stigma, personal and physical characteristics, ethnicity, and poor social or academic performance. Participants' accounts of their intergenerational relationships with caregivers showed that teenagers seek close relationships with adults in order to negotiate for powerful self-constructions as resilient. High-risk teens say they want adults in their lives to serve as an audience in front of whom they can perform the identities they construct both inside and outside their homes. This pattern was evident even among youth who showed that they were more peer-than family-oriented (Ungar, 2004).

Tamara (2004) indicated that men who sexually abused children were significantly more likely to have insecure attachment than men who only victimized adults.

Fonagy et al., (1996) applied individual and group psychoanalytic therapy to all patients diagnosed with mood disorders and with severe personality disorders with an average duration of more than 9 months. Although securely attached patients tended to function better than others both at the time of admission and discharge, those, who classified as dismissive, exhibited the greatest amount of relative improvement over the course of treatment.

Pilkonis et al., (1988) also examined attachment styles as predictors of treatment response. Attachment dimensions of 149 patients at a psychiatric hospital were assessed by a semi structured psychosocial interview and consensus ratings of several attachment prototypes. Secure attachment predicted relative improvement in the next 6 months which was assessed by a global rating of psychosocial functioning. However, other attachment types were unrelated to outcome.

In Lopez's (2002) study, it was hypothesized that observed cognitive, affective, and interpersonal correlates of insecure attachment orientations would reflect aspects of a broader self-organizing capacity through which adult attachment orientations would predict outcomes of distress. The results of distress can be conceptualized as the product of a pattern of cognitive- affective dysregulation that is indicative of problematic self-organization. Insecure adult attachment orientations dispose persons to either overreact or under react to problem situations while concurrently experiencing and expressing a less stable and less authentic self-structure. Since this pattern exacerbates the risk of symptomatic behavior, it is assumed to mediate the relationship between adult attachment orientations and distress. As a result; with a few exceptions, the measures of adult attachment orientations were generally and significantly related to the self-organization and distress indexes. Especially these results revealed that attachment anxiety was robustly associated with problem coping, and that both attachment anxiety and

avoidance scores were prominently related to less coherent and less authentic self-structures (Lopez, 2002).

Yih-LAN (2003) investigated how attachment styles were linked to coping strategies in a sample of Taiwan adolescents, and thereby was associated with adolescent psychological adjustment and external behavior. Results indicated that, attachment styles predicted coping strategies. Secure attachment was positively associated with rational coping and support seeking. On the contrary, insecure attachment predicted more negative coping strategies.

2.1.5. Correlates of Loneliness, Family Environment and Attachment Styles

Deniz, Hamarta, and Arı (2005) investigated the effects of attachment styles and gender of university students on their social skills and loneliness levels. They assumed that there was a relationship between social skills and loneliness and that securely attached students' social skill levels were higher than insecurely attached students' social skills levels. Besides they predicted that loneliness levels of students who have no romantic relationships would be significantly higher than the loneliness levels of others. Results yielded that attachment styles had a significant effect on loneliness. It was also found that emotional expressivity, social sensitivity, and social control could be explained by attachment styles. Loneliness was positively correlated to fearful, dismissing, and preoccupied attachment styles, while it was negatively correlated to the secure attachment style. These findings imply that people who have secure attachment styles are less lonely than the others. They have positive view of themselves and others (Deniz, Hamarta, & Arı, 2005).

Although Bowlby has not explicitly linked attachment and loneliness, it has been suggested that the theory can be used to examine the familial antecedents of childhood loneliness (Berlin et. al., 1995). Hecht and Baum (1984) have demonstrated how early attachment patterns affect later development of loneliness in a collage sample. The hypothesis has been supported by results and more to this it is consistent with Bowlby's notion of attachment and separation (Hecht & Baum, 1984).

Kobak and Sceery (1988) declared that insecurely attached late adolescents had significantly higher hostility scores and reported more loneliness, anxiety, and depression. This group also rated their families less supportive than securely attached adolescents. Brage and Meredith (1994) found that family strengths and parent-adolescent communication affected the loneliness of adolescents.

Hojat (1982) reported that individuals who had lacked meaningful peer relationships in childhood were likely to experience loneliness. Subjects who reported that they could not get along with others and did not share their feelings with their peers in childhood tend to feel lonely in adulthood.

Moreover, loneliness was found to be correlated with early attachment. Although reported level of loneliness was high for insecure- avoidant children and moderate for secure children (Berlin et al., 1995), it is argued that if more self-disclosure is related to feeling of loneliness (Stokes, 1987), then less loneliness will be found in secure individuals.

Greater attachment, social integration, and reassurance of worth were associated with social loneliness (Kraus, Davis, Bazzini, Church, & Kirchman, 1993). Emotional loneliness was associated with decreased attachment, and less strongly with decreased opportunity for nurturance. Both social and emotional loneliness found to be related with attachment.

The quality of adult attachment has some influence on social functioning. In a study, it was found that fearful group was the loneliest which was followed by the preoccupied dismissing group successively. Secure group was the least lonely (Man & Hamid, 1998). Securely attached individuals seem to be socially skilled and tend to feel lower loneliness (DiTommaso, McNulthy, Ross &, Burgess, 2003).

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This chapter is devoted to the overall design of the study, presentation of the sample, data collection procedure, instrumentation, and data analysis procedures.

3.1. Overall Design of the Study

This study investigated the influence and prediction of gender, attachment dimensions, and family environment of students' loneliness level.

Four instruments, named, UCLA Loneliness Scale (Peplau & Perlman, 1984); Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Scale; Family Environment Instrument (Gülerce, 1987), and a demographic questionnaire used to collect data. The instruments were given to 473 (281 females, 192 males) students who volunteered to participate in study at Ankara University Cebeci Campus.

3.2. Sample

The participants of this study were 473 university students, 281 of them (59.4 %) were female, and 192 of them (40.6 %) were male. The mean age was 21.1 (SD = 2.46).

Regarding the faculties they are enrolled, 166 of participants (35.1%) were at Educational Sciences Faculty; 132 of them (27 %) were at Faculty of Law; 123 of participants (26 %) were at Communication Faculty; and 52 of participants (11 %) were at Political Sciences Faculty.

Of the students, 109 (23 %) were freshmen, 123 (26 %) were sophomores. 102 of students (21.6 %) were juniors, and 138 of students (29.2 %) were seniors.

With respect to the place of residence, 200 (42 %) stated that they live with their family during enrolled at university; 9 of students (1.9 %) stated that they live with their relatives; 20 of participants (4.2 %) stated, that they live alone at home; 120 of participants (25.4 %) mentioned that they live with their friends; and 124 of participants (26.2 %) reported that they live in dormitories and university dormitory.

3.3. Data Collection Procedure

The instruments were administered in the classroom by the researcher. The participants completed the instruments during the class hour. Both verbal and written standard instructions were given to the all students. Specifically, students were asked to be honest when responding to the instrument items and informed about the confidentiality of the collected data. The whole administration of the instruments took approximately half an hour in each classroom.

3.4. Instruments

Four instruments were used in the present study to collect data. A questionnaire about demographic variables; UCLA Loneliness Scale to investigate the loneliness level of participants. Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Scale to know the attachment styles of participants and Family Environment Instrument, which was used to determine the perceived family environment of the students.

3.4.1. The Questionnaire

A questionnaire about demographic information includes questions about age, gender, faculty, grade, age, residence in Ankara.

3.4.2. University of California Los Angeles Loneliness Scale (UCLA)

The UCLA Loneliness Scale has been widely used in loneliness research. Scores are based on 20 items with a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 'Never' to 'Often'. The scale consists of 10 positively worded statements (1, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10, 15, 16, 19, 20) reflecting satisfaction with social relationships and 10 negatively worded statements (2, 3, 7, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 17, 18) reflecting dissatisfaction with social relationships. The total scores range from 20 to 80, with higher scores indicating greater loneliness. Reported alpha for the UCLA was .94; test-retest reliability over two months was .73; concurrent validity in the form of correlations with the Beck Depression Inventory ($r = .62$); with the Costello-Comrey Anxiety ($r = .32$) and Depression ($r = .55$) (Russell et al., 1980). In the present study the Turkish version of the UCLA (Demir, 1989) was used. The reported results of Demir's (1989) reliability and validity study were as follows: the test-re-test reliability over 5 weeks was found to be .94. The alpha coefficient obtained was .96. Concurrent validity was demonstrated with a lonely versus nonlonely person's self-report of behavior and feelings. Correlation between the UCLA Loneliness Scale and the Beck Depression Inventory was found to be .77. The UCLA Loneliness Scale and Social Introversion Sub-scale of the Multiscore Depression Inventory were highly correlated .82.

3.4.3. Family Environment Assessment Scale (FEAS)

Family Environment Assessment Scale was developed by Gülerce (1992) to assess the coherence and the functioning patterns within the family environment. The scale developed according to the axis of the Transformational Model of Human Systems. Communication (items 1 to 9), marital/family unity (items 10 to 18), management/organizational control (items 19 to 26), family competency (items 27 to 31), and emotional context (items 32 to 36) are the subscales of FEAS that measure different aspects of family's psychological functioning. In addition to the five subscales people's own perceptions of their families' psychological functioning

(FEAS-Individual) and the whole family members' perceptions of marriage (FEAS-Marriage) can be assessed by FEAS (Gülerce, 1996).

Family Environment Assessment Scale is a 36-item instrument with 10-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 10 (strongly disagree) although the points in-between the extremes are unnamed and actually coincide 5 values. By this way the participants are expected to locate freely the point in their minds as they want to according to the semantic distance from the extreme points. The maximum score is "5" and the minimum score is "1" for each item. The lowest possible score is 36 and the highest possible score is 180 for the total test. The higher FEAS score one receives, the "better" and "healthier" the adjustment/ coherence are.

The criterion-related validity evidence was obtained by correlating the scores of the instrument with those of Beavers-Timberlawn Family Assessment Scale. The result revealed a correlation coefficient of .78 ($p < .001$). The t test comparison between families with no clinical symptoms and families with clinical symptoms revealed that the scale significantly discriminated the two groups ($t = 3.74$; $SD = .40$; $p < .001$). The scale also had a satisfactory level of internal consistency ($\alpha = .70$), stability ($r = .79$) and split-half reliability (.83) (Gülerce, 1996).

FEAS- Individual score was used in the present study to assess participants' own perceptions of their families psychological functioning.

3.4.4. Experiences in Close Relationships- Revised (ECR-R)

The Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire was developed by Fraley, Waller, and Brennan (2000). The Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire (ECR; Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998) is a 36-item 7-point Likert type self-report measure of adult attachment. More specifically, it measures adult attachment within the context of romantic relationships. 18-item subscale measures anxiety and avoidance dimensions. Coded items are reversed. Mean of the items with odd numbers and mean of the items with even numbers give the anxiety and

avoidance scores, respectively. The anxiety subscales measures one's self reported degree of anxiety in romantic adult relationships, whereas avoidance assesses the extent of avoidance of intimacy in such relationships.

The ECR-R differs from the majority measures of attachment in that it does not specify attachment types. It rather places individuals' attachment orientations on a continuum of these two dimensions. The security of attachment is conceptually placed at lower level of these two dimensions. The scores on these two dimensions can be converted to place respondents into three or four categories.

Fraley et al. (2000) used the item response theory analysis of self-report measures of adult attachment in revising the ECR. The item response theory models are designed to represent relations between an individual's item response and an underlying latent trait (Fraley et al., 2000). Thus, they obtained median Beta 1 values of -1.67 and -1.86 for Anxiety and Avoidance respectively. The items with low Beta 1 values also tended to have low discrimination values. The correlation between alpha and Beta 1 was $.59$ for Anxiety and $.68$ for Avoidance. Therefore, Fraley et al. (2000) selected items with highest discrimination values and came up with 18 items for each of the two factors. Thirteen of anxiety (72 %) and 7 of avoidance (39 %) scale items were from the original ECR. Due to this overlap of the items, they refer to the new instrument as Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R).

Finally, Fraley et al. (2000) examined reliability coefficients of the ECR-R in comparison with the Adult Attachment Scale-AAS, (Collins & Read, 1990); the Relationship Style Questionnaire-RSQ, (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994); the Experiences in Close Relationships- ECR, (Brennan et al., 1998). The ECR-R had higher test re-test reliability coefficients ranging from $.93$ to $.95$ than the other measures.

Selçuk, Günaydın, Sümer, and Uysal (2005) adopted the ECR- R into Turkish. In this study, the items are loaded in two factors as did in the original study. The internal consistencies of attachment avoidance and anxiety subscales were found to be satisfactory ($.90$ and $.86$, respectively). Selçuk et al. (2005) also found

that the ECR- R Turkish version has high test- retest reliability. Coefficients were .81 for avoidance subscale and .82 for anxiety subscale.

In the present study, both avoidance and anxiety dimensions and attachment types yielded by these dimensions are used. Nonhierarchical cluster analysis were used to assign participants in to attachment patterns by using two underlying attachment dimensions; anxiety and avoidance.

3.5. Data Analysis Procedure

The data were analyzed with Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 13.0).

To prepare the data for analysis, the negative items of UCLA Loneliness Scale were reversed. A loneliness score was calculated for each participant summing up the reversed and positive scores gained from UCLA Loneliness Scale.

FEAS scores of each participant were calculated by obtaining the sum of the items. A total FEAS score was obtained. A cut-off point was accepted as $M = 125.62$ based on norm score given by Gülerce (1996) for family environment. The score above norm mean score was accepted as the indicator of high family coherence (> 125.62) while the score below the mean score (< 125.62) was accepted as the indicator of low family coherence.

ECR-R yields two subscale scores. The higher scores obtained for avoidant or anxiety attachment dimensions and security of attachment is placed at lower levels of these two dimensions. Non-hierarchic cluster analysis was used to assign participants into four-attachment patterns by using two underlying attachment dimensions; anxiety and avoidance.

Three-way ANOVA was applied to display the effect of independent variables on loneliness. Stepwise Multiple regression analysis was applied to investigate predictive effect of gender, attachment dimensions, and family environment on loneliness level of individuals.

3.6. Determination of Attachment Types by Non-Hierarchic Cluster Analysis

Non-hierarchic cluster analysis was used to assign participants into attachment patterns by using two underlying attachment dimensions; anxiety and avoidance. Participants in the 'secure' category were expected to be scored low on both anxiety and avoidance dimension. As expected, secures were scored low on both anxiety (M = 2.57) and avoidance (M = 1.96) dimensions in contrast to the fearful individuals who were scored highest on both anxiety (M = 4.54) and avoidance (M= 4.08) dimensions. Moreover, dismissing individuals showed the higher anxiety (M = 2.97) and avoidance (M = 3.50) than secure attachment. On the other hand, preoccupied individuals were expected to be scored high on anxiety and low on avoidance. The cluster that corresponds to this group had a mean score of 4.04 for anxiety and 2.32 for avoidance.

The fearful attachment style was reported to be the most frequently observed style while the dismissing attachment style was less frequent one.

It was expected that the number of participants with preoccupied attachment style would be significantly larger than that of students with other insecure attachment styles due to cultural influences. However, the distribution of participants with different attachment styles was not consistent with previous studies conducted in Turkey (Sümer & Günger, 1999).

The participants of this study, categorized by using cluster analysis as follows; 'secure' attached ones were 128 (27.1 %), 'dismissing' ones were 94 (19.9 %), 'preoccupation' is 118 (24.9 %) and fearful attached participants were 133 (28 %) of the total group.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results obtained from the statistical analysis. First, in order to investigate the effect of gender, attachment types, and family environment on loneliness, a 2 (female - male) \times 4 (secure - dismissing- preoccupied - fearful) \times 2 (low - high family coherence) three way ANOVA was employed.

Second, the Stepwise Multiple regression analysis, applied to investigate predictive effect of gender, attachment dimensions, and family environment on loneliness level.

The significance level is set as $\alpha = .05$ in the study.

4.1. Results Concerning the Differences of Three-Way ANOVA

For the purpose of investigating the possible differences among the loneliness level of the participants by attachment type, family coherence and gender, a 2 (female - male) \times 4 (secure - dismissing- preoccupied- fearful) \times 2 (low - high family coherence) ANOVA was conducted. Non-hierarchic cluster analysis was used to assign participants into four-attachment patterns, namely, secure attachment, dismissing attachment, fearful attachment and preoccupied attachment. A cut-off point was accepted as $M = 125.62$ based on norm score given by Gülerce (1996) for family environment.

The means and standard deviations of the loneliness scores with regard to their attachment types, and gender were presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1. The Means and Standard Deviations of The Loneliness Scores Regard to Gender, Attachment Types, and Family Environment

Attachment Type	Family Environment	Gender	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Secure	High Coherence	Female	29.46	8.10	52
		Male	30.28	7.83	38
		Total	29.81	7.95	90
	Low Coherence	Female	31.37	8.49	24
		Male	34.57	9.02	14
		Total	32.55	8.71	38
Dismissing	High Coherence	Female	30.92	8.24	42
		Male	33.47	8.43	17
		Total	31.66	8.30	59
	Low Coherence	Female	33.95	7.24	21
		Male	40.07	13.83	14
		Total	36.40	10.64	35
Fearful	High Coherence	Female	33.29	7.18	47
		Male	37.90	10.18	20
		Total	34.67	8.38	67
	Low Coherence	Female	33.95	11.41	30
		Male	40.07	9.50	36
		Total	36.40	10.37	66
Preoccupation	High Coherence	Female	31.77	7.79	44
		Male	30.55	8.22	34
		Total	31.24	7.95	78
	Low Coherence	Female	33.33	8.27	21
		Male	32.95	10.37	19
		Total	33.15	9.20	40

As presented in Table 4.1, from high coherent families; securely attached

male participants ($M = 29.46$, and $SD = 8.1$) reported higher mean of loneliness score than securely attached female participants ($M = 30.28$, $SD = 7.83$). Also, dismissed attached male participants $M = 33.47$, ($SD = 8.43$) reported higher mean of loneliness score than dismissed attached female participants $M = 30.92$, ($SD = 33.47$). On the other hand, preoccupied attached female participants $M = 31.77$, ($SD = 7.79$) reported higher mean than preoccupied attached males $M = 30.55$, ($SD = 8.22$). Moreover, fearfully attached male participants $M = 37.9$, ($SD = 10.18$) reported higher mean than fearfully attached female participants $M = 33.29$, ($SD = 7.18$)

Of participants from low coherent families; securely attached males reported $M = 34.57$, ($SD = 9.02$) higher mean of loneliness score than securely attached females $M = 31.3$, ($SD = 8.49$). Dismissed attached male participants $M = 40.07$, ($SD = 13.83$) reported higher mean than dismissed attached female participants $M = 33.95$, ($SD = 7.24$). On the other hand, preoccupied attached female participants $M = 33.33$, ($SD = 8.27$) reported higher mean than preoccupied attached male participants $M = 32.95$, ($SD = 10.37$). Fearfully attached male $M = 42.02$, ($SD = 10.37$) and female participants $M = 40.16$, ($SD = 11.41$) reported highest means.

The results of three-way ANOVA applied to the loneliness scores are presented at Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. The results of Three-way ANOVA Depend on Loneliness Scores

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Attachment Type	3305.85	3	1101.95	14.29	.00
Family Environment	1467.27	1	1467.27	19.03	.00
Gender	477.38	1	477.38	6.19	.01
Attachment Type * Family Environment	207.00	3	69.01	0.89	.44
Attachment Type * Gender	358.30	3	119.434	1.55	.20

Table 4.2. (Continued) The results of Three-way ANOVA Depend on Loneliness Scores

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Attachment Type *	25.20	1	25.20	0.33	.57
Gender					
Attachment Type *	148.13	3	49.38		
Family Environment* Gender					
Error	35225.19	457	77.08	0.64	.59
Total	574446.0	473			
	0				
Corrected Total	42247.36	472			

A Computed using alpha = .05

B R Squared = .166 (Adjusted R Squared = .139)

The results of the three-way ANOVA employed to the loneliness scores of the university students yielded a significant main effect of attachment types ($F_{(457, 3)} = 14.29, p = .00$). Similarly; main effect of family environment ($F_{(457,1)} = 19.03, p = .001$) and gender ($F_{(457, 1)} = 6.19, p = .01$) was significant.

On the other hand; the interaction between attachment type and family environment were not significant ($F_{(457,3)} = 0.89, p = .44$). The interaction between attachment type and gender is also not significant ($F_{(457, 3)} = 1.55, p = 0.2$). Similarly; the interaction of gender and family environment is not significant ($F_{(457, 1)} = .33, p = .57$). Finally; interaction effect of attachment type, family environment, and gender on loneliness is also not significant ($F_{(457, 3)} = .64, p = .59$).

According to results of Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances $F_{(36, 11)} = .942, p = .51$ non-equality of variances were not significant. Post- hoc comparisons of interaction effect with equal sample size performed by Scheffe as

described by Kalaycı (2006). The mean significant at .05 levels. Results of post- hoc comparisons are given at Table 4.3.

Table 4.3. Results of Multiple Comparisons

(I) Attachment Group	(J) Attachment Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Security	Dismissing	-2.80	1.19	.14
	Fearful	-7.28 *	1.09	.00
	Preoccupation	-1.26	1.12	.73
Dismissing	Security	2.80	1.19	.14
	Fearful	-4.48 *	1.18	.00
	Preoccupation	1.53	1.21	.66
Fearful	Security	7.28 *	1.09	.00
	Dismissing	4.48 *	1.18	.00
	Preoccupation	6.00 *	1.11	.00
Preoccupation	Security	1.26	1.12	.73
	Dismissing	-1.53	1.21	.66
	Fearful	-6.00 *	1.11	.00

Results displayed that fearful attachment type is significantly differentiated from secure, preoccupied, and dismissing types. In addition, means of attachment types depend on means of loneliness level is presented on the Figure 4.1.

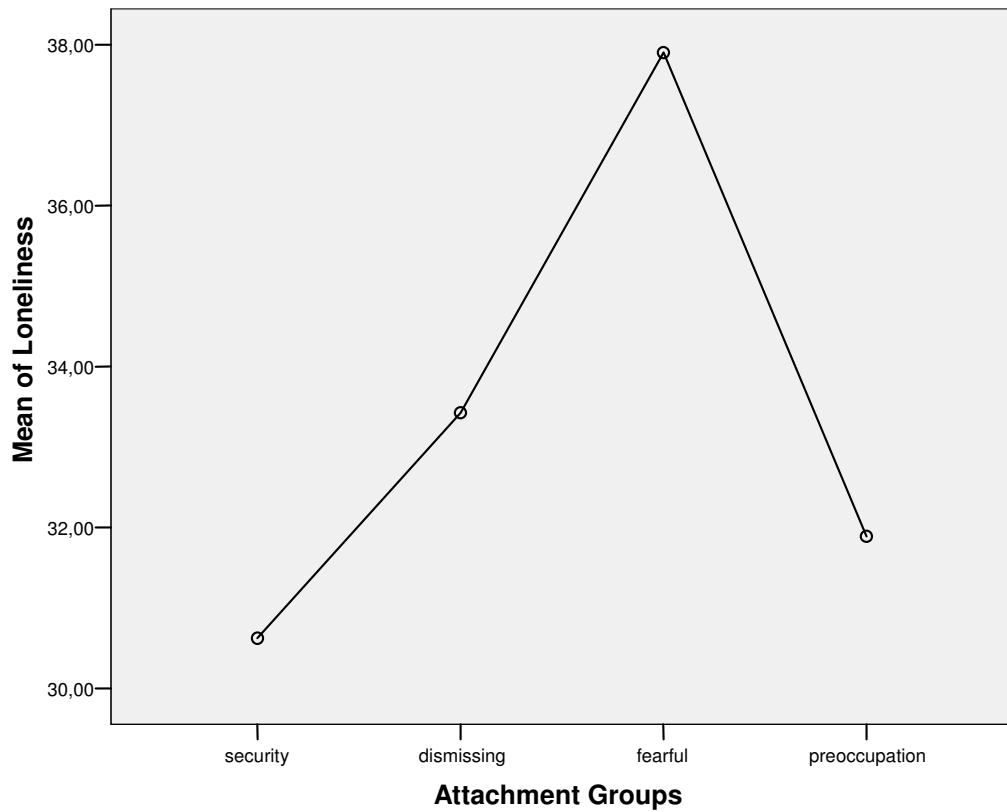


Figure 4.1. Means of Attachment Groups

As seen at the figure 4.1, fearful attachment type is separated from other three-attachment type depend on mean of loneliness. In addition, not as much as fearful but dismissing attachment type is also separated from secure and preoccupied attachment types.

4.2. Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis

In the present study, Stepwise Regression analysis was conducted to predict the effect of the independent variables, which are gender, attachment dimensions

measured as anxiety and avoidance, and family environment on dependent variable, loneliness. Gender was entered Stepwise Multiple regression analysis as a dummy variable.

Before conducting the analysis, major assumptions of the multiple regression analysis were checked out. In order to test normality, descriptive statistics including mean, standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis, and histograms were conducted. Results of these statistics demonstrated that normality was not violated. In addition, multicollinearity was tested. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) suggested that a bivariate correlation of .70 or more indicates multicollinearity. Related with this, correlations among independent variables were checked and found no intercorrelation above .70. Additionally, tolerance and VIF values were used for indicators of multicollinearity. With the criteria of tolerance should not be less than .20 and VIF should not be higher than 4, multicollinearity was not detected for the present data. In addition, autocorrelation of variables were tested by Durbin- Watson test. Scores between 1.5-2.5 are suggested an autocorrelation of variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Related with this, autocorrelations of independent variables were checked and found no auto correlation.

Stepwise Regression analysis preferred in the present study. Because Stepwise Regression is typically used to develop a subset of independent variables that is useful in predicting the dependent variable, and to eliminate those independent variables that do not provide additional prediction to the independent variables already in the equation. (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). In Stepwise Regression entry of variables is based solely on statistical criteria. As an exploratory technique, it may useful for such purposes as eliminating variables that are clearly superfluous in order to tighten up future research (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Descriptive statistics of variables and Coefficient Correlations are computed. Means and standard deviations of variables are given at Table 4.4. Coefficient Correlations of variables are yielded at Table 4.5.

Table 4.4. Means and Standard Deviations of Loneliness, Gender, Attachment Dimensions, and Family Environment.

Variables		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Loneliness		473	33.54	9.46
Attachment Dimensions	Anxiety	473	3.56	1.02
	Avoidance	473	2.95	1.04
Family Environment	High Coherence	294	31.67	8.28
	Low Coherence	179	36.62	10.45
	Total Score	473	129.75	21.52
Gender		473	.59	.49

As seen in Table 4.4, mean of the participants loneliness scores is 33.54 (SD = 9.46). Participants reported attachment anxiety (M = 3.56) and attachment avoidance (M = 2.95); with standard deviation (SD = 1.02), and (SD = 1.04). Of participants, mean of family coherence for total group is 129.75 (SD = 21.52). Mean of participants who have low coherence family environment is 36.62 (SD = 10.45), and mean of participants have high family coherence is 31.67 (SD = 8.28). Mean of gender ,s 0.59 (SD = 0.49)

In order to examine the relationship between variables used in the study, correlation Coefficient was computed. Correlations among the variables are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5. Correlations Among Loneliness, Attachment Dimensions, and Family Environment

		Loneliness	Attachment Dimensions		Family Coherence	Gender
			Anxiety	Avoidance		
Loneliness		-	.28 **	.33 **	-.27**	-.12**
Attachment Dimensions	Anxiety	.28 **	-	.41**	-.15**	-.01**
	Avoidance	.33 **	.41**	-	-.10 *	.07**

Table 4.5. (Continued) Correlations Among Loneliness, Attachment Dimensions, and Family Environment

Family Coherence	-.27 **	-.15**	-.10 *	-	.09**
Gender	-.12**	-.01**	.07**	.09**	-

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As seen in Table 4.5, avoidance and anxiety subscales are correlated with each other; $r(471) = .41, p < .001$. Loneliness is correlated with anxiety dimension $r(471) = .28, p < .001$, and with avoidant dimension $r(471) = .33, p < .001$. There is negative correlation with loneliness and family coherence obtained by FEAS, is $r(471) = -.27, p < .001$. In addition, results displayed negative correlation with anxiety $r(471) = -.15, p < .001$ and avoidance $r(471) = -.10, p < .005$ dimensions of attachment with family correlation. Lastly, gender is negatively correlated with loneliness $r(471) = -.12, p < .001$ and anxiety $r(471) = -.01, p < .001$. Also, positively correlated with avoidance $r(471) = .07, p < .001$ and family coherence $r(471) = .09, p < .001$.

Stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted to predict loneliness. Results of the stepwise multiple regression analysis yielded at Table 4.6.

Table 4.6. Model Summary of Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis

Model	R	R ²	Adj. R ²	Std. Err. of the Est.	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R ²	F	df1	df2	Sig. F	
					Change	Change			Change	
1	.33(a)	.11	.10	8.95	.11	56.37	1	471	.00	
2	.36(b)	.14	.13	8.83	.027	13.94	1	470	.00	
3	.42(c)	.18	.17	8.59	.05	27.22	1	469	.00	
4	.44(d)	.19	.19	8.53	.01	7.50	1	468	.00	2.01

1 Predictors: (Constant). Avoidance

- 2 Predictors: (Constant), Avoidance, Anxiety
 - 3 Predictors: (Constant), Avoidance, Anxiety, Family Environment
 - 4 Predictors: (Constant), Avoidance, Anxiety, Family Environment, Gender
- Dependent Variable: Loneliness

Avoidant attachment dimension was significantly predicted loneliness. $R^2 = .11$ adjusted $R^2 = .10$, $F(1, 471) = 56.37$, $p = .00$. The regression equation with the avoidance and anxiety dimensions together was also significant, $R^2 = .14$, adjusted $R^2 = .13$, $F(1, 470) = 13.94$, $p = .00$.

In addition. The regression equation of family environment and attachment dimensions. Included anxiety and avoidance was significant. $R^2 = .18$. adjusted $R^2 = .17$, $F(1, 469) = 27.22$, $p = .00$.

Finally, the regression equation of avoidance and anxiety dimensions of attachment. Family environment and gender was significant $R^2 = .19$, adjusted $R^2 = .19$, $F(1, 468) = 7.5$, $p = .00$. It is indicating that 19 percent of the variance in loneliness is explained by all factors operating jointly.

Standardized regression coefficients (Beta), t values, Partial correlation coefficients, Zero- Order correlation coefficients and part correlation coefficients of the models presented at Table 4.7.

Table 4.7. The Bivariate and Partial Correlations and the Significance Levels of β

Model		Sig.	Standard Coefficients		t	Sig.	Zero-Order	Partial	Part
			Beta						
1	(Constant)	.00			19.94	.00			
	Avoidance	.00	.33	.33	7.51	.00	.33	.33	.33
2	(Constant)	.00			12.86	.00			
	Avoidance	.00	.25	.25	5.43	.00	.33	.24	.23
	Anxiety	.00	.18	.18	3.73	.00	.28	.17	.16

Table 4.7. (Continued) The Bivariate and Partial Correlations and the Significance Levels of β

3	(Consent)	.00		11.22	.00			
	Avoidance	.00	.24	5.33	.00	.33	.24	.22
	Anxiety	.00	.15	3.18	.00	.28	.14	.13
	Family Env.	.00	-.22	-5.22	.00	.27	.24	.22
4	(Consant)	.00		11.45	.00			
	Avoidance	.00	.25	5.58	.00	.33	.25	.23
	Anxiety	.00	.14	3.11	.00	.28	.14	.13
	Family Env.	.00	-.21	-4.96	.00	.27	.22	.21
	Gender	.00	-.11	-2.74	.00	.12	.13	.11

It was seen that in the overall model, Avoidance, Anxiety, Family Cohesion and Gender positively predicted Loneliness with Beta values of $\beta = .25$, $p < .001$. $\beta = .14$, $p < .001$, $\beta = -.21$, $p < .001$, $\beta = -.11$, $p < .001$ respectively.

Partial and zero- order bivariate correlations are reported for each of the individual variables in attachment dimensions, family environment, and gender. This was done to understand the unique contribution of each variable to the prediction of loneliness.

Of these variables, avoidance and anxiety dimensions were the most strongly related to the loneliness. Partialling out of the effects of other predictors, all variables, namely, avoidance dimension, anxiety dimension and family environment, and gender are significantly correlated with loneliness. Of these variables, avoidance dimension was the most strongly related to loneliness. Supporting this conclusion is the strength of the partial correlation between avoidance and loneliness, which was, $.33$, $p = .00$, and partial correlation of anxiety and loneliness, which was, $.23$, $p = .00$. Moreover, coefficient correlations of independent variables are displayed in Tale 4.8.

Table 4.8. Coefficient Correlations of Independent Variables

	Model	Avoidance	Anxiety	Family Env.	Gender	
1	Correlations	Avoidance	-			
	Covariances	Avoidance	.16			
2	Correlations	Avoidance	-	-.41		
		Anxiety	-.41	-		
	Covariances	Avoidance	.18	-.08		
		Anxiety	-.08	.19		
3	Correlations	Avoidance	-	-.40	.04	
		Anxiety	-.40	-	.12	
		Family Env.	.04	.12	-	
	Covariances	Avoidance	.17	-.07	.00	
		Anxiety	-.07	.19	.00	
		Family Env.	.00	.00	.00	
4	Correlations	Avoidance	-	-.40	.05	.08
		Anxiety	-.40	-	.12	-.03
		Family Env.	.05	.12	-	.10
		Gender	.08	-.03	.10	-
	Covariances	Avoidance	.17	-.07	.00	.03
		Anxiety	-.07	.18	.00	-.01
		Family Env.	.00	.00	.00	.00
		Gender	.03	-.01	.00	.65

In sum, stepwise multiple regression analysis demonstrated that Avoidance, Anxiety, Family Environment, and Gender appeared as significant predictors explaining 19 percent of the total variance of the Loneliness scores of the students. This means that students who scored higher on avoidance, anxiety tended to score high on loneliness, students who scored lower on family environment tended to score high on loneliness and males are also tended to score higher on Loneliness.

Lastly, the figure of Normal P- P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual is yielded.

The figure is clearly indicated the correlation of independent variables with loneliness. As indicated at the figure, observed cumulative probability of loneliness with independent variables is concordant with expected cumulative probability.

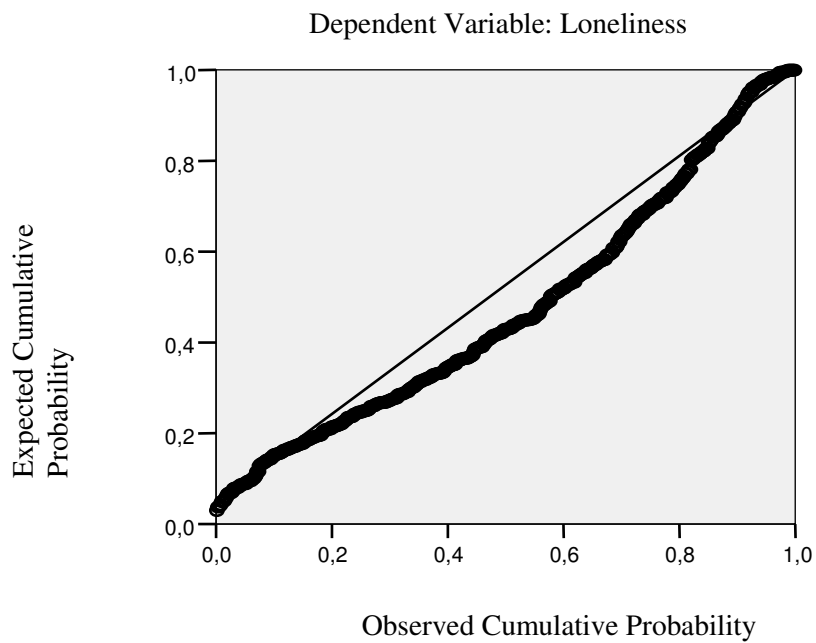


Figure 4.2. Normal P- P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This chapter includes discussion, implications and the recommendations sections

5.1. Discussion

In this study, the following questions were sought to be answered. (1) What are the possible differences among the loneliness level of the participants by gender, attachment type, and family environment? (2) To what extent loneliness is predicted from gender, attachment styles, and family environment?

Discussion part of study includes effects of gender, attachment types, and family environment on loneliness, and prediction of loneliness via gender, attachment dimension, and family environment. Results of study discussed and compared with the literature under each title.

5.1.1. The Effect of Gender, Attachment Dimension, and Family Environment on Loneliness

Responses on attachment style showed that there was a significant main effect of attachment style on loneliness level. Similarly, family environment and gender also had significant main effects on loneliness level.

There were significant gender differences in loneliness scores. Findings of the study are consistent with several other studies (Brage and Meredith, 1994; Demir, 1990; Norman & DeWayne, 1986; Schmitt and Kurdek, 1985; Schultz & Moore, 1986; & Wiseman and Gutfreund, 1995). Males were found to be lonelier than females. This may be because females generally report more friend and family

support than males (Selçuk, 1989; Stokes & Levin, 1986). Also, the fact that boys relative inability to express their feelings to others (Ponzetti & Cate, 1981) may be the reason of higher loneliness level of males. Besides, females were found to be more in touch with their feelings and they find this quality to be more acceptable than males do. Moreover, girls reported greater emotional intimacy with their friends, showed greater loyalty and trust, more dependence on their friends (Franzoi & Davis, 1985; Furman & Buhrmester, 1985; Medora & Woodward, 1986).

Especially in Turkish society, child-rearing practices are playing an important role. Females are expected to be more relation-oriented, dependent and supportive. On the other hand, males are expected to be more independent and assertive. They are less willing to ask for help, to seek support, and disclose themselves to others because they do not want to be perceived as weak and dependent (Ünsal & Kapçı, 2005).

On the contrary, some researchers yielded that females had reported higher loneliness scores than males (Medore & Woodward, 1986; Page & Cole, 1991; Sundberg, 1988; Terrel, Terrel, & Von Drashek, 2000; Woodward & Frank, 1988) and, some others found no gender difference with regard to loneliness (Kalliopuska & Laitinen, 1991; Jackson & Cochran, 1990; Jones, Freemon, & Goswick, 1981; Moraldo, 1981). Researches who found that men were less lonely claim that it is related to men's greater reluctance to disclose socially undesirable feelings rather than a result from actual gender difference (Jong-Gierveld, 1987).

Family environment, also, found to be related with loneliness. Results have shown that loneliness is negatively correlated with family environment. In other words, loneliness levels of participants increase as the family environment levels of participants decrease.

In our cultural context, families have greater influence on the development of identity than they do in Western cultures (Uruk, 2001; Uruk & Demir, 2003). These results are consistent with theoretical literature which has revealed that individuals who are raised in highly coherent families have secure attachment style. According to theory, children in supportive and cooperative family environments

develop secure inner working models that lead them to establish positive relations with others in a secure and confident manner (Collins & Read, 1990; Feeney & Noller, 1990; Herzberg & Hammen, 1999).

Family cohesion seemed significantly correlated with loneliness in the study. Individuals who reported low family coherence are significantly lonelier than individuals who reported high family coherence.

These results were consistent with the theoretical literature yielding the importance of family environment in the development of loneliness. Jones, Carpenter, and Quintina (1985) noted that families had a critical role in the development of loneliness.

Brage, Meredith and Woodward (1994) stressed the importance of establishing close relationships with others.

Johnson, La Voie and Mahoney (2001) also stressed that family environment was associated with their reports of loneliness. They proposed that interpersonal conflict and family cohesion are positively associated with adolescents' feelings of loneliness.

Uruk and Demir (2003) stated that; although, cohesion, unity, emotional bonding, and power were no significantly correlated with loneliness; they had indirect effects on loneliness levels of adolescents.

Authors seem to agree that problems in the family may lead to lack of social support and negative self-perception; and that these factors cause low self-esteem, depression, and hopelessness. Then they may contribute to suicide ideation and behavior (Roberts et al., 1998). Besides, loneliness is usually associated with negative feelings such as anxiety, anger, boredom, sadness, hopelessness, and emptiness (Gordon, 1976; Jones, Freemon, & Goswick, 1981).

Loneliness is also related with attachment styles. Participants were assigned to either anxious or avoidant attachment style with cluster analysis. The analysis yielded expected results. Participants who scored low on both anxiety and avoidance dimension fell under secure category. Participants who scored highest on both anxiety and avoidance fell under fearful category. Moreover, dismissing individuals

showed higher anxiety and avoidance than individuals under secure attachment category. Lastly, individuals who scored high on anxiety and low on avoidance classified under preoccupied attachment type.

Loneliness was found to be significantly high in fearfully attached individuals. Although not significant, loneliness level of dismissing attachment type was found relatively high. The negative views of individuals who have fearful and dismissing attachment styles diminish their skills of establishing and maintaining relationships. Preoccupied attachment type also displayed higher loneliness level than secure attachment type, but the difference was not significant. Preoccupied types seemed to have negative self-concepts and positive concept of others. These individuals were characterized by high-level dependencies. They tried to earn others' respect and tended to control their interpersonal style. (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Karakurt, 2001).

Securely attached individuals display lowest level of loneliness. These findings have implied that securely attached people have a positive concept of self and others. Compared to nonlonely people, lonely ones perceive others less trustworthy (Ernst & Cacioppo, 1999; Rotenberg, 1994), less supportive (Vaux, 1988), less communicatively competent (Jones et al., 1981), as well as less attractive and socially desirable (Jones et al., 1981, Jones et al., 1983). Lonely individuals are also more cynical, less accepting of others, and more likely to expect (as well as fear) negative evaluations from others (Jones et al., 1981; Jones et al., 1983). This prevents them from easily establishing and maintaining relationships and escaping from loneliness.

There are several studies, which indicate that lonely individuals are classified as insecure. The study by Deniz, Hamarta, and Arı (2005) showed that fearful, preoccupied and dismissing individuals reported higher levels of loneliness. Kobak and Sceery (1988) found that late adolescents who were insecurely attached scored significantly high on measures of hostility and reported more loneliness, anxiety, and depression. This group also rated their families less supportive than

security attached adolescents did. Hecht, and Baum (1984) found that insecurely attached individuals felt lonelier than securely attached ones.

Female participants, who are securely attached and have high coherent family environment, were the less lonely group of the study while the males fearfully attached from low coherent families were the loneliest group.

On the other hand, the interactions between attachment type and family environment, attachment type and gender and gender and family environment were not significant. Also, interaction effect of attachment type, family environment, and gender on loneliness was not significant.

Despite the insignificant interaction effects, main effects were significant and revealed strong relationships. To strengthen the investigation Stepwise Multiple regression analysis were applied.

5.1.2. Prediction of Loneliness by Gender, Attachment Dimension, and Family Environment

The general findings of present study about loneliness level of the subjects are consistent with other studies findings (Uruk, 2001; Güngör, 1996). As Güngör (1996) stated the similarity between the degrees of loneliness can be due to the fact that this study was performed with students at a large university in a big city, Ankara.

On the other hand; German, Czech, Canadian, and Chinese participants who were living in USA, and American students scored significantly higher than Turkish students of similar age do (Adams, Sadors, & Auth, 2004; Hsu, Hailey, & Range, 2001; Lamm & Stephan, 1987; Levin & Stokes, 1986; Rokach & Bauer, 2004). Bhogle (1991) asserted that being independent and self-reliant in cultures with typical collectivistic and familial values and with large, close-knit families is much less valued than in the North American culture.

Consequently, in their attempts to adjust to the more individualistically oriented North American or European culture, people experience more interpersonal isolation and a sense of social inadequacy.

Mean scores of anxious and avoidant attachment are similar as expected with other studies conducted in Turkey (Löker, 1999) and international (Hazan & Shaver, 1994; Morrison et al., 1997).

Loneliness is positively correlated with both anxious and avoidant attachment. In other words, whenever levels of anxious and/ or avoidant attachment increase, so does loneliness level.

Another important finding on attachment dimensions is that, participants reported higher levels of anxious attachment than avoidant attachment. Besides; these two subscales were significantly correlated with each other.

As mentioned before, it was hypothesized that family environment, attachment dimensions and gender would be significant predictors of loneliness level in this study. Findings of the study have revealed that avoidant attachment accounted for 11%; avoidant and anxious attachment 14%; all attachment dimensions and family environment %18 and all variables together; namely attachment dimensions, family environment, and gender 19% of variance in loneliness.

In a study examining the effect of attachment style and gender on university students' level of loneliness, it was found that attachment styles had a significant effect on loneliness. Loneliness was found to be positively correlated to fearful, dismissing, and preoccupied attachment styles (Arı, Deniz, & Hamarta, 2005).

Hecht and Baum (1984) studied how early attachment patterns affected later development of loneliness in a collage sample. The results indicate that attachment types are predictors of loneliness.

Kobak and Sceery (1988) examined the attachment type and loneliness and found that insecurely attached individuals were lonelier than securely attached ones. They also reported more anxiety and depression in insecurely attached individuals. Moreover, insecurely attached group also rated their families as less supportive than securely attached individuals did.

Oral, Hortaçsu and Cesur (1993) investigated the relationship between Turkish children's attachment styles and their primary attachment figures. They found that depression in children was highly correlated with avoidant attachment.

Another study of Hortaçsu and Oral (1990) showed that relationship with parents had an effect on the relationships of adolescents.

Cohesion is one of the basic functions of the family. It is the emotional, intellectual, and physical closeness among family members. Families teach individuals how to relate to and treat each other (Gezer, 2001). Besides, families provide an appropriate setting for nurturing, growth, and education. Family environment is a school for children where they acquire social and emotional skills and form first attachment bonds. Especially in Turkish society, as stated before, family influence in the regulation of social conduct and the development of identity is greater than it is in Western cultures (Altun, 2001).

In addition, results have shown negative correlation between anxious and avoidant attachment styles with family cohesion. In other words, high insecure attachment scores indicate an incoherent family structure.

Family environment was found to be the second predictor of loneliness for participants of the study. Relevant literature generally supports the idea that cohesive family environment help individuals develop secure attachment style. Many researchers have suggested that secure attachment of children is linked with highly cohesive family environment. On the contrary, avoidant children and their parents have rather detached relationships (Collins & Read, 1990; Feeney & Noller, 1990; Gezer, 2001).

Family has great influence on individual's life. Family effects not only the development of attachment style, but also the acquisition of social capabilities and coping strategies.

Johnson, LaVoie, and Mahoney (2001) reported that adolescents' perceptions of their family were associated with their reports of loneliness, social anxiety, and social avoidance. They proposed that interpersonal conflict and family cohesion were positively correlated with adolescents' feeling of loneliness, Terrell, Terrell, and Von Drashek (2000) informed that low family cohesion and interparental conflict were related with reported loneliness of individuals. This result is consistent with the findings of Hojat (1982), who found that adolescents who were having

problems with their parents were more likely to experience loneliness.

There is no study that examines the relation of loneliness with family environment, attachment dimensions, and gender, together. Ones that investigate predictors of loneliness did not cover all of them.

5.2. Implications

All human beings may feel loneliness at some time of their lives. Counselors have to be aware of reasons and consequences of loneliness. Being aware of loneliness has significant implications for counselors in educational settings. Counselors may be more helpful, and supportive if they understand the importance of family environment on the development of loneliness.

School counselors should be educated in order to prevent loneliness turning into more serious problems such as depression, suicide and drug abuse.

Family environment and attachment style are influential on individuals' lives. It is crucial for counselors to be more concerned with individual's family environment and attachment styles. Counselors may provide coping skill strategies for the individuals from low- coherent family environment and who developed an insecure attachment style.

Counselors should help students as well as parents to develop healthy relationships within their family. Families should also be included in intervention programs. Family members are crucial figures in facilitating healthy psychological development of children. They should cooperate with school counselors and educators. School counselors and educators should be aware that family environment contributes to an individual's loneliness level.

Consistent with this view, findings of the study may have important implications for both research and practice, particularly for the counselors in educational settings and parents. Counselors in those settings can guide parents toward establishing coherent family environment.

In order to help parents dealing with such problems, counselors themselves

should be knowledgeable about these problems as well as about attachment dimensions, development of attachment, effects of family environment and gender differences on feelings of loneliness.

The findings of this study also support the view that securely attached individuals are less lonely than insecurely attached individuals. If an individual is not securely attached, then counselors should encourage clients to develop supportive relationships within the school settings to eliminate loneliness. As a result, secure attachment may be provided by the cooperation among counselors, family members, peers and others.

In addition, seminars for both individuals and their families will provide a better understanding of the importance of healthy attachment in relationships.

Being informed about individuals' attachment styles is an advantage for counselors. It will enable the counselor to determine the appropriate counseling strategies during the sessions, and to develop functional programs. For example, cognitive- behavioral intervention programs may be effective in changing the working models about themselves and others (Gezer, 2001).

Another point is the effect of gender difference in feelings of loneliness. Research has revealed that males are lonelier than females. Thus, counselors should pay attention to gender difference while determining an individual's loneliness level.

5.3. Recommendations

The results of the present study indicate that counselors, school staff, and families should seriously consider attachment dimensions, family environment, and gender difference while developing prevention and intervention programs for the psychological well- being of individuals

Other family variables, such as, socio-economic status, cultural and educational backgrounds of the parents were not controlled in this study. Especially cultural and emotional background may be influential on adolescents' attachment experiences and should be included in future studies.

Moreover, several other social and relational variables were not examined in the study. Peer relations, social support mechanisms, and other social variables may also be important factors that should be investigated.

Finally, personality characteristics, such as coping- mechanisms, social skills, shyness, assertiveness are also needed to be investigated to determine the reasons and consequences of loneliness in the future.

Several hypotheses have been formulated regarding the correlates of loneliness. It seems that development of loneliness is a complex process. Possible effects of background such as attachment, family environment, past experiences, affect the feeling of loneliness. In addition, personality characteristics such as self-esteem or social anxiety and shyness create difficulties for the person who is trying to establish or to maintain satisfactory relationships, as a result, increase the loneliness (Peplau & Perlman, 1981). Moreover, the number of available relationships, the nature of achieved relationships, marital status, age, employment status and housing conditions affect the level of loneliness (Jong-Gierveld, 1987). Much of these hypotheses have not been investigated in Turkish culture, yet. Researches should pay attention to these possible correlates of loneliness.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

(Students Opinion Questionnaire)

Sevgili Öğrenci;

Üniversite öğrencilerin yalnızlık düzeylerini etkileyen bazı değişkenlerin araştırıldığı bu çalışmada, size ve ilişkilerinize yönelik bilgi edinmeyi amaçlayan form ve ölçekler yer almaktadır. Sizden istenilen bu ölçekleri dikkatli ve içten olarak yanıtlamanızdır. Sorulara eksiksiz ve içten yanıtlar vermeniz araştırmanın amacına ulaşabilmesini sağlayacaktır.

Araştırmada sonuçlara gruplar halinde bakılacağından, kimliğinizle ilgili herhangi bir bilgi gerekmemektedir.

Katkılarınızdan dolayı şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

Bu çalışma ile ilgili sorularınızı, aşağıdaki adres ve telefon yardımıyla paylaşabilirsiniz.

Araš. Gör. Aylin Demirli

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KİŞİSEL BİLGİ FORMU

Yaşınız :

Cinsiyetiniz : K ()

E ()

Fakülteniz:.....

Bölümünüz:.....

Sınıfınız:.....

Şu Anda Yaşadığınız Yer:

Ailemle ()

Akraba Yanında ()

Evde- Yalnız ()

Evde- Arkadaşla ()

Yurt ()

Diğer.....

APPENDIX B

UCLA Loneliness Scale

Aşağıda çeşitli duygu ve düşünceleri içeren ifadeler verilmektedir. Sizden istenilen her ifade de tanımlanan duygu ve düşünceyi ne sıklıkta hissettiğinizi ve düşündüğünüzü her biri için tek bir rakamı daire içine alarak belirtmenizdir.

	Ben bu durumu HİÇ yaşamam	Ben bu durumu NADİREN Yaşarım	Ben bu durumu BAZEN Yaşarım	Ben bu durumu SIK SIK Yaşarım
1. Kendimi çevremdeki insanlarla uyum içinde hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4
2. Arkadaşım yok.	1	2	3	4
3. Başvurabileceğim hiç kimsem yok.	1	2	3	4
4. Kendimi tek başıyım gibisi hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4
5. Kendimi bir arkadaş grubunun bir parçası olarak hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4
6. Çevremdeki insanlarla bir çok ortak yönüm var.	1	2	3	4
7. Artık hiç kimseyle samimi değilim.	1	2	3	4
8. İlgilerim ve fikirlerim paylaşılmıyor.	1	2	3	4
9. Dışa dönük bir insanım.	1	2	3	4
10. Kendimi yakın hissettiğim insanlar var.	1	2	3	4
11. Kendimi grubun dışına itilmiş hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4
12. Sosyal ilişkilerim yüzeyseldir.	1	2	3	4
13. Hiç kimse gerçekten beni iyi tanımıyor.	1	2	3	4
14. Kendimi diğer insanlardan soyutlanmış hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4
15. İstediyim zaman arkadaş bulabilirim.	1	2	3	4

16. Beni gerekten anlayan insanlar var.	1	2	3	4
17. Bu derece iime kapanmıř olmaktan dolayı mutsuzum, evremdekilerce	1	2	3	4
18. evremde insanlar var ama benimle deęiller.	1	2	3	4
19. Konuřabileceęim insanlar var.	1	2	3	4
20. Derdimi anlatabileceęim insanlar var.	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX C

Experiences in Close Relationships- Revised

Aşağıdaki maddeler romantik ilişkilerinizde hissettiğiniz duygularla ilgilidir. Bu araştırmada sizin ilişkinizde yalnızca şu anda değil, genel olarak neler olduğuyla ya da neler yaşadığınızla ilgilenmekteyiz. Maddelerde sözü geçen "birlikte olduğum kişi" ifadesi ile romantik ilişkide bulunduğunuz kişi kastedilmektedir. Eğer halihazırda bir romantik ilişki içerisinde değilseniz, aşağıdaki maddeleri bir ilişki içinde olduğunuzu varsayarak cevaplandırınız. Her bir maddenin ilişkilerinizdeki duygu ve düşüncelerinizi ne oranda yansıttığını karşılardaki 7 aralıklı ölçek üzerinde, ilgili rakam üzerine çarpı (X) koyarak gösteriniz.

	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7						
Hiç katılmıyorum		Kararsızım/ fikrim yok					Tamamen katılıyorum
1. Birlikte olduğum kişinin sevgisini kaybetmekten korkarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Gerçekte ne hissettiğimi birlikte olduğum kişiye göstermemeyi tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Sıklıkla, birlikte olduğum kişinin artık benimle olmak istemeyeceği korkusuna kapılırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Özel duygu ve düşüncelerimi birlikte olduğum kişiyle paylaşmak konusunda kendimi rahat hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Sıklıkla, birlikte olduğum kişinin beni gerçekten sevmediği kaygısına kapılırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilere güvenip inanmak konusunda kendimi rahat bırakmakta zorlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilerin beni, benim onları önemseydiğim kadar önemsemeyeceklerinden endişe duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilere yakın olma konusunda çok rahatımdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Sıklıkla, birlikte olduğum kişinin bana duyduğu hislerin benim ona duyduğum hisler kadar güçlü olmasını isterim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilere açılma konusunda kendimi rahat hissetmem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. İlişkilerimi kafama çok takarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilere fazla yakın olmamayı tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Benden uzakta olduğunda, birlikte olduğum kişinin başka birine ilgi duyabileceği korkusuna kapılırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişi benimle çok yakın olmak istediğinde rahatsızlık duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilere duygularımı gösterdiğimde, onların benim için aynı şeyleri hissetmeyeceğinden korkarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16. Birlikte olduğum kişiyle kolayca yakınlaşabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Birlikte olduğum kişinin beni terk edeceğinden pek endişe duymam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Birlikte olduğum kişiyle yakınlaşmak bana zor gelmez.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişi kendimden şüphe etmeme neden olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Genellikle, birlikte olduğum kişiyle sorunlarımı ve kaygılarımı tartışırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Terk edilmekten pek korkmam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Zor zamanlarımda, romantik ilişkide olduğum kişiden yardım istemek bana iyi gelir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Birlikte olduğum kişinin, bana benim istediğim kadar yakınlaşmak istemediğini düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Birlikte olduğum kişiye hemen hemen her şeyi anlatırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişiler bazen bana olan duygularını sebepsiz yere değiştirirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Başımdan geçenleri birlikte olduğum kişiyle konuşurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. Çok yakın olma arzum bazen insanları korkutup uzaklaştırır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Birlikte olduğum kişiler benimle çok yakınlaştığında gergin hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Romantik ilişkide olduğum bir kişi beni yakından tanıdıçça, "gerçek ben"den hoşlanmayacağından korkarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilere güvenip inanma konusunda rahatımdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. Birlikte olduğum kişiden ihtiyaç duyduğum şefkat ve desteği görememek beni öfkelenendirir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişiye güvenip inanmak benim için kolaydır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. Başka insanlara denk olamamaktan endişe duyarım	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. Birlikte olduğum kişiye şefkat göstermek benim için kolaydır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. Birlikte olduğum kişi beni sadece kızgın olduğumda önemser.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. Birlikte olduğum kişi beni ve ihtiyaçlarımı gerçekten anlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX D

Family Environment Assessment Scale

Lütfen aşağıdaki bütün sorulan ve anladığınız biçimde, sizin gerçeğinizi yansıtmaya derecesini basamaklara uygun olanını işaretleyerek yanıtlayınız.

	TAMAMEN AYNI ←————→ TAM TERSİ									
1. Ailemizde her türlü konu ve fikir açıkça konuşulur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2. Evimizde birisi bir şey söylediği zaman, diğerleri aynı şeyi anlarlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
3. Bizim evde, olaylar karşısındaki düşünce ve duygular konuşmaktan çok davranışlarla ifade edilir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
4. Bizim evde, sözlerle söylenenler, davranışlarla anlatılanları tutmaz.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5. Evdekilerle çatışmaktansa susmayı veya başkalarıyla konuşmayı yeğlerim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
6. Bizim evde, konuşulmayacak konular bence çok fazladır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
7. Beni korkutan, başaramayacağımı sandığım ve üzüldüğüm şeyleri anne-babama rahatlıkla söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
8. Beni sevindiren, aklımdan geçen ve komik şeyleri anne-babama rahatlıkla söylerim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9. Ailemizdeki iletişimi son derece doyurucu bulurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
10. Birimizin işte, okulda veya arkadaşından öğrendiği bir şey evde genellikle ilgi görür, tartışılır ve beğenilirse uygulanır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11. Ailem, başkalarından gelen eleştiri yada önerilere tamamen kapalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
12. Evimizde, TV, radyo, gazete, dergi, kitap, konferans, sinema, tiyatro gibi yollarla yeni şeyler öğrenmeye ve dünyada olup bitenlere çok ilgi duyulur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
13. Bizim evde, iş, okul ve ev dışında da bir çok uğraş (hobiler, özel ilgiler, spor faaliyetleri vb.) vardır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
14. Doğrusu ailemden daha çok bağlı olduğum bir insan (arkadaş, terapist, kendi ailem, akraba, vb) var.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
15. Ailem, benim pek çok arkadaşımın tanışıklığıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
16. Ailemizde, dayanışma ve birlik duygusu çok güçlüdür.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

17. Annem-babamın evde kendi başıma geçirmek istediğim zamana (çalışırken, oyun oynarken, TV seyredirken, vb.) karşı tavrı çok anlayışlıdır, beni rahat bırakır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
18. Birbirimizle çok iyi geçiniriz.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
19. Bizim aileyi ilgilendiren kararlarda, evdeki herkesin fikri alınır veya çıkarı gözetilir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
20. Bizde aileyle ilgili sorumlulukların dağılımı hakça olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
21. Bizim evde, birisi diğerlerinden daha önemlidir; yani daha çok sevilir, kayırlır ve dediğini yaparır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
22. Ailemizde işbölümü, herkese düşen görevler ve diğer kurallar açık seçik belirgindir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
23. Bizim evde, karşılaşılan aksamalar ve çıkan çatışmalar mutlaka çözümlenir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
24. Bizim aileyi ilgilendiren kararlarda, ev içinden söz sahibi olanlar, dışarıdan karışanlardan her zaman çoktur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
25. Evimizde, görevini aksatan veya bu kararlara uymayan(lar), şiddetle kınanır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
26. Evde yapmam gereken şeyler için her zaman yeterli zamanım olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
27. Genel olarak, bizim sağlıklı, huzurlu ve iyi bir aile olduğumuzu düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
28. Ailem, büyük bir sağlık ve para sorunu dışında bir problemle karşılaştığında bunu kendi başına halledebilir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
29. Ailem, geçmişte karşılaştığı zor durumların üstesinden geldi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
30. Gerekğinde, ailem çevresinden yeterince destek alabilir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
31. Ailemden son derece gurur ve haz duyuyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
32. Bizim ailede, herkesin birbirini değiştirmeye çalıştığı çok belirgindir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
33. Bizim evde, kimsenin eleştiriye tahammülü yoktur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
34. Bizim ailede, her çeşit duygunun (üzüntü, mutluluk, coşku, kırgınlık, korku vb.), hissettiğimiz gibi yaşanması olağandır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
35. Bence; ailemizde değişmesi mümkün olamayacak tavırlar çoktur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
36. Birbirimize yeterince sevgi ve şefkat gösteririz.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10