

**MEDIATING ROLE OF MARITAL SATISFACTION IN THE
TYPES OF INFIDELITY – FORGIVENESS, TRAIT POSITIVE
AFFECT – FORGIVENESS AND COPING – FORGIVENESS
RELATIONSHIPS IN MARRIED MEN AND WOMEN**

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ABSTRACT

MEDIATING ROLE OF MARITAL SATISFACTION IN THE TYPES OF INFIDELITY – FORGIVENESS, TRAIT POSITIVE AFFECT – FORGIVENESS AND COPING – FORGIVENESS RELATIONSHIPS IN MARRIED MEN AND WOMEN

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The aim of the present study was to investigate the predictor role of type of infidelity, trait positive affect, and coping on forgiveness via marital satisfaction. In addition, present study aimed to examine gender differences in the proposed relationships among study variables. Demographic Information Form, Positive Affect and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS), Transgression-Related Interpersonal Motivations Inventory (TRIM), Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) and Turkish Ways of Coping Inventory (TWCI) were administered to 122 married individuals. Results indicated that 1) marital satisfaction did not mediate the relationship between types of infidelity and forgiveness; 2) marital satisfaction mediated the relationship between trait positive affect and forgiveness; 3) marital satisfaction did not mediate the relationship between problem focused-coping and forgiveness while marital satisfaction mediated the relationship between emotion-focused coping and forgiveness; 4) gender differences in proposed relationships among study variables were rejected because men and women have similar parameters for the proposed model. After findings were

evaluated, limitations were discussed with an emphasis on recommendations for future research, and implications for clinical psychology were mentioned.

Keywords: Forgiveness, infidelity, positive affect, marital satisfaction, coping

ÖZ

EVLİ KADIN VE ERKEKLERDE ALDATMANIN TİPİ- AFFETME, POZİTİF DUYGU- AFFETME VE BAŞ ETME-AFFETME İLİŞKİLERİNDE EVLİLİK DOYUMUNUN ARACI ROLÜ

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Bu çalışmanın amacı aldatma tipi-affetme, olumlu duygu-affetme ve baş etme-affetme ilişkilerinde evlilik doyumunun aracı rolünü araştırmaktır. Ayrıca, çalışma öngörülen ilişkilerde cinsiyet farklılığını da araştırmaktadır. 122 evli kişiye Demografik Bilgi Formu, Pozitif ve Negatif Duygular Ölçeği, Suça İlişkin Kişilerarası Motivasyonlar Ölçeği, Çiftler Uyum Ölçeği ve Başaçıkma Yolları Ölçeği uygulanmıştır. Sonuçlara göre, evlilik doyumu, olumlu duygu- affetme ve duygu odaklı baş etme-affetme ilişkilerinde aracı rol oynarken, aldatma tipi-affetme ve problem odaklı baş etme-affetme ilişkilerinde aracı rol oynamamıştır. Sonuçların değerlendirilmesinin ardından, gelecek çalışmalar için öneriler üzerine vurgu yapılarak kısıtlılıklar tartışılmıştır ve sonuçların klinik psikoloji alanına yansımaları belirtilmiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Affetme, aldatma, olumlu duygu, evlilik doyumu, baş etme

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter consists of background of the study, aims of the study, significance of the study and implications of the study.

1.1. Background of the Study

In psychology literature, research on forgiveness has been increased for last years but no consensual definition of forgiveness is available. Researchers do not agree on what forgiveness is. For example, McCullough, Pargament, and Thoresen (2000) defined forgiveness as “*intraindividual, prosocial change toward a perceived transgressor that is situated within a specific interpersonal context*” (p. 8). Enright, Freedman and Rique (1998) defined forgiveness as:

A willingness to abandon one’s right to resentment negative judgements, and indifferent behavior one who unjustly hurt us, while fostering the undeserved qualities of compassion, generosity and love toward him or her (p. 47).

They found that people who successfully complete the forgiveness process have reduced or eliminated negative feelings, thoughts, and behaviors toward the offender. Also, those develop positive feelings, thoughts, and behaviors toward the offender. Scholars (cited in Philpot, 2006) emphasized that forgiveness is distinguished other process like condoning, excusing, pardoning, forgetting, accepting, denial and reconciliation. Differences in those terms are explained in detail in literature review part. Benefits of forgiveness summarized as follows: 1) aids psychological healing through positive changes in affect, 2) improves physical and mental health, 3) restores a victim’s sense of personal power,

4) helps bring about reconciliation between the offended and offender, 5) promotes hope for the resolution of real-world intergroup conflicts.

McCullough and colleagues (1998) proposed a model clarifying socio-psychological nature of forgiveness. According to this model, there are four determinants of forgiveness which are; social-cognitive level determinants, offense-related determinants, personality-level determinants and relational-level determinants. Specifically, social-cognitive level variables contains judgments of responsibility and blame, perceived intentionality, and rumination about the offense; offense-level variables includes infidelity, violence, deception; personality-level variables involves personality traits; relationship-level variables includes satisfaction, commitment and closeness.

As an offense-level variable, infidelity is a critical subject which can be studied on forgiveness research. A study done by Gunderson and Ferrari (2008) proposed that there is lack of research concerning forgiveness of infidelity. Generally, infidelity was described as violating a promise or some form of deception which are contrary to main notion of and societal norms related with marriage (Barta & Kiene, 2005). Most research of infidelity described infidelity by identifying two types which are sexual infidelity and emotional infidelity. While sexual infidelity is usually characterized by “*a physical, sexual relationship that has little or no emotional attachment*”, emotional infidelity, is typically conceptualized as “*a deep emotional connection or bond that does not have a sexual component*” (Kimeldorf, 2008, p.7).

Because of definition problem, it is difficult to identify the true incidence and prevalence rates of infidelity. Shackelford and Buss (1997) reported that the lifetime prevalence of marital infidelity ranges from 26% to 70% for women and 33% to 75% for men. Infidelity is one of the most serious forms of violating relationship norms. Spouse's infidelity was reported the primary reason of divorce for 25-50% for divorced people

(Kelly & Conley, 1987). In the study of Hortoğlu (2010) with 780 people in Turkey, 30% of the participants reported infidelity as reason of divorce.

Infidelity has detrimental effects on the couple relationships. The discovery that one's partner has been unfaithful can cause intense distress, loss of trust, damaged self-esteem, and decreased personal and sexual confidence, impairment in confidence and intimacy level within couples (Kimeldorf, 2008). It is difficult to decide whether couples will keep up or terminate their relationship. Due to the emotions felt by the couple, decisions made during the crisis, and fragility of controlling their relationship after the crisis, therapists need to be able to understand and address the unique treatment issues. According to a study by Whisman, Dixon, and Johnson (1997), clinicians reported that infidelity was the third most difficult therapeutic problem to treat and the second one was having destructive effects on relationships.

There are recent advances in understanding the forgiveness regarding personality. In this context, many studies showed that some personality traits are related with the tendency to forgive. Forgiving people tend to be less anxious (Fu, Watkins, & Hui, 2004), less ruminative (McCullough, et. al, 1998; Paleari, Regalia, & Fincham, 2005), less anger (Sutton et al., 2007), and more empathic (Tangney et al., 1999; Glaeser, 2008) than people who are less forgiving. Personality factors, such as agreeableness and emotional stability components of the "Big Five Factors" of personality (Costa & McCrae, 1992) have been positively associated with forgiveness (Ashton, Paunonen, Helmes, & Jackson, 1998); on the other hand, neuroticism negatively associated with forgiveness (Wang, 2008). A forgiving person is inclined to be aware of anger-mitigating circumstances and to have greatly developed emotion-management skills that permit him or her to control anger and related forgiveness-inhibiting emotions (Enright, 2001).

As a personality-level variable, trait positive affect was defined as *"reflecting pervasive individual differences in positive emotionality and self-*

concept” (Watson & Clark, 1984). It was suggested that there is a need to conduct research about personality- level variables in forgiveness studies (Kachadourian, Fincham, & Davila; 2004). Trait positive affect is related to well-being, social potency and achievement, happiness and alertness. It was found that people with high positive affect are more likely to participate in social activities, report higher life satisfaction and successfully cope with stressful situations (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988).

As another individual-level variable, coping has been studied in recent forgiveness research (e.g. Maltby et al., 2007; Strelan & Wojtysiak, 2009). There has been lack of information whether there is relationship between coping and forgiveness in the case of infidelity. The effect of coping and types of coping strategies on forgiveness can be important issues for the understanding forgiveness in details. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) explained coping as “*Cognitive and behavioral efforts to master, reduce or tolerate the internal and/or external demands that are created by a stressful transaction*” (p.843). Coping strategies can be divided in two main categories. The first, called problem-focused coping, which is directed toward controlling or changing the problem through direct action. The second, called emotion-focused coping, targets to lessen or control the emotional distress which is related with the situation by reexplaining the meaning of the situation (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989).

Forgiveness largely occurs within a relational context and is associated with the nature of the relationship (e.g., closeness, quality). Paradoxically, those people love are often the ones that people are most probably to injure. When interpersonal offenses happen in such relationships they can cause strong negative feelings and have the potential to ruin the relationship. Forgiving the partner for the offense provides closure in point of a painful or disturbing relationship event. Hence, forgiveness may have worthwhile meanings for long-term relationship outcomes as well as short-term patterns of interaction. Expectedly, spouses report that the capacity to seek and grant forgiveness is one of the most

crucial factors contributing to marital longevity and marital satisfaction. Also, according to marital therapists in case of transgressions in a relationship like infidelity or overcoming with everyday relationship hurts, forgiveness is one of the most important components of the healing process (Fincham, Beach, & Davila, 2004).

As a relationship variable, marital satisfaction is one of the widely studied concepts in relationship research. Marital satisfaction is defined as “*a subjective evaluation by an individual of the degree of happiness, pleasure, or fulfilment experienced within the marital relationship between spouse and self*” (Rho, 1989, p.5). Investigating marital satisfaction is significant not only for the well-being of individuals and families, but also for the greater society (Stack & Eshleman, 1998; Bradbury, Fincham & Beach, 2000). The physical and mental well-being of couples is affected by the quality of close relationships. Psychological distress caused by negative life happenings could be protected through marital satisfaction (Fincham & Bradbury, 1993).

The association between marital satisfaction and forgiveness also takes place in the current literature (e.g. Kachadourian, Fincham, & Davila, 2005; Orathinkal & Vansteenwegen, 2007; Miller & Worthington, 2010). Forgiveness in marriage is critical for marital longevity, marital quality and marital satisfaction (Fincham & Beach, 2007). Forgiveness enables couples to cope with problems and prevent occurrence of forthcoming problems (Worthington & DiBlasio, 1990). Most researchers (e.g Kelley & Thibaut, 1978; Finkel, Rusbult, Kumashiro, & Hannon, 2002; McCullough et al., 1998) reported that people are tendency to forgive their partners when they are committed to and satisfied with their relationships. McCullough (1998) argued that because of a higher possibility of confession and apology in satisfied relationships, forgiveness seems in greater likelihood in satisfying marriages.

Gender is one of the variables that are commonly studied in research on forgiveness. According to a meta-analysis, including 70 studies, women

are more prone to forgive than men regardless of type of offense (Miller, Worthington, McDaniel, 2008). Moreover, in a romantic relationship, partner's infidelity can have devastating effects on both men and women. Shackelford, Buss and Bennett (2002) found that men and women would respond differently to different types of infidelity. Specifically, compared to men, women are less likely to forgive emotional infidelity; compared to women, men are less likely to forgive sexual infidelity. On the other hand, Harris (2003) reported that there is no difference between men and women with respect to forgiveness of sexual and emotional infidelity. Therefore, there is no consensus whether men and women would respond differently to different types of infidelity. In addition, Glass and Wright (1992) found that among men and women who had engaged in extramarital intercourse, men were more likely than women to justify extramarital sex for sexual reasons while women were more likely than men to justify extramarital sex for reasons of love.

1.2. Aims of the Study

It seems apparent from the studies mentioned in previous section that forgiveness was examined in relation to general transgressions instead of specific ones such as infidelity, violence and sexual insult. Researchers proposed that there was a gap in forgiveness literature considering infidelity and pointed out that more research which examined forgiveness of infidelity was required (Kachadourian et al., 2004; Gunderson & Ferrari, 2008). The primary goal of the present study was to investigate and to gain an understanding of forgiveness in the case of infidelity. Forgiveness was the major focus of this study. As discussed above, forgiveness is shown to affect and to be affected by several variables. The present study investigated the impact of types of infidelity, trait positive affect, coping, marital satisfaction and gender on forgiveness. Specifically, this study aimed to demonstrate whether types of infidelity (sexual infidelity and emotional infidelity), trait

positive affect, coping (problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping) predicted forgiveness via marital satisfaction for men and women.

Regarding present purposes, the present study aimed to answer the following research questions:

1. Is there a mediator role of marital satisfaction between types of infidelity and forgiveness?
2. Is there a mediator role of marital satisfaction between trait positive affect and forgiveness?
3. Is there a mediator role of marital satisfaction between coping and forgiveness?
4. Are there gender differences in proposed relationships among study variables?

1.3. Significance of the Study

A variety of transgressions (e.g. violence, insult, abuse) have been studied on forgiveness research. It was suggested that infidelity is a highly neglected area in forgiveness literature and further research is needed to provide a wider understanding of forgiveness in the case of infidelity (Kachadourian et al., 2004; Gunderson & Ferrari, 2008). Therefore, in the light of these recommendations, this study will meet the needs in the literature by exploring forgiveness concerning infidelity.

In the most research about forgiveness of infidelity, participants are exposed to hypothetical infidelity. It is the most important limitation of forgiveness research since measuring forgiveness of infidelity hypothetically is not enough to understand the mechanisms that influence forgiveness. However, present research will be conducted on people who had experienced infidelity in their marriages. Therefore, another significance of the current study is that results of the study will be more representative.

As mentioned before, gender differences in forgiveness in the case of infidelity is unclear (Miller et al., 2008; Harris, 2003). Inconsistent results

regarding gender may be resulted from cultural differences. Thus, this study will contribute to the literature by examining the relationship between gender and forgiveness of infidelity in Turkish culture. This study will be the first that study on effect of gender on forgiveness in the event of infidelity in Turkey.

Studies of forgiveness have not focused much on differences in forgiveness depending on the type of offense, how the dynamics of forgiveness may change as a result of variables related marriage, and individual differences. This study will examine forgiveness by integrating these three level variables which are individual level, offense level and relationship level. Therefore, the present study will be the first in the literature to examine forgiveness in term of those three dimensions.

In the light of related literature mentioned before, it is clear that forgiveness and infidelity takes place to some degree in the literature. In forgiveness literature, trait positive affect, coping, marital satisfaction, gender have been investigated separately in limited extent (e.g. Harris, 2003; Fincham & Beach, 2007; McCullough, Bono, and Root, 2007). However, the possible relationships among these variables have not widely attracted the researcher's attention. Present study is the first attempt to examine the relationship among all those variables. By investigating forgiveness considering the effects of types of infidelity, trait positive affect, coping, marital satisfaction, gender, this study aims to contribute to an increased understanding of forgiveness in the case of infidelity and hopes to make valuable contributions to literature.

1.4. Implications of the Study

Infidelity has destructive effects on both individuals and couples (Kimeldorf, 2008). However, treatment options for couples and individuals who want to recover from infidelity are so limited (Blow & Hartnett, 2005). Thus, one of the main implications of the current study would be expanding the treatment options used by clinicians for the victims of infidelity whereby

showing the recovery impact of coping in the case of infidelity. More specifically, present study could provide substantial information about which types of coping strategies, emotional-focused or problem-focused, would be more helpful to deal with the effects of infidelity. According to the results derived from the study, clinicians could support their treatment plan by creating intervention programs to improve the appropriate coping strategies.

The present study can be helpful in the field of clinical practice. It is expected to make practical contributions so as to increase the awareness related to the importance of including the variables related to forgiveness in individual or marital therapies. There has been a shift in the literature towards the integration of forgiveness in therapies (Wade & Worthington, 2005). The present study aims to contribute to this recent shift through its findings which would demonstrate the impact of positive affect, coping and marital satisfaction on forgiveness. Therefore, recognizing the importance of those variables on forgiveness, clinicians may include improving marital satisfaction, positive affect, and coping strategies as an ultimate goal in therapy.

Moreover, this study will examine the infidelity in terms of sexual infidelity and emotional infidelity. Also, gender effect on the relationship among study variables will be measured. Knowing that differences in effects of sexual infidelity and emotional infidelity and gender differences on forgiveness process will be useful in choosing suitable approach for clinicians who struggle to help their clients dealing with a partner's infidelity. In other words, clinicians may navigate their treatment plan in line with gender of the victim and type of the infidelity.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, literature regarding study variables, namely, forgiveness, infidelity, trait positive affect, coping, marital satisfaction and gender were reviewed in detail. Considering study variables, previous findings, theories and models were reviewed.

2.1. Forgiveness

This section includes four parts, namely, definitions and characteristics of forgiveness, forgiveness in marriage, forgiveness and related variables and forgiveness based interventions.

2.1.1. Definitions and Characteristics of Forgiveness

Although there is no one definition of forgiveness which accepted all researchers, most researchers define forgiveness involving a transformation in which the motivation to look for revenge toward the transgressor and/or to refuse contact with the transgressor is decreased and pro-social motivation toward the transgressor is reestablished (Kimeldorf, 2008). McCullough, Worthington and Rachal (1997) defined forgiving as:

The set of motivational changes whereby one becomes 1) decreasingly motivated to retaliate against an offending relationship partner, 2) decreasingly motivated to maintain estrangement from the offender and 3) increasingly motivated by conciliation and goodwill for the offender, despite the offender's hurtful actions (p. 321-322).

According to marital and family therapy perspective, Harrgrave and Sells (1997) defined forgiveness as:

1) Allowing one's victimizer to rebuild trust in the relationship through acting in a trustworthy fashion and as 2) promoting an open discussion of the relational violation, so that the offended partner and the offender can agree to work toward an improved their relationship (p.41).

Worthington (2005) proposed that most researchers who studied transgressions by strangers or people in non-continuing relationships described full forgiveness as barely decreasing unforgiveness, and researchers who studied continuing relationships described full forgiveness as decreasing and finally omitting unforgiveness by substituting the negative with positive and eventually building to a net positive forgiveness experience. He suggested that there were two types of forgiveness: decisional forgiveness which characterized by controlling one's behavior and emotional forgiveness involving changed cognition, emotion, and motivation.

A mutual feature of all definitions of forgiveness was specified by McCullough et al., (2000). They recommended that when people forgive, their response toward the transgressor become more positive and less negative. Although the interpersonal offense initially evoked negative thoughts, feelings, motivations or behaviors toward the transgressor, those responses become more pro-social when they forgive. Well-disposed behaviors toward the transgressor may not raise but its decrement will slow. As forgiveness grows, the downward progression of descending feelings of benevolence will stop. As motivations for benevolence seem to normalize, motivations for revenge are diminished or possibly extinguished (McCullough, Luna, Berry, Tabak, & Bono, 2010). McCullough, Root and Cohen (2006) concluded that pros-social motivation is a constructor and indisputable feature of forgiveness. It is important to take notice forgiveness and relationship reconciliation are not interdependent. Reconciliation connotes the restoration of a discredited relationship. Without the restoration of the relationship forgiveness is credible. On the contrary, it would be possible to have reconciliation without the benefit of forgiveness.

The focus is on the internal process and changes that happen within the offended spouse for the advantage of the offended spouse.

In the literature, it was emphasized that concept of forgiveness must be differentiated from some terms which are accepting (changes one's view of the offence), excusing (the offender's behavior in question is defensible), condoning (justification of the offence), denial (unwillingness to understand the hurt), pardon (a legal term), forgetting (lose the remembrance of offence in the conscious awareness), reconciliation (reestablishment of a relationship) (Fincham & Beach, 2006).

In their review, Worthington, Wirtliet and Miller (2007) concluded the shared denominators in definitions seem to be the following. First, unforgiveness includes ruminations that may be begrudging, vengeful, hostile, bitter, resentful, angry, and fearful of future harm, and depressed. Second, unforgiveness is supposed to be directly associated with the amount of remaining injustice being experienced. Third, forgiveness includes decreasing unforgiveness. Fourth, forgiveness is a process rather than an event. There is minor reconciliation about the sequence, mechanisms, key components, and the sine qua non changes in the process. Fifth, the internal experience of forgiveness can be differentiated from its interpersonal context. Sixth, forgiveness of strangers or people with whom one does not want nor expect continuing contact is basically different from forgiving a loved one. Seventh, making a decision to alter one's behavior could be a honest and everlasting form of forgiving, and yet that decision must be differentiated from emotionally forgiving. Decisional and emotional forgiveness are different processes, likely with different sequelae. Decisional forgiveness might decrease hostility, does not necessarily decrease stress responses. Hence, it is presumably associated with agreeable processes and through enhanced relationships, indirectly to health. Emotional forgiveness is likely more related to health sequelae due to its strong tie to dealing with negative affect and stress reactions by raising positive affect. Eighth, most would agree that (a) decisional forgiveness has

the potential to cause changes in emotion and eventually behavior whereas (b) emotional forgiveness, by definition, involves changes in emotion, motivation, cognition, and eventually behaviour.

2.1.2. Forgiveness in Marriage

Many researchers and clinicians supposed that forgiveness is the cornerstone of a successful marriage (e.g., Worthington, 1994). It is extensively accepted that forgiveness can assist couples to cope with their problems although both attempts to integrate forgiveness into general theories of marriage and to develop theoretical perspectives on forgiveness in marriage scarcely occurs (Worthington & DiBlasio, 1990). Transgressions within marriage may be particularly hurtful when they are seen to break the divinity of the marital bond, so making forgiveness particularly challenging but crucial to supporting the relationship (Mahoney, Rye & Pargament 2005).

Gordon and Baucom (1998) demonstrated that spouses who forgive an offending partner have the most adaptive marital functioning; the more spouses forgive, the more they make positive marital assumptions, feel equal balance of power in their marriages, and have close and well-adjusted marital relations. Also, Paleari, Regalia and Fincham (2005) conducted a study with 119 husbands, 124 wives from long and medium-term marriage. Results revealed that rumination and empathy independently predicted concurrent forgiveness. Forgiveness in turn predicted concurrent marital quality. Reciprocal directions of effect arised between forgiveness marital quality over time.

Whether all spouses benefit from forgiveness or not, McNulty (2008) examined the consequences of spouse's tendencies to forgive their partner. Specifically, whereas spouses married to partners who rarely behaved negatively tended to remain more satisfied over time to the extent that they were more forgiving, spouses married to partners who frequently behaved negatively tended to experience sharply reduction in satisfaction to

the extent that they were more forgiving. Similar patterns emerged for changes in the severity of husbands' problems, such that husbands married to wives who frequently behaved negatively reported sharper increases in problem severity to the extent that they were more forgiving but reported more lasting problem severity to the extent that they were less forgiving.

Marital satisfaction is shown to be related with forgiveness by some researchers. In a sample including 311 couples married less than a year, Miller and Worthington (2010) demonstrated that marital satisfaction and marital commitment were associated with forgiveness. In other words, people who satisfied their marriage and committed to their partners were more likely to forgive their partners. Similarly, in a sample of 80 married individuals, Urcan (2011) investigated the contribution of forgiveness to marital satisfaction. It was indicated that the individuals having high level of forgiveness had high level of marital satisfaction. Consistently, Kim, Johnson and Ripley (2011) examined the role of forgiveness in marital satisfaction with 223 individuals. The results revealed that individual having high level of forgiveness had high level of marital satisfaction. In addition to these findings, Fehr, Gelfand, Nag (2011) meta-analyzed results from the 175 studies and 26,006 participants to investigate correlates of forgiveness. Results revealed that victims were most likely to forgive offenders whom they share a satisfying and committed relationship. Also, victims were most likely to forgive offenders with whom they were in a close relationship.

Ambivalence was reported to be associated with forgiveness by Kachadourian, Fincham and Davila (2005). Data were obtained from 87 married couples. Results showed that greater attitudinal ambivalence toward the partner was associated with decreased forgiveness only when husbands and wives thought about the transgression frequently; ambivalence was not related to forgiveness in the absence of rumination.

2.1.3. Forgiveness and Related Variables

Empathy is a variable that is crucial in promoting forgiveness. It is likely that an ability to understand others, to relate to others, and to treat others as one would like to be treated would enable a person to forgive others (Toussaint & Webb, 2005). The empathic person have tendency to focus on others' experiences in a fairly objective or unselfish manner rather than focusing on one's own experiences in a selfish manner (Toussaint & Webb, 2005). McCullough (2000) and Worthington (1998) have discussed empathy as a determinant of the ability to forgive. This relationship has supported other researchers (e.g. Fincham et al. 2002; Konstam, Chernoff, & Deveney, 2001). In specifically, Toussaint and Webb (2005) investigated the relationship between empathy and forgiveness considering gender effect. It was found that individuals with high level of empathy reported high level of forgiveness in total sample. When women and men were assessed separately, this association between empathy and forgiveness was reported for only men, not women. That is, women who show high level of empathy did not report high level of forgiveness.

Attachment, rumination, psychological adjustment and psychological distress are variables which were studied in relation to forgiveness. Burnette, Taylor, Worthington, and Forsyth (2006) conducted two studies to examine relationship between attachment and forgiveness. In the Study 1 (140 women, 73 men), they found that securely attached individuals showed higher degree of forgiveness than insecurely attached (fearful, pre-occupied, dismissing) individuals. Similarly, in study 2 (171 women, 47 men), it was revealed that securely attached individuals reported higher forgiveness than all three types of insecurely attached individuals. In addition, McCullough, et al., (2007) conducted three studies with the sample of 89 students to investigate the association between rumination and forgiveness, and also examine the effect of fear, anger, positive affect and negative affect on this relationship. The results showed when rumination increases, forgiveness decreases. This effect of rumination on forgiveness increases in the case of

high anger toward the offender. However, the fear toward the offender did not affect the relationship between rumination and forgiveness. In addition, trait positive affect and trait negative affect did not have an impact on this relation. Furthermore, in the study (Orth, Berking, Walker, Meier, & Znoj; 2007) aiming to search the relation between psychological adjustment and forgiveness with a sample of 347 individuals who had experienced a recent interpersonal offense found that rumination and depression predicted forgiveness. That is, high rumination and high depression decreased forgiveness. However, forgiveness did not predict rumination and depression. It means that, forgiveness had not any effect on both rumination and depression. In addition to these findings, psychological distress symptoms were investigated in the context of forgiveness by Orcutt (2006). The study included a sample of 182 female undergraduate students. The results revealed that forgiveness level is low in people who have high level of depression, anxiety and stress.

Correlates of forgiveness were investigated in a meta-analysis (Fehr et al., 2011). They analyzed results of the 175 studies and 26,006 participants. Results showed that intent have negative effect on forgiveness such that if the offenders intently hurt the victims, forgiveness was less likely to occur. Also, when rumination increases, forgiveness decreases. If the offender apologized, the victims were more likely to forgive. Regarding trait, agreeable and empathic people tend to forgive their offenders whereas neurotic people tend to exhibit lower motivation toward forgiveness. Considering affective state, people with high state empathy and were more likely forgive while people with high negative mood and state anger were less likely to forgive. Furthermore, it was found positive mood was not correlated with forgiveness.

Health is another variable which took place in forgiveness research. Smith (1992) proposed six pathways connecting forgiveness to health. These are; 1) decreased psycho physiological reactivity, 2) less interpersonal stress, 3) less frequent stress, 4) constitutional weakness

associated with hostility and health, 5) more healthy behaviors, 6) transcendent or religious factors. This approach is improved by Thoresen, Harris and Luskin (2000). They purported six pathways, namely, 1) a decrease in chronic blaming, anger and hostility, 2) reductions in chronic hyperarousal and/or allostatic load, 3) optimistic thinking, 4) self-efficacy to take health related actions, 5) social support, 6) transcendent consciousness linking forgiveness and health.

Lawler et al., (2005) assessed 81 participants to examine the relationship between forgiveness and health. It was found that forgiveness was associated with five measures of health which are physical symptoms, medications used, sleep quality, fatigue and somatic complaints. That is, forgiveness was high when people had less physical symptoms, less somatic complaints, less fatigue, high sleep quality and used low number of medication. Moreover, reduction in negative affect, reduction in stress, spirituality and social skills increased the influence of forgiveness on health. In addition, Lawler-Row and Piferi (2006) investigated the relationship between forgiveness and health in their study with 426 participants, 50-95 years old age. The results revealed that forgiveness was higher in women, in individuals older than 60, and in those who frequently attended church services. Also, forgiveness level was high in people with low level of stress and depression, with high level of subjective-wellbeing and psychological wellbeing. It was found that there are four main factors which are healthy behaviors, social support, religious well-being and existential well-being separate forgiveness into high and low. Moreover, high and low forgiveness conditions were separated by various determiners; successful aging-autonomy, environmental mastery, positive relations with others, purpose in life, personal growth and self-acceptance. In another study, Carson et al., (2005) examined the relationship of forgiveness to pain, anger, and psychological distress on 61 patients with chronic low back pain. Results showed that when the level of forgiveness was high, patients were less likely to report anger, pain, and psychological distress.

2.1.4. Forgiveness Based Interventions

People often go to counselling as a consequence of real or perceived hurts, offenses, and victimization. Much from the rich history of clinical practice informs therapists about ways to assist people in these situations. Forgiveness is one alternative for overcoming offenses, although it seldom has been a specific goal in psychotherapy. However, within the last decade, applied researchers and clinicians have started searching the use of interventions to explicitly promote forgiveness (Wade & Worthington, 2005).

Enright (1996) proposed a model of forgiveness called “Enright’s Process Model” consisting of four phases including 20 units (cited in Enright & Fitzgibbons, 2000). The first phase including the first eight units, called the “uncovering phase”, focuses on examining the hurt that the victim has experienced. The second phase including the units 9 to 11, called the “decision phase”, in which the nature of forgiveness is discussed and the individual commits himself/herself to striving to forgive the transgressor. The third consisting of the units 12 to 15 named “work phase” changes the focus to the transgressor, in an effort to gain insight and understanding. Finally, during the “deepening phase”, including the units 16 to 20, the victim moves towards resolution becoming aware that he or she is not alone, has him or herself been the recipient of others’ forgiveness and discovers meaning and aim in the forgiveness process.

Enright’s Forgiveness Process Model has been tested and empirically supported in some studies. Freedman and Enright (1996) conducted a study on 12 female incest survivors to develop forgiveness toward their abusers. Participants were divided into 2 groups with 6 women. One group received forgiveness therapy based on Enright Forgiveness Process Model. The other group was in the waiting list. Results showed that women who received forgiveness treatment showed higher levels of forgiveness and hope, lower levels of anxiety and depression when compared to waiting list. In another study, Lin, Mack, Enright, Krahn and

Baskin (2004) investigated the effectiveness of forgiveness therapy based on Enright Forgiveness Process Model, aiming at decreasing anger, anxiety and depression by comparing an alternative individual treatment involving drug and alcohol therapy issues with a sample of 14 patients with substance dependence. Participants who participated in forgiveness therapy demonstrated high levels of forgiveness, and self-esteem, low levels of anger, depression, anxiety and vulnerability to drug use than alternative treatment group. For a 4 month-follow-up, overwhelming benefits remained. These results sustained that forgiveness can be used for drug rehabilitation. Furthermore, Reed and Enright (2006) conducted a study sampling 20 emotionally abused women. The participants were divided into 2 groups with 10 people. One group engaged forgiveness therapy sessions based on the Enright Forgiveness Process Model while the other group received alternative treatment including anger validation, assertiveness, and interpersonal skill building. The results showed that women who received forgiveness therapy reported high levels of forgiveness, self-esteem, and low levels of depression, posttraumatic stress than those who took alternative treatment. However, lower level of anxiety was reported in alternative treatment group than forgiveness treatment group.

Another model which was called “Pyramid Model to REACH Forgiveness” was developed by McCullough, et al., (1997). The model includes five steps to develop forgiveness for a specific harm or offense. One letter of the acrostic REACH represents each step. In step 1, the participants recall (R) the hurt or offense. The offense and related thoughts, feeling and behaviors are recalled in a supportive and non-judgmental environment. In second step, participants develop empathy (E) for the offender. Empathy is built to help participants understand the situational factors which cause the hurt. The third step is giving an altruistic (A) gift of forgiveness. Primarily, participants remember times when they received forgiveness for their offenses. Participants are fostered to remember what it felt like to be forgiven. In the fourth step, participants publicly commit (C)

to the forgiveness. Participants are encouraged to a verbal or written commitment to a close, confidential friend or to themselves aloud or in writing. Final step is holding (H) on to forgiveness, so the gains which are achieved are kept in long term.

The effectiveness of The Pyramid Model to REACH Forgiveness was investigated by some researchers. Ripley and Worthington (2002) sampled 58 married couples in their study. Results showed that couples who received treatment based on The Pyramid Model to REACH Forgiveness developed significantly better communication patterns than control group. However, there was no difference between the groups regarding forgiveness and marital quality. However, in a sample of newly married couples, Burchard, Yarhouse, Worthington, Berry, Killian, and Canter (2003) reported that couple who took treatment based on The Pyramid Model to REACH Forgiveness improved quality of life, levels of religious commitment and forgiveness.

2.2. Infidelity

This section includes three parts, namely, definitions, types and frequency of infidelity, infidelity and related variables, and healing process following infidelity.

2.2.1. Definitions, Types and Frequency of Infidelity

Historically, infidelity was regarded as *“the breaking of a contract of sexual exclusivity between two people who are dating, married, or otherwise in a committed relationship.”* Past research has associated infidelity with individuals with stronger sexual interests, more permissive sexual values, a greater number of previous sexual partners, lower levels of education, greater acceptance of infidelity, early onset of sexual activity, lower relationship satisfaction, weaker network ties to their partners, grater sexual opportunities, and higher level of testosterone (Brown, 1991). More

recently, the definition of infidelity has expanded to diversified amount of behaviors such as sexual intercourse, cybersex, viewing pornography, varying degrees of physical intimacy and emotional intimacy (Hertlein, Wetchler, & Piercy, 2005). Brown (1991, p.19) described infidelity emphasizing “*extramarital, sexual and secret*” terms. Infidelity was described “sexual involvement with someone, other than the spouse, which is hidden the spouse”. Glass (2002, p. 489) defined infidelity as “*a secret sexual, romantic, or emotional involvement that violates the commitment to an exclusive relationship*”. Moreover, infidelity was described as a partner’s breach of norms controlling the level of emotional or physical intimacy with another people (Drigotas & Barta, 2001).

Blow & Hartnett (2005) conducted an extensive review of research of infidelity, which conducted between 1980 and 2005. The authors stated that studies about infidelity shows different standards in defining infidelity. They defined infidelity as:

A sexual and/or emotional act engaged in by one person within a committed relationship, where such an act occurs outside of the primary relationship and constitutes a breach of trust and/or violation of agreed-upon norms (overt and covert) by one or both individuals in that relationship in relation to romantic, emotional or sexual exclusivity (p. 191).

Many terms have been used in literature to purport infidelity: nonmonogomy, extradyadic involvement, extramarital involvement, extramarital coitus, polyamory, extramarital sex, extramarital intercourse, being unfaithful, having an affair, cheating, extra-sex and adultery (cited in Campbell, 2009).

For many years, the study of infidelity centered upon sexual infidelity, “*emotion-only affair*” was identified later and now there have been a differentiation in the literature among emotional infidelity, sexual infidelity and combined type of infidelity (Glass &Wright, 1985). Emotional infidelity was defined as in any time spouse fulfillls their emotional and psychological needs outside of the marital relationship (Boylan, 1971).

Shackelford and Buss (1997) described emotional infidelity as directing emotional resources like love, time and attention to another person other than spouse. Also, Barta and Kiene (2005) defined emotional infidelity as feeling in love with an extra-dyadic person. In literature, researchers have paid less attention emotional infidelity when compared to sexual counterpart. Sexual infidelity defined as sexual activity with an extra-dyadic person (Shackelford & Buss, 1997). Emotional infidelity involves longer duration, more trust and more self-disclosure than sexual infidelity (Barta & Kiene, 2005).

Recently, new form of infidelity, namely, online infidelity has emerged with the advent and popularity of the Internet (Whitty, 2003). Psychologists reported that 21% of clients who received therapy have some experience with online infidelity (Mitchell, Becker-Blease, & Finkelhor, 2005). Like face to face infidelity, online infidelity has different types which are emotional, sexual and combined. Shaw (1997) described sexual online infidelity as:

Taking sexual energy of many sort (thoughts, feelings, behaviors) outside of a committed sexual relationship in such a way that it damages the relationship, and then pretending that this drain in energy will affect neither partner nor the relationship as long as it remains undiscovered (p.32).

Hertlien and Piercy (2006, p.368) defined emotional online infidelity as: “one person who is in a relationship gaining emotional involvement from an online partner, an in turn, emotionally distances him or herself from his or her primary relationship”.

(Shaw 1997) defined combined online infidelity as:

Taking sexual and emotional energy including thought, emotions and actions outside of a primary relationship, while pretending that the resulting drain of energy is not a result of the online relationship as long as it kept secret (p.32).

Stephanie (2008) conducted a study with 237 participants through online survey aiming to compare online infidelity and face to face infidelity. Results of the study showed that respondents reacted similarly to sexual and

combined online infidelity as sexual and emotional face to face infidelity. On the other hand, participants did not similarly respond to emotional online infidelity as emotional face to face infidelity. Therefore, it can be concluded that sexual component needs to be present to lead a strong response to online infidelity.

A substantial proportion of married and dating couples have reported engaging infidelity. Kinsey, Pomeroy and Martin (1953) pioneered the research on the prevalence of extramarital sex. In their study with 3000 married men and 6000 married women, it was found that 27 to 37% of married men of all ages and 26% of married women up to age 40 had engaged in extramarital sex. Lauman, Gagnon, Michaels, and Michaels (1994) reported that 25% of married men and 15% of married women accepted to having engaged in extramarital sex at least once in their study including 3000 participants. Additionally, in a study of divorce men and women, 40% of men and 44% of women said having more than one extramarital sexual contact during their marriages (Janus & Janus, 1993). Furthermore, Wiederman (1997) sampled 884 men and 1288 women and found that about 23% of the men and 12% of the women reported that they had engaged in extramarital sex. More recently, according to Whisman and Snyder (2007), lifetime prevalence estimates for infidelity in the United States range from 20% to 40% for men and 20% to 25% for women depending on the age and gender of the individual.

Since there is not any academic research on prevalence of infidelity for Turkish population, the findings of the 2005 Durex Global Sex Survey carried out in 41 countries are the only statistic showing the prevalence of affair in Turkey. The results showed that 58% of participants which was the highest rate in the survey from Turkey answered “yes” to experience of extramarital infidelity as a response to the question “Sexual experiences you’ve had” (cited in Özgün, 2010). Moreover, in another study carried Harris Interactive, between the date of 6 September 2011 and 2 October 2011, with participation of 1004 people in Turkey, it was found more than

25% of men and 11% of women are not faithful to their partners. It was also reported the rate of polygamy for men is very high when compared to other countries. While ratio is 28% in Turkey, 22% in Greek, 21% in Croatia, 18% in Italy and 11% in Spain (Durex, 2011). In the study of Hortoğlu (2010) with 780 people in Turkey, 30% of the participants reported infidelity as reason of divorce. Due to secretive nature of infidelity and its general social unacceptability and diversified definition, it is very difficult to estimate accurately.

2.2.2 Infidelity and Related Variables

Demographic variables such as gender, age, education, income were investigated in infidelity literature. To begin with, gender is an important factor in infidelity. The notion that more men engage in infidelity comparing with women was supported in many studies (e.g. Atkins et al., 2001; Allen & Baucom, 2004; Allen et al., 2005; Fricke, 2006). Apart gender, age is also another factor investigated in relation with infidelity. Shen (1997) showed that individuals in younger age were more likely to engage in extramarital infidelity. Similarly, Atkins et al., (2001) found that younger age when starting a relationship was associated with greater likelihood of infidelity occurring in the relationship. Apart from gender and age, the impact of education and income on infidelity were found. Shen (1997) showed that well educated individuals were more likely to have infidelity. Consistently, Atkins et al., (2001) found that individuals who have higher level of education also have higher infidelity tendency than those who have lower education. They also found that the higher income people have, the more likely they are engaged in extramarital affairs.

Beyond gender, age, education and income, relationship status and length of relationship are also found to be important variables that influence the occurrence of infidelity. Role of relationship status on infidelity was examined by Treas and Giesen (2000) in 2598 respondent. They reported that married individuals were less likely to engage in infidelity compared to dating or cohabiting individuals. Similarly, Fricke (2006) found that dating

individuals were more likely to report infidelity than married individuals, while those in cohabiting relationship were the most likely to report infidelity. In addition to relationship status, length of the relationship was another factor was investigated in infidelity literature. Fricke (2006) indicated that when the length of marriage increased, infidelity were more likely to occur. Contrarily, Treas and Giesen (2000) found no correlation between length of relation and infidelity. It means that, length of relation had no effect on the probability of infidelity.

The role of personality traits on infidelity was examined by some researchers. Based on the self-report responses of 16 363 people across 52 nations from 10 world regions, Schmitt (2004) found that low level of agreeableness and low level conscientiousness was associated with relationship infidelity across almost all world regions. It means that, people who describe themselves as more unfaithful tend to have low levels of agreeableness and conscientiousness. In addition, with a sample including 69 non-cheaters and 35 cheaters, Orzeck and Lung (2005) compared differences between cheaters and non-cheaters in terms of Big-Five Personality Factors, namely, extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness. Results demonstrated that cheaters were more likely to have high levels of extraversion and high level of openness compared to non-cheaters while non-cheaters were more likely to have high level of conscientiousness than cheaters. Similar results were found in a more recent study (Shaye, 2010) through a sample consisting of 53 men. It was found that for men, extraversion was positively associated with infidelity, while conscientiousness was negatively associated to infidelity. In other words, individuals who are extravert have more extramarital infidelity when compared to those who are conscientious.

Role of attachment in infidelity is also evident in the literature. Feldman and Cauffman (1999) examined the relationship between attachment styles and infidelity. The sample consisted of 417 university students. They showed that avoidant attachment styles were correlated

infidelity. It means that, avoidant individuals had more tendencies to engage infidelity. With community sample consisting of 792 participants, Bogaert and Sadava's (2002) found that anxious attachment style predicted extramarital affairs. In other words, anxious individuals were more prone to engage infidelity. Results of these studies were supported by the study of Fricke (2006). Sample of the study included 243 women and 69 men. It was demonstrated that higher levels of both avoidant and anxious attachment predicted infidelity. That is, individuals with high levels of avoidant and anxious attachment were more likely to engage infidelity.

Relationship factors such as relationship satisfaction, sexual satisfaction were emphasized in infidelity literature. The effect of marital satisfaction on infidelity was examined by Shen (1997). It was reported individuals who low in marital satisfaction were more likely to have extramarital affairs. Similarly, Atkins et al., (2001) found that infidelity tendency was higher among individuals who dissatisfied from their marriages. In addition to marital satisfaction, sexual satisfaction is also found to be important variable that influence the occurrence of infidelity. With a sample including 107 married couples, Buss and Shackelford (1997) revealed that people with high sexual dissatisfaction were more prone to have infidelity. Consistent with these findings, based on a sample consisting of 204 married individuals, Campbell (2010) reported that decreased marital satisfaction and decreased sexual satisfaction were both associated with an increased likelihood of infidelity. In other words, individuals having low marital satisfaction and low sexual satisfaction were more likely to engage infidelity.

2.2.3. Healing Process Following Infidelity

While extramarital affair is a common and an important subject for therapists, marital interventions focusing infidelity have gained little empirical support. For many couples, the conception of a partner's infidelity ruins one of the most fundamental assumptions of a relationship: its

exclusivity. Yet, therapists have not any empirical guidance in treating couples having an affair (Atkins, Baucom, Eldridge, & Christensen, 2005).

Among couples in marital therapy, those who report infidelity are more likely to separate or divorce (Glass, 2002). Humprey (1987) found that among couples in therapy following infidelity, 46% of those in which the husband had been unfaithful were separated or divorced at the end of therapy, and 48% of those in which the wife had been unfaithful ended the relationship by the close of treatment. Whisman, Dixon, and Johnson (1997) conducted a study with couple therapists from different disciplines to examine the extent and difficulty of treating issues in couples. They revealed that infidelity was among the top three most difficult treatment issues.

In generally, assessment component of various infidelity treatment models are nearly the same. As the most important component in the assessment, Lusterman (1998) suggested that taking an adequate couple history like most couple cases while Gordon and Baucom (1999) proposed that assessing and understanding the framework of the affair within the primary relationship. Westfall (1989) pointed out identifying the extent of the infidelity with respect to the extent of secrecy and the involvement with the other person. Furthermore, Weeks and Treat (2001) specified the crucial components of assessment which are the duration of the affair, number of sexual partners, gender of the third party, level of sexual activity, whether each partner was having an affair, degree of emotional involvement or attachment, each person's relationship to the third party, extent of lies and secrecy around the affair, degree to which the other knew about or consented to the affair, and the tolerance of the affair by the social networks of the person or couple.

Gordon and Baucom (1999) developed a treatment model, called "Three Stage Model", in which the impact of infidelity is conceptualized through a trauma framework. This model consists of three different stages including cognitive, affective, and behavioral components. This intervention

helps couples to move through stages of dealing with the impact of the infidelity (stage 1), searching for meaning (stage 2), and recovery or moving forward (stage 3). In the first stage, the aim is to focus on the current problems caused by the infidelity, such as emotional dysregulation and the expression of anger and hurt. After surveying the immediate emotional effect of the infidelity, the next stage aims to assess the infidelity by identifying the factors that may have contributed to the affair and increasing each partner's empathic understanding of the other's position. In the stage three, in which forgiveness becomes prominent, the goal is to summarize the previous stages and then moving on. To test Three Stage Model, Gordon, Baucom, and Syndner (2004) conducted a study with six couples who had an affair. It was found that the treatment decreases depression level and posttraumatic stress level and marital distress level of non-involved partner. Moreover, the results showed increments in levels of empathy, trust, commitment and forgiveness.

Beside studies regarding the effectiveness of infidelity treatment based on Three Stage Model, the effectiveness of general couple therapy approaches in the treatment of infidelity was investigated some researchers. Atkins et al., (2005) examined the initial level of distress and course of treatment in couple therapy for infidelity couples compared with distressed couple who had no affair. 133 married couples who sought therapy for marital problems participated in the study. 19 couples of them had at least 1 partner with a reported infidelity. Couples received either traditional behavioral couple therapy (TBCT; Jacobson & Margolin, 1979) or integrative behavioral couple therapy (IBCT; Jacobson & Christensen, 1996). Therapy with infidelity couples used the techniques of a given therapy to address the affair. That is, in TBCT, communication and problem solving skills were taught to discuss the affair and handle issues related to it while in IBCT, the emotional impact of the affair and an understanding of its origin and meaning was discussed. Results of the study demonstrated that infidelity couples showed more distressed at the beginning of the treatment

compared to non-infidelity couples. However, couples who reported an affair and who disclosed this affair before or during therapy increased satisfaction level than non-infidelity couples. In another study, Atkins, Klan, Marin, Lo and Hahlweg (2010) investigated outcomes of 145 couples who reported infidelity as a problem in their relationship were compared with 385 couples who sought therapy for other reasons. Treatment approach was not controlled in the study. Participants received any of the treatment approach including integrative, systemic, psychodynamic, Gestalt, and behavior therapy. Results of the study showed that infidelity couples were more distressed and reported more depressive symptoms at the start of therapy but continued improving through the end of therapy and to 6 months post therapy. At the follow-up assessment, infidelity couples were not distinguishable from non-infidelity couples in terms of improvements in both relationship satisfaction and depressive symptoms. Results of these findings raised a question is whether general couple therapy approaches are sufficient for dealing with affairs or whether specific treatment for infidelity (e.g. Gordon & Baucom, 1999) is needed (Atkins et al., 2010).

Williams (2011) proposed that Relational Justice Approach (RJA) is used by couple therapists for addressing infidelity. Relational Justice is defined as “a dynamic and ethical interconnectedness-past, present and future-that exists among people whose very being has significance for each other” (Boszormenyi-Nagy & Krasner, 1986, p. 8). Gender, power and culture are the factors affecting shared responsibilities for maintaining equity of relationship. The RJA model includes three stages. In the first stage, *Creating an Equitable Foundation for Healing*, aim is to set the stage for shared healing. The second stage, *Placing Infidelity in Social Context*, purposes to understand relational impact of the social context related to the infidelity. In the third stage, *Practicing Mutuality*, the goal is to experience novel possibilities beyond the infidelity. However, infidelity treatment based on relational justice approach has not been empirically tested yet.

2.3. Trait Positive Affect

This section includes two parts, namely, definition and characteristics of trait positive affect, and trait positive affect and related variables.

2.3.1. Definition and Characteristics of Trait Positive Affect

In the most general sense, *affect* represents the phenomenological experience of feeling, described in terms such as “fearful,” or “sad”. Within the affect field, researchers typically have distinguished between transient or *state* affect, which includes moods and emotions, and *trait* affect, which is considered to serve more like a stable and enduring personality characteristics (Watson & Clark, 1984). Watson, Clark and Tellegen (1988) proposed a two-dimensional model of affect, namely, positive affect and negative affect. Accordingly, positive affect is characterized by majority of positive feeling states such as enthusiasm, alertness and joviality whereas negative affect is characterized by negative feelings such as guilt, fear and nervousness (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). The extent to which people experience these emotions can be relatively stable over time and across situations Thus, affect can operate like a traditional trait dimension and called “trait positive affect” and “trait negative affect” (Watson & Clark, 1992).

Although positive affect and negative affect are considered as operating together, they are conceptualized as different and independent extents (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1986). The independence of terms has been debated. While there are some studies showing a significant correlation between positive affect and negative affect (e.g. Green, Goldman, & Salovey, 1983) , some studies reported that these two concepts are not correlated each other significantly (e.g. Cheng & Funham, 2003).

Fredrickson (2001) proposed “broaden and build theory” for positive emotions. According to this theory, “certain discrete positive emotions – including joy, interest, contentment, pride, and love – although

phenomenologically distinct, all share the ability to broaden people's momentary thought-action repertoires and build their enduring personal resources, ranging from physical and intellectual resources to social and psychological resources” (p. 219). This theory argued that positive emotions may widen the variety of cognitions and behaviors to construct an individual's physical, intellectual, and psychological resources when adapting to a new situation. Higher positive affect brings to wider competence to recover from stressful events. According to the theory, positive emotions motivate people to support their thinking style or action that they have activated and people seek new goals that they have not yet attained.

2.3.2. Positive Affect and Related Variables

There are several variables that seem to be associated with positive affect. Socio-demographic, personality and contextual predictors of positive affect were analyzed in the study (Gruenewald, Ryff Mroczek, & Singer, 2008) with a large sample of 2557 people. The study examined three age groups separately. Results were as follows: Firstly, in young adults, neuroticism, extraversion and financial control predicted positive affect. That is, the lowest level of positive affect was reported in those with high level of neuroticism and low financial control; the highest level of positive affect was reported in those with low neuroticism but high extraversion. Secondly, in middle aged adults, relationship quality predicted positive affect accompanying neuroticism, extraversion and financial control. It means that, among people with moderate level of neuroticism, positive affect was higher in those having good relationships than those with lower quality relationship or no relationship. Finally, in older adults, neuroticism, extraversion and financial control and marital status predicted positive affect. In other words, the lowest level of positive affect was reported in unmarried people with high levels of neuroticism while the highest positive affect. To sum up, in all three age groups, neuroticism, extraversion, and

financial control were found as predictor variables of positive affect. However, relationship quality emerged as a predictor of positive affect in middle-aged adults only, whereas marital status appeared only for older adults. In addition, extraversion was examined in relation with trait positive affect by Burger and Caldwell (2000). It was revealed that extravert individuals showed high level of trait positive affect. Consistent with previous research findings, VanDyke and Gore (2012) found that extravert people showed higher positive affect than introvert people through a sample including 2542 individuals. It was also indicated that people high on extraversion and low on neuroticism showed high level of positive affect.

Positive cognitions, meaning in life and life satisfaction were also shown to be associated with positive affect. With a sample of 232 people, it was found that positive affect and positive cognitions lead increments in life satisfaction. Also, positive affect elicited high level of meaning in life via a positive cognitions (Lightsey & Boyraz, 2011). A recent study done by Hicks, Davis, Trent and King (2012) found that positive affect was more strongly related to meaning in life for older adults than younger adults. Also, they revealed that subjective estimates of time left to live affected the relationship between positive affect and meaning in life. That is, the impact of positive affect on meaning in life is higher in people who rated themselves as having less time left to live than people who rated themselves as having more time left to live.

The link between positive affect and coping has been investigated in some studies. Yamasaki and Uchida (2005) examined the relationship between positive affect and coping, and effects of gender differences on this relationship with 417 participants. According to the results, men with high level of positive affect were more likely to use problem-focused coping whereas women with high level of positive affect were more likely to use emotion-focused coping. Moreover, Greenglass and Fiksenbaum (2009) measured mediator role of positive affect between proactive coping and better psychological functioning in different three samples, namely,

university students coping with depression, rehabilitation patients mastering independent functioning following major surgery and employee dealing with absenteeism. In all three samples people having high positive affect showed better psychological functioning. However, only in university students, positive affect mediate the relationship between coping and depression. That is, students who use greater proactive coping rated high level of positive affect, which in turn were more likely to have lower levels of depression.

Psychopathology was emphasized with regard to positive affect by the researchers. Meyer and Baur (2009) investigated positive affect in individuals at risk for bipolar disorders in a sample of 72 male students. 16 of participants were found at high risk for bipolar disorders and 56 of them at low risk. Results showed that individuals at high risk for bipolar disorder reported more positive affect than those at low risk. In addition, the relationship between positive affect and suicide ideation was investigated in the study (Hirsch, Duberstein, Chapman, & Lyness, 2007) with 462 primary care patients. Results demonstrated that people with higher level of trait positive affect were less likely to confirm suicidal ideation. In older ages, this relationship has increased. Furthermore, role of positive affect in depression and anxiety was emphasized by Burns, Anstey and Windsor (2011). In a sample of 3989 individuals, the findings of this study revealed that low positive affect predicted both depression and anxiety. It means that, individuals with low positive affect had tendency to have depression and anxiety.

Physical health problems were another factor that is found to be related with positive affect. Chida and Steptoe (2008) measured the impact of positive affect on mortality with a meta-analysis including 35 studies. Results demonstrated that positive affect and positive trait characteristics predicted lower risk of mortality in both healthy population and the disease population. Specifically, positive psychological well-being reduced cardiovascular mortality in healthy population studies and reduced death

rates in patients with renal failure and with human immunodeficiency virus infection. The results were supported by the study (Moskowitz, Epel, & Acree, 2008) with a sample of 715 people with diabetes and 2673 people without chronic illness. It was found that high level of positive affect brought about lower risk of mortality for both people with diabetes and people without chronic illness. However, high positive affect was more strongly predicted lower risk of mortality in those with diabetes compared with those with no chronic illness. Another study (Berges, Seale, & Ostir, 2011) examined the association between positive affect and pain rating in 917 patients with stroke. It was found that patients with high levels of positive affect were more probably to report lower pain rating after 3 months post discharge.

Job performance is another variable that is found to be associated with positive affect. The relationship between trait positive affect and different aspects of job performance were tested in a meta-analytic study of Kaplan, Bradley, Luchman and Haynes (2009). The meta-analysis consists of 57 studies. Results of the study showed that people with high positive affect had better task performance, citizenship behaviors while people with high negative affect engaged counterproductive work behaviors, withdrawal behaviors and incidence of workplace injuries, and had worse task performance and citizenship behaviors.

Correlates of positive affect were investigated in the study by Lyubomirsky, King and Diener (2005). They meta-analyzed the studies on positive affect. The study comprised of 225 articles, 275.000 participants. The results demonstrated that 6 categories of studies reported significant correlates with positive affect. These are 1) positive perceptions of self and others, 2) sociability and activity, 3) likability and cooperation, 4) prosocial behavior, 5) physical well-being and coping, 4) problem solving and creativity. In other words, People with high positive affect had more positive perceptions of self and others, more social and active, cooperative,

had more prosocial behavior, had high level of physical well-being and coping, better in problem solving and more creative.

2.4. Coping

This section includes three parts, namely, definition of coping and coping process, coping strategies, and coping and related variables.

2.4.1. Definitions of Coping and Coping Process

There are various definitions of coping. Sarafino (1988) defined coping as a process by which people try to control the perceived disparity between the demand and resources in a stressful condition. Also, coping was defined by Fleishman (1984) as cognitive and behavioral responses to decrease or omit psychological distress. Folkman and Lazarus (1984) defined coping as the cognitive and behavioral efforts which an individual uses to overcome specific internal and external demands which are perceived as passing over the resources of the individual. To understand coping at all points, Shwarzer and Shwarzer (1996) identified three main rules. First, to start coping process making an endeavour does not result successful outcomes. Second, the types of effort can be cognitive or behavioral. Third, coping happens just after cognitive appraisals of the stressor occur.

Coping is originated from two stages of appraisals, namely, primary appraisal and secondary appraisal. The primary appraisal involves the evaluation of the seriousness of the needs in the stressful situation and the secondary appraisal is the evaluation of the sufficiency of the resources and alternatives for supplying the demand (Lazarus & Folkman, 1985). In primary appraisal, person could appraise an event as “irrelevant”, “benign-positive”, or “stressful”. When the person evaluate environment have no impact on a person’s well-being, the primary appraisal would be irrelevant. The primary appraisal would be benign-positive when the person sees the

environment as positive, preserves or enhances well-being. Stress appraisals can be in three forms: harm/loss, threat, and challenge. Harm/loss appraisals occur when the damage has already been done. Threat appraisals occur if there is a potential for harm or loss. Negative emotions such as fear and anger are felt by the individual in the harm/loss threat appraisal. On the other hand, pleasurable emotions such as excitement, eagerness, and exhilaration are elicited by challenge appraisals. Challenge appraisals occur when there is a potential gain for improvement and gain. Additionally, appraisal of a situation can be shifted from challenging to threatening and also from challenging to threatening. This exchange is due to cognitive coping and changes in the environment that may have negative or positive effects on the relationship between person and the environment (Lazarus & Folkman, 1985).

In secondary appraisal, the person evaluates his/her handiness of coping resources and alternatives to deal with threat, harm/loss and challenge. The question of “What can I do?” is main focus of the secondary appraisal. It was defined coping resources has 5 types: 1) utilitarian resources (e.g. money, education), 2) health, energy, morale (e.g. pre-existing physical and psychiatric illness), 3) social networks (e.g. friendships), 4) general and specific beliefs about their sufficiency (e.g. self-esteem, self-efficacy), 5) problem solving skills (e.g. analytic thinking, creative skills) (Folkman and Lazarus, 1985).

Primary and secondary appraisals are related to each other interdependently. For example, if a person sees his/her coping resources as sufficient, the degree of threat that he/she feels diminishes. On the other hand, the nonthreatening condition may become threatening if a person considers his/her coping resources insufficient in countering environmental demands or overcoming environmental or personal constraints (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985).

2.4.2. Coping Strategies

Coping strategies are used in specific situations that are aimed to reduce stress (Quine & Pahl, 1991). The degree to which a person experiences stress is mainly determined by the evaluation of which coping resources are available and how it is functional. These coping strategies were divided into two main categories by Lazarus and Folkman (1984). The first, called problem focused coping that includes defining problem, generating alternative solutions, weighting cost and benefit of choices, choosing the best option, and acting upon accordingly. The second, called emotion-focus coping that includes regulating emotional responses after a stressful event like avoidance, minimization, distancing, and emphasizing the positive, self-blame and seeking social support.

According to Lazarus and Folkman, people decide which coping strategy to use based on their perceived control and the degree of threat perceived in the stressor. If the individual perceives that the event is out of his or her control, emotion-focused coping is more likely to be used. On the other hand, if the event is perceived within his or her control, problem-focused coping will be used (Brand & Alexander, 2003). In general, problem-focused coping is considered as more effective than emotion-focused coping since it focuses on thoughts and actions producing solution to the causes of distress, however, emotion-focused coping is considered as less effective because it focuses on the symptoms instead of handling the causes (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000).

Folkman and Lazarus (1985) proposed that it can be adaptive to use problem-focused and emotion-focused coping at the same time since problem-focused coping needs emotion regulation. Emotion-focused coping may facilitate problem-focused coping by reducing the level of stress. Nevertheless, problem-focused coping can be paralyzed by emotion-focused coping since it can block out the person. Similarly, Carver and Scheier (1994) argued that the achievement of problem-focused strategies was tied to achievement of emotion-focused strategies. If emotion focused

strategies do not succeed, exaggerated emotions will interfere with the cognitive activity that is required for problem-focused coping. To put in a different way, emotion-focused coping takes out some of the distress that can interfere with problem-focused coping.

Another categorization of coping was made by Holahan, Moos, and Schaefer (1996). They divided coping styles into two; namely, approach (active) coping strategies and avoidance (passive) coping strategies. Approach coping strategies included logical analysis, positive reappraisal, seeking guidance and support, engaging problem-solving action. Avoidance coping strategies includes cognitive avoidance, resigned acceptance, seeking alternative rewards, emotional discharge. Roth and Cohen (1986) argued that approach coping was similar to problem-focused coping with respect to direct efforts to change the stressful event whereas avoidance coping was similar to emotion focused coping in terms of indirect efforts to adjust to stressors by distancing oneself either by focusing on one's feelings or otherwise avoiding solving the problem.

Zuckerman and Gagne (2003, as cited in Leung, Moore, Karnilowicz, & Lung, 2001). further expanded the concept of coping and suggested a five-factor model of coping strategies including approach, accommodation, self-help, avoidance, and self-punishment. Approach coping includes coping practices that are directed at the source of the stress and includes problem solving and active planning. Accommodation coping is related to a realization and acceptance that the problem may not be directly solvable, and coping under these circumstances may involve adaptive strategies including reframing, goal replacement, and optimistic acceptance. Self-help involves the maintenance of one's emotional well-being when under pressure and includes strategies like expressing and understanding of emotions and pursuing emotional and instrumental support from others. Avoidance coping includes disengagement from the problem, which includes denial and blaming others as a way of managing emotions associated with problems and stresses. Self-punishment coping involves

high levels of self-focused rumination and self-blame and is essentially the converse of avoidance. Approach, accommodation, and self-help were considered as adaptive coping strategies whereas avoidance coping and self-punishment were seen as maladaptive coping strategies.

In individual perspective how individuals are affected by their own reactions to stress was examined whereas research on close relationships emphasizes the interdependence between marital partners. From this perspective, both spouses are affected by their own reactions to the stress as well as how their partner copes. In this way, coping becomes a three-pronged process including emotion-focused, problem-focused, and relationship-focused coping (Coyne & Smith, 1994). Relationship-focused coping has two components, namely, active engagement and protective buffering. Active engagement involves partners becoming actively involved in decision-making and other problem-solving activities. Protective buffering involves the extent to which partners reject anxieties and concerns, pretend to be happy, or give up to their partner to avoid disagreements. The distinction between active engagement and protective buffering resembles the distinction between problem-focused and emotion-focused coping. The difference is that relationship-focused coping involves taking one's partner's emotions into consideration when making coping decisions.

2.4.3. Coping and Related Variables

Psychological well-being and psychological distress were investigated in relation with coping. Holahan, Moos, Holahan, Brennan and Schutte (2005) examined the role of avoidance coping in prospectively constituting both chronic and acute life stressors and the stress-generating role of avoidance coping as a prospective link to future depressive symptoms. Their study examined the coping styles, life stressors and depressive symptoms of 1211 participants over a ten year period. Participants were measured for baseline depression levels at the beginning of the study, four years later and ten years later. It was found that

individuals who engaged in avoidant coping at baseline were more likely to experience chronic and acute stressors when measured four years later and to show depressive symptoms ten years later by controlling the influence of initial depressive symptoms. Psychological well-being was investigated with respect to coping by Chao (2011) in 459 participants. Findings revealed that high problem-focused coping increased well-being whereas high-avoidant coping reduced well-being. Also, individuals using high avoidant coping had low well-being when they were in stress in both low and high social support; on the other hand, individuals with high problem-focused coping had high well-being in high social support. In addition, protector roles of coping against suicidal behaviors were examined in the study of Wang, Nyutu and Tran (2011) in 361 Black college students. Results showed greater use of emotion-focused coping may bring about suicidal ideation through increased depression. However, people with avoidance-oriented coping were less likely to engage suicidal behaviors. More recently, with a sample of 438 participants, role of coping in the relationship between loneliness and depression was investigated by Vanhalst, Luyckx, Teppers and Goossens (2012). Results indicated that lonely individuals tended to use more passive and less active coping strategies, in turn, lead increases in the level of depression over time.

Beyond psychological well-being and psychological distress, personality traits are another variables that has been examined in relation to coping. Nes and Segerstrom (2006) conducted a meta-analysis including 50 studies and 11.629 participants to examine the impact of dispositional optimism on coping. It was showed that individuals with high level of dispositional optimism were more likely to use approach coping whereas individuals with low level of dispositional optimism were more likely to use avoidance coping. In addition to optimism, self-esteem was shown to be related with coping. Chapman and Mullis (1999) sought relations between self-esteem and coping strategies with a sample of 361 participants. Results indicated that individuals with lower self-esteem utilized more avoidance

coping strategies than adolescents with higher self-esteem. A recent study (Eisenbarth, 2012) found similar results. It was demonstrated that individuals with high self-esteem were more likely to utilize problem-focused coping and support seeking whereas individuals with low self-esteem were more likely to use avoidance coping. Also, hardiness is another trait that has been studied in relation to coping. Florian, Mikulincer, and Taubman (1995) found that hardiness individuals used more problem-focused and support seeking strategies and less emotion-focused and distancing coping strategies. Furthermore, Big Five personality traits (Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism) were investigated in relation to coping. According to a meta-analysis (Connor-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007) including 165 studies and 33,094 participants, extravert and conscientious people utilized more problem-solving and cognitive restructuring, neurotic people used problematic strategies like wishful thinking, withdrawal, and emotion-focused coping.

The link between forgiveness and coping was investigated in some researches. Maltby et al., (2007) investigated the relationship between forgiveness, primary appraisal and coping among men and women separately. 166 men and 168 women participated in the study. Results demonstrated that men who showed higher level of forgiveness tended to use challenge appraisal, but not to use loss appraisal and emotion-focused coping. Women who showed higher level of forgiveness were more likely to utilize emotion-focused coping but less likely to utilize avoidance coping. Another study (Strelan & Wojtysiak, 2009) explored the relationship between source of stress (general stressor and interpersonal hurt) and type of coping strategies (approach coping and avoidance coping). The study also explored which coping strategies people preferred at different stages in the forgiveness process based on Three Stage Model (Gordon & Baucom, 2003). Results of the study indicated that for general stress events approach coping strategies were more likely to be used while for interpersonal hurt

events, individuals were likely to use both approach and avoidance coping to the same degree. Individuals preferred avoidance coping strategies in the first (the impact) stage of the forgiveness process and approach coping strategies in the second (the searching for meaning) and the last (the moving on) stage.

Coping was also investigated in relational context in some studies. Couple's coping and psychological symptoms were sought in 153 married couples by Giunta and Compas (1993). Results yielded that when both husband and wife used escape-avoidance coping, it was more probable that both wife and husbands had high levels of psychological distress. If wife utilized escape-avoidance coping, both wife and husband had high levels of psychological distress. If husband utilized escape-avoidance coping, only husband were more likely to have high levels of psychological distress. In another study (Badr, 2004) relationship-focused style (active engagement and protective buffering) was measured to determine whether coping styles vary by health among 182 married couples. Also, the effect of relationship-focused coping on marital adjustment was sought. In 90 couples both spouses were healthy; in 92 couples, one spouse had a chronic illness. Results showed that active engagement was likely to be used by ill wives than healthy wives; healthy husbands than ill husband. Protective buffering was likely to be used by ill husbands compared to healthy husbands. However, there was no difference between ill wives and healthy wives regarding protective buffering. Another indication of the study was that that couples have the high level of marital satisfaction when both wives and husband use active engagement coping or one partner use more than average level of protective buffering and the other use less than average protective buffering coping. In addition, relationship styles and psychological distress was searched in terms of coping strategies by Leung, Moore, Karnilowicz and Lung (2011) among 294 university students. Results indicated that individuals having secure, adherent and ambivalent relationship styles and using self-punishment strategy and avoidance coping were more likely to

have high psychological distress. On the other hand, individuals having secure relationship styles and using accommodation strategies were more likely to have less psychological distress.

2.5. Marital Satisfaction

This section includes three parts which are definition and characteristics of marital satisfaction, marital satisfaction and related individual variables, marital satisfaction and related relationship variables.

2.5.1 Definitions and Characteristics of Marital Satisfaction

Marital satisfaction was defined in various ways. Pill (1990) defined marital satisfaction as “*how content a person is with his/her marital interaction*” (p.188). Spanier (1976) stated that marital satisfaction is the success and functioning of the marital partners and that it encompasses the concepts of marital satisfaction and happiness. Fincham and Bradbury (1987) focused the judgmental nature of the term of marital satisfaction and defined it with regards to a spouse's delicacy as reflected in subjective, evaluative judgments of the marriage or partner. Futterman, Gallagher, Thompson, Lovett and Gilewski (1990) argued that marital satisfaction encloses judgments along significant dimensions of marital interaction (e.g. frequency of disagreement and amount of leisure time spent together) as well as judgments of dimensions of marital satisfaction (e.g. level of marital happiness). More broadly, Roach, Frazier and Bowden (1981) defined marital satisfaction as:

Satisfaction with any domain of life experience which is applicable to marriage is produced by the difference between an individual's perceived reality of current situation and his or her aspirations concerning the domain (p.539).

While marital satisfaction seems to be the most widely used term to describe each partner's overall evaluation of their marital relationship, it is important to note that researchers seeking this variable use a variety of

different terms interchangeably to define this concept. These terms include marital adjustment, marital quality, marital stability and marital success and marital happiness. White (2003; as cited in Koçak, 2009) suggested that using marital satisfaction, marital happiness, marital adjustment and marital quality alternatively does not lead a serious mistake since these concepts are highly associated with each other and these terms have similar correlation with same variables.

It has been suggested marital satisfaction have the function as a curvilinear or U-shaped pattern over the life of marriage (Anderson, Russell, & Schumm, 1983; as cited in Bartee, 2011). Accordingly, the marriage starts with a high level of satisfaction. As the time passes, several factors affect the quality of time and effort previously experienced in the marriage, mainly parenting and vocational demand, and marital satisfaction decreases. Last phase occurs when children leave the home; the couple once again has the chance to concentrate on nurturing the marriage, culminating in a lift in marital satisfaction.

2.5.2. Marital Satisfaction and Related Individual Variables

Previous studies have demonstrated that the relationship between marital satisfaction and several individual variables. Studies on marital satisfaction in the context of demographic characteristics like age, education level, income, number of children, types of marriage etc. were reported. The role of age and age of children on marital satisfaction was investigated by Chi et al., (2011). Results showed that younger and older individuals had higher satisfaction than middle age individuals. People who had children under 18 had higher marital satisfaction than those having children over 18 years old. In addition, regarding the impact of age, Edwards (2009) reported that individuals older than 45 years old were less likely satisfied from their marriage compared to those younger than 45. In addition to age, having child was looked for in relation with marital satisfaction. Guttmann and Lazar (2004) compared 60 first time parents with 60 childless parents, and

the results showed that first-time parents were more satisfied with their marriage than their childless counterparts. Furthermore, type of marriage, length of marriage and employment status were shown to be related with marital satisfaction. Orathinkal and Vansteenwegen (2007) conducted a study with 787 married adults and found a significant difference between first and remarried adults in that the remarried adults were found to be more satisfied with their marriages. It was also found that a correlation between length of marriage and marital satisfaction as lower levels of marital satisfaction were reported by couples in their middle years of marriage, when compared to reports by couples in their early or late years of marriage. Moreover, it was reported a correlation between employment status and marital satisfaction in that women who were employed reported higher levels of marital satisfaction than those who were housewives. Income level is another variable that is examined in the context of marital satisfaction. In a sample of 51 low-income couples and 61 middle-income couples, Dakin and Wampler (2008) reported that low-income couples reported lower levels of marital satisfaction when compared to middle-income couples.

The role of personality characteristics in marital satisfaction is also evident in the literature. Chen et al., (2007) sought the link between marital adjustment and personality in 66 Japanese married couples. The results of the study indicated that husbands' high neuroticism score caused low levels of wife's marital satisfaction but neuroticism score did not predict one's own marital satisfaction. Moreover, wives' high extraversion scores resulted in low levels of husband's marital satisfaction but husband's extraversion score did not correlate with wife's marital satisfaction. Also, it was found couples' marital satisfaction were correlated each other. A recent study (Silverstein, 2012) reported that both men and women who high level of agreeableness and conscientiousness reported higher levels of marital satisfaction through a sample of 28 males and 69 females. In addition, the role of perfectionism in marital satisfaction was examined by Kim et al., (2011) with 223 individuals. The results revealed that perfectionism were

related with marital forgiveness. It means that individuals having high level of perfectionism had low level of marital satisfaction.

The association between attachment styles and marital satisfaction was also studied in the literature. Kobak and Hazan (1991) looked for the relationship between attachment styles and marital satisfaction. They demonstrated that securely attached spouses showed more positive emotions and reported better marital adjustment relative to their insecurely attached counterparts. Similarly, Meyers and Landsberger (2002) found that women with secure attachment had high marital satisfaction whereas those with avoidant and ambivalent attachment had low marital satisfaction through 73 married women. Consistent with these findings, in a sample of 30 couples, Matthews (2010) found that for both men and women, people with secure styles had higher marital satisfaction than those with dismissive styles.

Apart from these findings, psychopathology was found to influence marital satisfaction. Role of anxiety and depression in marital satisfaction was examined by Whisman, Uebelacker, and Weinstock (2004) in 774 couples by using MMPI. Results showed that a person's own level of depression and anxiety was related with that person's own level of marital satisfaction. In other words, higher level of depression and anxiety resulted in lower the level of marital satisfaction. Also, the association between psychopathology and the level of marital satisfaction was generally similar for women and men. Furthermore, Vento and Cobb (2011) conducted a two-year study with 190 newlywed couples to measure the relationship between marital satisfaction and depressive symptoms. They found that while high marital satisfaction caused decrement in depressive symptoms, depressive symptoms did not lead any changes in marital satisfaction. Beyond depression and anxiety, the effect of alcoholism on marital satisfaction was evident in the literature. Dethier, Counerotte, Blairy (2011) compared marital satisfaction level between 15 couples with an alcoholic husband and 15 couples with healthy members. It was found that both members in

alcoholic group showed lower level of marital satisfaction and lower level of self-esteem than healthy couples. Researchers concluded that alcoholism have negative effect on marital satisfaction.

2.5.3. Relationship Variables Related to Marital Satisfaction

Sexual satisfaction is an important variable that are found to influence marital satisfaction. Litzinger and Gordon (2005) found couples with high sexual satisfaction showed high marital satisfaction through 387 married couples. Similarly, in 2096 Chinese sample, Guo and Huang (2005) indicated that when people had sexual satisfaction, they has also high marital satisfaction. Moderator effect of education attainment demonstrated that in well educated people, the effect sexual satisfaction on marital satisfaction was higher than less educated people. In a large sample of 2081 women, Witting et al., (2008) reported that women, who were sexually more satisfied, were also more satisfied with their marriages. These results supported by study of Timm and Keiley (2011). They showed that sexual satisfaction enhanced marital satisfaction with a sample of 205 married individuals.

The role of communication skills in marital satisfaction was also emphasized by researchers. In a sample of 156 long-term married individuals, Levenson, Carstensen, and Gottman (1993) reported that communication skills and problem solving skills were positively associated with marital satisfaction. In other words, people who are better in communication skills were more likely satisfied with their marriages. Another indication of the study was that one of the most important determinants of marital satisfaction is the couple's ability to resolve conflict that may result from disagreement. Similarly, in a sample of 387 married individuals, it was found that couples who effectively communicated each other exhibited high marital satisfaction (Litzinger and Gordon 2005). Consistent with these findings, a recent study, (Leggett et al., 2012) in a large sample of 977 married couples, demonstrated that conflict behaviors

like engaging in serious quarrels or frequent disagreement decreased marital satisfaction. Furthermore, role of communication behaviors during sexual and nonsexual discussions in marital satisfaction were searched by Rehman, Janssen, Newhouse, Heiman, Holtzworth-Munroe and Fallis (2011). Results indicated that negative behaviors expressed during the nonsexual discussions were not related to marital satisfaction while higher level of negativity expressed during sexual conflict discussion lead to lower level of marital satisfaction. For both the sexual and nonsexual conflict discussion, positive behaviors increased marital satisfaction.

Intimacy was found to be correlated with marital satisfaction in the literature. Greeff and Malherbe (2001) in their study with 57 couples studied on the five aspects of experienced intimacy; which were sexual intimacy, recreational intimacy, emotional intimacy, intellectual intimacy, and social intimacy. According to the results, apart from the social intimacy, experienced by women, all the other aspects of intimacy increased marital satisfaction for both sexes. The role of intimacy in marital satisfaction was searched by mentioning the effect of sexual satisfaction. In sample of 128 Iranian postpartum couples who having a child within a last year, Nezhad and Goodarzi (2011) indicated that when total intimacy level and sexual satisfaction was high, marital satisfaction was high. Even if sexual satisfaction was low in the presence of high total intimacy level, marital satisfaction remained high. When the total intimacy was low, sexual satisfaction was high, marital was high. However, total intimacy level and sexual satisfaction was low, marital satisfaction was low.

Emotional skillfulness was shown to be associated with marital satisfaction in the literature. Cordova, Gee, and Warren (2005) indicated that emotional skillfulness (the ability to identify and communicate emotions) was associated with both own and the partner's marital satisfaction through 79 married couples. In other words, having high ability in identifying and communicating emotions increased marital satisfaction for both self and the partner. However, further analysis showed that

although husbands' emotional skillfulness enhanced their wives' marital adjustment whereas wives' emotional skillfulness did not enhance their husbands' marital adjustment. However, the results were not fully supported by study of Dunham (2008). He measured the relationship among emotional skillfulness, marital satisfaction with 132 married couples. Results were as follows: There were no significant differences between husband's and wife's level of identifying emotions and communicating emotions. For both husbands and wives own high level of identifying emotions and high level of communicating emotions increased spouse's marital satisfaction. Furthermore, the role emotional expressiveness in marital satisfaction was looked for by Yelsma and Marrow (2003). Results showed that the difficulty in expressing one's emotions decreased both own and spouses marital satisfaction. Another indication of the study was that when one of the spouses' emotional expressiveness was lower than the other spouse their marital satisfaction will be negatively influenced.

Apart from the variables mentioned above, other variables such as partner violence, cooperative behavior were shown to be related marital satisfaction. Intimate partner violence was examined by Stith et al., (2008) in a meta-analysis of consisting of 32 studies. It was found that intimate partner violence reduced marital satisfaction. In other words, people who experienced more intimate partner violence were less likely satisfied their marriages. In addition to partner violence, cooperative behaviors were emphasized by Leggett (2012). In a sample of 977 married couples, it was reported that cooperative behaviors such as social interests, like visiting friends or working around the home together increased marital satisfaction.

2.6. Gender

This section includes five parts which are gender differences in forgiveness, gender differences in response to infidelity, gender differences in positive affect, gender differences in coping and gender differences in marital satisfaction.

2.6.1. Gender Differences in Forgiveness

Gender differences in forgiveness were studied in many research (e.g. Shackelford, Buss, & Bennett, 2002; Fincham & Beach 2007; Miller et al., 2008; Miller & Worthington, 2010; Fehr et al., 2010) with different sample type (e.g. university students, married individuals), different target of forgiveness (e.g. a friend, romantic partner) and different offense type (e.g. violence, infidelity). Contradictory results were found regarding gender differences in forgiveness.

Miller et al., (2008) conducted a meta-analysis consisting of 53 articles reporting 70 studies that addressed gender and forgiveness between 1983 and 2007. Studies in this meta-analysis, only four studies had a sample including married couples and only in eight studies, target of forgiveness were romantic partner. Results of the study revealed that differences exist in gender in responses to forgiveness. That is, females are more forgiving than males. However, contradictory results were found in a more recent meta-analysis (Fehr et al., 2010) consisting of 175 studies before in December 2008 that investigated correlates of forgiveness. In these studies, 53 studies including 8366 participants investigated gender differences in forgiveness. It was reported that there were no gender differences in forgiveness.

Gender differences in forgiveness regarding infidelity was investigated by a study (Shackelford et al., 2002) was included the meta-analysis (Miller et al., 2008). The study comprised 128 male and 128 female university students. In the study, firstly, participants were asked to select which type of infidelity, sexual or emotional, would be more difficult for them to forgive. The majority of men (65.1%) indicated that they would find it more difficult to forgive a sexual infidelity than an emotional infidelity, compared with 52.0% of women who indicated that they would find it more difficult to forgive a sexual infidelity than an emotional infidelity. Secondly, participants were asked to imagine that their partner had been both sexually unfaithful and emotionally unfaithful and asked which aspect of infidelity,

sexual or emotional, would be more difficult for them to forgive. The majority of men (57.9%) indicated that they would find it more difficult to forgive the sexual (relative to the emotional) aspect of a partner's infidelity when both forms of infidelity had occurred, compared with only 41.3% of women who indicated that they would find it more difficult to forgive the sexual (relative to the emotional) aspect of a partner's infidelity when both forms of infidelity had occurred. Therefore, men, relative to women find it more difficult to forgive a partner's sexual infidelity than a partner's emotional infidelity. Conversely, women, relative to men, find it more difficult to forgive a partner who is emotionally unfaithful.

Role of gender in forgiveness depending on relation with marital quality and perception of partner's forgiveness were also investigated. Fincham and Beach (2007) revealed that for men high marital quality lead high levels of forgiveness while for women there was a dual causality between levels of marital quality and forgiveness. That is, high marital quality lead high levels of forgiveness, and high levels of forgiveness increased high marital quality. Miller and Worthington (2010) examined 311 recently-married couples for potential sex-related differences in overall marital forgiveness and perceptions of partner's forgiveness. Men showed more marital forgiveness in their marriage toward their spouse after a troublesome offense than did women. Women perceived their male partners as being more forgiving of them than their male partners' perceived their female partners' forgiveness.

2.6.2. Gender Differences in Response to Infidelity

Both men and women feel substantial distress in the case of infidelity of an intimate partner. Besides a romantic partner's infidelity has devastating effects on both sexes, these effects can be changed as a function of the type of the affair. In general, it seems that men have tendency to focus on sexual aspects of infidelity while women focalize the emotional aspects infidelity. This finding have been revealed by most studies (e.g. Buss,

Larsen, Westen & Semmelroth 1992; Pietrzak, Laird, Stevens, & Thompson, 2002; Harris, 2003).

Researchers have suggested diverse explanations for this sex difference. In Evolutionary Theory, men and women would respond to infidelity differently according to type of the rival. Due to the mechanism of human reproduction, males are faced with the adaptive problem of paternal uncertainty. Because fertilization and gestation occur internally, females can be 100% certain that any offspring they give birth to are genetically theirs. However, this assurance is not valid for males. As a result, males are always at risk of being cuckolded (unknowingly investing their resources in the care and provisioning of another man's genetic offspring). Researchers estimate that current rates of cuckoldry within modern western societies are as high as 25% (Baker & Bellis, 1995), emphasizing the importance of this risk. It is because of the high cost of cuckoldry that males are hypothesized to be particularly upset by sexual infidelity. On the other hand, females benefit most from securing a mate who will provide appropriate resources, such as food, shelter and protection for her and her offspring. Therefore, a woman is more distressed in the case of emotional infidelity due to fear of losing her husband's energy, commitment and resources (Buss et al., 1992).

An alternative explanation was originated from a socio-cultural approach (Eagly & Wood, 1999). In this approach, sex differences in reaction to infidelity are arised from social roles found in all cultures. There are gender-specific expectations about appropriate behavior and the expression of emotions. Accordingly, women are concerned more about the emotional aspects of social relationships than men while men have more freedom than women with regard to sexual relationships. Thereby, sex differences in response to different types of infidelity may be affected the fact that each sex focused on those aspects of relationships they have learned to find most worthwhile.

To evaluate the evolutionary theory, the effect of types of infidelity (sexual or emotional) was measured in three studies conducted by Buss et

al., (1992). As it was expected, men showed more distress by sexual than emotional infidelity and the reverse pattern was found in women. Also, physiological data were gathered as a measure of emotional arousal in reaction to imagining each type of infidelity. While men showed high elevations in electro dermal activity (changes in the skin's ability to conduct electricity) in the case of sexual infidelity than emotional infidelity, and the opposite pattern was revealed for women. Therefore, depending on these findings, Buss et al., (1992) supported the evolutionary theory.

DeStano and Salovey (1996) challenged the evolutionary theory for sex differences in response to a hypothetical partner's emotional and sexual infidelity. They argued that gender is pre-existing condition, so men and women cannot be randomly assigned to conditions. The authors proposed that the findings of Buss et al. (1992) might result from "double-shot hypothesis" which assumes that men would be more likely than women to assume that women's sexual infidelity also implies emotional infidelity. Similarly, women would be more likely than men to assume that men's emotional infidelity also implies sexual infidelity. Thus, sexual infidelity and emotional infidelity would not be independent events. DeStano and Salovey (1996) replicated the findings of Buss et al., (1992). They found that for women emotional infidelity is more upsetting while for men there is no difference in response to both types of infidelity. Moreover, it was found that compared to men, women were more likely to assume that emotional infidelity implies sexual infidelity more than the reversed. The double-shot hypothesis was sustained by the findings. To test the double-shot hypothesis, Buss et al., (1999) modified their method. In the study, sexual and emotional infidelity had supposedly already occurred and participant evaluated which aspects of affair was more upsetting. Over again, the authors found sex difference such that women rated emotional aspects of infidelity whereas men rated sexual aspects of infidelity as more upsetting. Therefore, the evolutionary theory was supported again.

There exists some studies (Green & Sabini, 2006; Kimeldorf, 2008) revealed the results did not support the evolutionary hypothesis. A study (Green & Sabini, 2006) aiming to test evolutionary hypothesis revealed that both men and women reported more anger and blame in sexual infidelity but more hurt feelings in emotional infidelity. In addition, Kimeldorf (2008) conducted 2 studies. Results of her first study with 68 participants who are actual victims of infidelity didn't support the evolutionary hypothesis. Both men and women reported similar level of distress for both emotional and sexual infidelity. On the other hand, in the second study with 1614 participants, when using hypothetical scenarios, it was found that men responded more upset to sexual infidelity and women responded more upset to emotional infidelity. Therefore, while the evolutionary hypothesis was not supported in the case of actual infidelity, it was supported when hypothetical scenarios was used.

Gender differences in response to infidelity were investigated considering emotional reactions. Shackelford, LeBlanc, and Drass, (2000) indicated that men reported higher level of content/relieved, homicidal/suicidal, happy, and sexually whereas women reported higher level of nauseated/repulsed (rejection), depressed, undesirable/insecure, helpless/abandoned, and anxious. Levels of helpless/abandoned and shocked were higher on women than men for both types of infidelity, but had greater level for emotional infidelity than for sexual infidelity. Levels of homicidal/suicidal were higher on men than women for both types of infidelity, but had greater level for emotional infidelity than for sexual infidelity.

Gender differences in response to infidelity were looked for by Cann and Baucom (2004) by comparing the infidelity with a former romantic partner to a new person with a sample of 71 men and 69 women. The findings revealed that men reported more distressed in infidelity with former partner when the infidelity was sexual but there are no definite differences between former partners and new person when the infidelity was emotional.

In addition, women chose the former partner as the more distressed rival for both sexual and emotional infidelity.

2.6.3. Gender Differences in Positive Affect

Gender differences in positive affect were investigated by some researchers. While some studies (e.g. Mroczek & Kolarz, 1998; Aparicio, Moreno-Rosset, Diaz, & Ramirez-Uclez, 2009;) revealed gender differences, some studies (e.g. Karlson & Archer, 2007; Robles, Brooks & Pressman, 2009) reported no gender differences in trait positive affect.

Mroczek and Kolarz (1998) investigated gender differences in positive affect. The sample comprised 1390 women and 1337 men. Results showed that women reported lower positive affect than men. Two important differences were found between men and women in explaining positive affect. First, education level influenced positive affect in men but not in women. That is, men with high education level had higher level of positive affect than men with low education level. For women, education level had no impact on positive affect. Second, age influenced positive affect in women but not men. In other words, older women have higher positive affect than younger women. For men, age had no impact on positive affect. Regarding gender differences, similar results were found in another study (Aparicio et al., 2009) with a sample having different characteristics. The sample comprised 101 people (51 men and 50 women) with infertility problems. Results showed positive affect was lower in women compared to men. Inconsistently, Karlson and Archer (2007) found that males and females have similar level of positive affect with a sample including 139 female and 47 male university students. In addition, another study (Robles et al., 2009) showed that levels of trait positive affect were similar in women and men with a sample consisting of 27 female and 33 male participants. Gender differences in positive affect depending on relation with personality were also examined by VanDyke and Gore (2012). They found men with high levels of extraversion had higher level of positive

affect than women with high level of extraversion, and also, men with low neuroticism had higher level of positive affect than women with low level of neuroticism.

2.6.4. Gender Differences in Coping

How people cope with stressful encounters varies for each individual. Gender has been an important variable which was studied extensively in the coping literature. Gender differences in coping have been explained by two main hypotheses: the socialization and the role-constraint hypotheses. Both hypotheses might explain why and how males and females are expected to differ in coping with stressful events and emphasize environmental effects on coping efforts but in different manners. Socialization has an impact on one's beliefs about himself/herself while role constraint forms what one does. Socialization hypothesis explained that males and females are socialized to react to stress in different ways since role stereotypes and gender expectations for males and females are different. Males are socialized to be more active, independent and goal-oriented whereas females are socialized to be more passive, dependent and emotion-oriented. Thus, males employed more problem-focused coping whereas females used more emotion-focused coping (Pearlin & Schooler, 1978). On the other hand, role constraint hypotheses states that apparent gender differences in coping with stressors may be explained by gender differences in the likelihood of occupying particular social roles and the differential constraints that accompany role occupancy for women and men (Rosario, Schinn, Morch, & Huckabee, 1988). Hence, socialization theory would predict that gender differences in coping strategy use would be found across situations and social roles; however role constraint theory would predict that if individuals occupy the same social role, gender differences in coping strategy use would vanish.

The "role constraint" and the "socialization" hypotheses were partially supported by some studies (e.g. Tamres, Janicki, & Helgeson,

2002; Matud, 2004; Li, DiGiuseppe, & Froh, 2006) Tamres et al., (2002) in a meta-analysis study, examined sex differences in coping. They analyzed 50 studies reported between 1990 and 2000. Results revealed that women were more likely to use various types of coping strategies including verbal expressions to others or the self, seek emotional support, ruminate about problems, and use positive self-talk. The results regarding sex differences in coping indicated no sex difference in terms of problem-focused and avoidant coping. However, the researchers speculated that men as compared to women might engage in more avoidant or withdrawal behavior for some stressors like situations related to other people (relationships and other's health). Only seeking emotional support was found to be different across sexes in that women were more likely than men to seek emotional support across a wide range of stressors. With a large sample of 1566 women and 1250 men, Matud (2004) found that women used more emotion-focused, avoidance coping, less problem-focused and detachment coping than men. Li et al., (2006) found women were more likely to use emotion-focused coping and ruminative coping than men. On the other hand, results of other studies (e.g. Ben-Zur & Zeidner, 1996; Gelhaar et al., 2007) contradicted the socialization hypothesis. After the Persian Gulf War, Ben-Zur & Zeidner (1996) conducted a study with Israeli men and women in order to assess the gender differences in coping behaviors under both war and daily routine conditions. Researchers tested the "role constraint" vs. the "socialization" hypotheses. Inconsistent with both of the hypotheses, results demonstrated that during the war women were more likely to use active, problem-focused coping, and also, they used more coping activities than men. It was found that men used more emotion-focused coping strategies than women during the war. However, the gender difference in coping changed after the war. It was reported that women utilized emotion focused coping strategies more than men with daily routine stressors. It was apparent that the results were not consistent with both of the hypotheses. Researchers concluded that coping strategies should be assessed after considering the significance and

meaning of a specific encounter for both women and men. Another study (Gelhaar et al., 2007) with a sample consisting of 3031 participants from seven countries: Croatia, The Czech Republic, Germany, Italy, Norway, Portugal and Switzerland showed women tended to use more active coping whereas men tended to use more withdrawal coping.

2.6.5. Gender Differences in Marital Satisfaction

Gender differences in marital satisfaction were investigated in several studies (e.g. Orathinkal & Vansteenwegen, 2007; Edwards, 2009; Vento & Cobb, 2011; Chi et al., 2011; Zhang, Ho, & Yip, 2012; Leggett et al., 2012) and contradictory results were found. Orathinkal and Vansteenwegen (2007) conducted a study with 396 women and 391 men and found that women had lower marital satisfaction than men. Also, Edwards (2009) revealed that men were nearly seven times more likely to report being satisfied from their marriage compared to women in the study including 2888 participants. Consistently, the study by Chi et al., (2011) showed that marital satisfaction is lower among women than men with a sample consisting of 1749 people. Similarly, Zhang et al., (2012) supported the relationship between gender and marital satisfaction reporting wives had low marital satisfaction than their husbands with a large sample consisting of 1083 first-time married couples. However, Vento and Cobb (2011) revealed gender differences in marital satisfaction in opposite way reporting that husbands had lower marital satisfaction than their wives. On the other hand, another study (Leggett et al., 2012) having a sample of 977 individuals demonstrated that there were no differences in marital satisfaction between men and women.

Gender differences in marital satisfaction depending on related variables such as contextual factors, social support, sexual satisfaction, intimacy were also investigated. Gender differences in marital satisfaction depending on relation with contextual factors were searched. Zhang et al., (2012) reported that husbands had more marital satisfaction when they were

1 to 4 years older than their wives than they were at similar age. Men had low marital satisfaction when only their wives were employed than when both partners were employed. Also, men were less likely satisfied their marriage when their wives 5 or more years older. Women were less satisfied when they were more educated than their husbands. Also, gender differences in marital satisfaction regarding partner's support and social support were examined in a study (Wunderer & Schneewind, 2008). The sample consisted of 663 married couples. The study indicated that gender differences such that for wives marital satisfaction depends to a higher degree on the support experienced through their partner than for husbands. Additionally, gender differences in marital satisfaction depending on association with sexual satisfaction were searched in the study by Guo and Huang (2005). It was revealed that women with high level of sexual satisfaction had higher marital satisfaction than men with high level of sexual satisfaction. Furthermore, gender differences in marital satisfaction with respect to intimacy were examined by Volsky (1998). It was shown that sexual and emotional intimacy predicted marital satisfaction of men while recreational and emotional intimacy predicted marital satisfaction of women. That is, for men as sexual and emotional intimacy increases, their marital satisfaction increases whereas for women recreational and emotional intimacy increases satisfaction with marriage increases.

2.7. Studies on Forgiveness, Infidelity, Positive Affect, Coping and Marital Satisfaction in Turkey

To begin with the research concerning forgiveness, it can be stated that the construct was not widely studied in Turkey. There are two studies (Taysi 2007; and Özgün, 2009) related to forgiveness. Forgiveness was studied for the first time by Taysi (2007). Forgiveness was examined in terms of the effects marital adjustment, causal attributions (factors that produce an event) and responsibility attributions (judgements regarding an individual's accountability for the event) of wives and husbands. The study

includes 160 married individuals. Results indicated that marital adjustment predicted forgiveness of couples. That is, individuals with high marital adjustment were more likely to forgive their partners. Both responsibility attributions and causal attributions predicted forgiveness. Responsibility attributions were more predictive than forgiveness for wives and husbands. In addition, severity of the offenses was found to be related forgiveness. In other words, the individuals who perceive the offense more severe were less likely to forgive their partners.

Forgiveness was studied depending on relation with coping strategies, resources as predictors of traumatic effects of extramarital infidelity in married women by Özgün (2009). It was found that women who use problem-focused coping had lower posttraumatic stress disorder symptoms than those who use emotion-focused coping. According to Three Stage Model for Forgiveness which used in the study, women who were in stage 1 (Impact) showed the highest posttraumatic stress disorder symptoms whereas the stage III (recovery) group showed the lowest posttraumatic stress disorder symptoms.

Secondly, infidelity was examined considering its correlates in many studies (Yeniçeri & Kökdemir, 2006; Polat, 2006; Kantarcı, 2009; Çavuşoğlu, 2011) in Turkey. Perceptions and explanations for the reasons of emotional and sexual infidelity were searched by Yeniçeri and Kökdemir (2006) in a sample of 404 university students. Six components, namely, legitimacy, seduction, normalization, sexuality, social background and sensation seeking emerged as causal attributions to infidelity. Men were more likely to report seduction as a cause of infidelity than women. However, women were more likely to report social background as a cause of infidelity than men. There were no significant differences between men and women among other components.

Infidelity was investigated in terms of marital adjustment and conflict tendencies by Polat (2006). Results of the study showed that men had higher infidelity tendencies than women. The participants with have

high level of marital adjustment had less conflict tendencies for both males and females. Both males and females with high level of marital adjustment had less infidelity tendencies. Both males and females who have more infidelity tendencies had high levels of conflict tendencies.

Infidelity was examined with respect to adult attachment styles by Kantarcı (2009). The study consisted of 145 women and 55 men. Result yielded that insecure participants had less infidelity tendencies than secure participants. Relative to women, men have been found to have higher infidelity tendencies. Results of the study were not supported by the study of Çavuşoğlu (2011). Çavuşoğlu (2011) measured the relationship among marital adjustment, infidelity tendency, attachment styles and some demographic variables with 217 married couples. Findings showed that there was no relationship between attachment styles and infidelity tendencies. It means that, secure individuals had similar infidelity tendencies with insecure individuals. It was also yielded that individuals with high level of marital adjustment had less infidelity tendencies. Infidelity tendencies were higher in first 5 year of marriage and after the 20th year of marriage. However, gender, education level and number of children have no effect on infidelity tendencies.

Positive affect were found to be related several variables such as relationship satisfaction, attachment, self-coherence in the studies (Saritaş, 2007; Öztekin, 2008; Kankotan, 2008; Demirtaş, 2010) with Turkish sample. In the study of Saritaş (2007), positive affect was examined in respect to maternal acceptance-rejection. The study consisted of 356 high school students. The results indicated that participants who perceived high maternal acceptance had higher positive affect than those who high maternal rejection. There were gender differences in the relationship positive affect and maternal acceptance- rejection. It means that, role of high maternal acceptance on positive affect higher for females than males.

The role of gender, sense of coherence and physical activity on positive affect was investigated by Öztekin (2008) in a sample of 376

university students. It was found that high sense of coherence and high physical activity resulted in higher positive affect among participants. No gender effect on positive affect was found. In other words, males and females have similar level of positive affect.

Kankotan (2008) investigated the role of attachment dimensions, gender and relationship status on positive affect. Results indicated that people who lower in avoidance attachment tend to high levels of positive affect. Presence of a romantic relationship and gender had no effect on positive affect. Demirtaş (2010) found similar results regarding gender effect but contradictory results with respect to relationship status. In the study Demirtaş (2010) examined role of gender, relationship status, relationship satisfaction, and commitment to career choices on the positive affect with 400 university students. Results yielded that presence of a romantic relationship resulted in positive affect among participants. Also, students who reported greater certainty and commitment to career choices had higher frequency of positive affect. However, gender and relationship satisfaction had no effect on positive affect.

Coping was examined depending on in relation with different variables with different samples (e.g. university students, high school students, couples, specific occupation groups) in Turkey. Because although there are too many research, the studies (Acicbe, 2002; Bilecen 2007; Sezgin 2007; Akkaya, 2010; Çelenoğlu 2011) which investigated coping in the framework romantic relationships were reported.

Acicbe (2002) investigated the validity and reliability of the Turkish Marital Coping Inventory (MCI). The sample of the present study consisted of 410 spouses. Findings indicated that the Turkish version of the MCI is a valid and reliable instrument to assess marital coping efforts in Turkish culture. As in the original form, it consisted of 66 items with five subscales, namely, Introspective Self-blame, Positive Approach, Conflict, Self-interest and Avoidance.

Bilecen (2007) examined coping strategies, namely, focus on the relationship, positive and active coping, negative and passive coping, social support, alcohol and drug use, self-bolstering, regression, denial, belief in religion and humor in romantic relationships with a sample of 118 married and 135 dating individuals. Results showed that men were more likely to focus on relationship, use alcohol and drug, and to deny whereas women were more likely to seek social support and to use negative passive coping. When married and dating individuals were compared in terms of coping strategies, focus on the relationship, positive and active coping, self-bolstering and denial were more probably used by dating individuals than married individuals.

The impact of coping strategies on psychological health was investigated by Sezgin (2007) in a sample of 53 women who stay in domestic violence shelters. Also, the study compared the women staying in domestic violence shelters with the 54 other women in the control group with respect to coping strategies. It was found that women who use emotion focused coping were more likely to react to violence neutrally while women who use problem focused coping were less likely to react to violence negatively. Moreover, it was revealed that women having low level of emotion-focused coping had low level of anxiety and psychoticism than those having high level of emotion-focused coping. Also, women having low level of problem-focused coping had lower level of psychoticism than women having high level of problem- focused coping. It was also reported that there was no effect of the variables which are number of leaving home, length of marriage, age at marriage, length of violence, variables related violence on both problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping. Another finding of the study was that women staying at domestic violence shelters more likely used problem-focused coping compared to women in the control group.

Akkaya (2010) examined attachment styles with respect to coping styles with 144 people who are at the process of divorce. Results of the

study indicated that coping behaviors, namely, active planning, escape-
abstraction, were not related to attachment styles, namely, secure,
dismissing, preoccupied and fearful. In other words, there were no
differences in coping behaviors among secure, dismissing, preoccupied and
fearful people. Considering attachment styles Çelenoğlu (2011) found
different results. Çelenoğlu (2011) investigated the marital coping efforts of
married people in terms of their attachment styles and self-perceptions. The
sample of this study included 228 married individuals. The results of the
study demonstrated that the individuals with insecure attachment styles used
the ways of self-blame, self-interest, conflict and avoidance in order to cope
with problems in marriage. Also, the individuals who had low self-
perceptions used the way of conflict more commonly than people who had
high self-perceptions. In addition, considering gender, women used the
ways of self-blame and conflict whereas men used the ways of avoidance
much more than women.

Marital satisfaction are shown to be associated with an array of
variables such as demographic variables, loneliness, religiousness,
attachment styles, problem solving skills, etc. in Turkish studies (İmamoğlu
& Yasak, 1997; Demir & Fıfıloğlu, 1999; Hünler & Gençöz, 2005; Güven
& Sevim, 2005; Bir Aktürk 2006; Soyer, 2006; Aydınli & Tutarel-Kıfılak,
2009; Koçak, 2009; Tutarel-Kıfılak & Göztepe, 2012). In their study, Demir
and Fıfıloğlu (1999) examined the relationship loneliness and marital
adjustment with 58 married couples. It was found that higher levels of
marital adjustment were associated with lower levels of loneliness. In
addition, in self-selected marriages, marital adjustment of couples was
higher compared to couples in arranged marriages. Another finding was that
marital adjustment increased as parallel to increases in degree of
acquaintance between partners before marriage.

The effect of religiousness on marital satisfaction via problem
solving skills was searched by Hünler and Gençöz (2005) with 184
participants. According to the results, religiousness was associated with

marital satisfaction. That is, more religious people were more likely to have high marital satisfaction. However, there was no effect of problem solving skills on the relationship between religiousness and marital satisfaction.

Güven and Sevim (2005) measured age, sex, interpersonal rejection, unrealistic relationship expectation, mind reading and marital problem solving skills as predictors of marital satisfaction with 305 married individuals. They revealed unrealistic relationship expectation and marital problem solving skills predicted marital satisfaction such that individuals with low unrealistic relationship expectation and high marital problem solving skills reported high level of marital satisfaction. However, there was no effect of age, sex, interpersonal rejection and mind reading on marital satisfaction.

Bir Aktürk (2006) compared the level of marital satisfaction among marital status and gender on 116 first married and 223 remarried individuals. Also, she examined the effect of stepchildren on marital satisfaction in remarried individuals. Results showed that men reported higher level of marital satisfaction than women. It was also found that remarried individuals with residential stepchildren had lower marital satisfaction than remarried individuals with non-residential stepchildren and those without stepchildren. However, levels of marital satisfaction were similar among first married individuals, post-divorce remarried individuals and post-bereavement remarried individuals.

Marital satisfaction was investigated in terms of predictor variables by Soyer (2006) with the sample of 200 married individuals. It was found that the frequency of intercourse and frequency of masturbation predicted marital satisfaction. In other words, when the frequency of intercourse increased, marital satisfaction also increased; however, when the frequency of masturbation increased, marital satisfaction decreased. However, no gender differences were found for marital satisfaction.

Marital satisfaction was looked for with respect to demographic variables by Aydınlı and Tutarel-Kışlak (2009) with the sample of 145

married individuals. Results demonstrated that people who married older and had high educational level had more marital adjustment when compared to those married younger and had lower educational level. Moreover, people who hadn't any child or had one child had more marital adjustment than who had three or more children. On the other hand, there were no significant differences between men and women for marital adjustment. Also, it was found that there was no effect of length of marriage on marital adjustment.

Marital adjustment was searched depending on in relation with sexual schema categories (positive, negative, aschematic, co-schematic category) and some demographic variables by Koçak (2009) with 204 married individuals. Results revealed that when age, length of marriage and number of children increased, marital adjustment decreased. However, there was no effect of gender and sexual schema categories on marital adjustment. People having different sexual schema categories had similar level of marital adjustment.

In a recent study (Tutarel-Kışlak & Göztepe, 2012) with a sample of 167 married individuals examined the relationship among demographic variables, expressed emotion, depression, empathy and the marital adjustment. The study revealed that individuals with low level of marital adjustment had high levels of emotional reaction, tolerance/expectance and depression than those with high levels of marital adjustment. However, it was found that there was no relationship between demographic variables (e.g. gender, age, income level, education level, type of marriage, length of marriage, age of spouse, number of children) and marital adjustment.

2.8. Connection between the Literature Review and Purpose of the Study

A review of the literature demonstrates that forgiveness is associated with multiple variables for both men and women. It is also clear that marital satisfaction takes place to some degree in the forgiveness literature. However, in the forgiveness literature, infidelity has not widely attracted the

researchers' attention. Also, the role of trait positive affect and coping in forgiveness has been ignored. The effect of type of infidelity on forgiveness via marital satisfaction; the effect of trait positive affect on forgiveness via marital satisfaction; and the effect of coping on forgiveness via marital satisfaction has not been investigated. In addition, previous studies which examined forgiveness in the case of infidelity used hypothetical scenarios. Only a few number of studies had a sample including actual victims of infidelity. Present study had a sample comprised the individuals whose partner engaged to infidelity. As a result, the present study aimed to investigate the role of trait positive affect, coping, types of infidelity on forgiveness by means of marital satisfaction. It was also aimed to examine gender effects on the relationships among study variables in the context of marriage.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

3.1. Participants

The current study conducted by one hundred and twenty two participants. Of the participants, 74 of them were female (60.7 %), and remaining 48 of them were male (39.3 %). The age of the participants' age ranged between 25 to 52 with a mean of 35.12 ($SD = 5.60$). All of the participants were used in further analyses since they had very few missing cases (less than 5 %). Two of the participants had the lowest education level within the sample with primary school education (1.6 %) and forty six of the participants graduated from high school (37.7 %). Of the participants, 70 (57.4 %) were graduated from university and 4 (3.3 %) had graduate degree. In terms of place that individuals spent most of their lives, only 7 of them (5.7 %) lived most in a town, 56 (45.9 %) of them reported that they lived mostly in a city and remaining 59 (48.4 %) of them lived in a metropolitan. All of the participants were married and marriage time ranged between 1 to 29 years ($M = 9.59$, $SD = 5.47$). Twenty eight participants reported that they have no child and remaining 94 (77 %) reported that they have at least one child. Of those participants, 45 (36.9 %) of them reported they have one child and 43 (35.2 %) of them reported they have two children. Within the remaining of the participants, 9 (7.4 %) of them have three children and only one (.8 %) have four children. All of the participants reported that they have experienced infidelity either sexually or emotionally during their marriages. Table 1 illustrates the demographic information of the participants.

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Measures	Mean	Standard Deviation	Min-Max
Age	35.12	5.60	25 - 52
Marriage time	9.59	5.47	1 - 29
	Count		Percentage
Education			
Primary school	2		1.6
High school	46		37.7
University	70		57.4
Postgraduate	4		3.3
Live			
Town	7		5.7
City	56		45.9
Metropolitan	59		48.4
Child			
Yes	94		77
No	28		23
Number of child			
One child	45		36.9
Two children	43		35.2
Three children	9		7.4
Four children	1		0.8
Infidelity			
Yes	122		100

3.2. Instruments

The questionnaire consisted of Demographic Information Form (see Appendix B) and four scales namely, Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS, see Appendix C), Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS, see Appendix D), Transgression-Related Interpersonal Motivations Inventory (TRIM, see Appendix E), Turkish Ways of Coping Inventory (TWCI, see Appendix F).

3.2.1. Demographic Information Form

Demographic Information Form aims to receive information on gender, age, education level, place of growth, length of marriage and

number of children. In Demographic Information Form, additional two questions were included. First one aims to learn whether the subject's spouse engaged to sexual or emotional infidelity in their marriages (“Have you ever been exposed to sexual or emotional infidelity in your marriage”). Definitions of sexual and emotional infidelity were given in the parenthesis. If the subject's spouse engaged to any type of infidelity, he/she was instructed to continue filling questionnaire with the following question (“How sexual versus emotional was infidelity you are exposed” which ranged from 1 “entirely sexual” to 5 “entirely emotional”) which aims categorize the nature of the infidelity that each participant experienced.

3.2.2. Positive Affect and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS)

PANAS was developed by Watson, Clark and Tellegen (1998). The scale is composed of two subscales which are positive affect subscale and negative affect subscale. The Positive Affect Subscale includes 10 mood-related adjectives which are active, alert, attentive, determined, enthusiastic, excited, inspired, interested, proud, and strong. The Negative Affect Subscale includes 10 mood-related adjectives which are afraid, ashamed, distressed, guilty, hostile, irritable, jittery, nervous, scared, and upset.

PANAS is a Likert-type scale with 5 point items ranging from "*very slightly or not at all*" to "*extremely*". Thus, the scores of positive affect and negative affect range from 10 to 50. When general time frame instruction is used as a time instruction, concerning internal consistency reliability, Cronbach's alpha was found as .88 for positive affect and .87 for negative affect; test-retest reliability was reported as .68 for positive affect and .71 for negative affect scale. In addition, considering criterion validity, positive affect showed significant negative correlations with Beck Depression Inventory ($r = -.36$), State-Trait Anxiety Inventory ($r = -.35$) and Hopkins Symptom Checklist ($r = -.19$) whereas negative affect demonstrated that significant positive correlations with Beck Depression Inventory ($r = .58$),

State-Trait Anxiety Inventory ($r = .51$) and Hopkins Symptom Checklist ($r = .74$) (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen; 1988).

PANAS was standardized into Turkish by Gençöz (2000). Cronbach's alpha for internal consistency was found as .83 and .86 for positive affect and negative affect, respectively. Also, test-retest reliability was reported .40 for positive affect and .54 for negative affect. In terms of criterion validity, positive affect revealed significant negative correlations with Beck Depression Inventory ($r = -.48$) and Beck Anxiety Inventory ($r = -.22$), whereas negative affect indicated significant positive correlations with Beck Depression Inventory ($r = .51$) and Beck Anxiety Inventory ($r = .47$).

3.2.3 Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS)

DAS, which is used to assess quality of the relationship of both unmarried cohabiting and married couples, is composed of a total of 32 items (Spanier, 1976). DAS is a Likert-type scale with 5, 6 and 7 point items ranging from "*always agree*" to "*always disagree*" or "*all the time*" to "*never*". It also consists two items which are answered as yes or no. Possible total score range from 0 to 151. Higher scores indicate greater marital satisfaction. The scale has four subscales that concern dyadic consensus, dyadic satisfaction, dyadic cohesion, and affectional expression.

Concerning internal consistency reliability, Cronbach's alpha for full scale was reported to be .96, and ranged from .73 to .94 for subscales. Test-retest reliability of the DAS was reported as .87 (Carey, Spector, Lantinga, & Krauss, 1993). In terms of criterion validity, DAS was found to be significantly and positively correlated with Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Test among married couples ($r = .86$) (Spanier, 1976).

DAS was standardized into Turkish by Fıfılođlu and Demir (2000). Cronbach's alpha, which was calculated with a sample of 264 married individuals, was found to be .92 for the entire scale, and ranged from .75 to .83 for subscales. Also, the split-half reliability coefficient was reported to be .86. Concerning construct validity, original factors were confirmed in

Turkish version. With respect to criterion validity, Turkish DAS was also found to be correlated with Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Test ($r = .82$). Based on these findings, DAS can be used as a reliable and valid instrument to assess the marital satisfaction of the individuals in Turkey.

3.2.4. Transgression-Related Interpersonal Motivations Inventory (TRIM)

TRIM, which is used to assess forgiveness of specific offense, is composed of a total of 12 items (McCullough et al., 1998). TRIM includes two subscales, namely, Revenge subscale and Avoidance subscale. The Revenge Subscales consists of 5 items that measure motivation to seek revenge. The Avoidance subscale consists of 7 items that measure motivation to avoid contact with a transgressor. Items are rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale. Lower Revenge and Avoidance scores are indicative of more forgiveness for the rated individual. Cronbach's alpha was reported as .90 and .86 for revenge subscale and avoidance subscale, respectively. Test-retest reliability was reported as .79 and .86 for three weeks apart; .53 and .44 for eight weeks apart; .65 and .64 for nine weeks apart respectively revenge and avoidance subscale. (McCullough et al, 1998).

TRIM was standardized into Turkish by Taysi (2007). In Turkish adaptation, the scale included three factors, namely, revenge, terminating the relationship and avoidance. Cronbach's alpha, which was calculated with a sample of 405 individuals, was found to be .82 for the full scale. Also, Cronbach's alpha of Revenge subscale, Terminating the Relationship subscale and Avoidance subscale were found to be respectively .81, .75 and .58. Concerning criterion validity, TRIM was found to be significantly correlated with Multidimensional Anger Scale (Siegel, 1986).

3.2.5 Turkish Ways of Coping Inventory (TWCI)

The original scale including 68-item checklist that measure problem-focused and emotion-focused types of coping was developed by Folkman

and Lazarus (1980). Then, Folkman and Lazarus (1985) revised the scale with 5 point Likert type that has 66 items and 8 factors.

WCI was standardized into Turkish by Siva (1991) by adding 6 new items. Therefore, Turkish version of WCI is a 74-item with 5-point Likert-type scale, which was developed to assess coping strategies. The internal consistency of the scale was .91.

The hierarchical dimensions of coping styles were examined by Gençöz, Gençöz, and Bozo (2006). In the study, the scale was administered to 194 university students. 5 factors were identified in the factor analysis by using varimax rotation. These factors were problem-focused coping ($\alpha = .90$), religious coping ($\alpha = .89$), seeking social support ($\alpha = .84$), self-blame/helplessness ($\alpha = .83$), and distancing ($\alpha = .76$). The second-order analysis of Turkish version of WCI showed three factors, namely, emotion-focused coping ($\alpha = .88$), problem-focused coping ($\alpha = .90$), and seeking social support: indirect coping ($\alpha = .84$) (Gençöz, Gençöz, & Bozo, 2006).

3.3. Procedure

Permission was taken from Applied Ethics Research Center in Middle East Technical University. Although some instruments were given by the researcher to the subjects, some of them were sent to the subjects with the help of acquaintances of the researcher. Data were collected in Ankara, İstanbul, İzmir, Trabzon in 14 month period. Respondents were informed about the aim of the study. Brief written instructions were given at the beginning of all instruments. All instruments were given in envelopes and requested to return them in any time in closed envelopes in order to protect confidentiality. The order of the scales was randomized to control for order effect. Total administration time of the scales took approximately 20 minutes.

Concerning sample of the study, purposive sampling was utilized (Kerlinger, 1986) in order to obtain a representative sample of individuals who are married and being exposed infidelity. Regarding data collection,

snowball sampling technique was used to reach target participants (Kumar, 1996).

3.4. Data Analysis

After constructing the variables, a number of descriptive and inferential statistics were conducted including correlations. Besides, ANOVAs were conducted by gender of the participants.

In order to test the study hypotheses, two approaches were conducted. First, following Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach, mediation analyses were conducted by using SPSS 15.0. A series of regression analyses were conducted in two parts. In the first part, coping styles were treated as independent variables and in the second part, positive emotion and type of infidelity were used as independent variables.

Second, proposed model were tested all together by using path analysis in order to capture all of the variance between the variables and to prepare a base model for gender comparison. Finally, multi-group comparison was conducted to see whether the two groups, namely men and women, have similar parameters in terms of the proposed model.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1. Preliminary Analyses

The descriptive information about the variables used in the study (Type of infidelity, Trait Positive Affect, Problem-focused Coping, Emotion-focused Coping, Marital Satisfaction, and Forgiveness) were presented at Table 2. Besides, gender differences between study variables were calculated. A series of analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to compare the means of different genders. The ANOVAs with gender revealed that women reported more sexual infidelity (below median), while men reported more emotional infidelity (above median) from their spouses ($M_{\text{women}} = 2.32$; $M_{\text{men}} = 3.48$). Furthermore, men reported higher levels of problem focused coping as compared to women ($M_{\text{women}} = 3.35$; $M_{\text{men}} = 3.53$), also men have higher marital satisfaction than women ($M_{\text{women}} = 66.54$; $M_{\text{men}} = 80.58$), and men reported higher forgiveness than women ($M_{\text{women}} = 3.62$; $M_{\text{men}} = 4.00$). Regarding trait positive affect and emotion-focused coping, mean comparisons between men and women revealed insignificant results. In addition, a series of ANOVAs were conducted to compare the means of education levels and places that the individuals live. In terms of study variables, mean comparisons among education levels and places that the individuals live showed insignificant results. Furthermore, a series of simple linear regression analyses were done to measure the effect of age and length of marriage on the study variables. For all study variables, the predictor roles of age and length of marriage were not found.

Table 2. Gender Differences of Study Variables

	Women		Men		<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Type of infidelity	2.32	1.31	3.48	1.35	21.96	.000
Trait positive affect	3.49	.78	3.63	.72	1.06	.306
Problem-focused coping	3.35	.44	3.53	.52	4.31	.040
Emotion-focused coping	2.88	.59	2.89	.51	.001	.976
Marital satisfaction	66.54	35.21	80.58	35.62	4.59	.034
Forgiveness	3.62	1.06	4.00	1.01	4.16	.044

Moreover, bivariate associations between study variables were calculated and presented at Table 3. Accordingly, trait positive affect measured with PANAS was positively correlated with marital satisfaction ($r(122) = .65, p = .001$) and forgiveness ($r(122) = .46, p = .001$). Besides, participants who reported high marital satisfaction reported lower levels of emotion focused coping ($r(122) = -.22, p = .02$), while they reported higher levels of forgiveness ($r(122) = .71, p = .001$). Finally, problem-focused coping was negatively associated with emotion -focused coping ($r(122) = -.72, p = .001$). No significant associations were detected between remaining correlations.

Table 3. Bivariate Correlations between the Study Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
Type of infidelity	1					
Trait positive affect	.03	1				
Marital satisfaction	-.01	.65**	1			
Problem-focused coping	.09	.10	.14	1		
Emotion-focused coping	-.05	-.11	-.22*	-.72**	1	
Forgiveness	-.06	.46**	.71**	.14	-.17	1

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .001$

4.2. Testing the Research Questions

In this section, hypotheses between study variables tested in two complementing statistical methods. In the first approach, proposed meditational relationships were tested in an isolated, classical step by step approach. Secondly, more comprehensive path analysis approach was used to test all proposed relationships in one model. This approach provided more sound evaluation of hypotheses by evaluating all of the variance in overall fashion.

Mediational models proposed between variables were tested by using Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach. In this method, a series of multiple regressions analyses were conducted to test the predictive relationships between variables in an isolated fashion. Four conditions

should be met to confirm a mediating effect; (a) significant relationship between independent variables and dependent variable, (b) significant relationship between independent variable and mediator variable, (c) significant relationship between mediator variable and dependent variable, and (d) significant shrinkage at the relationship between independent variable and dependent variable due to addition of mediator variable to the regression equation. Four regression analyses were conducted to test the proposed relationships.

4.2.1. Classical Step by Step Approach

4.2.1.1. Mediator Role of Marital Satisfaction in Type of Infidelity - Forgiveness and Trait Positive Affect- Forgiveness Relationships

Trait positive affect and type of infidelity were used as independent variables. Dependent variable was forgiveness and marital satisfaction was used as mediating variable. Four regression analyses were conducted to test the steps of significant mediating proposed by Baron and Kenny. Results revealed that trait positive affect significantly predicted marital satisfaction ($\beta = .65, p = .001$) and marital satisfaction significantly predicted forgiveness ($\beta = .71, p = .001$). Trait positive affect had significant effect on forgiveness ($\beta = .47, p = .001$) and this relationship became insignificant when the marital satisfaction added to the regression equation ($\beta = .01, p = .978$). Effect size of indirect relationship was .46 which indicates a strong effect size of the mediational relationship. Thus, marital satisfaction significantly mediated the relationship between trait positive affect and forgiveness. Accordingly, trait positive affect led to increase on forgiveness of infidelity via marital satisfaction. Besides, relationship between trait positive affect and forgiveness not only decreased but also became insignificant when marital satisfaction play mediating role which indicates the presence of full mediation.

On the other hand, type of infidelity had no direct significant effect on forgiveness ($\beta = -.07, p = n.s$) which violates one of the mediation criteria, so any significant mediation effect detected between type of infidelity and forgiveness via marital satisfaction (Figure 1). Overall, type of infidelity, trait positive affect and marital satisfaction explained 50% percent of the variance in forgiveness.

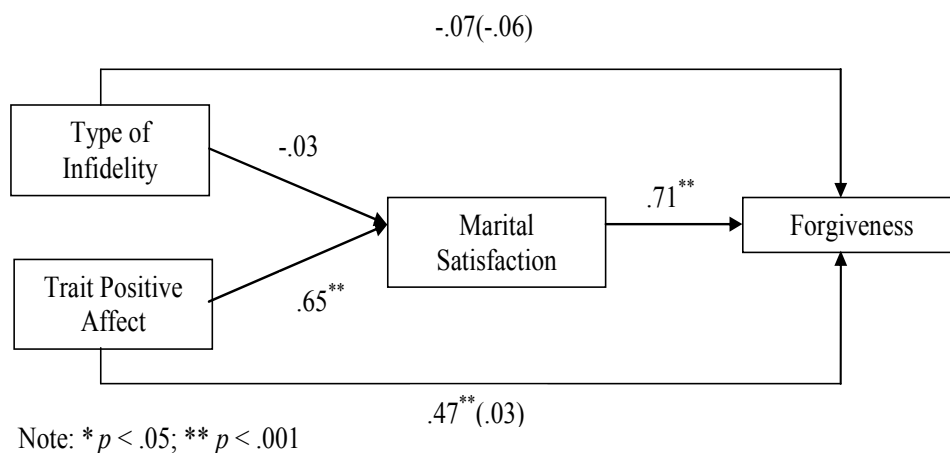
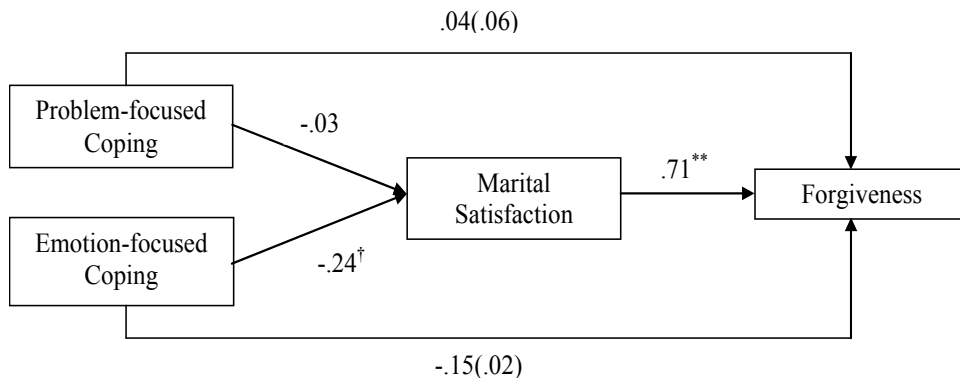


Figure 1. Marital Satisfaction as a Mediator between Type of Infidelity-Forgiveness and Trait Positive Affect –Forgiveness Relationships

4.2.1.2. Mediator Role of Marital Satisfaction in the Relationship between Coping Strategies and Forgiveness

Two types of coping including problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping were used as independent variables. Marital satisfaction was mediating variable and forgiveness was dependent variable. Four regression analyses were conducted to test the steps of significant mediating proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986). Results revealed that both of the independent variables had no significant direct effect on dependent variable. It means that, both problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping did not predict forgiveness. Since the first criterion of the mediation testing was violated, mediator effect of marital satisfaction between both of

the coping strategies and forgiveness was rejected. Besides, emotion-focused coping had marginally significant effect on marital satisfaction ($\beta = -.24, p = .07$) and marital satisfaction significantly predicted forgiveness ($\beta = .71, p = .001$). Results can be seen on Figure 2.



Note 1. Betas between parentheses represent mediator added regression results

Note 2. [†] $p < .07$; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .001$

Figure 2. Marital Satisfaction as a Mediator between Coping Styles and Forgiveness Relationships

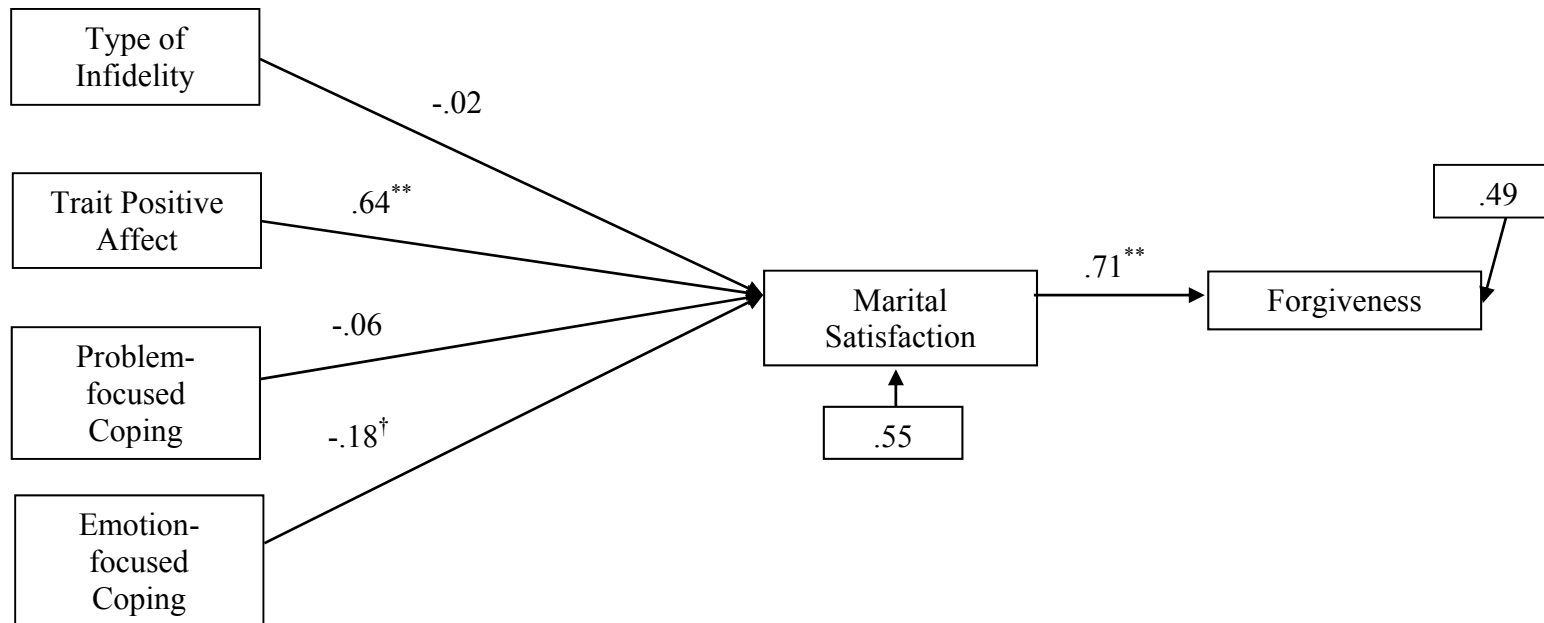
4.2.2. Path Analysis Approach

4.2.2.1. Overall Model Testing

As seen in Figure 3, it is expected that type of infidelity, trait positive affect, problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping would predict marital satisfaction, and in turn, marital satisfaction would influence forgiveness. In order to test all of these proposed relationships, path analysis was conducted by using LISREL 8.51 (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1993). Analysis conducted by using Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation technique and covariance matrix as input. The ML technique was selected since it is widely used technique which is one of the most available techniques for normally distributed data sets (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988).

Criteria used in the path analysis were as follows; df / χ^2 ratio up to 5 (Bollen, 1989), RMSEA up to .05 within the confidence interval .00 and .10, and CFI, GFI, and AGFI above .90 corresponds to good fit (Hu and Bentler, 1999).

Results revealed that proposed model provided good fit to the data ($\chi^2 (4, N = 122) = 1.59, p = .811, GFI = .99, AGFI = .98, NNFI = 1.00, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00$). Examination of standardized coefficients indicated that trait positive affect significantly predicted marital satisfaction ($\beta = .64, t = 9.20$) and emotion-focused coping marginally significantly predicted marital satisfaction ($\beta = -.18, t = -1.86$). Type of infidelity and problem-focused coping had no significant effect on marital satisfaction ($\beta = -.02; \beta = -.06$, respectively). Relationship between mediator and dependent variable yielded significant result, that is higher levels of marital satisfaction predicted forgiveness of infidelity ($\beta = .71, t = 11.03$). Based on these standardized regression coefficients there are two possible mediational relationships occurred; emotion-focused coping on forgiveness via marital satisfaction and trait positive affect on forgiveness via marital satisfaction. Tests of indirect effect yielded that mediational relationship between trait positive affect and forgiveness via marital satisfaction is significant with the strong effect size of .46 ($t = 7.06$), implying that trait positive affect led to increase on marital satisfaction which in turn led to increase on forgiveness. Moreover, mediative effect of marital satisfaction between emotion-focused coping and forgiveness revealed marginally significant result with a weak effect size of .13 ($t = 1.83$). Accordingly, emotion-focused coping influences forgiveness of infidelity via decreasing the marital satisfaction. Results were represented at Figure 3. Overall, all of the independent variables and mediator variable directly explained 51% of the variance on forgiveness. Furthermore, independent variables explained 45% percent of the variance on the marital satisfaction.



Note: † $p < .07$; ** $p < .001$

Figure 3. Results of Path Analysis

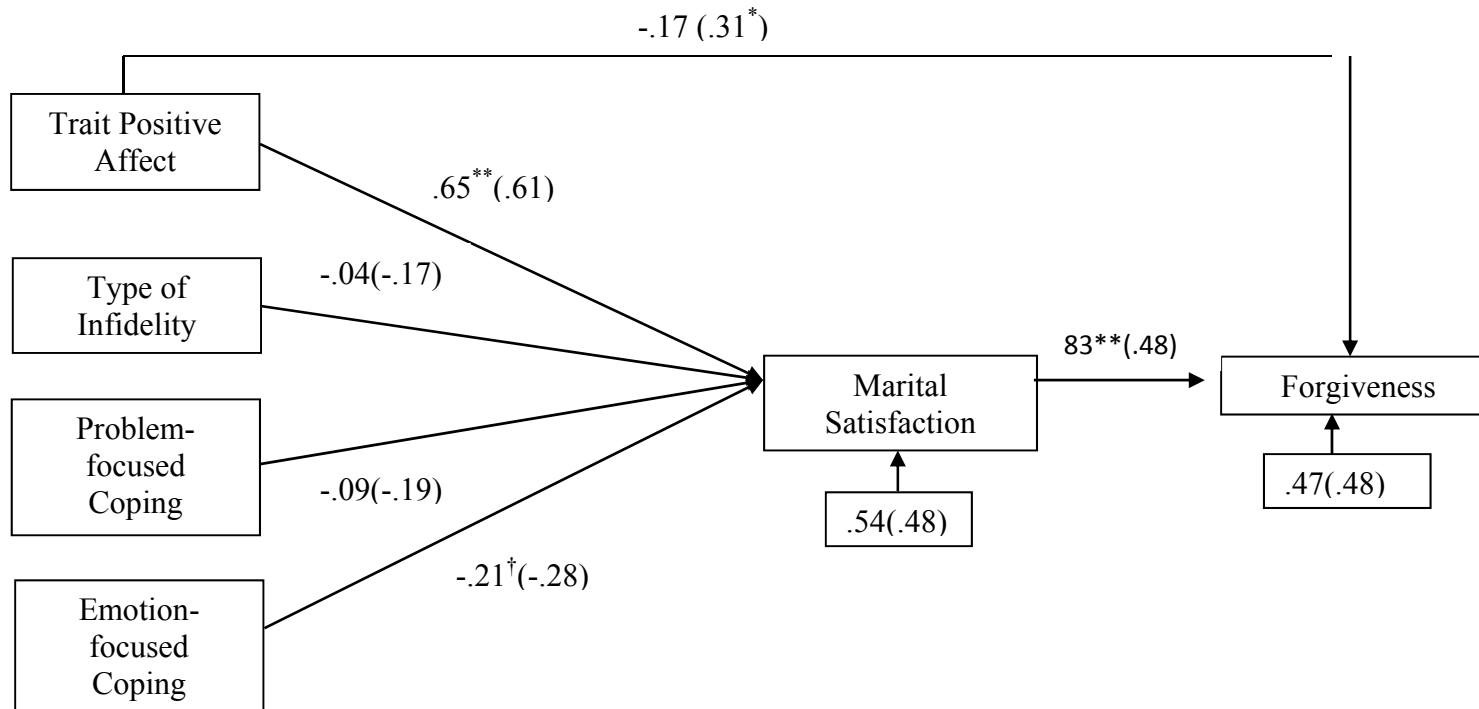
4.2.2.2. Testing of Gender Differences in Overall Model

In order to test gender differences on the proposed relationships multiple group comparison (measurement invariance) approach was used (Byrne, 2006). According to this analysis approach, a proposed model is decided as a base model firstly. Afterwards, proposed model is tested for both groups and required modifications are conducted if necessary. After reaching identical and fitting model for both groups, analyses proceeds to group comparison stage. First comparison step depends on the assumption that both groups have similar parameters on the proposed model (Klein, 2004). If the first comparison model fits well with the data, no more comparisons are conducted and the analyses process is abolished. Since, fitting model reveals that groups are statistically same on the tested model and no more comparisons are needed. If the model reveals poor fit to the data, comparison process continues until to clarify invariant (mismatching) parameters as regression coefficients and errors. Moreover, to strengthen the comparison process, an additional model is tested by letting regression coefficients to be estimated freely. If the second model provides better fit in terms of χ^2 change, this implies that regression coefficients of the model are different. If second models provides significantly better against full constraint model, further investigations are conducted by freeing error variances.

For the current study proposed model depending on the hypotheses was decided as a base model. Proposed model tested for men and women separately. Results yielded that proposed model yielded poor fit to the data for both men and women (Table 4).

In the second step, following the post-hoc modifications, one modification was conducted. Direct link from trait positive affect to forgiveness was added which has a significant coefficient for men sample ($\beta = .31, t = 2.30$). The newly defined path wasn't significant for women sample ($\beta = -.17, t = -1.57$), however in order to keep equality of the models, path was added to women groups' model too. After adding the

modifications both models provided good fit to the data (Table 4).
Regression coefficients can be seen at Figure 4



Note 1. Between parentheses parameters represents men.

Note 2. $\dagger p < .07$; $* p < .05$; $** p < .001$

Figure 4. Results of Multigroup Comparison

In the third step, a ‘full constraint model’ was tested by assuming all parameters are equal for men and women. Overall model provided good fit to the data implying that for men and women proposed relationships are similar, namely there are no significant differences ($\chi^2 (14, N = 122) = 16.32, p = .294, NNFI = .97, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .05$).

In the fourth step, ‘regression coefficients invariant’ model was tested by letting regression coefficients freely estimated. Accordingly regressions coefficients were estimated differently for both groups by assuming men and women have different coefficients. Results provided good fit to the data ($\chi^2 (8, N = 122) = 7.40, p = .494, NNFI = 1.00, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00$). Evaluation of chi square difference yielded insignificant findings ($\Delta\chi^2 (6) = 8.92, p > .05$). Accordingly, men and women groups have similar parameters for the proposed model.

Table 4. Summary of Models for Gender Comparison

Model	χ^2	df	RMSEA	$\chi^2\Delta(df)$
Women Model	3.81	3	.063	
Men Model	3.59	3	.068	
Full Constraint Model	16.32	14	.050	
Regression Coefficients Invariant	7.40	8	.000	8.92 (6), $p > .05$

4.3. Summary of the Results

Firstly, mediator role of marital satisfaction between type of infidelity and forgiveness was rejected since the first criterion of the mediation testing that type of infidelity predicted forgiveness was not met. Secondly, mediator role of marital satisfaction between trait positive affect and forgiveness was accepted because all criteria of the mediation testing that 1) trait positive affect predicted forgiveness, 2) trait positive affect predicted marital satisfaction, 3) marital satisfaction predicted forgiveness, 4) marital satisfaction mediated the relationship between trait positive affect

and forgiveness were met. Thirdly, mediator role of marital satisfaction between problem- focused coping and forgiveness was rejected since the first criterion of the mediation testing that problem-focused coping predicted forgiveness was not met. Mediator role of marital satisfaction between emotion-focused coping and forgiveness was rejected in step by step approach while accepted in path analysis. Since, path analysis provided more sound and deeper evaluation (Klein, 2004), results of the path analysis was accepted. According to path analysis, mediator role of marital satisfaction between emotion-focused coping and forgiveness revealed marginally significant result with a weak effect size. Accordingly, marital satisfaction mediated the relationship between emotion-focused coping and forgiveness. Finally, gender differences in proposed relationships among study variables were rejected because men and women have similar parameters for the proposed model.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

In this section, findings obtained through statistical analyses were evaluated in the light of the previous findings reported in the literature. In addition, implications of these findings for the clinicians working in the field were discussed and limitations of the study were mentioned with an emphasis on recommendations for future research.

5.1. Evaluation of the Findings

5.1.1. Evaluation of the Gender Differences in Study Variables

In the present study, a series of ANOVAs were conducted to investigate gender differences in study variables. The study found significant gender differences in type of infidelity, problem-focused coping, marital satisfaction and forgiveness. On the other hand, in trait positive affect and emotion focused-coping, gender differences were not revealed.

Present study showed that men were more likely to forgive their spouse than women. This finding was consistent with the finding of the study (Miller & Worthington, 2010) reporting that men showed more marital forgiveness in their marriage toward their spouse after a still-troublesome offense than did women. Women perceived their male partners as being more forgiving of them than their male partners' perceived their female partners' forgiveness. However, the findings of the present study was inconsistent some other studies (Miller et al., 2008; Fehr et al., 2011) that reported women are more forgiving than men (Miller et al., 2008) and there was no differences between men and women with respect to

forgiveness (Fehr et al., 2011). Thus, this finding of the current study is surprising since in Turkish culture infidelity is not gained admission for men. In other words, partner's infidelity cannot be accepted for men relative to women in Turkish culture.

In present study, women reported their husband engaged to more sexual infidelity, whereas men reported their wives engaged to more emotional infidelity. This finding was consistent with the finding of a meta-analysis (Dreznick, 2002) reporting that men were more likely than women to engage in sexual infidelity while women were more likely than men to engage in emotional infidelity. In a similar vein, Glass and Wright (1985) showed that men described their infidelity as more sexual than emotional whereas women described that in opposite way. Furthermore, in the study (Özgün, 2009) with Turkish sample, it was reported that 61.21% of extramarital infidelities of men more sexual than emotional. Therefore, the finding of the present study was parallel to other studies in the literature of infidelity.

Present study found that men and women were similar level of trait positive affect. In positive affect literature, there are some studies (e.g. Karlson & Archer 2007; Robles et al., 2009) supporting the finding of the present study whereas there exists another studies (Mroczek & Kolarz, 1998; Aparicio et al., 2009) stating gender differences in trait positive affect. In previous studies, university students, married individuals, etc. were sampled but in present study, all participants are victims of infidelity. Thus, present study has a sample with specific characteristics that may influence affect of the person. At this point, sample characteristics may be considered as a possible explanation to inconsistencies with previous research.

Regarding gender differences in coping, the current study found men were more likely to use problem- focused coping than women whereas there was no gender differences in emotion-focused coping. This finding was partially supportive of the *socialization hypothesis* which explained that

males and females are socialized to react to stress in different ways since role stereotypes and gender expectations for males and females are different. Males are socialized to be more active, independent and goal-oriented whereas females are socialized to be more passive, dependent and emotion-oriented. Thus, males employed more problem-focused coping whereas females used more emotion-focused coping. In addition, this finding of the present study sustained the results regarding problem-focused coping, contradicted the results considering emotion-focused coping obtained by the study (Matud, 2004) showing that females were less likely to use problem-focused coping than males and females were more likely to use emotion-focused coping than men. Also, this finding of the present study was inconsistent with another study (Li et al., 2006) reporting that women were more likely to use emotion-focused coping than men.

The present study revealed that men have higher marital satisfaction than women. This finding is in line with previous research indicating that males had higher levels of marital satisfaction than their female counterparts (Basat, 2004; Bir Aktürk 2006; Orathinkal & Vansteenwegen, 2007; Edwards, 2009; Chi et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2012). As White (1979) claimed that marriage may be more beneficial for men than for women since women experience unequal returns in a sexist society (cited in Bir Aktürk, 2006). Indeed, Rhyne (1981) stated that women are more likely to involve and to concern with the housework and rearing of children when compared to men (cited in Bir Aktürk, 2006). Thus, the fact that women were exposed to these issues may constraint women's assessments of their marriages. Nevertheless, Vento and Cobb (2011) revealed gender differences in marital satisfaction in opposite way. That is, husband had lower marital satisfaction than their wives. On the other hand, many studies (Soyer, 2006; Aydınli & Tutarel-Kışlak, 2009; Koçak, 2009; Leggett et al., 2012) demonstrated that there were no differences in marital satisfaction between men and women. Although there are some research reporting different results from the current

study, findings of the present study supported the general accepted notion that men had higher marital satisfaction than women.

5.1.2. Evaluation of the Research Questions

The first research question that proposed in the present study was “Does marital satisfaction mediate the relationship between type of infidelity and forgiveness”. Results revealed that type of infidelity, namely, sexual infidelity and emotional infidelity, had no direct effect on forgiveness. Since there was no relationship between type of infidelity and forgiveness, it was found that there was no mediator role of marital satisfaction on the relationship between type of infidelity and forgiveness. However, the results of the present study showed that marital satisfaction predicted forgiveness. In other words, high marital satisfaction increased levels of forgiveness in people whose spouse engaged to infidelity.

The finding of the present study that type of infidelity did not predict forgiveness was parallel to the finding of the study by Kimeldorf (2008). It was found that similar levels of distress were experienced for both emotional and sexual infidelity for actual victims of infidelity. In the literature, the effect of type of infidelity on forgiveness mostly studied regarding gender differences rather than direct relationship between type of infidelity and forgiveness. Gender role in that relationship will be discussed in subsequent part of the discussion. In addition, the finding of the study that high marital satisfaction led high forgiveness was consistent with previous studies (Kelley & Thibaut, 1978; McCullough et al., 1998; Finkel et al., 2002; Paleari et al., 2005; Fehr et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2011) reporting people tend to forgive their partners when they had satisfying and committed relationships. Thus, the relationship between marital satisfaction and forgiveness was demonstrated in the present study is not surprising.

The second research question that proposed in the present study was “Does marital satisfaction mediate the relationship between trait positive affect and forgiveness?” Results indicated that trait positive affect predicted

forgiveness and marital satisfaction. Trait positive affect led to increase on marital satisfaction which in turn led to increase on forgiveness. That is, marital satisfaction mediated the relationship between trait positive affect and forgiveness.

The finding was consistent with the study (Kluwer & Karremans, 2009) reporting low unforgiving motivations which are indicative of forgiveness are associated with positive affect in people whose partner committed infidelity. There has not been any other research investigating positive affect and forgiveness can be discussed with the finding of the present study. However, in previous studies, it was found that forgiveness was associated with low neuroticism (Wang, 2008; Fehr et al., 2011), high agreeableness and high consciousness (Ashton et al., 1998) which are highly correlated variables with positive affect (Steel, Schmidt, & Schultz, 2008; Gruenewald et al., 2008). Thus, the relationship positive affect and forgiveness was found in the present study supported the previous researches.

The third research question that proposed in the present study was “Does marital satisfaction mediate the relationship between coping and forgiveness?” Two types of coping strategies, namely problem focused coping and emotion focused coping, were examined in the present study. Results showed that problem-focused coping did not predict forgiveness, so no mediator role of marital satisfaction was found in the relationship between problem-focused coping and forgiveness. However, it was found that emotion-focused coping predicted forgiveness and marital satisfaction mediated this relationship. That is, emotion-focused coping influences forgiveness via decreasing the marital satisfaction.

There are two previous studies (Maltby et al., 2007; Strelan & Wojtysiak, 2009) investigating the relationship between coping and forgiveness can be discussed with the results of the present study. The finding of the present study that emotion-focused coping negatively associated with forgiveness was opposite with with the first study (Maltby et

al., 2007) reporting that forgiveness was positively associated with emotion-focused coping. However, in this study, the relationship between emotion-focused coping and forgiveness was reported significant only women whereas in the present study this relationship was found for whole sample. Gender differences in that relationship was discussed later parts of the discussion. In addition, the finding of the present study that problem focused coping did not predict forgiveness was contrasting with the second study (Strelan & Wojtysiak, 2009) indicating that people who use approach coping were more likely have high levels of forgiveness. In the studies being talked about, participants experienced general interpersonal hurts while in the present study participants experienced infidelity. At this point, sample characteristics may be considered as a factor affecting some differences between the previous findings and the present findings.

The final research question that proposed in the present study was “Are there gender differences in proposed relationships among study variables?” Results showed that evaluation of chi square difference yielded insignificant findings. That is, men and women were not differentiated in terms of proposed relationships among the study variables.

The finding of the present study that men and women had similar levels of forgiveness in both sexual infidelity and emotional infidelity was contradictory the literature. 65.1 % of men and 52 % of women reported sexual infidelity as more difficult to forgive than emotional infidelity. In addition, 57.9 % of men and 41.3 % women reported sexual aspects of infidelity as more difficult to forgive than emotional infidelity. (Shackelford et al., 2002). Therefore, the notion in the infidelity literature that men were less likely to forgive sexual infidelity while women were less likely to forgive emotional infidelity was contradictory with the findings of the present study. This contradiction can be explained sample characteristics of the present study. In the current study, participant continued their marriage after disclosure of infidelity of their spouse. However, extramarital infidelity of female ends up with divorce more frequently than extramarital infidelity

of male (Sweeney & Hortwitz, 2001; Shackelford et al., 2002). According to the results of the national survey (TURKSAT, Family Structure Research, 2006), infidelity of husbands was seen as a divorce reason by 58% of men and 61% of women whereas infidelity of wives was reported as the main reason for divorce by 92% of men and 87% of women. To sum up, women were more likely to tolerate infidelity of their spouse and to continue their marriages whereas men tend to divorce in the case of infidelity of their spouses. It can be said that people who chose the divorce were not participated in the present may be considered as possible explanation for the contradiction between the previous findings and present findings. The finding in the present study that the relationship between marital satisfaction and forgiveness was similar for men and women was congruent with the previous study (Fincham & Beach, 2007) reporting that both men and women who high marital quality showed high levels of forgiveness. Thus, it can be said that marital satisfaction plays an important role in increasing forgiveness for both men and women. In addition, the finding in the present study that the relationship between emotion-focused coping and forgiveness was similar for men and women was not consistent with the study (Maltby et al., 2007) reporting that women who showed higher level of forgiveness were more likely to use emotion-focused coping while men who showed higher level of forgiveness were more likely to use emotion-focused coping. Generally, when the proposed relationships are evaluated, similarity of men and women on the relationships among study variables can be explained by mutual characteristics of participants. Both men and women who participated in the present study chose to continue their marriages. This common decision may be due to their similar characteristics or similar attitude toward marriage. This similarity may affect the finding of the current study that men and women were not differentiated in terms of proposed relationships among the study variables.

5.2. Limitations of the Study and Recommendations for Future Research

There are some limitations of the present study that require elaboration. First limitation concerns sampling of the present study. The sample was not randomly selected. The sample was generated through the snowball sampling technique, which may cause the participants present more socially desirable responses, although they were assured about confidentiality.

Second limitation is caused by characteristics of sample. In the present study, obtaining a heterogeneous sample of married individuals was carefully attempted, still, most of the participants had higher levels of education (i.e., high school or university graduates), and lived mostly in cities and metropol cities in Turkey. Therefore, whether these findings apply to populations with different characteristics is not clear and it is probable that these findings are only generalizable to populations having similar characteristics. In addition, imbalanced gender ratio (60.7 % female, 39.3 % male) add to the difficulty of interpreting the generalizability of the results. Future studies would include individuals with lower levels of education, individuals living in more rural areas, and more men in order to increase the generalizability of the findings to be obtained.

Third limitation of the present study is that it is cross-sectional rather than longitudinal. The study only measured present levels of forgiveness. Thus it is not possible to know whether individuals who are currently high or low in forgiveness were always so. A longitudinal analysis would provide information about the effects of the study variables on forgiveness over time. In addition, the cross-sectional design of current study prevents us from drawing conclusions about causal links or feedback loops among study variables. For instance, marital satisfaction can positively affect forgiveness and, vice versa, forgiveness might positively affect marital satisfaction. Accordingly, it is possible that a bidirectional causal link exists among study variables and such possible feedback loops between type of infidelity,

trait positive affect, coping, marital satisfaction, forgiveness would be regarded an important issue for future research.

Final limitation is that present study investigated level of forgiveness only in married individuals. To control outside effects, forgiveness in examined in marital context. However, infidelity can also occur in the contexts of other than marriage like cohabitating and dating relationships. Thus, the present study does not say anything about forgiveness in cohabitating and dating relationships. The findings are only generalizable to married individuals. Furthermore, after disclosure of infidelity, some individuals choose the divorce and some individuals continue their marriage. In the present study, there is no answer to the question about the individuals who got divorced. Therefore, future research would focus other relationship rather than married relationship and the individuals who got divorced.

5.3. Clinical Implications of the Present Study

Results of the present study have some implications for professionals in developing effective prevention and intervention strategies. In order to develop effective treatment strategies, professionals should increase knowledge and awareness about the information available in the literature. Since there is lack of information on forgiveness in the case of infidelity, the most important implication of the present study is that professionals may benefit from the study by knowledgeable about forgiveness of infidelity.

In addition to aforementioned theoretical contributions to the literature, there are some implications of the present study for professional working with individuals and couples. In the present study, relative to men, women reported lower levels of marital satisfaction. This means that, men and women may have tendency to evaluate their relationship differently. In addition events may have different effects on men and women. Clinicians should take this difference into consideration during the therapy. Moreover,

clinicians must assist couple to notice their differences in evaluation of events and effects of events so that the couples understand each other better.

Infidelity has destructive effects on both individuals and couples (Kimeldorf, 2008). Nevertheless, treatment options for couples and individuals who want to deal with infidelity are so limited (Blow & Hartnett, 2005). Thus, another implication of the current study would be expanding the treatment options used by clinicians for the victims of infidelity whereby showing the recovery impact of coping in the case of infidelity. More specifically, present study could provide substantial information about which types of coping strategies, emotional-focused or problem-focused, would be more helpful to deal with the effects of infidelity. According to the results derived from the study, clinicians could support their treatment plan by creating intervention programs to improve the appropriate coping strategies.

Final implication of the present study is to increase the awareness related to the importance of including the variables related to forgiveness in individual or marital therapies. There has been a shift in the literature towards the integration of forgiveness in therapies (Wade & Worthington, 2005). The present study aims to contribute to this recent shift through its findings which would demonstrate the impact of trait positive affect, coping and marital satisfaction on forgiveness. Therefore, recognizing the importance of those variables on forgiveness, clinicians may include improving marital satisfaction, trait positive affect, and coping strategies as an ultimate goal in therapy.

5.4. Conclusion

The purpose of the present study was to examine whether types of infidelity (sexual infidelity and emotional infidelity), trait positive affect, coping (problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping) predicted forgiveness via marital satisfaction. In addition, the current study also aimed to explore gender differences in proposed relationships among study

variables. The results of the present study indicated that the relationships between trait positive affect and forgiveness, and emotion-focused coping and forgiveness was mediated by marital satisfaction whereas there was no mediator role of marital satisfaction in the relationships between type of infidelity and forgiveness, and problem-focused coping and forgiveness . Men and women were not differentiated in terms of proposed relationships among the study variables. While some of the results were congruent with the literature, some of them showed inconsistencies with literature. According to the results of the present study, intervention programs addressing this model may help victims of infidelity in order to deal with effects of infidelity and to develop forgiveness.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A Informed Consent

Değerli Katılımcı,

Bu çalışma, Prof. Dr. Hürol Fıfılođlu danıřmanlıđında Orta Dođu Teknik Üniversitesi, Psikoloji Bölümü, Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans programı öđrencisi Emine Duman tarafından yürütölen bir tez çalışmasıdır. Bu çalışmanın amacı, evli bireylerde; cinsiyet, olumlu duygu durumu, başa çıkma, evlilik doyumu, duygusal ve cinsel aldatmanın affedilmesi deđiřkenlerinin arasındaki iliřkiyi arařtırmaktır. Arařtırmaya katılımınız tamamen gönüllölük esasına dayanmaktadır. Ölçeklerin tamamlanması yaklaşık 20 dakikanızı alacaktır. Çalışmada sizden kimlik belirleyici hiçbir bilgi istenmemektedir. Cevaplarınız tamamıyla gizli tutulacak ve sadece çalışma kapsamında deđerlendirilecektir; elde edilecek bilgiler sadece bilimsel yayımlarda kullanılacaktır.

Anketler genel olarak kiřisel rahatsızlık teřkil edecek soruları içermemektedir. Ancak arařtırma sırasında herhangi bir nedenden dolayı rahatsızlık hissederseniz, katılımınızı sonlandırabilirsiniz.

Arařtırma ile ilgili daha fazla bilgi almak isterseniz, herhangi bir sorunuz ya da sorunuz olursa Emine Duman (Tel: 0505 719 68 09 E-mail: emineduman86@hotmail.com) ile iletiřim kurabilirsiniz.

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllölük olarak katılıyorum, gönüllölük katılım formunu okudum ve anladım ve istediđim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceđimi biliyorum. Verdiđim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum. (Formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra uygulayıcıya geri veriniz).

Ad Soyad

Tarih

İmza

APPENDIX B
Demographic Information Form

Cinsiyetiniz: ___ Kadın ___ Erkek

Yaşınız: ___

Eğitim seviyeniz: ___ İlkokul
___ Ortaokul
___ Lise
___ Yüksekokul / Üniversite
___ Lisans üstü

Yaşamınızın çoğunu geçirdiğiniz yer: ___ Köy
___ İlçe
___ Şehir
___ Metropol (Büyükşehir)

Ne kadar süredir evlisiniz? ___ (yıl)

Çocuğunuz var mı? ___ Evet ___ Hayır

Cevabınız evetse, lütfen kaç çocuğunuz olduğunu belirtiniz: _____

Evliliğiniz süresince cinsel ya da duygusal olarak aldatıldınız mı?(*Cinsel aldatma*: Duygusal bir bağ olmaksızın fiziksel, cinsel içerikli aldatma. *Duygusal aldatma*: Cinsel bir içeriği olmadan duygusal bağ kurarak aldatma) ___ Evet ___ Hayır

Eğer yukarıdaki soruyu EVET olarak işaretlediyseniz aşağıdaki soruyu cevaplayıp, lütfen anketi doldurmaya devam ediniz. Eğer yukarıdaki

soruyu HAYIR olarak işaretlediyseniz anketi doldurmayı bırakınız ve anketi zarfın içine koyup arařtırmacıya veriniz.

Aldatılmanızı cinsellik ve duygusallık açısından nasıl deęerlendirirsiniz?

Tamamıyla cinsel

Tamamıyla duygusal

1

2

3

4

5

APPENDIX C
Positive Affect and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS)

Sample Items:

1. Çok az veya hiç
2. Biraz
3. Ortalama
4. Oldukça
5. Çok fazla

1. İlgili _____ 1 2 3 4 5

2. Sıkıntılı _____ 1 2 3 4 5

3. Heyecanlı _____ 1 2 3 4 5

4. Mutsuz _____ 1 2 3 4 5

Contact Adress: Prof. Dr. Tülin Gençöz, ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü, Ankara

APPENDIX D
Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS)

Sample items:

- Eşinizi öper misiniz?

Her gün	Hemen hemen her gün	Ara sıra	Nadiren	Hiçbir zaman

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

Hepsine	Çoğuna	Bazılarına	Çok azına	Hiçbirine

Contact Adress: Prof. Dr. Hürol Fıfşılıođlu, ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü, Ankara

APPENDIX E

Transgression-Related Interpersonal Motivations Inventory (TRIM)

Sample Items:

Kesinlikle katılmıyorum(1)

Katılmıyorum (2)

Kararsızım (3)

Katılıyorum (4)

Kesinlikle katılıyorum (5)

- Ona bunu ödeteceğim.

1 2 3 4 5

- Onunla aramızda mümkün olduğu kadar mesafe bırakıyorum.

1 2 3 4 5

Contact Adress: Yrd. Doç. Ebru Taysi, Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi,
Isparta

APPENDIX F
Turkish Ways of Coping Inventory (TWCI)

Sample Items:

1. Hiç uygun değil
2. Pek uygun değil
3. Uygun
4. Oldukça uygun
5. Çok uygun

- Gururumu koruyup güçlü görünmeye çalışırım
1.....2.....3.....4.....5
- Bu işin kefaretni (bedelini) ödemeye çalışırım
1.....2.....3.....4.....5
- Problemi adım adım çözmeye çalışırım
1.....2.....3.....4.....5
- Elimden hiç birşeyin gelmeyeceğine inanırım
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

Contact Adress: Doç. Dr. Özlem Bozo İrkin, ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü,
Ankara

APPENDIX G
TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

ENSTİTÜ

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enformatik Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>

YAZARIN

Soyadı : Duman Temel
Adı : Emine
Bölümü : Psikoloji

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce): Mediating role of marital satisfaction in the types of infidelity - forgiveness, trait positive affect - forgiveness and coping - forgiveness relationships in married men and women.

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans Doktora

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.
2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.
3. Tezimden bir bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınamaz.

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ: