

COPARENTING PROCESSES IN THE US AND TURKEY:
TRIADIC INTERACTIONS AMONG MOTHERS, FATHERS, AND
GRANDMOTHERS WITH 3-MONTH-OLD INFANTS

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ABSTRACT

COPARENTING PROCESSES IN THE US AND TURKEY: TRIADIC INTERACTIONS AMONG MOTHERS, FATHERS, AND GRANDMOTHERS WITH 3-MONTH-OLD INFANTS

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In the current dissertation, coparenting dynamics and its relationships with the critical family variables were examined among families having a 3-month-old baby in Turkish and the US samples. Forty-five Turkish and 54 American families participated in the study. Coparenting behaviors were observed during triadic interactions (mother-father-baby) of family members for approximately 10-minutes, and parents reported their perceived coparenting alliance. Several family variables, such as marital-adjustment, romantic-attachment of parents, parenting-stress, and postpartum-depression were examined in relation to coparenting. Considering the important role of extended family members in raising children in Turkish culture, mothers' coparenting behaviors with grandmothers were also investigated in the Turkish context only.

Results indicated that both observed and perceived coparenting dynamics in Turkey can be meaningfully assessed using the conceptual paradigm and associated measurement tools developed in the US. Turkish families with mothers having college degree education and American families were more similar than different in the majority of the observed coparenting variables. However, mothers with low level of education in Turkey differed from the US-

mothers and highly educated Turkish-mothers. Families with mothers having higher education tended to be more cooperative and more actively engaged with baby during triadic interactions. Mothers' coparenting behaviors were similar along the most dimensions in the presence of fathers or grandmothers. However, grandmothers were observed as more flirting and distracting. Both observed and perceived coparenting behaviors were significantly associated with marital-adjustment and romantic-attachment, parenting stress and depression in the anticipated directions. The implications of the study for further research and practice were discussed.

Keywords: Coparenting, Triadic Interactions, 3-month-old infants, Grandmothers, Parental Adjustment

ÖZ

TÜRKİYE VE ABD'DE ORTAK EBEVEYNLİK SÜREÇLERİ: ANNELERİN, BABALARIN VE BÜYÜKANNELERİN 3 AYLIK BEBEKLERLE OLAN ÜÇLÜ ETKİLEŞİMLERİ

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Bu çalışmada ortak ebeveynlik dinamikleri ve bu dinamiklerin önemli aile değişkenleri ile olan ilişkisi Türkiye'den ve Amerika Birleşik Devletleri'nden (ABD) katılan 3-aylık-bebek sahibi aileler ile araştırılmıştır. Türkiye'den 45, ABD'den 54 aile çalışmaya katılmıştır. Ortak ebeveynlik davranışları 10'ar dakikalık yarı-düzenlenmiş oyunlar ile gözlenmiştir. Ebeveynlerin birbirleriyle olan "işbirliği-algısı" ise özbildirim yöntemi ile ölçülmüştür. Hem gözlemlenen hem de bildirilen ortak ebeveynlik değişkeninin evlilik-doyumu, romantik-bağlanma, ebeveynlikte stres ve doğum sonrası depresyon gibi değişkenlerle olan ilişkileri incelenmiştir. Türkiye kültüründe geniş aile bireylerinin aile dinamiklerinde oynadıkları önemli rol dikkate alınarak büyükannelerin ortak ebeveynlik davranışları Türkiye örneğinde incelenmiştir.

Bulgular, ABD'de geliştirilmiş olan, hem gözlemlenen hem de algılanan ortak ebeveynliği ölçen araçların Türkiye'de de uygulanabilirliğini göstermiştir.

Türkiye ve ABD örneklemelerinden elde edilen bulguların karşılaştırılabilir düzeyde olduğu ve her iki örnekte de ortak ebeveynlik değişkenlerinin diğer aile değişkenleri ile beklendiği yönde ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Türkiye'deki yüksek eğitimli annelerin aileleriyle ABD aileleri arasında farklılıklardan çok benzerlikler gözlemlenmiştir. Fakat, Türkiye'deki görece düşük eğitimli annelerin aileleri ile yüksek eğitimli aileler ve ABD aileleri arasında ortak ebeveynlik kapsamında önemli farklılıklar bulunmuştur. Yüksek eğitimli annelerin olduğu ailelerde üçlü etkileşimlerde eşler arasında daha fazla işbirliği ve bebekle daha fazla aktif-meşguliyet gözlenmiştir. Türkiye'de annelerin ortak ebeveynlik davranışları baba ile birlikte ve büyükanne ile birlikte farklılık göstermemiştir. Ancak, büyükannelerin davranışları annelerden ve babalardan biraz farklılaşmıştır. Örneğin, büyükannelerin bebekle daha fazla flörtleşme ve dikkat dağıtma davranışları sergiledikleri bulunmuştur. Gözlemlenen ve algılanan ortak ebeveynliğin evlilik-doyumu, romantik bağlanma, ebeveynlik-stresi, doğum sonrası depresyon ile anlamlı ilişki içinde olduğu bulunmuştur. Çalışmanın mevcut yazına katkısı tartışılmış ve gelecek çalışmalar için önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Anahtar kelimeler: Ortak ebeveynlik, Üçlü Etkileşimler, 3 aylık bebekler, Büyükanneler, Ebeveynlik Uyumu

To the METU and Florida with great memories

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. General Introduction

Infants' early environment and relationship with their parents lays the groundwork for their later social, cognitive, and emotional development in the future (Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000). The majority of the research on family influences on child development has focused on parent-child dyadic relationships, especially mother-child dyads in the families to understand children's subsequent development. This perspective is certainly important given the mass of evidence indicating the importance of quality of early mother-child interactions for the children's lifelong development (see, Thompson, 2008). However, in the majority of the world, children are socialized in the families with more than one significant figure who have important and meaningful contributions to the child (McHale, 2007). Recognizing this, during the 1970s and 80s, developmental psychologists began to extend their studies of children's development by including father-child dyads and showed both complementary and unique roles of fathers (e.g., Lamb, 1976). Researchers also began documenting both direct (Cummings & Davies, 1996) and indirect (mediated by dyadic parenting, e.g., Erel & Burman, 1995) influences of marital conflict on children's development.

Inspired by the seminal intellectual and clinical contributions of Salvador Minuchin (1974), recognized as the founder of "Structural Family Theory", researchers eventually began to consider the family more systemically, as a whole rather than as a collection of individuals and dyadic relationships to be understood separately. Minuchin (1974) proposed that the family could be conceptualized and studied as a complex system composed of different subsystems, including, marital, coparenting, parent-child, and sibling subsystems. These subsystems are interdependent with one another, and separated by boundaries, with interactions across boundaries governed by implicit rules and patterns. Indeed, he suggested that

the family system as a whole is different from the sum of its subsystems, in other words the nature of the interactions in subsystems is different from the nature of the interactions that characterize functioning at the level of the whole family system.

Patricia Minuchin (1985) had a key influence in bringing a family system perspective to developmental psychology. She argued that, we need to examine not only subsystems (e.g., parent – child, mother – father) but also family system as a whole (mother – father – child) to better understand children’s reality. Given that children spend as much time in mother-father-child triadic interactions as they spend in separate dyadic interaction with father and mother, dyadic interactions do not represent the child’s significant reality. These suggestions inspired many researchers (e.g., Belsky, Crnic, & Gable, 1995; McHale, 1995) to extend its focus from dyadic relationships to triadic and whole family relationships.

According to family systems perspective, how parents work together, which is at the core of successful coparenting, determines the success of functioning by the “executive subsystem”, which is believed to influence functioning of other subsystems of the family system. Although the term “coparenting” was never used by S. Minuchin, it was nonetheless implicit in his writings. In the contemporary coparenting literature the term refers to how parents share leadership and support each other in their mutual roles as architects and heads of family (McHale, 1995). Parents’ ability to communicate and work well with each other during the triadic interactions with their child is one of the dimensions of effective coparenting. In the literature, coparenting have been found be associated in meaningful ways with a number of other indicators of family adjustment (McHale & Lindahl, 2011).

Most studies to date examining coparenting have enrolled Western (North American or European) families. Other family systems around the world have received far less scrutiny. Recently, new literature has been developing on South and Southeast Asian families (McHale, Dinh, & Rao, 2014), and Middle Eastern families (Feldman & Masalha, 2010). In the current study, coparenting and its relationships with other family variables were examined in both Turkish and American cultures. Coparenting behaviors were observed with triadic interactions of family members for approximately 10 minutes plays, and perceived coparenting alliance was reported by parents in both cultures. Both observed and perceived coparenting were examined

considering their relationships with the other family variables, such as marital adjustment, romantic attachment between parents, parenting stress, and postpartum depression. Given the important roles of extended family members in Turkish culture (Baydar, Akçınar, & İmer, 2012), mothers' coparenting behaviors with grandmothers were also investigated in the Turkish context only. Mothers-grandmother-baby triadic interactions were observed and both mothers and grandmothers were asked to report on the quality of their shared cocaregiving alliance. Before outlining the study and its results, brief explanations of the constructs of interest in this study are given below.

1.2. Coparenting

Coparenting refers to how parents share leadership and support each other in their mutual roles as architects and heads of family (McHale, 1995). Effective coparents display solidarity when addressing child-related issues, support each other, provide consistent and predictable set of rules and standards, and provide a safe and secure home base for their children (McHale, Lauretti, Talbot, & Pouquette, 2002). The coparenting relationship includes mutual support between parents in child rearing, nonverbal and verbal communication between parents when they are engaged with their children in triadic interactions, parenting behaviors in the presence (overt) and the absence (covert) of other parent, and other coparenting patterns, such as differential involvement with the child (Cowan & McHale, 1996).

Coparenting has been conceptualized as a multidimensional construct. There have been different views on conceptualizations of coparenting among researchers. For example, Margolin, Gordis, and John (2001) suggested that coparenting consists of three dimensions based on their factor analytic evidence. These dimensions are *cooperation* between coparents, *conflict* between coparents, and *triangulation*, which is coalition formation between child and one parent, and involvement of the child in parental conflicts. Feinberg (2003) proposed four dimensions of coparenting: (1) childrearing agreement/disagreement, (2) division of labor regarding childrearing (3) support / undermining (4) joint management of family interactions. McHale (2007) asserts that division of labor for childrearing is an important aspect of family life, but also thinks division of labor provides very limited perspective to understand what is most important about coparenting for children. Thus, he suggested three basic

dimensions for coparenting. These are *solidarity and support* between coparents; *dissonance and antagonism*, and *mutual engagement* between coparents.

Coparenting has been found as different from other subsystems such as marital and parent-child relationships, and having unique and additional contribution on child development (McHale, 2007, Teubert & Pinquart, 2010). While marital and parent-child relationships are dyadic, since “every coparenting exchange and action implicitly or explicitly involves the child, coparenting communications and systems are always, at minimum, triadic in nature” (p. 23, McHale & Irace, 2011). Three individuals (mother, father, and child) and their three distinct dyadic relationships (mother-child, father-child, and mother-father) are party to coparenting. Properties of the emergent coparenting system, however, are distinct from the constituting individuals or subsystems (see Figure 1).

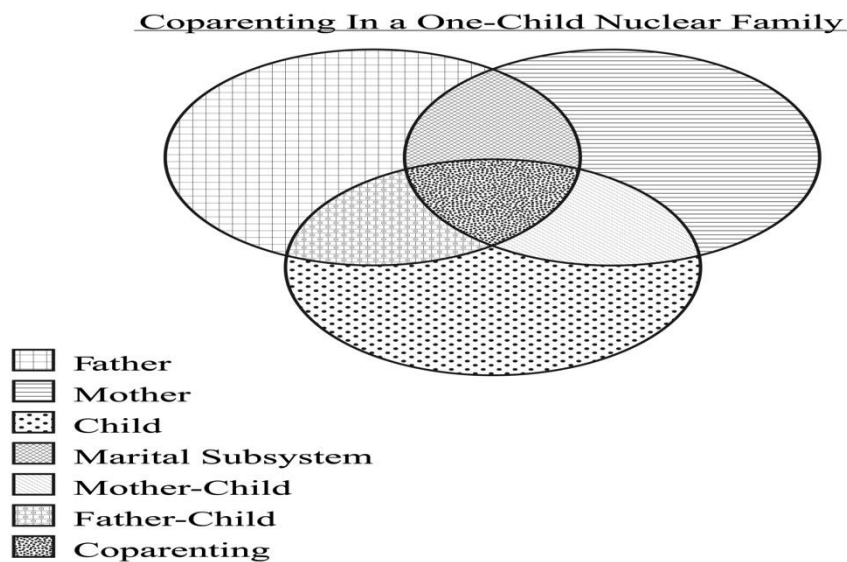


Figure 1.1 Coparenting in a one-child nuclear family (source: McHale & Irace, 2011)

Parents having problems with their marriage, or even divorced parents might behave cooperatively when they are getting together with their child and do effective coparenting. In opposite, it is possible to have very satisfactory marriage, but have negative coparenting. So, marital and coparenting relationships are distinct from each other, although they are closely interrelated. The empirical evidence supports that marital adjustment and coparenting both appear to be distinct predictors

of child development (e.g., Feinberg, Kan, & Hetherington, 2007; McHale & Rasmussen, 1998).

Coparenting and parenting are also distinct but interrelated concepts. Parenting includes mothers' and fathers' individual interactions with the child, whereas coparenting refers to parental interplay in childrearing. Researchers have documented additional predictive role of coparenting on child adjustment beyond parenting (e.g., Belsky, Putnam, & Crnic, 1996; Caldera, & Lindsey, 2006).

Coparenting quality, whether assessed via self-report or observational methodologies, has been shown to be related with a number of important indicators of children's socioemotional adjustment (see McHale & Lindahl, 2011; Teubert & Piquart, 2010). For example, cooperative, warm, and balanced coparenting has been shown to predict children's positive socioemotional adjustment (e.g., Block, Block, & Morrison, 1981; Jouriles et al., 1991), however, negative coparenting predicted children's numerous internalizing and externalizing child problems (e.g., Belsky et al., 1996; Kolak & Vernon-Feagans, 2008).

According to McHale (1997), coparenting dynamics include *overt* as well as *covert* practices. He proposed that overt coparenting is interparental behavior in the presence of the child. It occurs when the child is physically present during the parent's interactions with each other. On the other hand, covert coparenting occurs between parent and child in the absence of the coparenting partner. Communications between one parent and child in the absence of other parent might either strengthen and solidify or undermine child's sense of family integrity. In addition to overt and covert coparenting practices, parents' *perception* of whether his/her partner is a supportive coparent is another process of coparenting. Parents' private belief about the solidarity of their alliance together as parents is an important factor for both child and parental adjustment (Abidin & Brunner, 1995).

Considering the three different processes of coparenting (overt, covert, perceived), there have been different methods used to assess coparenting. In order to assess overt coparenting, observations of triadic interactions have been used. Covert and perceived coparenting, on the other hand, have been assessed by self-reports and interviews. According to McHale and Lindahl (2011), rather than using a single method, using both observations of coparenting behavior and self-reports of

perceived coparenting support can provide useful windows into the underlying coparenting scripts and structures that organize the family. In the current study, given the infants are so young (3 month old), covert coparenting will not be examined. Overt coparenting will be assessed by using observations, and perceived coparenting will be assessed by self-reports.

1.2.1. Coparenting at 3 month Postpartum

In 2007, McHale completed a longitudinal study of the evolution of coparenting alliances from pregnancy through the first several years of the child's life. In that landmark study, he documented that triangular coparenting alliances have already begun consolidating by 3 months post-partum, and that the early-emerging coparenting patterns tend to show coherence over developmental time, predicting similar patterns at 12 and at 30 months post-partum. Three months seems to be an important point; in the early weeks and months while the family is still in a "honeymoon" phase many people can sometimes be involved and a crystallized pattern has not yet taken hold. But by three months, families have begun "doing what they do" and samples of triangular behavior are very informative and prognostic.

Also by 3 months post-partum, infants themselves have begun to be the contributors of the early family process. McHale, Fivaz-Depeursinge, Dickstein, Robertson, Daley (2008) have developed a remarkable means of establishing the meaningfulness of the eye gaze patterns of babies as young as 3 months old, and have found that babies "triangular capacities" (ability to engage with two interaction partners at the same time) can be assessed at 3 months. Babies differ markedly in this capacity, and their precocity in successfully handling triangular interactions and engaging both partners has been related to the quality of coparenting between the coparenting adults in triadic interactions.

Another reason for choosing this time point is that by 3 months families where there is grandmother involvement might increase as the most meaningful cocaregiver for the baby. The current study is the first study examining mother-father-grandmother coparenting systems in Turkey at 3 months postpartum, such a period appear to be something of a family trademark. Hence, observing the behavior of parents and grandmothers has critical importance in understanding the baby's early relationship environment.

1.2.2. Coparenting and Other Family Processes and Measures

There have been a few models and perspective about what constitutes coparenting in families. McHale's model (2007) is the most inclusive model, but Feinberg's (2003) model, which focuses mainly on 2-parent nuclear (mother-father) family systems, is also widely cited. Feinberg proposed his paper about assessment of coparenting based on several sources (e.g., Belsky et al., 1996; Margolin et al., 2001; McHale, 1995). In this model, coparenting directly influences parenting and child adjustment, as well as indirectly through parental adjustment. Also, coparenting is influenced by the other family processes and variables (see Figure 1). Environmental factors, individual parent characteristics, and overall interparental relationships were suggested to influence coparenting.

Many conceptual and empirical reports have established that environmental factors (e.g., extrafamilial social support, economic stress, socioeconomic disadvantage, stress experienced at work, imbalance between work and family) affect the family and that these factors can be related to various family outcomes. It is hence plausible that in this model, environmental factors may also influence coparenting relationships, both directly and indirectly through parent characteristics and the overall interparental relationship. Furthermore, the model suggests that these environmental factors might also influence directly parental adjustment independently from any ties to the coparental relationship. In the present study, the roles of babies' grandmothers were investigated as extrafamilial variable.

Parents' individual characteristics, such as emotional and mental health, and gender role expectations are other factors that may influence coparenting. For example, preexisting depression in one parent might limit parents' communications, their emotional support, and engaging in productive resolution of childrearing differences (e.g., Belsky & Hsieh, 1998). Adults' state of mind with respect to attachment formed in the family-of-origin has also been found to predict early coparenting. Talbot, Baker, and McHale (2009) found that insecure states of mind with respect to attachment predicted high coparenting conflict and low coparenting cohesion during early infancy. However, self-reported romantic attachment styles of parents have not been studied in the role of coparenting. To address this gap, in the current study attachment related anxiety and avoidance of parents were examined.

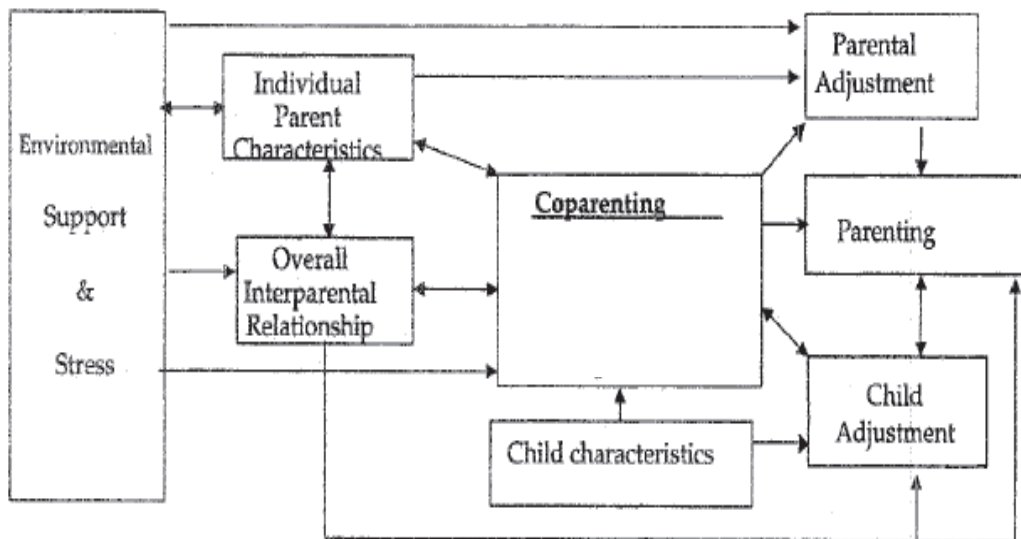


Figure 1.2 Ecological model of coparenting (source: Feinberg, 2003, p. 111)

The overall quality of interparental relationship has been accepted by many family scholars as the most important family factor influencing coparenting relationships (Kitzmann, 2000). Couples' existing ability to demonstrate support and respect to each other, and to discuss disagreements and resolve them might be helpful for coparenting relations. Feinberg conceptualized this relationship as bidirectional. That is, coparental miscoordination as well might spill over and lead to greater hostility, conflict, and dissatisfaction in the overall couple relationship (e.g., Belsky & Hsieh, 1998).

Child characteristics, such as gender and temperament were also viewed as related to coparenting relations. Although there is no data yet showing that children's gender directly influencing coparenting, the moderator role of gender in the relationship between marital relationship and coparenting has been found (McHale, 1995). With regard to child's temperament, previous research has mainly demonstrated that families with infants having easy temperament are more likely to have positive coparenting relations, whereas infants' temperamental difficulty might lead to coparental difficulties (e.g., Davis, Schoppe-Sullivan, Mangelsdorf, & Brown, 2009; McHale & Rotman, 2007).

Given that various family variables influence coparenting, and this in turn, influences multiple parent and child outcomes, coparenting can be viewed as

mediator (central) of a variety of family variables in their influence on family outcomes. Feinberg simplified this mediating role of coparenting by grouping extrafamilial, individual, and family variables under the title of risk factors as seen in the Figure 1.3.

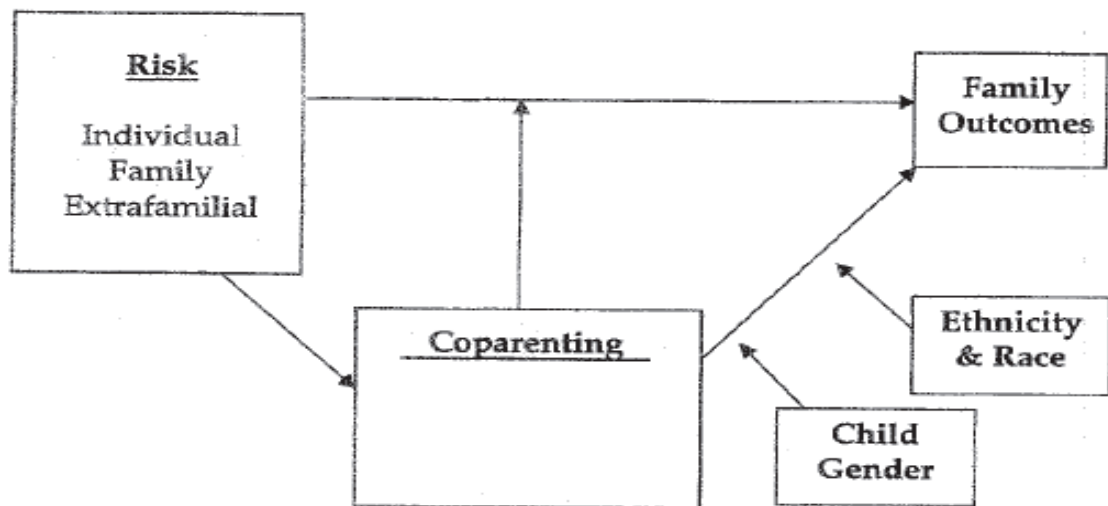


Figure 1.3 Mediating and moderating pathways: The mediating and moderating role of coparenting with respect to the influence of risk on family outcomes; and the moderating pathways of child gender and family ethnicity/race on the relation of coparenting with family outcomes (source: Feinberg, 2003, p.115).

He also suggested moderating paths among these family variables. He proposed two questions about the moderating pathways in the associations between family variables including coparenting. First, “Does coparenting moderate the relations between risk factors and family outcomes –for example, does the presence of positive coparenting decrease the link between marital conflict and child adjustment?” And, the second question is, “what factors moderate the influence of coparenting on family outcomes?” (p.115, Feinberg, 2003) Although there have been inconsistencies in the literature, there exists support for moderating pathways between coparenting and various family outcomes (McHale & Lindahl, 2011).

In the current study, perceived coparenting alliance of both mothers and fathers were examined in their relationship with other family variables, namely

marital adjustment, romantic attachment, cocaregiving alliance with grandmothers, parenting stress, and postpartum depression. In addition to perceived coparenting, parents and grandmothers' observed coparenting behaviors were also investigated in relationship with these family variables.

1.3. Triadic Interactions in Families

1.3.1. Dyadic versus Triadic Interactions

Previous research has shown that parenting patterns might look different during the triadic interactions than the dyadic interactions. Past studies have shown that the quantity as well as quality of parent-child interaction tends to be less in dyadic setting than in triadic setting. More positive interactions in dyadic setting than in triadic settings have been reported in families with preschoolers, school-age children, and adolescents (see review Lindsey & Caldera, 2006). For example, Goldberg, Clarke-Stewart, Rice, and Dellis (2002) found that fathers vocalized less, displayed less affection, and engaged in less physical play with their children in the presence of mothers than they did during dyadic father-child play. In another study, mothers were found as less involved, less sensitive, and more negative during triadic than dyadic interaction (Lindsey & Caldera, 2006). The general decline in the quality of parenting might vary depending on parent's gender and child's gender. For example, Gjerde (1986) found that mother-son interaction was more positive in a triadic context than in a dyadic context, whereas mother-daughter interaction was more positive in a dyadic context than in a triadic context. This diversity of parent's behaviors in dyadic and triadic contexts demonstrate how important to study triadic interactions as well as dyadic interactions.

1.3.2. Coparenting during Triadic Interactions

About 20 years ago, two independent laboratories were the first to observe coparenting patterns within a family during triadic interactions (Belsky et al., 1995; McHale, 1995). Both researchers demonstrated that partners having problems with their marriages are more likely to exhibit problems with coparenting (not only demonstrating lack of support for one another, but sometimes also displaying active undermining of one another).

After the initial publications of these two laboratories, researchers studying families have shown that families can be distinguished along several dimensions

during the triadic interactions (e.g., McHale, Lauretti, Talbot, Pouquette, 2002). In some families, cohesiveness, support, and solidarity were observed, whereas dissonance and antagonism were observed in other families. Indeed, cohesiveness includes parents' cooperation which is not simply the absence of hostility but rather the presence of behavior actively facilitating and supporting the coparent such as taking turns or working in concert as they engage with their baby. Parents' mutual involvement and engagement with the baby (both parents engaged, rather than one engaged and the other disengaged) is another dimension in triadic interactions considered as a part of cohesiveness. Moreover, affective connection (warmth and positivity) as an indicator of cohesiveness extends beyond a positive connection between parent and baby, to capture the connection among all three members. By contrast, antagonism includes partners' competitiveness, actively undermining, interference or otherwise opposing one another's interventions with the baby, sometimes engaging in verbal sparring. Amassing research indicates that coparenting support and solidarity (e.g., cooperation, mutual involvement & engagement, warmth) during triadic interactions are related to child adjustment in both concurrent and longitudinal studies of families with infants, toddlers, preschoolers, and elementary school children, whereas coparenting dissonance or antagonism (e.g., competition, interference, verbal sparring) during triadic interactions are related to both internalizing and externalizing behavior problems in young children (see review McHale & Lindahl, 2011).

1.3.3. Assessing Coparenting during Triadic Interactions

Ideally, interactions should be videotaped and evaluated for both positive and problematic behavioral sequences and interactions revealed during triadic interactions, including signs of coparenting cooperation, interference, and disengagement (McHale & Alberts, 2003). The adults' behavior with one another and with the child affords insights into family resources as well as problems. Of ultimate interest in observing the family together is the identification of mis-attuned parenting and problematic coalitions and boundaries within the system, so that these can be addressed during interventions, clinical therapies, and research studies (McHale & Sullivan, 2008).

A straightforward assessment paradigm that can be used for both clinical and research purpose to evaluate the family's coparenting dynamic is the Lausanne Triologue Play (LTP; Fivaz-Depeursinge & Corboz-Warnery, 1999). The LTP leads families through four distinct forms of interaction. In the first part, one parent plays with the baby while the second parent is instructed simply to be present. The parents then switch roles for the second part of the task. In the third part, all three family members play together and, finally, the adults interact while the baby is placed in the "third party" position. Family members sit en face in a triangular configuration as they enact these four parts; even very young infants can participate if properly seated upright in a secured infant carrier or seat placed strategically on a table so that the infant's face and body rest at what would be chest height for the adults. Families should understand the purpose and set-up of the interaction in advance. In the current study observed coparenting dynamics were examined with this paradigm (see Method section for details).

1.3.4. Cultural Differences in Triadic Interactions

Previous studies on cultural variations in parent-infant (dyadic) interactions have shown that in Western cultures parents are more active provocateurs during social interactions, frequently vocalizing, presenting objects, and situating infants in face-to-face position in Western cultures. On the other hand, in African, Asian, and South American cultures, closer physical proximity and less vocalization have been documented (Feldman & Masalha, 2010). Given these differences in dyadic interactions, some differences in parenting behaviors might also be expected in triadic interactions across cultures.

Compared to the studies on dyadic interactions, there have been fewer cross-cultural studies to compare triadic interactions. As exceptions, Feldman and colleagues (e.g., Feldman, Masalha, & Nadem, 2001, Feldman & Masalha, 2010), conducted several studies to document differences in coparenting and family patterns by comparing coparenting and triadic interactions among Israeli Jewish, Israeli Arab, and Palestinian Arab families. They found that family autonomy and child-centeredness was higher in Israel samples, whereas family cohesion and cooperation between coparents was lower in Palestine samples, but there was no difference in competition between these two cultures. In another cross-cultural study, Hedenbro,

Shapiro and Gottman (2006) compared triadic interactions of mothers, fathers, and their 3 month babies in Sweden and US samples. They found that although there were many similarities between these samples, American families were found to have a faster pace in triadic play than Swedish families.

As McHale and Lindahl (2011) suggested, more cross-cultural studies are needed to understand coparenting and family patterns by overcoming Western bias. In the current study, coparenting and family patterns during triadic interactions of mother-father-baby were compared between the samples from the US and Turkey. The US culture was chosen for comparison with the rarely studied Turkish family systems because most studies in the literature have involved American and or Western infants. Therefore, comparing families from the US and Turkey can have a great potential to contribute to the current findings in the literature.

1.3.5. Grandmothers in Triadic Interactions

While coparenting is typically perceived as the interplay between parents, Mchale and Irace (2011) argue that the term should be used more inclusively to describe the support and solidarity between any pair or team of coparenting adults responsible for the care and upbringing of children. This notion has gradually been catching on around the world. Here, it is critical to state that a second similar term, “cocaregiving” has been coined to explain the similar process. *Cocaregiving* has been operationalized as sharing the responsibility for the child’s upbringing when the second caregiving partner is not a parent but a relative or other involved person. Grandmothers have been considered as cocaregivers for many families. For example, Jones and Lindahl (2011) reviewed family dynamics observed in African, Asian, Native American, and Latinos in the US, and they documented how often grandmothers are involved in childrearing and contribute to both mother and child adjustment in these ethnic groups.

One of the first studies observing triadic interactions of mother-grandmother-and child was conducted by Chase-Lansdale & Gordon, Coley, and Wakschlag (1999) for 3 year old children with African American families. They defined 4 parenting strategies depending on their observations. These are mother and grandmother share parenting of the child, mother is in charge, grandmother is in charge, and lastly, neither adult is in charge. Among these strategies they found that

when mother and grandmother share the parenting, the families tend to show highest functioning. Families with the mother in charge are generally more similar to families with shared parenting. However, families with neither mother or grandmother in charge, and families in which the grandmother is in charge tend to show more problematic interactions with high level of conflict, low level of child compliance, less emotional support and engagement.

In another observational and longitudinal study, Kretchmar and Jacobvitz (2002) showed that high level of balance between mother and grandmother, and low level of disengagement when they are interacting with the child together differentiated secure from insecure attachment of the child. However, high level of entanglement distinguished resistant from secure and avoidant attachment.

Lastly, McHale, Salman, Strozier, and Cecil (2013) conducted an observational study in which grandmothers and incarcerated mothers were interacting with their preschoolers. Depending on their observations, families were distinguished having mutually supportive, led/cooperative, strained, and strained imbalanced coparenting alliance. And they found that mutually supportive and cooperative interactions between mother and grandmother are beneficial for children's functioning.

In all published studies of mothers and grandmothers, the coparenting grandmother was the mother's own mother. This reflects the matriarchal system dominant in many the US subcultures, particularly those among lower socioeconomic African American family systems. In Turkey, however, not only child's maternal but also paternal grandmother also involve during the child's early years of life. Thus, the roles of paternal grandmothers were also examined in the current study.

1.4. Turkish Family Dynamics

Family dynamics might have different meaning and implications for both parents and children in Western and non-Western cultures (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2007; Sümer & Kağıtçıbaşı, 2010). While American culture has been accepted as having Western and individualistic values; Turkish culture is characterized by both Eastern and Western features, just as it is a bridge connecting East and West geographically. This

difference might influence Turkish and American parents to construct different family dynamics.

Turkish culture can be seen as mainly collectivistic when considering the mutual interdependence within the traditional families and the emphasis on family over individuals. However, people from urban areas in Turkey perceive themselves as neither strongly collectivistic nor individualistic (e.g., Göregenli, 1997).

Kağıtçıbaşı (2007) proposed that the modern urban Turkish family has become more economically independent due to social and economic changes, however, emotional interdependence within and between generations continues with strong traditional values, which might be seen as a ‘culture of relatedness’. A high level of intimacy, emotional interdependence, and less personal boundaries among the family members might be seen as “enmeshment”, which is the norm of Turkish families (Sunar & Fişek, 2005).

The modernization of Turkey, which gained pace since 19th century, resulted in that the number of nuclear families has increased and become more widespread compared to the number of extended families (Topses, 2008; Yavuz, 2004). However, although the nuclear family structure has been more widespread, especially in urban area, extended families are commonly found in small cities and villages. In addition, in nuclear families, too, even if married children are economically independent from their parents, connections with grandparents and relatives are still strong (Seven & Ogelman, 2012). Doing travel back and forth and stay closely connected with parents and relatives are common regardless of rural and urban area. Especially grandmothers might be responsible for taking care of the baby because of the high cost of daycare centers.

In Turkey like other cultures where relatedness rather than individualism is more dominant, it might be expected extended family members are close to nuclear family members both physically and emotionally (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2010). Since approximately 75% of mothers are housewives in Turkey (TÜİK, 2010) mothers’ social relationships are mostly in limited with extended family members (Baydar, Akçınar, & İmer, 2012). The study with a Turkish sample indicated that mothers who get emotional and baby care support from grandmothers were less likely to show punishment and demanding behaviors toward their child (Güroğlu,

2010). In other studies conducted in Turkey, support from extended family members, especially for families having low socioeconomic status, were positively related to mothers' warm and supportive parenting behaviors (Baydar, Akçınar, & İmer, 2012), and children' vocabulary development (Baydar et al., 2014). These studies stress the importance of the role of extended family members in Turkey to understand family dynamics better. That's why, in the current study, not only mother-father relationships but also mother-grandmother relationships were investigated.

1.5. Current Study Variables and Expectations

1.5.1. Observed Triadic Interactions

In the current study, three observed triadic interactions were examined, which are 'mother-father-baby in Turkey'; 'mother-father-baby in the US'; and 'mother-grandmother-baby in Turkey. In cross-cultural comparisons, similarities and differences in triadic interactions of Turkish and American families were compared. In Turkish sample, two family subsystem interactions were compared to answer the questions whether mothers behave differently in triadic interactions when they are interacting with their babies' fathers than when they are interacting with their babies' grandmothers. Although there have been some studies documenting the beneficial role of harmonious cocaregiving between mother and grandmother on child adjustment as documented above, to my knowledge, in the literature there has been no study comparing observed triadic interactions of mother-father-child with those of mother-father-child in the same family. Such a contrast would provide preliminary data allowing for a better understanding of the complex dynamics of these family systems, and allow for speculation and later hypothesis testing on the ways different dynamics might play a role in the child's early development.

1.5.2. Mother Education

Among the socio-demographic factors, maternal education has been shown to be the strongest familial predictor of child outcomes (Boyle et al., 2006), and strongly associated with parenting skills and child's cognitive development (e.g., Carpentieri, Fairfax-Cholmeley, Litster, & Vorhaus, 2011). In Turkish culture, the important role of mother education on family dynamics has been documented in the work of Sümer and his colleagues (Sümer et al., 2008). Specifically, mothers of children age between 1 and 4, possessing a lower level of education, were observed

as exhibiting less sensitive behaviors (as assessed via the Maternal Behavior Q-sort, Pederson and Moran, 1995) when compared to mothers having a higher level of education. Further, another part of the same study involving children in middle childhood showed that children of mothers having a lower education level reported less positive parenting and more negative parenting for their mothers as compared to children having mothers with a higher level of education. These results were consistent with previous studies indicating that mother education is one of the most important demographic variables associated with family dynamics and child development in Turkey (Kağıtçıbaşı & Ataca, 2005). Considering these previous findings, the current study sought to recruit 50% of the participants from higher socioeconomic areas, and 50% from regions in Ankara-Turkey having comparatively lower socio-economic-status. It was expected that families with lower educated mothers would exhibit less cooperative interactions with their spouses and grandmothers and report less perceived positive parenting alliance with them. It was also expected that parents from these families would report more parenting stress and greater postpartum depression.

1.5.3. Marital Adjustment

In family systems led by a married mother and father (and in the United States, perhaps by gay parents as well), marital adjustment may be the most important factor related to coparenting. This relationship has been documented by numerous supports in the literature. Previous studies have shown that less supportive coparenting was linked to observed marital distress (McHale, 1995), couples' relationship anxiety (Belsky et al., 1995), defensiveness during child-related disagreements (Margolin et al., 2001), low engagement in a marital discussion (Schoppe-Sullivan et al., 2004), and low self-reported marital quality (Gordon & Feldman, 2008). Longitudinal studies also demonstrated the strong link between marital adjustment with later coparenting dynamics (e.g., Bonds & Gondoli, 2007; Bronte-Tinkew et al., 2009). Literature has shown that marital adjustment was linked to parenting adjustment too (Feinberg, 2003). For this reason, in the current study marital adjustment was expected to be associated with both coparenting and parenting adjustment variables. Specifically, parents having better marital adjustment were expected to have more cooperative coparenting behaviors, report having a better (perceived) parenting

alliance with their spouses and to report less parenting stress and less postpartum depression.

1.5.4. Coparenting and Parenting Adjustment

In Feinberg's conceptual model coparenting was suggested as being related to adjustments of the individual parents. In the literature, there has been less evidence for that link compared to the link between coparenting and child adjustment. For example, the degree of support versus undermining as a coparenting dimension has been linked with parent adjustment, such as lower parenting stress (Abidin & Brunner, 1995), and lower postpartum depression (O'Hara & Swain, 1996). More recently, the intervention studies aiming to enhance the quality of coparenting relationships have shown that families having the coparenting intervention reported less parenting stress (e.g., Doss, Cicila, Hsueh, Morrison, Carhart, 2014) and depression (e.g., Feinberg and Sakuma, 2011). In the current study, parenting stress and postpartum depression of both mothers and fathers were examined in their relationships with both observed and reported coparenting. It was expected to find that both observed and perceived coparenting would be negatively related to parents' parenting stress and postpartum depression.

1.5.5. Romantic Attachment

The research on adult romantic attachment is based on attachment Bowlby's (1988) attachment theory designed to explain the emotional bond between infants and their caregivers. According to attachment theory early interactions with caregivers are cornerstones for individuals' relationships in later life. To survive, infants seek proximity to attachment figure, resist separation from the attachment figure, use attachment figure as a secure base from which to explore the environment, and use the attachment figure as a safe haven for comfort in times of threat. For this reason, babies need caregiver who is consistently available, responsive, and sensitive. Sensitive behaviors of caregivers promote security in children and form positive working models for themselves and others, while insensitive behaviors lead to insecurity and negative internal working models in children (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978). According to attachment theory, these relationship patterns and internal working models formed in early life have significant impact on the relationships in later years.

The understanding of attachment theory for adults was expanded by an important contribution from Hazan and Shaver (1987), who studied romantic love as an attachment process. They suggested that there are three main patterns (or categories) of attachment that can be captured among adults; these are secure, avoidant, and anxious/ambivalent, consistent with infant-caregiver attachment patterns. Later, Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) suggested that there may actually be four categories (secure, preoccupied, dismissing, and fearful), based upon the confluence of two different dimensions – the person’s model of self (dependency) and their model of other (avoidance), as derived from attachment theory. Secure individuals were low on both dimensions, meaning that they perceive the self as worthy of love, and perceive others as generally accepting and responsive. Through the progress of adult attachment studies, some researchers preferred using dimensions while others preferred categorical approaches. More recently, researchers have taken to classifying attachment behaviors along two primary dimensions: attachment related avoidance and anxiety (Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998; Fraley, Waller, Brennan, 2000; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Attachment related avoidance represents individuals’ mental representations of romantic relationships in terms of how uncomfortable they feel about depending on partners. Attachment related anxiety refers how individuals are worried about abandonment from their partner.

Research has demonstrated the effects of attachment related dimensions (or styles) on adults’ well-being (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2008), parenting behaviors (e.g., Edelstein et al. 2004) and marital quality (Feeney, 2008 for a review). For example, relationship anxiety predicted increases in new mothers’ depressive symptoms and marital adjustment after controlling many risk factors in transition to parenthood (Feeney et al., 2003). In a longitudinal study, Rholes et al. (2001) found that highly ambivalent women reported declines in marital satisfaction across the transition period, particularly if they perceived their husbands as providing insufficient help and support prenatally. As a first study demonstrating the link between romantic attachment and maternal sensitivity in Turkey, Selçuk and his colleagues (Selçuk et al., 2010) found that mothers’ attachment related avoidance but not anxiety predicted negatively their observed sensitive caregiving behaviors at home.

Although there is amassing evidence that attachment security predicts individual well being, couple functioning, and parenting, there have been few studies on the relationship between parents' attachment security and whole family interactions and coparental alliance that fosters a secure family base for children. As an exception, Paley et al. (2005) found that families with fathers having insecure attachment assessed by Adult Attachment Interviews (AAI) demonstrated more negative and less positive family interactions when their babies at 24 month, but only when they were higher levels of negative escalation in the couple's marriage prenatally. Talbot, Baker, and McHale (2009) conducted another study on the relationship with AAI and observed family interactions and coparenting at 3 month postpartum. The researchers found that mothers' insecure attachment status predicted coparental conflict, and fathers' insecurity predicted lower coparental cohesion observed during their family interactions. When both parents in the same family were considered, the greatest problems were found when father was secure and mother insecure, suggesting that the triangular dynamic is affected by the inter-relationship of both parents' individual styles.

In these two studies the researchers used the AAI, which assesses the organization of individuals' discourse when they are talking about their own childhood experience (George, Kaplan, & Main, 1984). In order to understand the link between adult attachment and coparenting, studies that have used the AAI might usefully be complemented by studies where the measure of interest is parents' self-reported romantic attachment measures. Self-report measures aim to assess individuals' mental representations of romantic relationships in terms of how uncomfortable they feel about depending on partners, *attachment-related avoidance*, and how worried they are about abandonment, *attachment related anxiety*. To my knowledge, there has been no study investigating the relationship between self-reported romantic attachment and coparental dynamics.

As outlined earlier, the first months after the baby comes are a time of transition, and while a honeymoon period for some, the early weeks can also be a stressful time for couples (McHale, 2007). In this time they need to accommodate their relationships to the presence of a new and highly dependent individual. In this period, parents who can draw upon attachment security as an emotional resource

might display more positive behaviors, regulate affect more successfully, and show more skills in seeking and providing contingently responsive support in their interactions with spouses. Hence, such parents might be expected to experience and demonstrate better coparenting harmony in their newly formed family. On the other hand, parents who feel uncomfortable for depending on the spouse (having high levels of attachment related avoidance), and who feel unworthy of love and lack confidence in spouse's commitment (having high levels of attachment related anxiety) might find working together for their baby particularly stressful, give less constructive responses during triadic interactions, and thus have greater difficulty creating harmonious coparenting. For this reason, in the current study, it was expected to find that parents having higher levels of attachment anxiety and avoidance would experience greater difficulties playing cooperatively during the triadic interactions. It was also expected that they would report less parenting alliance.

1.6. Research Questions

The current study includes two main parts. The first part focuses on triadic interactions and observed coparenting. The coparenting behaviors of mothers and fathers were compared between two samples from the US and Turkey. Also, mother-father-infant and mother-grandmother-infant were compared in Turkish culture only. In the second part, the focus is on family members' self-reports in order to investigate the network among the family variables including coparenting. How marital adjustment, romantic attachment, parenting stress, and postpartum depression were associated with both observed and perceived coparenting were examined. The research questions (RQs) are presented below:

RQ-1: Are the measurement tools assessing coparenting dynamics developed in the US applicable to Turkey?

RQ-2: What are the observed similarities / differences in triadic interactions of 'Mother-Father-Baby' after 3month postpartum between the US and Turkish culture?

RQ-3: What are the similarities / differences between 'Mother-Father-Baby' and 'Mother-Grandmother-Baby' during triadic interactions in Turkish sample?

RQ-4: How is mother education related to coparenting and other family variables?

RQ-5: How is coparenting (both observed and perceived) related to other relationship variables – marital adjustment and romantic attachment?

RQ-6: How is coparenting (both observed and perceived) related to parenting adjustment -parenting stress and postpartum depression?

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1. Participants

This study includes data from two separate samples, which were collected from the US and Turkey. The US data was collected in 2005 as a part of a longitudinal study, and Turkish data was collected between 2013 November - 2014 June for the purpose of the current study. Detailed information for each sample is given below.

2.1.1. The US Sample

The US data had been collected in a part of the project called “The Families through Time Study” (FTT, supported by National Institute of Child Health and Development, NICHD, R01 HD42179), directed by the co-advisor of the current study, Dr. James P. McHale. For that study, 54 married parents having their first child participated in the study when their babies were 3 months old. They were recruited from the prenatal classes in the district hospitals. Twenty-nine babies were girl, for 3 babies’ gender was not reported. The average age was 32 ($SD = 4.97$, $range = 22 - 47$ years) for mothers, and 33 ($SD = 5.80$, $range = 21 - 49$) for fathers. The US sample is well educated and from middle and upper-middle class (average annual income = \$70,000). Of participants, 15 (33.3%) mothers and 16 (34.8%) fathers had post-graduate degree (MS/MA/PhD), 26 mothers (57.8%) and 21 (45.7%) fathers had bachelor degree (AA/BA/BS), 2 mothers (4.4%) and 4 (8.7%) fathers graduated from some-college, 2 (4.4%) mothers and 4 (8.7%) fathers were graduated from high school, 9 mothers and 8 fathers did not report their education level. Forty-one mothers (93.2%) and 43 (95.6%) fathers described themselves as European American, 1 father as African American, 10 mothers and 9 fathers did not report any information about ethnicity.

2.1.2. Turkish Sample

In order to recruit Turkish families, nine Family Health Centers in Ankara were visited and asked to help to reach families having 3-months old babies. With

the collaboration of the health workers working at these centers, 66 families were contacted. Following the telephone instructions, the purpose and criteria of the study were introduced to the families. Of the contacted families, 25 were eliminated because of mismatch of the criteria (babies need to be 90-120 days old, parents need to be married and living together). Thirteen families rejected to participate because of various reasons such as not being comfortable with cameras, concerns about baby's health, or the lack of spouse's will etc. At the end, 28 families recruited from the health centers. Seven families were also recruited via the initiation of researcher's search from the social networks. The remaining 10 families were recruited via the snowballing method with the help of participated families.

Finally, 45 families participated in the current study as a part of the Turkish sample. All babies were 3-months old (in days; $M = 103.8$, $SD = 12.15$, $range = 66-127$). Although one baby exceeded 120 days by 7 days, she was included considering the need for a larger sample size. Thirty-two babies were the first-child of the family, 11 babies had one older sibling, and 2 babies had more than two siblings. All parents were married at least for one year and living together. The average length of marriage was 28.44 in months ($SD = 27.28$, $range = 12 - 108$ months). The mothers ($M = 28.44$, $SD = 4.37$, $range = 18-37$) on average were three years younger than the fathers ($M = 31.37$, $SD = 4.05$, $range = 23-41$). Among 45 mothers and 41 fathers, 3 mothers (6.7%) and 3 fathers (7.3%) were graduated from primary school, 6 mothers (13.3%) and 7 fathers (17.1%) graduated from elementary school, 11 mothers (24.4%) and 8 fathers (19.5%) graduated from high school, 14 mothers (31.1%) and 17 fathers (41.5%) were graduated from university, 11 mothers (24.4%) and 6 fathers (14.6%) had post-graduate degree. The monthly incomes, reported by parents, were as follows: four families (8.9%) had 500-1,000 TL, 14 families (31.1%) had 1,000-2,000 TL, 12 families (26.6%) had 2,000-5,000 TL, 7 families (15.6%) had 5,000-7,000TL, 3 families (6.7%) had 7,000-10,000TL, 5 families (11.1%) had monthly income between 10,000-15,000TL.

For 28 families, both fathers and grandmothers participated to interact with mother and baby. For five families, only grandmothers (but not fathers); for 12 families only fathers (but not grandmothers) participated. Totally, 40 father-mother-

baby and 33 grandmother-mother-baby triadic interactions were observed. Out of grandmothers 20 were maternal and 13 were paternal grandmothers. One participated mother requested to consider her aunt as maternal grandmother, who was helping the mother for baby-care. The average age of grandmothers was 55 ($SD = 5.78$, $range = 43-70$).

2.2. Procedure

2.2.1. Procedure for the US sample

At the 3-month postpartum, two research assistants visited parents' homes. The visits were done when the babies were usually awake and alert to complete the assessments. Similar to Turkish procedure, Lausanne Trilogue Play paradigm (Fivaz-Depeursing & Corboz-Warnery, 1999, see below for detail) was used in order to observe triadic interactions of family members. In order to videotape the interactions, researchers brought materials including cameras, tripods, a specifically designed infant orthopedic seat and a large mirror. The mirror was placed behind the parents, so that the baby's face and body would be visible between them on the mirror. Parents sat facing the baby in a prescribed equilateral triangular configuration. They completed four parts of the standard LTP assessment. Parents could switch from one part to the next when they wished, but were signaled after 2 minutes had transcribed if they had not switched spontaneously. Then, parents completed a series of questionnaires.

2.2.2. Procedure for Turkish sample

For the families who accepted to participate, data collection was made via home visits. The author of the current dissertation and one trained female graduate student completed all of the visits together. The family members were phoned and informed that all family members (mother – father – grandmother – baby) need to be together during the home-visit. Most of the visits were completed in a single observation. However, four families were visited twice, since the family members could not get together at the same time. The average duration of the home-visits was 112 minutes ($SD = 32.86$, $range = 60 - 210$).

In home visits, researchers first introduced themselves and attempted to create a friendly atmosphere. Then, the aim of the study was explained, and the

consent form was read to the family members. After they signed the consent form, data collection started with observations if the infant did not sleep or cry. Family members decided who (father or grandmother) would first be together with the mother to play with the baby for observations. If the baby is not ready for observations parents filled the self-reported questionnaires until the baby is ready. Parents were encouraged to fill out the questionnaire battery independently (not interact with or ask questions to other family members), and they were ensured about confidentiality. When parents completed the questionnaires, they placed the completed battery in closed envelopes. When data collection is completed, 100 TL (supported by Turkish Academy of Sciences, TÜBA) and METU cup (as a present) were given to the family members.

2.2.3. Procedures for Observations

Lausanne Trilogue Play Paradigm (LTP, Fivaz-Depeursing & Corboz-Warnery, 1999) Paradigm. In order to observe triadic interactions when the family gets together, the LTP paradigm was used. The setting of the LTP is seen in the Figure 2.1 (left side). In this setting, three chairs are used to form an equilateral triangle to facilitate face-to-face interactions in a trilogue. Parents' chairs are oriented toward the infant's chair rather than toward each other's in order to facilitate interaction with the infant. The infant's chair is appropriate for infant's age, and permits the baby to utilize all his/her energy for interacting with parents. Parents are asked not to move their chairs since cameras can't record them well if they move. There are two cameras. One camera records coparents, and the other camera captures the infant in close-up, full frontal view.

The LTP is semi-structured situation and it includes four parts (see Figure 2.1, right side). In the first part, one parent is active and plays with the infant while the other parent is passive and observes. In the second part, the parents switch the roles. In the third part, both parents play with the infant together. In the final part, infant becomes the third party as the adults talk about something with each other. Each part takes approximately 2 minutes, and parents decide when they do transitions between the parts. Researchers read the instructions to coparents,

answered if any question arises, and then left the room. Coparents were asked to let the researchers know when they complete the interaction.

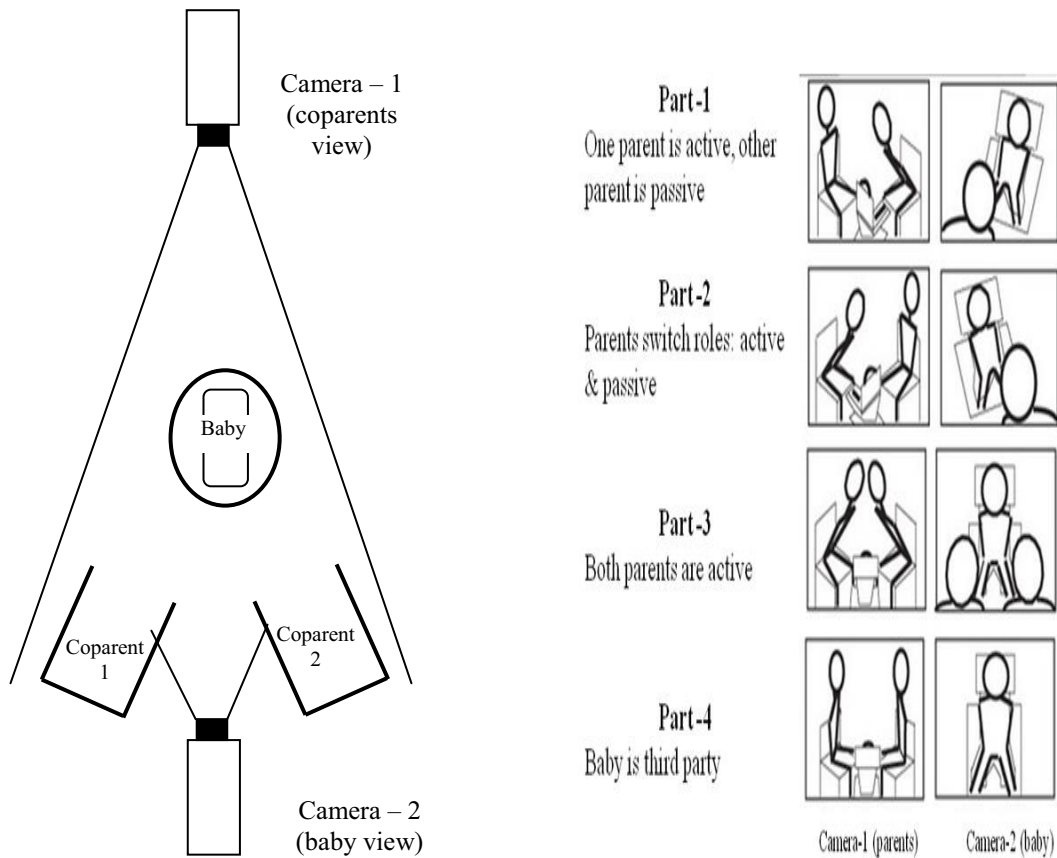


Figure 2.1 The LTP paradigm: The setting of the chairs and the cameras of the LTP is presented on the left side; four parts followed by coparents in the semi-structured LTP were presented on the right side.

2.3. Measurements

2.3.1. Observational Measurements

'Coparenting and Family Rating System' adapted for 3 month infants (CFRS, McHale, Kazali, Rotman, Talbot, Carleton, & Lieberon, 2004). To evaluate triadic interactions and observed coparenting during the LTP videotapes, the CFRS was used. This system includes both micro and macro analysis. First, microanalysis was done for each 10 seconds of the interactions. For the first two parts of the LTP, coparents' individual parental behaviors were rated when they were *active* and *passive* for the interactions. For the active coparent, whether he/she

vocalizes (V), *touches (T)*, and *expresses positive affect (PA)* was recorded for each 10 seconds. Passive coparent was evaluated depending on his/her *engagement*, *disengagement*, and *interference*. For the last two parts, how parents work together well was observed when they were interacting with the baby. For these parts, parents' *cooperation*, *competition*, *miscoordination* and other coparental variables were evaluated. After finishing microanalysis and getting general idea about the family, macro analysis started. Parents' global *Cooperation*, *Competition*, *Warmth*, *Degree of overstimulation*, *Disengagement*, *Couple's sensitivity to baby* were evaluated on the 1-7 Likert scale, *Verbal Sparring* was evaluated on 1-5 likert scale. The author of the current study rated all videotapes. Among 73 interactions 15 videotapes (20%) were double rated by the trained observed. The intra-class correlation coefficient with two-way random effect model (absolute agreement, average measurements) was .81. The descriptions of micro and macro variables are given below:

Micro Variables for Active Coparent

Vocalization (V): This is scored any time the parent talks and/or makes sounds to the infant, at any point during the 10 seconds interval.

Touch (T): This is scored any time the parent makes physical contact with the infant. However, a touch needs to be more than incidental, fleeting contact without intentional substantive pressure. For example, if the parent only removes the infant's pacifier, without touching the infant's head or body, this was not considered as a touch, even if the parent needed to wrestle away from the child.

Positive Affect (PA): This is scored any time the parent shows a clear and convincing display of affection or positive emotion. Parents may communicate this positive affect through an exaggerated facial expression (smiling or making a surprise face), by laughing, or by imbuing the voice tone with lilting tones.

Micro Variables for Passive Coparent

Watches and is Engaged (WE): This code is given when passive parent demonstrates clear evidence of active interest in the interaction taking place between

the active parent and the infant. Signs of active interest include an anticipatory posture and some expression of facial animation (tightened muscles, occasional smiles). Engagement may also include acknowledging the baby by responding contingently; however, the parent doesn't amplify their response. While they may smile in reaction to the baby's behaviors, they do not raise their eyebrows, bug out their eyes, or make other facial movements to distract the baby's attention away from the active parent. If they do so, an "interference code" (see below) is warranted. However, it is possible to score both "watches-engaged" and "interference" in the same interval.

Watches/no engaged (WNE): This code is given when the parent shows signs of interest in and attention to the interaction between the active parent and the baby, but is not as keyed into the interaction. This can be considered similar to a more passive form of support for the partner, in that it allows the active parent to interact without any hint of interruption. Parents receiving this code will typically demonstrate a neutral or masked facial expression, showing none of the facial animation seen in the watch and engaged parent. Likewise, they would not actively engaged with the ongoing interaction by responding affirmatively to an interchange that occurred between the active parent and the baby. For example, they would not smile in reaction to amusing behaviors by the infant. However, if an otherwise WNE parent were suddenly smile, then that particular interval was given as WE as well as WNE code.

Disengaged (DE): This score is given when the parent is orienting away from the interaction between the active parent and baby. Signs of disengagement include physically absenting him/herself, becoming internally preoccupied, or looking away for three or more seconds. Parents can also signify their disengagement through a closed-off body posture. Such disengagement body postures almost always take the form of slumping back from the interaction or shifting the body to face in a different direction.

Interference / Flirts (IF): This indicator is scored when the passive parent interferes with the interaction taking place between the active parent and the baby, though the nature of the interference is milder than that seen when the parent

interferes/distracts. The flirting parent's manner of interference with the interaction is typically such that it allows the active parent's engagement with the baby to continue unimpeded. Most typically, the flirting parent smiles and simultaneously raises their eyebrows to interact with the baby. This may look similar to watches-engaged, although the behavior of the parent is more exaggerated, animated and amplified, beyond simply smiling at the baby. One step up, the parent may be bugging out the eyes, making faces, or even speaking in exaggerated playful tones to the baby.

Interference / Distracts (ID): This indicator is scored any time the passive parent interference with the interaction taking place to a greater extent than simply flirting. For example, the parent may not only make facial expressions, but also make some other dramatic physical gestures to attract the baby's attention. These would be actions such as hunching the shoulders, tugging at the clothing of self or baby, waving, and/or making other hand movements to distract the baby's attention. One step up, the parent may actually intrude physically in the interaction between the active parent and baby.

Interference / Helps (IH): In some cases, the passive parent may spontaneously, or upon request, reposition the baby or wipe her nose. When the parent does so without mugging for the baby, an IH code is appropriate. However, if the parent uses the opportunity to flirt or mug, then IH would not be coded and only Interference/Distracts would be scored.

Micro Variables for Triadic Interactions

Shared Positive Affect (SPA): This refers to the simultaneous display of positive emotions by both parents. Positive displays of emotion include smiling and laughter. Therefore, whenever both parents are engaged in smiling and/or laughter to the same event related to baby, this should be considered an instance of shared positive affect.

Active Co-Action (ACA): This rating is given at points during the interaction when the two parents are involving the baby with the same aims and intentions. They can be seen as working or acting in accord with one another while continuing to

simultaneously engage the baby. In so doing, however, they do not impress the rater as competing for the baby's attention or as using markedly different tactics when stimulating the baby. ACA should be seen as the parents encouraging the same action (e.g., trying to solicit baby talking) or both communicating the same message as when each holds one of the baby's hand. However, if one is touching the baby's hand while the other is tugging at the baby's foot, this "concerted" stimulation would not be scored as co-action, but rather should receive rating of miscoordination (see below).

Benign Cooperation (BC): This is different than active co-action in that the parents are not cooperating in such a clear fashion. Overall they are working together in that they respectfully take turns and provide space for one another, although they don't work together doing the same things such as presenting the same stimulus. They may simply watch and wait to show something to baby until the parent is finished with their current interaction with the baby.

Disengages (DE): This code is essentially the same as the one described for the passive parent during parts 1 and 2 and assigned to the parent orienting away from the interaction between the partner and baby.

Miscoordination (MC): This code is given when the parents give separate and conflicting messages to the infant, but quickly recognize that they are doing so and reorganize. When the momentary miscoordination takes place, it can look as if the parents are "bumping into another" by presenting the different stimuli, or by engaging the baby without taking note of what the other parent is doing. This can happen frequently with three month olds, as infants are not active in shaping the interaction and parents are not yet adept at coordinating their behaviors during triadic interactions.

Active Competition (ACM): It is assigned whenever the parents give sustained dual or separate and conflicting messages to the infant. The competing communications will look similar to Miscoordination, but in the case of an actively competitive exchange, the separate messages will be presented for a longer period of time. As a rule of thumb, any time the parents continue to give their dual messages

for four seconds or longer, this would be considered as active competition rather than miscoordination. However, intensity counts too, and if in the rater's opinion the messages were clearly intended to compete, even if slightly less than four seconds, active competition can still be scored.

Macro (Global) Variables

Cooperation: Global cooperation variable is linked to the overall organization of parents' activities during the triadic interaction. The patterning of active coaction and benign cooperation between parents is most critical in determining this rating. Essentially, highly cooperative coparents are those who are meaningfully engaged in the interaction, cooperative, affirm, and support one another throughout all four parts of the interaction, both when they are observing and when they are participating in the triad.

Competition: Competitiveness between parents might be either behavioral or verbal. When behavioral, it may take the form of introducing new stimuli to a baby who is interested and engaged in an activity with the partner, and failing to withdraw the stimulation when it is apparent that the baby remains interested in what the partner is doing. When verbal, it suggests a contest-like quality to the interaction or an ongoing comparison with the partner.

Family Warmth: Family warmth is the degree to which parents' demonstrating clear and convincing evidence that they are enjoying one another's company as well as the company of the baby. Communications of warmth are those that convey pleasure and positive regard. When demonstrating high levels of warmth with infants, parents smile at and touch the baby, and use gentle and affectionate voice tones; when conveying warmth toward the partner, parents smile, make eye contact, and sometimes laugh pleasurably.

Degree of Overstimulation: It captures the degree to which the parents' level of activity, collectively, is such that it exceeds comfort levels and overwhelms or disorganizes the baby. Even in the absence of infant distress, the rater should assign a high score for overstimulation if his or her subjective impression is one of excessive stimulations.

Disengagement: It captures the degree to which the family interaction conveyed a sense of two-ness, non-threeness, or (to a lesser degree), separateness. In a forced interaction situation there will be no families where one parent seems clinically disengaged since it is normal but not clinical sample. However, in the rare family one partner may strike the rater as depressed and isolated (especially during 2+1) and hence the family's sense of threeness and connection may feel qualitatively different from that of most families.

Overall distress of baby: It is the actual observed distress exhibited by the baby during the entire session (2+1s and triadic interactions), and should be considered as an independent score from parental overstimulations and sensitivity. Signs of distress in the baby's behavior range from vigorous crying and squirming, to brief fussing or shifting of body posture or eye gaze to avoid stimuli.

Sensitivity to baby: It was designed as a couple-level variable, and is intended to capture the extent to which the coparenting partners, as a unit, attend to and respond contingently and appropriately to signals emitted by the infant.

Verbal Sparring: It captures the frequency of nattering or verbal jabbing between the partners. Rarely do out-and-out contentious arguments break out between partners, so the variability into this measure (which is rated on a 5-point scale only) is intended to capture the extent of kidding at the low end, and clear-cut oppositionality at the high end.

2.3.2. Self-Reported Measurements

For the Turkish sample, the packets included three sets of measures: one for mother, one for father, and one for grandmother. Mothers and Fathers both completed demographic questions, Parenting Alliance Inventory (PAI), Parenting Stress Index – Short Form (PSI-4), Experiences in Close Relationships – Revised (ECR-R), Marital Adjustment Measure (MAT), Edinburg Postpartum Depression Scale (EPDS). Mothers completed also extra demographic questions and Grandmother-Mother Relationship Questionnaire (GMRQ). Grandmothers completed only short demographic questions and Grandmother-Mother Relationship Questionnaire (GMRQ). Two measurements used in the Turkish sample had also

been used for the US sample. These were Parenting Alliance Inventory (PAI) and Marital Adjustment Test (MAT). Although for both samples parents' depression level was assessed, for the US sample, the Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale (CES-D) was used, while Edinburg Postpartum Depression Scale (EPDS) was used in the Turkish sample. Detailed information for these measurements is presented below.

2.3.2.1. Parenting Alliance Inventory (PAI):

The PAI was developed by Abidin and Brunner (1995) and includes 20-items. This self-report instrument measures the strength of the perceived alliance between parents of 3-month – 19 year old children. It measures how cooperative, communicative, and mutually respectful parents are with regard to caring for their children (e.g., *“My child’s other parent and I communicate well about our baby”*). In the current study, items were reworded from ‘my child’s other parent’ to ‘spouse’ considering that all participant mothers and fathers were married. Parents scored the inventory on a 5-point likert scale in which higher scores reflect stronger and more positive parenting alliance.

The PAI was adapted into Turkish with the current study. First, it was translated into Turkish with 3 researchers, and reached a consensus on each item. Then, one bilingual researcher back translated the scale and minor revisions were made on a few items considering back translation. The PAI was administered to both mothers and fathers. Internal consistencies of the items were found satisfactory for both the Turkish (Cronbach’s alpha for mothers = .93, for fathers = .80) and the US sample (Cronbach’s alpha for mothers = .86, for fathers = .87).

2.3.2.2. Parenting Stress Index – Short Form (PSI-4)

Parenting stress was assessed by using Parenting Stress Index – Short Form-4rd edition (PSI-4) developed by Abidin (1995). This measure can be used for parents of 0-12 years old children. It has 36 items including three dimensions (each has 12 items), which are Parent Distress, Parent-Child Dysfunctional Interaction, and Child Difficulty. The Parent Distress dimension measures parent’s unhappiness in his/her parenting roles including items on depression, isolation, and restriction in the parenting role. (e.g., *“I feel trapped by my responsibilities as a parent”*). The Parent-

Child Dysfunctional Interaction dimension includes items assessing parent's perceptions of the emotional quality of his or her relationship with the child, in light of his or her expectations about the parent-child relationship (e.g., "*I expected to have closer and warmer feelings for my child than I do, and that bothers me*"). The Child Difficulty dimension includes items assessing parent's perceptions of the child's behavior and consistency with the expectations of appropriate behavior (e.g., "*My child is very emotional and gets upset very easily*"). Both mothers and fathers completed the inventory on a 5-point, Likert-type scale. Higher scores correspond more parenting stress.

The PSI-4 was adapted to Turkish by Mert, Hallioğlu, Ankaralı, and Çamdeviren (2008). Similar to Mert et al.'s study total score of parents' stress level was computed. The internal consistency of the items was satisfactory (Cronbach's alpha for mothers = .91, for fathers = .85) in the current study.

2.3.2.3. Experiences in Close Relationships – Revised (ECR-R)

The Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R) was developed by Fraley, Waller, and Brennan (2000) and adapted to Turkish by Selçuk, Günaydın, Sümer, and Uysal (2005). It is a 36-item self-report measurement assessing adult attachment in romantic relationships with two 18-item subscales, attachment related anxiety and attachment related avoidance. The anxiety subscale assesses desires to be close, fear of rejection and abandonment as well as a preoccupation in close relationships (e.g., "*I often worry that my partner will not want to stay with me*"). The avoidance subscale assesses the need for high interpersonal distance in close relationships accompanied with excessive self-reliance and discomfort with intimacy and dependency (e.g., "*I don't feel comfortable opening up to my partner*"). In this study, items were reworded from 'partner' to 'spouse' considering that all participant mothers and fathers were married.

Both mothers and fathers answered this self-report measurement via a 5-point Likert type scale. Higher scores correspond more attachment related anxiety and avoidance. The scales demonstrated satisfactory internal consistency with alpha coefficients as .84 and .76 for anxiety and avoidance, respectively.

2.3.2.4. Marital Adjustment Measure (MAT)

The Marital-Adjustment Test (MAT) was developed by Locke and Wallace (1959) and adapted to Turkish by Tutarel-Kışlak (1999). It has been considered as one of the most widely used measures in the field. The short form, 15 items, was used in the current study. The items cover the domains of marital functioning such as disagreement, communication, leisure time activities, and regrets about marrying your spouse. Both mothers and fathers responded these items on a 6-point scale (from 0 = always disagree to 5 = always agree), also reported their general impression of marital happiness on a continuum from “Very Unhappy” to “Perfectly Happy”. Cronbach alphas of the scale were .73 for mothers and .71 for fathers.

2.3.2.5. Edinburg Postpartum Depression Scale (EPDS)

The Edinburgh Postnatal Depression Scale (EPDS) was used to assess parents’ depression level in the Turkish sample. It is a 10-item questionnaire that was developed by Cox, Holden, and Sagovsky (1987) and adapted to Turkish by Engindeniz, Küey, and Kültür (1996) to identify parents’ postpartum depression. Items correspond to various clinical depression symptoms, such as guilt feeling, sleep disturbance, low energy, and suicidal ideation (e.g. “*I have been anxious or worried for no good reason*”). Both mothers and fathers responded categories as 0, 1, 2, and 3 according to increased severity of the symptoms. The total score was calculated by adding together the scores for each of the ten items. Higher scores indicate more depressive symptoms, and scores of 12 and above distinguish borderlines. Cronbach’s alphas of the scale were .84 for mothers and .76 for fathers in the current study.

2.3.2.6. Center of Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale (CES-D, Radloff, 1977)

For the US sample parents’ depression level was assessed via CES-D. The 20-item CES-D was developed by Radloff (1977). It offers the benefit of providing agreed-upon threshold or cutoff score that clinicians and researchers can use to establish whether the respondent is experiencing a level of distress that would be considered clinically meaningful. Items of CES-D all of which begin “during the past week:” include “I felt that I could not shake off the blues, even with help from family and friends, “I had crying spells”. Parents rated the items along a scale ranging from

0 (rarely or none of the time; less than one day) to 3 (most or all of the time; 5-7 days). The average CES-D score for mothers was 9.16 (SD = 7.36; range = 0-32), and for fathers was 9.19 (SD = 6.54; range = 1-29). The cronbach alphas of the scale for mothers and father were .86 and .82, respectively.

2.3.2.7. Grandmother-Mother Relationship Questionnaire (GMRQ)

Grandmother-Mother Relationship Questionnaire was developed in the current study depending on the interview questions from Protocol for Individual Interview for Cocaregivers (Strozier, Armstrong, Skuza, Cecil, & McHale, 2011). It includes 16 items for mothers and 14 items for grandmothers. Two extra questions in the mother questionnaire were asking whether the mother is bothered with the grandmother's involvement. The other 14 items were similar, just wording was changed with consideration of mother or grandmother reports. The items assess general relationship satisfaction between mother and grandmother (e.g., "*On the whole, I feel that my relationship with mother / grandmother is very satisfying*"), seeing mother and grandmother as a good team in childrearing (e.g., "*I think that we are a good team for baby-caring*"), and conflict between mother and grandmother (e.g., "*We would not have a problem on child-rearing issues in the future*"). The internal consistencies (cronbach alphas) of the scale for mothers and grandmothers were .89 and .72, respectively.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

In this section, first, the results regarding descriptive analyses of observed variables and self-reported variables are provided. The multiple paired t-tests were conducted to examine the potential similarities and differences on the major variables. Then, the correlations among the study variables are given. Lastly, the results of the analyses for actor-partner interdependence model on the self-reported variables are presented.

3.1. Descriptive Statistics

3.1.1. Observed Variables

Three triadic interactions were recorded and evaluated in the current study. These interactions were (1) ‘mother-father-baby’ in Turkey. (2) ‘mother – grandmother – baby’ in Turkey, and (3) ‘mother – father- baby’ in the US. The observed behaviors of coparents in these groups were compared via paired t-tests and independent samples t-tests. The comparisons of observed variables for both micro and macro variables of the CFRS are presented below.

3.1.1.1. Observed Micro Variables

As given in the Method section, the CFRS includes 17 micro variables for coparents’ individual (8) and triadic behaviors (9). In this section, the results for the individual micro variables and triadic micro variables are presented below.

3.1.1.2. Observed Individual Micro Variables

Individual micro variables of the CFRS include behaviors for coparents’ active and passive behaviors during the interactions. When coparent was active (during 2+1 and triadic interaction) whether s/he vocalizes, touches, and express positive affect were evaluated. When coparent was passive (during 2+1) while his/her partner was actively involved with baby, whether passive parent watched/engaged, watched/not-engaged, was disengaged, or distracted were evaluated. The total number of the observed variable (e.g., touches, disengaged etc.) was divided to coparent’s active or passive time-intervals. For example, if mother

was active partner (2+1) for 2 minutes (120 seconds / 10 seconds = 12 interval), and she played together with father (3x) for 3 minutes (180 seconds / 10 seconds = 18 intervals), her active time interval, thus, was 30 (12 + 18). If she touched the baby 28 times, so her touch score became $28 / 30 = .93$. The micro variables can be ranged from 0 (if no observed) to 1 (observed all the time). Table 3.1 presents descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, ranges) for the micro variables.

Table 3.1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Ranges for Observed Individual Micro Variables

	Turkey				The US	
	Mother –Father-Baby (n = 42)		Mother –Grandmother-Baby (n = 33)		Mother –Father-Baby (n = 54)	
	Mother	Father	Mother	Grandmother	Mother	Father
Vocalization	.89 (.09) .62-1.00	.87 (.15) .47 – 1.00	.84 (.18) .14 – 1.00	.89 (.15) .45 – 1.00	.61 (.17) .41 – 1.00	.58 (.18) .00 (.96)
Touch	.69 (.24) .13-1.00	.72 (.24) .16 - 1.00	.67 (.25) .14 – 1.00	.65 (.28) .12 – 1.00	.59 (.18) .25 – 1.00	.58 (.19) .28 – 1.00
Positive Affect	.95 (.07) .75-1.00	.92 (.12) .59 – 1.00	.93 (.15) .29 – 1.00	.95 (.08) .71 – 1.00	.60 (.19) .37 – 1.00	.56 (.17) .13 – 1.00
Watch/ engaged	.96 (.10) .48 – 1.00	.83 (.19) .25 – 1.00	.89 (.17) .36 – 1.00	.89 (.17) .38 – 1.00	.87 (.22) .08 – 1.00	.72 (.34) .00 – 1.00
Watch/ not-engaged	.07 (.15) .00 - .71	.16 (.26) .00 – 1.00	.14 (.20) .00 - .71	.06 (.14) .00 - .59	.13 (.26) .00 - .92	.29 (.37) .00-1.00
Disengaged	.03 (.10) .00 - .44	.06 (.10) .00 - .42	.02 (.10) .00-.57	.04 (.09) .00 - .41	.04 (.13) .00 - .91	.05 (.09) .00 - .38
Interference / Flirts	.02 (.04) .00 - .17	.04 (.10) .00 - .50	.04 (.14) .00 - .75	.12 (.22) .00-1.00	.04 (.08) .00 - .31	.02 (.04) .00 - .17
Interference / Distracts	.04 (.11) .00 - .50	.06 (.12) .00 - .44	.03 (.08) .00 - .33	.13 (.22) .00 – 1.00	.02 (.07) .00 - .46	.02 (.06) .00 - .33

Note. First number in each cell represents Mean; the number in parenthesis represents Standard Deviation; the numbers in the second line in each cell represents Range.

Multiple paired t-tests were conducted to compare coparents' behaviors during the interactions. For active behaviors, the results showed that there were no differences between mothers and father in Vocalizations, Touches, or showing Positive Affect both in Turkey and in the US. In addition, multiple independent sample t-tests were conducted to compare American and Turkish parents. Results

showed that both Turkish mothers and fathers vocalized, touched and showed positive affect significantly more frequent than their American counterparts did [for mothers, $t(87) = -9.53, p < .000, d = 2.04, t(87) = -2.17, p < .05, d = .47, t(87) = -11.24, p < .000, d = 2.41$; for fathers, $t(88) = -8.12, p < .000, d = 1.74, t(88) = -3.09, p < .05, d = .66, t(88) = -11.28, p < .000, d = 2.41$, respectively].

For coparents' passive behaviors, compared to fathers in Turkey, Turkish mothers were more likely to watch/engaged, less likely to watch/not-engaged, and be disengaged [$t(40) = 3.81, p < .000, d = .86, t(40) = -2.04, p < .05, d = .42, t(40) = -1.86, p < .10, d = .30$, respectively]. There was no significant difference between mothers and fathers in Turkey for flirtations or for distractions during the passive role. Similarly, compared to fathers in the US sample, American mothers were more likely to watch/engaged and less likely to watch/not-engaged [$t(47) = 2.89, p < .01, d = .52, t(49) = -3.03, p < .01, d = .50$, respectively]. Similar to the Turkish parents, there were no differences between mothers and father in flirtations and distractions in the US sample.

To compare passive behaviors of Turkish and American parents, independent samples t-tests were conducted. There were noteworthy differences between the two cultures. The results showed that Turkish mothers were more likely to watch/engaged compared to American mothers [$t(88) = -2.3, p < .05, d = .24$]. For fathers' passive behaviors, Turkish fathers were more likely to watch/engaged, less likely to watch/not-engaged, and more likely to distract the interaction occurring between mother and baby compared to American fathers [$t(87) = -1.87, p < .10, d = .53; t(89) = 1.93, p < .10, d = .28; t(89) = -2.27, p < .05, d = .22$; respectively].

In Turkey, 'mother-grandmother-baby' triadic interactions were also recorded and evaluated in addition to 'mother-father-baby' interactions. These results were quite provocative. Whereas there was no difference between mothers' and grandmothers' active behaviors (vocalizations, touches, expressing positive affect), there were important differences in the observation of passive behaviors. Specifically, compared to mothers, grandmothers were not only less likely to watch/not-engaged, but also more likely to actively interfere with the mother-baby interaction either in flirting or distracting way [$t(31) = 2.6, p < .05, d = .46; t(31) = -$

3.03, $p < .01$, $d = .43$, $t(31) = -2.36$, $p < .05$, $d = .60$, respectively]. These are the first data to document this phenomenon in the mother-grandmother-baby interactions in Turkey.

Mothers' own behaviors during their interactions with fathers and grandmothers were also compared. Mothers' active behaviors did not show any significant difference while they were interacting with fathers or grandmothers. However, there were some differences for the passive behaviors. Results indicated that mothers were watched/engaged more and watched/not-engaged less when they were interacting with fathers compared to when they were interacting with grandmothers [$t(28) = 2.71$, $p < .05$, $d = .50$; $t(28) = -1.85$, $p < .1$, $d = .40$; respectively]. Regarding the comparisons of fathers and grandmothers, while there were no differences in the frequency of their active behaviors, there were significant differences for their passive behaviors. Indeed, compared to fathers, grandmothers were less likely to watch/not-engaged and more likely to be flirting and distracting [$t(28) = 2.0$, $p < .10$, $d = .48$; $t(28) = -1.84$, $p < .10$, $d = .47$; $t(28) = -1.85$, $p < .10$, $d = .40$; respectively].

3.1.1.3. Mother Education and Observed Individual Micro Variables

Considering that mother's level of education is a critical factor for parenting and family dynamics in Turkey (e.g., Sümer et al., 2008), the differences in observed variables regarding mother education were investigated. In the US sample, almost all mothers had at least a college level of education, and thus, the effect of education was not examined within the US sample. For the Turkish sample, 20 mothers graduated from high school or lower degrees of education and 25 mothers graduated from university or had a graduate degree. Considering the distribution of education level, mothers were categorized into two groups as having high school or lower level of education and having a college degree, corresponding low and high levels of education respectively.

Results revealed a number of significant differences. For active behaviors of coparents, mothers with high level of education showed more vocalizations ($M = .92$, $SD = .07$) and expressed more positive affect ($M = .97$, $SD = .06$) than those with low level of education (for vocalization $M = .85$, $SD = .10$, $t(39) = -2.75$, $p < .01$, $d = .81$;

for positive affect $M = .93$, $SD = .08$; $t(39) = -2.18$, $p < .05$, $d = .57$). Fathers' active behaviors were not different as a function of their spouses' level of education. For passive behaviors, mothers with low level of education were more likely to watch/not-engaged ($M = .11$, $SD = .21$), and to flirt ($M = .03$, $SD = .06$) than those with high level of education [for watch/not-engaged $M = .03$, $SD = .07$, $t(40) = 1.93$, $p < .10$, $d = .51$; for flirting $M = .01$, $SD = .02$, $t(40) = 1.98$, $p < .10$, $d = .45$]. Fathers of spouses having low level of education were found to be distracting ($M = .13$, $SD = .15$) compared to fathers with high level of education ($M = .01$, $SD = .03$, $t(39) = 3.54$, $p < .01$, $d = 1.11$). There were no differences in coparenting behaviors of 'mother-grandmother-baby' interactions between high and low levels of maternal education.

3.1.1.4. Observed Triadic Micro Variables

In the third part of the LTP, coparents were asked to play with the baby together. Triadic micro variables were recorded for this part only, ten seconds for each. Table 3.2 presents the means, standard deviations, and ranges of triadic micro variables. Paired t-tests were conducted to compare 'mother-father-baby' and 'mother-grandmother-baby', and none of the triadic micro variables was found as significantly different between these two groups. Independent samples t-tests were conducted to compare Turkish and American parents. The results demonstrated that American parents were observed as showing more shared positive affects and moments and less miscoordination during triadic interactions compared to Turkish parents (for shared positive affects $t(89) = 3.89$, $p < .000$, $d = .89$; for shared positive moments $t(78) = 2.20$, $p < .05$, $d = .53$; for miscoordination, $t(89) = -2.62$, $p < .05$, $d = .56$). Mothers' benign cooperation was observed more in Turkish sample compared to the US sample ($t(74) = -4.71$, $p < .000$, $d = 1.05$). There were no significant differences between the samples of Turkey and the US on active co-action, father's benign cooperation, active competition, and disengagement.

Table 3.2*Means, Standard Deviations, and Ranges for Observed Triadic Micro Variables*

	Turkey		the US
	Mother – Father - Baby (n = 42)	Mother - Grandmother - Baby (n = 33)	Mother –Father- Baby (n = 54)
Shared Positive Affect	.06 (.07) .00 - .25	.09 (.12) .00 - .50	.20 (.21) .00 - .83
Active Co-action	.10 (.13) .00 - .55	.11 (.15) .00 - .05	.16 (.21) .00 - .86
Benign Cooperation Mother	.45 (.22) .07 - .86	.55 (.22) .20 – 1.00	.23 (.20) .00 - .75
Benign Cooperation Father / Grandmother	.37 (.21) .00 - .79	.36 (.24) .00 - .80	.34 (.47) .00 – 1.00
Miscoordination	.21 (.16) .00 - .67	.16 (.16) .00 - .71	.12 (.16) .00 – 1.00
Active Competition	.07 (.13) .00 - .50	.05 (.12) .00 - .60	.07 (.17) .00 – 1.00
Disengagement Mother	.01 (.04) .00 - .18	.01 (.02) .00 - .11	.01 (.03) .00 - .17
Disengagement Father / Grandmother	.01 (.05) .00 - .29	.00 (.00) (.00-.00)	.02 (.08) .00 - .50
Shared Positive Moment	.02 (.04) .00 - .17	.01 (.02) .00 - .09	.05 (.07) .00 - .27)

Note. First number in each cell represents Mean; the number in parenthesis represents Standard Deviation; the numbers in the second line in each cell represents Range.

3.1.1.5. Mother Education and Observed Triadic Micro Variables

Multiple independent samples t-tests were conducted to see similarities and differences between families with mothers having high and low education levels. The results showed that in families with higher mother education level, mothers and fathers were more likely to show co-action ($M = .14$, $SD = .15$), fathers were more likely to show benign cooperation ($M = .42$, $SD = .21$) and mothers were less likely to show disengagement ($M = .00$, $SD = .00$) compared to those with lower mother education level ($M = .06$, $SD = .07$, $t(40) = -2.28$, $p < .05$, $d = .68$; $M = .31$, $SD = .20$, $t(40) = -1.76$, $p < .10$, $d = .54$; $M = .03$, $SD = .06$, $t(40) = 2.22$, $p < .05$, $d = .71$, respectively). In ‘mother-grandmother-baby’ triadic interactions, active co-action

between coparents was found as significantly higher in families with higher mother education ($M = .16, SD = .15$) than those with lower mother education ($M = .05, SD = .12, t(28) = -2.10, p < .05, d = .81$).

3.1.1.6. Observed Macro (global) Variables

The descriptive statistics for global variables are presented in Table 3.3. In Turkey, there were no differences between ‘mother-father-baby’ interactions with ‘mother-grandmother-baby’ interactions regarding the global variables of the CFRS. For cross-cultural differences, however, there were differences in verbal sparring (disagreements) and sensitivity. American parents showed more verbal sparring [$t(85) = 2.77, p < .01, d = .59$] less sensitivity compared to Turkish parents [$t(89) = -2.13, p < .05, d = .46$].

Table 3.3.
Means, Standard Deviations, and Ranges for Observed Macro (global) Variables

	Turkey						The US
	Mother – Father - Baby			Mother - Grandmother - Baby			Mother – Father - Baby
	Total (n = 42)	LME (n = 19)	HME (n = 23)	Total (n = 33)	LME (n = 13)	HME (n = 20)	Total (n = 54)
Cooperation	4.14 (1.14) 2-7	3.58 (.77) 2-5	4.61 (1.20) 3-7	4.24 (1.15) 2-7	3.77 (.83) 2-5	4.55 (1.23) 3-7	4.19 (1.20) 2-7
Competition	2.95 (1.86) 1-7	3.32 (1.73) 1-7	2.65 (1.95) 1-6	2.36 (1.48) 1-6	2.92 (1.71) 1-6	2.00 (1.21) 1-4	3.13 (1.42) 1-6
Family Warmth	4.67 (1.08) 3-7	4.26 (.99) 3-6	5.00 (1.05) 3-7	4.55 (1.28) 3-7	4.31 (1.38) 3-7	4.70 (1.22) 3-7	4.39 (1.20) 2-7
Disengagement	1.91 (1.23) 1-5	2.16 (1.30) 1-5	1.70 (1.15) 1-5	1.52 (1.00) 1-4	2.00 (1.29) 1-4	1.20 (.62) 1-3	2.04 (.96) 1-5
Verbal Sparring	1.38 (.70) 1-4	1.68 (.89) 1-4	1.13 (.34) 1-2	1.15 (.36) 1-2	1.15 (.38) 1-2	1.15 (.37) 1-2	1.84 (.85) 1-4
Over Stimulation	3.07 (1.33) 1-7	3.05 (1.78) 1-5	3.09 (1.47) 1-7	2.94 (.83) 1-5	3.23 (.83) 2-5	2.75 (.79) 1-4	3.04 (1.12) 1-5
Baby’s Stress	2.69 (1.72) 1-6	2.68 (1.80) 1-6	2.70 (1.69) 1-6	3.09 (1.57) 1-6	2.69 (1.38) 1-5	3.35 (1.66) 1-6	2.65 (1.39) 1-6
Couple’s Sensitivity	4.91 (.91) 2-7	4.42 (.84) 2-5	5.30 (.77) 4-7	4.91 (1.01) 1-6	4.54 (.66) 4-6	5.15 (1.14) 1-6	4.47 (1.02) 2-6

Note. First number in each cell represents Mean; the number in parenthesis represents Standard Deviation; the last two numbers represent Range. LME: Low Mother Education; HLM: High Mother Education

3.1.1.7. Mother Education and Observed Macro (global) Variables

The descriptive statistics of global variables of the CFRS regarding mother education were also presented in Table 3.3. In ‘mother-father-baby’ interactions, families with higher educated mothers tended to have more cooperation [$t(40) = -3.24, p < .01, d = 1.02$], family warmth [$t(40) = -2.33, p < .05, d = .73$], sensitivity to baby [$t(40) = -3.57, p < .01, d = 1.09$] and less verbal sparring [$t(40) = 2.76, p < .01, d = .82$] compared to those with lower mother education. Multiple one-way ANOVA analyses were conducted to compare three groups; American parents, and Turkish parents with high and low mother education. The results showed that American parents and Turkish families with higher mother education level were significantly different from Turkish families with low mother education ($F(2, 93) = 4.36, p < .05, \eta^2 = .09$). There were no significant differences between the US parents and Turkish parents with high education. However, American parents and Turkish families with lower mother education level similarly had more verbal sparring [$F(2, 84) = 6.79, p < .01, \eta^2 = .14$] and less sensitivity to baby [$F(2, 88) = 7.21, p < .01, \eta^2 = .14$] than Turkish families with mothers having low level of education.

In ‘mother-grandmother-baby interactions’, there were significant differences in global variables between families with high and low mother education. Specifically, mothers and grandmothers had more cooperation [$t(31) = -2.00, p < .10, d = .74$] and sensitivity [$t(31) = -1.75, p < .10, d = .66$], while having less competition [$t(31) = 1.82, p < .10, d = .62$] and disengagement [$t(31) = 2.40, p < .05, d = .79$] in families with high mother education compared to families with low mother education.

Potential similarities and differences in global variables between the interactions with maternal grandmothers and paternal grandmothers were also investigated. The results showed that interactions with maternal grandmothers had significantly higher family warmth ($M = 5.11, SD = 1.24$) than those with paternal grandmothers [$M = 3.77, SD = .93, t(30) = 3.29, p < .01, d = 1.22$].

3.1.2. Self-Reported Variables

Means, standard deviations, and ranges for self-reported variables were given in Table 3.4. In Turkey, compared to fathers, mothers reported lower levels of parenting alliance [$t(41) = -2.02, p < .05, d = .43$], higher levels of parenting stress [$t(41) = 5.00, p < .000, d = .81$], attachment related anxiety [$t(41) = 3.14, p < .01, d = .58$], and postpartum depression [$t(41) = 3.38, p < .01, d = .72$].

As would be expected, the results showed that mothers having a lower education level reported more parenting stress [$t(42) = 3.02, p < .01, d = .91$], attachment related anxiety [$t(42) = 2.11, p < .05, d = .62$], less marital adjustment [$t(42) = -3.00, p < .01, d = .90$], and more postpartum depression [$t(42) = 2.64, p < .05, d = .78$] than mothers with a higher education level. Also of interest, fathers whose spouses had a higher education level reported more parenting stress compared to fathers with spouses having lower education level [$t(42) = 2.08, p < .05, d = .62$].

Parents from both Turkey and the US completed three instruments that comparably measured parenting alliance, marital adjustment, and depression. The same measures for parenting alliance and marital adjustment were used in both cultures. One-way ANOVAs were used to compare the US sample, Turkish families with high and low mother education. The results showed that compared to Turkish mothers having a lower education level, both American mothers and Turkish mothers with higher levels of education reported more parenting alliance and better marital adjustment [$F(2,88) = 5.14, p < .01, \eta^2 = .11$]. There was no difference between Turkish mothers with a higher education level and American mothers. For depression, Turkish mothers completed the EPDS (min = 0, max = 30) while American mothers completed the CESD (min = 0, max = 60). To make these two instruments comparable EPDS scores were doubled. One-way ANOVA results showed that Turkish mothers with a lower education level reported significantly higher level of depression than those with a higher level of education and American mothers reported [$F(2,85) = 13.03, p < .000, \eta^2 = .24$].

Table 3.4.*Means, Standard Deviations, and Ranges of Self-Reported Variables*

	Turkey			the US
	Total	LME	HME	Total
Parenting Alliance	4.30	4.17	4.40	4.59
- Mother	(.62)	(.52)	(.68)	(.33)
	1.95-5	2.7-4.9	1.95-5	3.53-5
Parenting Alliance	4.51	4.56	4.46	4.61
- Father	(.30)	(.29)	(.32)	(.32)
	3.6-5	4.05-4.95	3.6-5	3.59-5
Parenting Stress	2.16	2.46	1.93	
- Mother	(.62)	(.69)	(.45)	
	1.36-3.64	1.58-3.64	1.36-3.14	
Parenting Stress	1.72	1.87	1.60	
- Father	(.45)	(.46)	(.41)	
	1.06-2.72	1.11-2.72	1.06-2.58	
Anxiety	2.42	2.69	2.21	
- Mother	(.79)	(.93)	(.59)	
	1.28-4.39	1.29-4.39	1.28-3.28	
Avoidance	1.57	1.68	1.48	
- Mother	(.50)	(.46)	(.53)	
	1-3.06	1-2.56	1-3.06	
Anxiety	2.03	2.17	1.90	
- Father	(.53)	(.51)	(.53)	
	1-3.28	1.22-3.28	1-2.67	
Avoidance	1.69	1.79	1.60	
- Father	(.48)	(.45)	(.50)	
	1-2.89	1-2.61	1.06-2.89	
Cocaregiving alliance	3.94	4.03	3.88	
- Mother	(.57)	(.67)	(.50)	
	2.44-4.75	2.44-4.75	2.75-4.69	
Cocaregiving alliance	3.85	3.96	3.77	
- Grandmother	(.38)	(.32)	(.40)	
	2.93-4.43	3.21-4.43	2.93-4.43	
Marital Adjustment	116.27	104.63	125.12	125.00
- Mother	(24.61)	(23.21)	(22.18)	(15.45)
	53-151	62-151	53-151	80-150
Marital Adjustment	119.63	114.94	123.30	12.82
- Father	(21.85)	(23.67)	(2.08)	(21.28)
	57-156	57-148	70-156	65-153
Depression	8.30	10.30	6.63	9.16
- Mother	(4.91)	(5.68)	(3.47)	(7.36)
	1-21	1-21	2-15	0-32
Depression	5.19	5.65	4.78	9.19
- Father	(3.68)	(3.91)	(3.50)	(6.55)
	0-13	0-13	0-12	1-29

Note. First number in each cell represents Mean; the number in parenthesis represents Standard Deviation; the numbers in the second line in each cell represents Range.

3.2. Correlations of Coparenting Variables with Other Family Variables

3.2.1. Observed Coparenting Variables and Other Family Variables

One of the main aims of the current study was to investigate how observed coparenting is related to the other indicators of family functioning. Therefore, bivariate correlational analyses were calculated relating the observed coparenting variables to the other family variables. The results were in the expected direction and mostly significant for both ‘mother-father-baby’ (see Table 3.5) and for mother-grandmother-baby (Table 3.6). As seen in Table 3.5, observed *cooperation* between mother and father was positively related to age of mothers and fathers, mother education, parenting alliance (marginally), and mothers’ marital adjustment, and negatively related to parenting stress of both mothers and fathers, attachment-anxiety of both mothers and fathers, attachment-avoidance of mothers and fathers (marginally), and depression level of mothers. Observed *competition* between mothers and fathers were significantly and positively associated with attachment-anxiety of both mothers and fathers, and attachment-avoidance of mothers, and negatively related to marital adjustment of mothers (marginally). *Family Warmth* was significantly and positively related to mothers’ age, education, and marital adjustment, and marginally significantly with fathers’ age and marital adjustment. It was negatively related to mothers’ parenting stress (marginally), attachment related anxiety and avoidance, and depression (marginally), and fathers’ parenting stress. *Overstimulation* was positively related to baby’s gender. That means that parents of boys were more likely to overstimulate the baby. It was also positively related to mothers’ parenting stress (marginally) and negatively related to fathers’ depression level. *Verbal sparring* was negatively associated with mothers’ education and marital adjustment (marginally), and positively associated with mothers’ attachment related anxiety and depression level, and fathers’ parenting stress (marginally). *Disengagement* during triadic interactions of mothers and fathers were associated with parenting stress and attachment related anxiety for both mothers and fathers, and depression level for fathers only. Lastly, parents’ *sensitivity* to baby was significantly and positively related to mothers’ age, education, parenting alliance, marital adjustment, and fathers’ marital adjustment, and negatively associated with

mothers' parenting stress, attachment related anxiety and avoidance, and depression level.

In 'mother-grandmother-baby' triadic interactions, *cooperation* between mothers and grandmothers was found as being positively related to mothers' education, both mothers' and grandmothers' co-caregiving alliance, and mothers' marital adjustment. All these correlations were marginally significant ($p < .10$). The relationships of *competition* with mothers' age, education, and marital adjustment were found as negative and marginally significant. *Family warmth* in 'mother-grandmother-baby' triadic interactions was positively related to mothers' co-caregiver alliance, and negatively mothers' avoidance (marginally). *Overstimulation* was negatively related to mothers' age and education. *Verbal sparring* between mothers and grandmothers was negatively related to mothers' parenting alliance, and co-caregiver alliance. *Disengagement* was negatively related to mothers' education level (marginally), parenting alliance, and marital adjustment, and positively related to mothers' attachment related avoidance. Co-caregivers' *sensitivity* to baby was positively related to mothers' marital adjustment (marginally), and negatively related to mothers' attachment-anxiety (marginally) and depression (marginally). For the US sample, no significant correlation was found between observed coparenting variables with self-reported variables.

Table 3.5.

Bivariate Correlations of Coparenting Variables of Mother-Father with Other Family Variables

	Cooperation	Competition	Family Warmth	Over Stimulation	Verbal Sparring	Disengagement	Sensitivity
Baby Gender	-.15	.03	.00	.41**	-.15	.09	-.25
Mother Age	.45**	-.18	.35*	-.02	-.18	-.17	.45**
Father Age	.34*	-.02	.27†	-.09	-.02	-.17	.37*
Mother Education	.44**	-.18	.35*	.03	-.41**	-.21	.48**
Parenting Alliance mom	.27†	-.11	.20	-.22	-.15	-.15	.31*
Parenting Alliance dad	.07	.01	.08	-.16	.22	-.07	.20
Parenting Stress mom	-.35*	.24	-.30†	.27†	.37*	.37*	-.44**
Parenting Stress dad	-.34*	.20	-.37*	.00	.27†	.41**	-.17
Anxiety mom	-.51**	.39*	-.40*	.18	.49**	.54**	-.42**
Avoidance mom	-.49**	.37*	-.31*	.25	.20	.16	-.32*
Anxiety dad	-.40**	.31*	-.25	-.07	.14	.39*	-.08
Avoidance dad	-.28†	.10	-.20	.17	.02	.13	-.20
Marital Adjustment mom	.48**	-.29†	.44**	-.25	-.28†	-.20	.47**
Marital Adjustment dad	.30†	-.13	.28†	-.19	.02	-.16	.39*
Depression mom	-.36*	.20	-.28†	.17	.40**	.26	-.53**
Depression dad	-.04	.18	-.04	-.34*	.12	.32*	.22

Note. Baby gender: 1=girl, 2=boy. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, † $p < .10$.

Table 3.6.

*Bivariate Correlations of Coparenting Variables of **Mother-Grandmother** with Other Family Variables*

	Cooperation	Competition	Warmth	Over Stimulation	Verbal Sparring	Disengagement	Sensitivity
Gender	.06	.13	.01	.15	-.07	.11	-.22
Mother Age	.19	-.30 [†]	.07	-.38 [*]	.02	-.09	.29
Mother Education	.33 [†]	-.33 [†]	.03	-.35 [*]	-.08	-.30 [†]	.28
Parenting Alliance mom	.14	-.28	.12	-.02	-.58 ^{**}	-.37 [*]	.21
Parenting Stress mom	.01	-.14	-.04	-.06	-.15	.15	-.08
Anxiety mom	-.16	.04	-.29	-.10	.05	.27	-.30 [†]
Avoidance mom	-.11	.02	-.31 [†]	-.26	-.10	.35 [*]	-.18
Anxiety dad	-.06	.18	-.03	.05	-.01	-.19	-.03
Avoidance dad	-.29	.30	-.05	.19	-.20	.18	.03
Cocaregiving alliance -mother	.30 [†]	-.21	.35 [*]	.16	-.45 ^{**}	-.18	.12
Cocaregiving alliance -grandmother	.35 [†]	.15	.28	.12	-.27	.06	-.18
Marital Adjustment mom	.31 [†]	-.33 [†]	.08	-.18	-.07	-.45 ^{**}	.33 [†]
Depression mom	.08	.02	.15	.03	.10	.15	-.30 [†]

Note. Baby gender: 1=girl, 2=boy. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, [†] $p < .10$.

Perceived Coparenting (Parenting Alliance) and Other Family Variables

Mothers' parenting alliance was positively related to their marital adjustment and negatively related to their attachment-related anxiety and depression level.

Fathers' parenting alliance was positively related to their marital adjustment and negatively related to their attachment avoidance, parenting stress, and baby gender.

For boys, fathers were less likely to have more parenting alliance. Although there was no significant difference, the relationship between parenting alliance and marital adjustment was higher for fathers than for mothers.

In the US data, parenting alliance of both mothers and fathers was positively related to both mothers' and fathers' marital adjustment and negatively related to mothers' depression.

Table 3.7

	Turkey		the US	
	Parenting Alliance mom	Parenting Alliance dad	Parenting Alliance mom	Parenting Alliance dad
Baby Gender	-.08	-.46**	-.20	-.07
Mother Age	.14	-.11	.18	.10
Father Age	.13	.06	.14	.10
Mother Education	.22	-.15		
Parenting Stress -mother	-.24	-.17		
Parenting Stress -father	-.00	-.33*		
Anxiety-mother	-.27†	.02		
Avoidance -mother	-.48**	-.17		
Anxiety -father	-.23	-.28†		
Avoidance -father	-.08	-.51**		
Marital Adjustment -mother	.51**	.20	.49**	.51**
Marital Adjustment -father	.23	.62**	.67**	.50**
Depression -mother	-.42**	-.13	-.49**	-.38*
Depression -father	.06	-.16	-.22	-.21

Note. Baby gender: 1=girl, 2=boy. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, † $p < .10$.

3.3. Actor-Partner Interdependence Model (APIM) Tests for Self-Reported Variables

The relationships between mothers' and fathers' self-reported variables were tested by a series of path analyses using APIM framework (Kenny, Kashy, & Cook, 2006) for distinguishable partners (e.g., husbands, wives). Three pathways were tested. The first one is from individual and couple relationship variables to perceived coparenting; the second one is from perceived coparenting to parenting adjustment variables, and the third one is from individual and couple relationship variables to parenting adjustment. To test the first pathway, the paths from marital adjustment and romantic attachment to parenting alliance were tested. To test the second pathway, the paths from parenting alliance to parenting stress and postpartum depression level were tested. To test the third one, the paths from marital adjustment and romantic attachment to parenting stress and depression level were tested. The results are given below. The differences between the samples of Turkey and the US were also tested via multi-sample path analyses via LISREL by following Jöreskog and Sörbom's method (1993), but not for romantic attachment and parenting stress since those indicators were not assessed in the US.

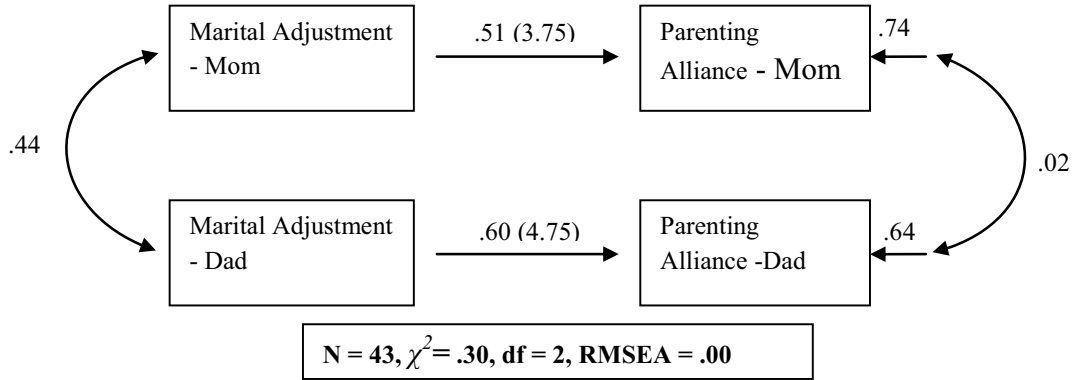
3.3.1. Predicting Parenting Alliance

First, the relationship between marital adjustment and parenting alliance was tested for both Turkish and American samples. The conceptual models were specified as marital adjustment of both mothers and fathers would have direct effects on parenting alliance, no restrictions were allowed. Thus, the models were saturated indicating that observed and implied covariance matrixes fitted exactly. For Turkish sample, the saturated model indicated that partner effects were insignificant, suggesting that mothers' marital adjustment did not predict father's parenting alliance, and father's marital adjustment did not predict mother's parenting alliance. Thus, the two insignificant links were dropped from the model. As seen in Figure 1.a, actor effects ($\beta_{mothers} = .51, \beta_{fathers} = .60$) were significant, and the final model fit the data very well ($\chi^2(2, N = 43) = .30, p = ns., GFI = .99, AGFI = .98, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00$). For the US sample, both actor and partner effects were significant (see Figure 3.1b), indicating that mothers' and fathers' marital satisfaction did not only predict their own parenting

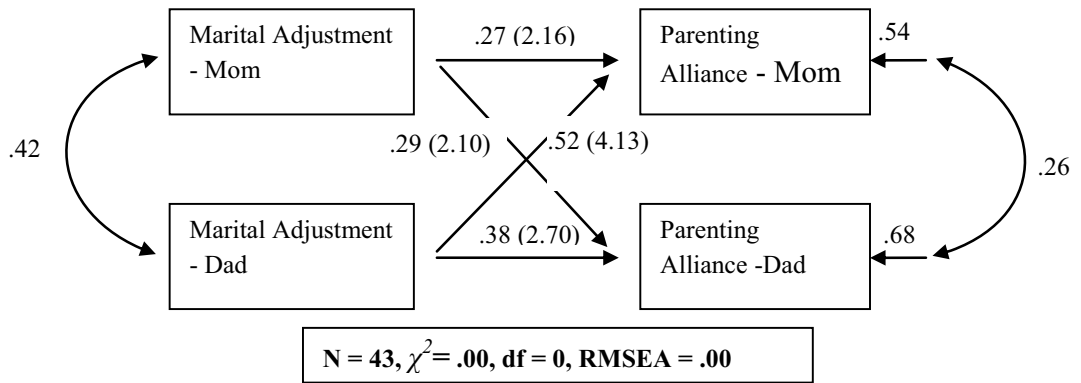
alliance ($\beta_{mothers} = .27, \beta_{fathers} = .38$) but also predict their spouses' parenting alliance ($\beta_{mothers} = .29, \beta_{fathers} = .52$). Since it is the full-saturated model the model fits perfectly.

The multi-group path analysis via LISREL by following Jöreskog and Sörbom's method (1993) was conducted to see differences between Turkey and the US. Firstly, the parameters were constrained to be equal across Turkish and the US data. The fit of this multi-group model was moderate [$\chi^2(7) = 29.85, GFI = .80$], suggesting a potential difference between the groups. Then, other nested models were run as unconstrained. The changes in χ^2 of these nested models were compared relative to the change in degrees of freedom. Error variances were run as unconstrained and the model fitted significantly better than the unconstrained model [$\chi^2(5) = 10.75, GFI = .95; df_{diff} = 2, \chi^2_{diff} = 19.1, p < .001$]. Other nested models in which the paths were unconstrained were also tested. The results showed that the model in which the path from mothers' marital adjustment to fathers' parenting alliance (mothers' partner effect) and the path from fathers' marital adjustment to mothers' parenting alliance (fathers' partner effect) were unconstrained [$\chi^2(3) = 4.94, GFI = .98$] fits significantly better than the constrained model [$df_{diff} = 4, \chi^2_{diff} = 24.91, p < .000$] and the model in which only error variances were unconstrained [$df_{diff} = 2, \chi^2_{diff} = 5.81, p < .05$]. Thus, these results suggest that the data from Turkey and the US were variant in their error variances and in the partner effects of marital adjustment on parenting alliance. While partner effects of marital adjustment on parenting alliance were significant for American parents, there were no partner effects in this relationship for Turkish parents.

a) in Turkey



b) in the US



Note: Standardized solutions and t values (in parentheses) are presented.

Figure 3.1 Actor-Partner Effects of Marital Adjustment in Predicting Parenting Alliance

Second, the relationship between romantic attachment of mothers and fathers and their parenting alliance was also tested for only Turkish sample via APIM. There was no significant partner effect. Actor effects of both mothers' and fathers' avoidance, but not anxiety, was found as significant in predicting spouses their own parenting alliance. This suggests that both mothers ($\beta = -.48, p < .05$) and fathers ($\beta = -.51, p < .05$) having high attachment avoidance tended to have less parenting alliance.

3.3.2. Predicting Postpartum Depression

Postpartum depression was assessed using the EPDS (10 item, min: 0 max: 30) in Turkey, and using the CESD (20 item, min:0, max: 60) in the US. To make them comparable the EPDS was doubled. In both Turkish and American samples, partner effects were not significant. Only actor effects of mothers' parenting alliance on depression were significant. That is, both Turkish mothers ($\beta = -.42, p < .05$) and American mothers ($\beta = -.44, p < .05$) having high level of parenting alliance tended to have lower depression level. Multi-sample path analysis showed that the models in both samples were invariant.

The relationship between romantic attachment and depression was also tested for only Turkish sample. The results showed that there were no significant partner effects, but there were actor effects of attachment anxiety, but not for attachment avoidance, on postpartum depression level for both mothers and fathers. Both mothers ($\beta = 4.70, p < .05$) and fathers ($\beta = 2.67, p < .05$) having high level of attachment anxiety were more likely to have postpartum depression.

3.3.3. Predicting Parenting Stress

Another parenting adjustment variable in the current study was parenting stress that was assessed only in Turkish sample. The APIM test indicated that there were no partner effects of parenting alliance in predicting parenting stress. For actor effects, only fathers' parenting alliance predicted their own parenting stress ($\beta = -.33, p < .05$).

The APIM test was also conducted for the relationships between parents' romantic attachment and their parenting stress. The results showed significant actor and partner effects. Specifically, both mothers' ($\beta = .62, p < .05$) and fathers' ($\beta = .43, p < .05$) attachment anxiety significantly predicted their own parenting stress. Attachment avoidance was predictive of parenting stress for fathers only ($\beta = .30, p < .05$). The only significant partner effect was between mothers' attachment anxiety and fathers' parenting stress ($\beta = .25, p < .05$), suggesting that mothers' attachment anxiety had an effect on not only her own parenting stress, but also her spouse's parenting stress.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

Overall, evidence from this study indicates that both observed and perceived coparenting dynamics in Turkey can be meaningfully assessed with the existing paradigms and instruments are comparable with data from the US, and are systematically related with the other critical proximal family variables. In this section the findings are discussed in two parts. The first part focuses on observed triadic interactions. The applicability of the LTP and the CFRS in Turkish context, and the relationships of observed coparenting with other family variables are discussed. Also, similarities and differences in these observed triadic interactions between Turkey and the US and within-culture differences in Turkey are discussed. In the second part, the associations among self-reported variables are discussed. In this framework, the implications of actor-partner interdependence models tested for parenting alliance, parenting stress, and postpartum depression will be elaborated.

4.1. Observed Triadic Interactions

4.1.1. Applicability of the LTP in Turkey

Although assessing individual characteristics of each family member and of the dyadic relationships among them (mother-child, father-child, mother-father) are important, describing them is not enough to understand the full family environment in which children are socialized. To fully understand dynamics at the level of the family triad or group, it is necessary to assess how family members behave when all together. For this reason, researchers needed new methodological methods to comprehensively evaluate the family as a whole rather than describing only what happened during dyadic interactions.

In order to address this need, two clinical researchers, Fivaz-Depeursinge and Corboz-Warnery (1999), introduced a triadic play called the Lausanne Trilogue Play (LTP), which unites mothers, fathers, and baby. This paradigm makes it possible to observe the triad as a whole, while also observing individual and dyadic contributions at

the same time. They first created this paradigm in their work in clinical context for patients who were psychiatrically disturbed parents and for their infants. It was developed as a clinical tool to evaluate the family's resources and difficulties, and to test clinical assumptions. They conducted in-depth, single-case descriptions of visible triadic interactions, and compared problematic and nonproblematic families to test their clinical hypotheses. Recently, more researchers have started to use the LTP both clinical and research purposes, generating data which makes it possible to test hypotheses with larger samples.

Data from the current study are strongly suggestive that the LTP can be used in the Turkish context. Use of the paradigm might be helpful not only for Turkish clinicians to identify family strengths to promote healthier family functioning, but also for Turkish researchers aiming to assess validly and examine the role that coparenting dynamics play in the adjustment of family members. This tool also might be useful for Turkish interventionists to describe coparenting strengths and areas of need to improve family functioning in their program.

4.1.2. Applicability of the CFRS in Turkey

As a new method shown to be applicable in Turkish context was the Coparenting and Family Rating System (CFRS, McHale et al., 2004). The LTP is very helpful paradigm to solicit and observe triadic interactions, but clinicians, researchers, and interventionists need a tool to evaluate what they see in these interactions. The CFRS had been developed originally for families with older children, but it was adapted for families with children as young as 3 months of age (McHale et al., 2004; McHale & Coates, 2014). It includes several dimensions including cooperation, competition, family warmth, and disengagement. These dimensions capture not only the degree of coordination as characteristics of the coparents' interactions but also the tenor of the family's affective climate.

The current study verified the applicability of the CFRS in the Turkish sample, generating results roughly comparable to those obtained in the US sample. A good level of inter-rater reliability between the coders and the associations of CFRS domains with

other self-reported variables also support its applicability. It also showed that the CFRS could be used to describe mother-grandmother-baby triadic interactions, which promises significant value for the researchers working with coparenting in three-generational family systems.

4.1.3. The Associations of Observed Coparenting with Other Family Variables

As an executive subsystem (Minuchin, 1974), coparenting was expected to be linked with couple relationships and parenting adjustment. As expected, results showed several significant associations among the dimensions of the CFRS and marital adjustment, romantic attachment, parenting stress and postpartum depression for both ‘mother-father-baby’ and ‘mother-grandmother-baby’ triadic interactions.

For ‘mother-father-baby’ triadic interactions, *cooperation* was related to parents’ demographic characteristics, couple relationships, also to parenting adjustment. In demographics characteristics, parents who are older and highly educated were found to be more effective in creating cooperative atmosphere during the triadic interactions, compared to less educated parents. In terms of couple relationship, parents having higher marital adjustment and lower attachment anxiety and avoidance were more likely to demonstrate cooperative behaviors during the interactions. Also, cooperative parents observed during the triadic interactions were less likely to have parenting stress and postpartum depression. In line with the previous studies (McHale & Lindahl, 2011), these results suggest that parents who are socioeconomically privileged and who enjoy better couple relationships tend to be relatively more cooperative, and experience less parenting stress and depression.

Whereas cooperation was related to many family variables, *competition* was significantly related to romantic attachment only. Both mothers’ and fathers’ attachment anxiety and fathers’ attachment avoidance, but not their attachment anxiety, were related to their competitiveness during the triadic interactions. Because of their excessive emotional involvement need, it is possible for parents having higher attachment anxiety to miss the signals of the baby and spouse and be relatively more intrusive in the interactions occurring between spouse and baby. They make more negative comments

about spouse's interactions with the baby and find it difficult to join their interactions without interfering, which might increase competitiveness. For parents with high attachment avoidance, however, it is possible that preference of independence might lead them to prefer play with the child alone rather than playing together with the spouse. Since they might prefer dyadic interactions with baby rather than triadic interactions including all family members, separate interactions of each parent with baby might lead to more competitiveness.

Although the relationships were mostly marginal, there was a trend that *family warmth* was positively related to parents' age, higher education, and better marital adjustment. Again mothers' romantic attachment was related to family warmth. More anxiety and avoidance were associated with lower family warmth. (Low) family warmth was also marginally related to mothers' depression and to fathers' parenting stress. These results suggest that it is possible to observe not only coordination between parents but also affection part of coparenting in 10 minute plays, especially for parents having good couple interactions and having better parenting adjustment.

The associations of observed coparenting with couple relationships and parenting adjustment were in expected direction and were consistent with the literature on families from North American and European nations (McHale & Lindahl, 2011). An expanding point of this study was taking romantic attachment into account. Although adult attachment representations based on relationships with one's own parents (Talbot, Baker, and McHale (2009) had previously been shown to predict observed coparenting, to my knowledge this is the first study examining the role of parents' romantic attachment to one another on observed coparenting. The data suggest that attachment anxiety and avoidance are related in the anticipated direction to cooperation, competition, and warmth during the triadic interactions. These findings suggest that parents who feel uncomfortable for depending on the spouse (higher attachment avoidance), and who feel unworthy of love and lack confidence in spouse's commitment (higher attachment anxiety) might find working together difficult, give less constructive responses to each other and thus have greater difficulty creating harmonious coparenting during the triadic interactions.

For ‘mother-grandmother-baby’ triadic interactions, there were fewer significant associations. Observed cooperation was found marginally significant to be related to both mothers’ and grandmothers’ perceived cocaregiving alliance, which provides partial support for the validity of the CFRS for grandmothers. That finding suggests that mothers and grandmothers who perceive they have a good relationship, perceive them as a good team for baby-caring, and perceive less conflict with others tended to behave more cooperatively during the triadic interactions. In addition, mothers who had better marital adjustment tended to have more cooperative and less competitive interactions with the baby’s grandmother during the triadic interactions.

4.1.4. Similarities and Differences among Triadic Interactions

The current study aimed to provide a comparison between two different samples –Turkey and the US- to demonstrate similarities and differences in the assessment of observed coparenting through the CFRS. Both micro and macro (global) variables of the CFRS were compared between Turkish and American sample. In addition, whether mothers’ behaviors change in the presence of fathers and grandmothers in the Turkish context was examined. Lastly, the similarities and differences as a function of mother education were investigated. Since few studies have used these measures in different samples and cultures, there were no a priori hypotheses regarding possible differences and/or similarities between these two samples.

For *global variables*, there were fewer differences between cultures, but American parents showed more verbal sparring and less sensitivity to the baby compared to Turkish parents. There were no differences observed between ‘mother-father-baby’ and ‘mother-grandmother-baby’. For *micro variables*, mothers and fathers were not different from each other in terms of their *active behaviors* – vocalizations, touches, and expressing positive affect – either in Turkey or the US. Furthermore, mothers’ active behaviors did not differ when they were interacting with fathers or with grandmothers. There were no significant differences between fathers’ and grandmothers’ active behaviors, either. The only significant differences observed between Turkish and American parents were in active behaviors. Turkish parents exhibited more vocalization, use of touch, and expression of positive affect compared to American parents. These

findings imply that Turkish parents were more likely to be actively engaged with their baby while in the presence of the other parent. We can speculate that this might be related to more emotional interdependence in Turkish culture (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2007). This specific finding is important because previous studies examining *dyadic* interactions showed that mothers in Western countries provide more active social behaviors –e.g., vocalizations- (e.g., Karter et al., 2009). Hence, this finding suggests that the differences in parents’ active behaviors across cultures might be reflected in differences in the patterns of dyadic and triadic interactions.

Passive behaviors of parents – that is, behaviors exhibited by “third party” parents when the other parent was actively playing with the baby -- were also observed along dimensions of watching-being engaged, watching/not engaged, or disengaged. Flirting or distracting the ongoing interaction while in the third party role was also coded. The results showed that, compared to fathers, mothers were more likely to be engaged when the other parent was playing with the baby. This was true in both Turkish and American samples. However, for flirtations and distractions there were no significant differences between mothers and fathers. These findings suggest that mothers were engaged, but not distracting in both cultures, suggesting the prior role of mothers in caregiving.

Although mothers’ active behaviors did not show any significant difference while they were interacting with fathers or grandmothers, there were differences in their passive behaviors. Mothers were more likely to be watching/engaged when father was playing with the baby than they were when grandmother was playing with the baby. This difference might be explained with that mothers might see father-baby interactions more interesting and enjoyable compared to grandmother-baby interactions. Considering the fact that fathers spend less time with the baby in a day compared to grandmothers, their interactions might be more interesting for mothers, that’s why they stay engaged and smile most of the time. Mothers might see these limited times as opportunity to observe interactions with their spouses and baby, and they enjoy them. However, since grandmothers spend a lot of time with baby especially in the first months, mothers might be relatively less interested in their interactions. Also, mothers might see grandmothers

mainly as helper for childcare rather than real coparent, which might reduce their engagement during passive role.

For their part, grandmothers were both flirting and distracting as compared with both mothers and fathers. These flirting and distractions were mainly showing affections rather than criticizing the mother. It seems little difficult for grandmothers to stop themselves to show positive affects even though they were supposed to be passive while mother was playing with the baby. As lovely grandmothers, they might see acceptable to distract whenever they want even though it is not asked. Another interesting finding was that the only difference between the interactions with maternal and paternal grandmothers was family warmth. The interactions with maternal grandmothers had significantly higher family warmth than those with paternal grandmothers. This suggests that, even though mothers can play cooperatively with both maternal and paternal grandmothers may be because of politeness, they can create more warmth during the interactions with their own mothers perhaps since they feel more intimacy with them. In cross-cultural comparison, both mothers and fathers in Turkey were more engaged during the passive role compared to American parents. In addition, Turkish fathers were more distracting compared to American fathers. Relatively more distracting behaviors and more engagement seen in Turkish sample might be explained with enmeshed dynamics seen in Turkey. In enmeshed families parents tend to be intrusively involved in children and their partners (Minuchin & Nichols, 1993). In Turkish families, a high level of intimacy, emotional interdependence, and less personal boundaries among family members might be seen an enmeshment and norm of Turkish families (Sunar & Fişek, 2005). Thus, such more engaged and distracting behaviors seen in triadic interactions might be related to cultural norms seen in Turkey.

4.1.5. Mother Education as a Function of Observed Triadic Interactions

Given that mother education is an important factor related to many family dynamics in Turkish context (Kağıtçıbaşı & Ataca, 2005, Sümer et al., 2008), observed triadic interactions were compared as a function of maternal education. The results provide some meaningful differences between high and low educated mothers. Specifically, families with highly educated mothers were more likely to express active

social behaviors and less likely to show flirting and distractive behaviors in ‘mother-father-baby’ triadic interactions. Also, in those families parents had more active-coaction, fathers showed more benign cooperation, mothers showed less disengagement compared to those with lower educated ones. These findings were consistent with global variables of the CFRS showing that higher educated mothers and their spouses tended to have more cooperation, family warmth, sensitivity to baby, and less verbal sparring compared to less educated mothers. In ‘mother-grandmother-baby’ triadic interactions too, in families with highly educated mothers, cocaregivers had more cooperation as well as less competition and disengagement than in families with low educated mothers. When mother education level was included as a grouping variable in cross-cultural comparisons, American and highly educated Turkish mothers were similar to each other, both were separated from the low educated Turkish mothers, especially in cooperation. Also, more verbal sparring and less sensitivity were observed in families with low educated Turkish mothers than in American families and Turkish families with highly educated mothers.

These results demonstrated the importance of within-culture analyses in addition to across cultures to fully understand how coparenting interactions take shape in different families. Mother’s level of education was found as an important factor in within culture analyses in differentiating families in observed and perceived coparenting. This result provides a supporting evidence for the previous studies documenting maternal education, among socio-demographic factors, as the strongest familial predictor of parenting and child development especially in developing countries (Boyle et al., 2006, Valenzuela, 1997) and Turkey (Kağıtçıbaşı & Ataca, 2005; Sümer et al., 2008). With the current study, previous studies showing the role of mother education on family dynamics was extended to its role on coparenting dynamics. In the future studies, other variables potentially related to mother education (e.g., social norms, awareness of child development) might be investigated to understand why mother education is such a powerful indicator for coparenting.

4.2. Self Reported Family Variables

In addition to triadic interactions and observed coparenting, parents reported on a number of family variables, making possible the investigation of relationships among perceived coparenting, marital adjustment, romantic attachment, and parents' stress and depression levels.

Correlational analyses provided evidence that parenting alliance -parents' perception of the strength of the coparental relationship they were developing with their spouse- were related to other family variables. Specifically, both mothers and fathers' parenting alliance were correlated with marital adjustment moderately in both Turkey and the US, which supports that coparenting and marital relationships are distinct but interrelated concepts. However, in order to see the direction of this relationship more longitudinal studies should be conducted. Although falling short of statistical significance, the relationship between these variables tended to be stronger for fathers compared to mothers in Turkey. This might signify that fathers see marital and coparenting dynamics as more similar than do mothers in Turkey. In the US sample, parenting alliance was related to not only parents' own marital adjustment but also to the spouse's marital adjustment. Given that finding, actor-partner interdependence model tests were conducted with both Turkish and the US samples. The results showed that for both cultures parents' own marital adjustment predicted their own parenting alliance. The interesting finding was that in the US sample, partner effects were also significant. That means, parents' marital adjustment predicted not only their own parenting alliance but also their spouses' parenting alliance. Unexpectedly there was no partner effect on marital adjustment in the Turkish sample. This finding requires further exploration. It is plausible to argue that gender roles including the division of labor in childcare are clearly defined in Turkish cultures and this reflects itself in the evaluation of marital adjustment as a relatively personal domain rather than a typical interpersonal process as it is in the Western cultures.

The role of romantic attachment on perceived coparenting alliance was also examined. Both correlational and APIM tests showed that parents' own attachment avoidance –but not anxiety- related to their perceived parenting alliance. That means that

parents who are not comfortable on depending to his/her spouse and having close intimacy with the spouse were less likely to better perceived parenting alliance. These results suggest that attachment avoidance might be more important indicator rather than attachment anxiety for parenting alliance in Turkish culture. This might be explained with the difference in perceptions of attachment anxiety and avoidance in Turkey. While attachment anxiety can be tolerated since it has been found as more common in Turkish culture, attachment avoidance can be a critical risk factor in Turkey where relationship harmony and interdependence are highlighted (Sümer & Kağıtçıbaşı, 2010). Previous studies in Turkey supported that by showing the links between attachment avoidance and family dynamics such as parenting (Selçuk et al., 2010) and marital adjustment (Sümer & Kağıtçıbaşı, 2010; Özen, 2012). With the current study the evidence of important role of attachment avoidance in Turkey was extended with its link with perceived alliance.

The predictors of parenting adjustment –stress and depression- were also examined. While postpartum depression was predicted by mothers' own parenting alliance in both Turkish and American samples, parenting stress was predicted by only fathers' own parenting alliance (not assessed in the US sample). These results suggest that parenting alliance might be related to parenting adjustment differently for mothers and for fathers. While a strong alliance appeared most strongly connected to lower levels of maternal depression, for fathers the connection was strongest for low levels of stress. This finding is different from previous studies documenting that parenting alliance is related to both mothers' and fathers' depression and parenting alliance (McHale & Lindahl, 2011). Therefore, in the further studies are needed be conducted to see how parenting alliance is linked with parenting adjustment differently for mothers and fathers.

4.3. Limitations and Conclusion

The present study had some limitations that should be considered in interpreting the results. First, relatively small sample size was used in both samples, which might reduce power of the results. Second, since there were no specific priori hypotheses regarding particular triadic interaction differences, all post hoc interpretations must be

regarded as speculative. Third, since the data had cross-sectional nature it is difficult to establish causal relationships among the variables. The relationships of coparenting with other variables might be bidirectional. Thus, in the future studies longitudinal studies might be conducted to see causal relationships. Lastly, although coparenting was assessed via self-reports and observations, other family variables were assessed via only self-report which might increase common-method variance. In the future studies the individual and couple variables among mothers, fathers, and grandmothers might be evaluated via interviews and/or observations

Despite its limitations, this study contributed to the literature by demonstrating that coparenting dynamics in Turkey, both observed or perceived, can be meaningfully assessed with the paradigm and tools used. These tools might be useful not only for researchers but also clinicians and interventionists working on family dynamics. Similarities and differences in triadic interactions across and within cultures were also shown. Mother education level was found as very important function on the differences in triadic interactions. Another critical contribution of the study was the inclusion of grandmothers first time for coparenting dynamics in families. This might be helpful for the future studies focusing on multigenerational family systems in Turkey. Lastly, the current study provided evidence for the links between coparenting, demographics, couple relationships and parenting adjustment. As a conclusion, a better understanding of coparenting dynamics and its relationships with other family variables might help guide parents' awareness of the interconnected family relationships and also provide guidance for interventionists seeking to help families provide more harmonious family environment.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A. Ethical Committee Approval

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
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17.09.2013

Gönderilen : Prof. Dr. Nebi Sümer
Psikoloji Bölümü

Gönderen : Prof. Dr. Canan Özgen
IAK Başkanı

İlgili : Etik Onayı

Danışmanlığını yapmış olduğunuz Psikoloji Bölümü Doktora öğrencisi Selin Salman Engin'in "Ortak Ebeveyn Davranışlarının ve Aile Dinamiklerinin Kültürlerarası İncelenmesi" isimli araştırması "İnsan Araştırmaları Komitesi" tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Etik Komite Onayı
Uygundur
17/09/2013

Prof. Dr. Canan Özgen
Uygulamalı Etik Araştırma Merkezi
(UEAM) Başkanı
ODTÜ 06531 ANKARA

2009.2013 21

Appendix B. Project Flyer



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TÜRKİYE BİLİMLER
AKADEMİSİ

ODTÜ'DE YÜRÜTÜLEN BİLİMSEL BİR ARAŞTIRMA İÇİN GÖNÜLLÜ AİLELER ARANIYOR

“Anne ve Babaların Ortak Ebeveyn Davranışlarının ve Aile Dinamiklerinin
Farklı Ülkelerde İncelenmesi”

Çalışmanın amacı nedir? Bu çalışmanın amacı, ortak ebeveynlik davranışlarının Türkiye ve ABD örnekleriyle karşılaştırılması ve bu davranışlarla ilişkili olan olumlu/olumsuz aile faktörlerinin araştırılmasıdır.

Çalışma nasıl uygulanıyor? Çalışma yaklaşık 1.5 saat süren ev ziyaretleriyle yapılmaktadır. Anne ve babalardan bebekleriyle 10 dakika boyunca oynamaları istenmekte ve bu etkileşimler video kaydına alınmaktadır. Aynı şekilde, bebeğin günlük bakımında anne ve babaya yardımcı olan bir büyükannenin (anneanne ya da babanne) anneye birlikte bebekle 10 dakika oynamaları istenmekte ve bu etkileşimler de kaydedilmektedir. Daha sonra anne, baba ve büyükanneden anket doldurmaları istenmektedir. Yapılacak gözlemlerin bebeğinin psikolojik gelişimine hiçbir olumsuz etkisi yoktur.

Çalışmaya kimler katılabilir? Aşağıdaki özelliklere sahip tüm aileler çalışmaya katılabilir:

- Anne ve babanın evli ve beraber yaşıyor olması,
- Bebeğin ilk ya da 2. çocuk olması
- Bebeğin en az 90 en çok 120 günlük olması,
- Bir büyükannenin çocuğun bakımında anne ve babaya yardımcı olması (büyükannenin aileyle aynı evde yaşaması şart değildir).

Katılan ailelere katkılarından dolayı 100TL takdim edilecektir.

Detaylı bilgi almak ve/veya katılımcı olmak için lütfen aşağıdaki numarayı arayınız:

05.. (ya da .. adresine e-posta atınız.)

Bu çalışma ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü doktora öğrencisi Selin Salman-Engin ve yüksek lisans öğrencisi Ece Sağel tarafından, Prof. Dr. Nebi Sümer ve Prof. Dr. James McHale'in danışmanlığında yürütülmekte olan doktora tezi çalışmasıdır ve Türkiye Bilimler Akademisi (TÜBA) tarafından desteklenmektedir.

Appendix C. Contact form



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TÜRKİYE BİLİMLER
AKADEMİSİ

AİLE İLETİŞİM FORMU

Adınız, Soyadınız: _____
Telefon Numaranız: _____
Ev Adresiniz: _____

Çalışmaya sizinle katılacak çocuğunuzun ismi: _____
Çalışmaya sizinle katılacak babanın ismi: _____
Çalışmaya sizinle katılacak büyükannenin ismi: _____
Çocuğunuzun doğum tarihi: (gün/ay/yıl) _____

Lütfen aşağıdaki soruları yanıtlayınız:

1) Anne ve Baba evli ve beraber mi yaşıyor?	<input type="checkbox"/> Evet	<input type="checkbox"/> Hayır
2) Anne ve babanın ilk çocuğu mu?	<input type="checkbox"/> Evet	<input type="checkbox"/> Hayır
Hayır ise kaçınıcı çocuk? _____ Kardeşin yaşı? _____		
3) Büyükannelerden birisi çocuğunuzun bakımında sizlere yardımcı oluyor mu?	<input type="checkbox"/> Evet	<input type="checkbox"/> Hayır

Appendix D. Informed Consent Form



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TÜRKİYE BİLİMLER
AKADEMİSİ

Gönüllü Katılım Formu

Bu çalışmanın amacı, ortak ebeveynlik davranışlarının Türkiye ve ABD örnekleriyle karşılaştırılması ve bu davranışlarla ilişkili olan olumlu/olumsuz aile değişkenlerinin araştırılmasıdır. Bu çalışma, ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü doktora öğrencisi Selin Salman-Engin'in doktora tezi çalışmasıdır ve Prof. Dr. Nebi Sümer ve Prof. Dr. James McHale'in danışmanlığında yürütülmekte, Türkiye Bilimler Akademisi (TÜBA) tarafından desteklenmektedir.

Çalışma yaklaşık 1.5 saat süren ev ziyaretleriyle yapılacaktır. Anne ve babalardan bebekleriyle 10 dakika boyunca oynamaları istenecek ve bu etkileşimler video kaydına alınacaktır. Aynı şekilde, çocuğun bakımında anne ve babaya yardımcı olan bir büyükannenin (anneanne ya da babanne) anneye birlikte bebekle 10 dakika oynamaları istenecek ve bu etkileşimler de kaydedilecektir. Yapılacak gözlemlerin bebeğinizin psikolojik gelişimine olumsuz hiç bir etkisi olmadığından emin olabilirsiniz. Gözlemlerden sonra anne, baba ve büyükanneden anket doldurmaları istenecektir.

Çalışmaya katılım tamamen gönüllü bir katkıdır. Kayıt edilen aile etkileşimleri ve cevaplandırılan anketler tamamıyla gizli tutulacak, sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecek ve elde edilecek bilgiler bilimsel yayın ve sunumlarda kullanılacaktır. Gözlemler ya da anketler genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek unsurlar içermemektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında gözlemden ya da sorulardan herhangi bir nedenle kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz çalışmayı yarıda bırakma hakkına sahipsiniz.

Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için doktora öğrencisi Selin Salman-Engin (selin.salman@gmail.com) ya da Prof. Dr. Nebi Sümer (nsumer@metu.edu.tr) ile iletişime geçebilirsiniz.

Teşekkürler, saygılar.

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

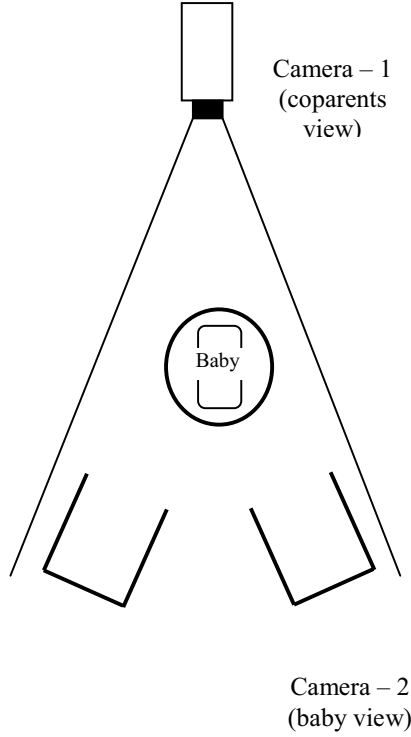
Anne Adı Soyadı: İmza

Baba Adı Soyadı: İmza

Büyükanne Adı Soyadı: İmza

Appendix E. Instructions for Lausanne Trilogue Play Paradigm

LTP (Lozan Üçlü Oyun) Düzeni



LTP (Lozan Üçlü Oyun) Yönergesi

Bu etkinlikte sizden aile olarak üçünüzün birlikte oynamanızı istiyoruz. Lütfen, bebeğinizi anakucağına oturtun, siz de bebeğinize ve birbirinize bakacak şekilde (üçgen şeklinde) sandalyelere oturun. Bu etkinlik 4 bölümden oluşmaktadır. İlk bölümde, önce ilk kimin bebeğinizle oynayacağına karar verin. Örneğin ilk annenin oynamasına karar verdiyseniz, anne normal günlük hayatında bebekle nasıl oynuyorsa bebekle öyle oynayacak ve onunla ilgilenecektir. Bu sırada baba sadece oturacaktır. Bir süre sonra, siz ne zaman kendinizi hazır hissederseniz ikinci bölüme geçiniz. İkinci bölümde rolleri değiştiriniz. Örneğin, ilk bölümde anne bebekle oynadı ise, ikinci bölümde baba bebekle oynayacak ve anne de sadece oturacaktır. Siz ne zaman kendinizi hazır hissederseniz üçüncü bölüme geçebilirsiniz. Üçüncü bölümde her ikiniz de bebekle oynayacaksınız. Yine kendinizi hazır hissettiğinizde dördüncü ve son bölüme geçiniz. Bu bölümde siz birbirinizle konuşacak ve bebek sadece oturacaktır. Kimin önce başlayacağına ve her bölümün ne kadar süreceğine siz karar verebilirsiniz. Bebek koltuğunu çevirmekte ya da kaydırmakta serbestsiniz. Hazır olduğunuzda başlayabilir ve bitirmek istediğinizde seslenebilirsiniz.

Appendix F. The Questionnaire for Mothers



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TÜRKİYE BİLİMLER
AKADEMİSİ

Sayın Anne,

Çalışmamıza ailenizle birlikte katıldığınız için teşekkür ederiz. Sizden bazı soruları cevaplandırmanızı istiyoruz. Cevaplandıracağınız sorulardan oluşan anket ektedir. Lütfen her soru grubunun başındaki açıklamaları dikkatlice okuyun ve değerlendirmelerinizi buna göre yapın. Soruları cevaplarken acele etmeyin. Rahatsız edilmeyeceğiniz bir zaman seçin. Hiçbir sorunun doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur. Bu nedenle lütfen değerlendirmelerinizi gerçek duygu ve düşüncelerinizi yansıtacak şekilde yapın. Soruları gerçek durumunuzu ve duygularınızı yansıtacak şekilde cevaplamanız bu araştırma için çok büyük önem taşımaktadır. Cevaplarınız kesinlikle gizli tutulacak ve bu anketten elde edilen bilgiler yalnızca araştırma amacına yönelik olarak kullanılacaktır.

Araştırma sonuçlarının sağlıklı olması ve çocukların duygusal gelişimini etkileyen faktörlerin saptanması için önemli olan sizin cevaplarınızdır. Bu yüzden, lütfen anketi doldururken sorular hakkında eşinizle ya da başka birileriyle görüş alışverişinde bulunmayın ve soruları eşinizden ya da başkalarından etkilenmeden yalnız başınıza cevaplandırın. Soruların tamamını cevapladıktan sonra, anketi size verilen zarfa koyarak zarfı kapatın. Daha sonra, bu zarfı sizden kapalı bir şekilde biz teslim alacağız.

Araştırmayla ilgili sorularımızı aşağıdaki e-posta adresini kullanarak bize yöneltebilirsiniz. Katılımınız için tekrar teşekkür ederiz.

Saygılarımızla,

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Sosyal Psikoloji Doktora Öğrencisi
Psikoloji Bölümü
Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi

AİLEYE İLİŞKİN SORULAR

1. Bebeğinizin doğum tarihi (gün / ay / yıl)

2. Bebeğiniz kaç kilo doğdu? kilo gram

3. Bebeğiniz şu anda kaç kilo? kilo gram

4. Bebeğinizin cinsiyeti nedir?

- Kız
 Erkek

5. Bebeğinizin nesi oluyorsunuz?

- Öz anne
 Koruyucu anne
 Evlat edinen anne
 Üvey anne
 Diğer (lütfen belirtiniz)

6. Kaç yaşındasınız?

7. Bebeğinizin kaç kardeşi var?

- Hiç
 Bir
 İki
 Üç veya daha fazla

8. Eşimle;

- Evliyiz ve birlikte yaşıyoruz
 Evliyiz, ayrı yaşıyoruz
 Boşandık
 Diğer (belirtiniz)

8b. Evliyseniz:

Ne kadar süredir evlisiniz? yıl ay
Bu kaçınıcı evliliğiniz?

9. Şu an sizin ve ailenizin sağlık durumları nasıl? (Lütfen her kişi için tek bir seçenek işaretleyiniz)

	Çok kötü	Kötü	Orta derece	İyi	Çok iyi
Bebeğiniz	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Siz	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Eşiniz	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

10. Evinizde siz, eşiniz ve bebeğiniz dışında sizinle yaşayan başkaları var mı?

- Hayır
 Evet (lütfen belirtiniz)

11. Bebeğinizin günlük bakımıyla sizden başka kimler ilgileniyor? (birden fazla seçenek işaretleyebilirsiniz)

- Eşim
 Anneanne
 Babaanne
 Evde bakıcı
 Kreş
 Arkadaş/komşu
 Diğer (belirtiniz)

12. Çalışmaya sizinle katılan büyükanne ne sıklıkla sizi ve bebeğinizi ziyarete geliyor?

- Beraber yaşıyoruz Hergün Haftada 4-6 Haftada 2-3 Haftada bir
 İki haftada bir Ayda 2-3 Diğer (belirtiniz)

13. Şuanda bebeğinizin bakımında kimlerden ne kadar yardım aldığınızı lütfen işaretleyiniz

(Lütfen her kişi için bir seçenek işaretleyiniz)

	Hiç yardım almıyorum	Pek yardım almıyorum	Kararsızım	Yardım alıyorum	Çok yardım alıyorum
- Eşim	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
- Anneanne	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
- Babaanne	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
- Evde bakıcı	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
- Diğer (belirtiniz)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

14. Şuanda bebeğinizin bakımında yardım aldığınız kişilerin yardımından ne kadar memnunsunuz?

(Lütfen her kişi için bir seçenek işaretleyiniz)

	Hiç memnun değilim	Pek memnun değilim	Kararsızım	Memnunum	Çok memnunum
- Eşim	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
- Anneanne	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
- Babaanne	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
- Evde bakıcı	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
- Diğer (belirtiniz)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

15. Bebeğinizin günlük bakımı ile büyükanneye (çalışmaya katılan) kıyasla ne kadar ilgileniyorsunuz?

- Büyükanneden çok daha az
 Büyükanneden daha az
 Büyükanne kadar
 Büyükanneden fazla
 Büyükanneden çok daha fazla

16. Bebek bakımı konusunda büyükanneden (çalışmaya katılan);

- çok daha fazla bilgiliyim
 daha bilgiliyim
 aynı derecede bilgiliyiz
 daha az bilgiliyim
 çok daha az bilgiliyim

17. Bebeğimin bakımında büyükanne;

- beklediğimden çok daha fazla yardım ediyor
- beklediğimden daha fazla yardım ediyor
- beklediğim kadar yardım ediyor
- beklediğimden daha az yardım ediyor
- beklediğimden çok daha az yardım ediyor

18. Hamileliğiniz planlı mıydı?

- Evet
- Hayır

19. Hamileliğiniz nasıl geçti?

- Çok sağlıklı geçti
- Genellikle sağlıklı geçti, ancak ufak tefek sorunlar yaşadım
- Çok sağlık sorunları yaşadım
- Diğer (belirtiniz)

20. Hamileliğiniz sırasında eşinizden ne kadar destek aldınız?

- Hiç destek almadım
- Pek destek almadım
- Kararsızım
- Destek aldım
- Çok destek aldım

21. Hamileliğiniz sırasında büyükanneden (çalışmaya katılan) ne kadar destek aldınız?

- Hiç destek almadım
- Pek destek almadım
- Kararsızım
- Destek aldım
- Çok destek aldım

22. Ev işlerini;

- Tek başıma yaparım
- Ben daha çok yaparım ama eşim de bana yardımcı olur
- Eşimle birlikte eşit yaparız
- Eşim daha çok yapar ama ben de yardımcı olurum
- Sadece eşim yapar, ben yapamam / yapmam
- Diğer (belirtiniz)

23. Bebeğimin günlük bakımında eşim;

- beklediğimden çok daha fazla yardım ediyor
- beklediğimden daha fazla yardım ediyor
- beklediğim kadar yardım ediyor
- beklediğimden daha az yardım ediyor
- beklediğimden çok daha az yardım ediyor

24. Bebeğinizle yalnız kalmak ve bakımıyla tek başınıza ilgilenmek sizi ne kadar kaygılandırıyor?

- Çok kaygılandırıyor
- Biraz kaygılandırıyor
- Çok az kaygılandırıyor
- Hiç kaygılandırmıyor

25. Bebek bakımıyla ilgili bilgi ve deneyimlerinizi ne şekilde edindiniz?
(Lütfen her madde için bir seçenek işaretleyiniz)

	Hiç	Biraz	Çok Fazla
- Televizyon, internet, kitaplardan bilgi edindim	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
- Çevremdeki insanlardan ve büyüklerimden dinleyerek bilgi edindim	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
- Bebek bakımıyla ilgili eğitim aldım	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
- Önceden tanıdıklarımın bebekleriyle ilgilendim	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
- İşim gereği çocuk bakımı konusunda deneyimliyim	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
- Diğer (belirtiniz)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

26. Geçen yıl içinde:

a. Yakınlarınızdan hayatını kaybeden oldu mu?	Evet	Hayır
Yakınlığı		
b. Eşinizin yakınlarından hayatını kaybeden oldu mu?	Evet	Hayır
Yakınlığı		
c. Aile üyelerinden birinin uzun süreli (2 aydan fazla) tedavi ya da hastane bakımı gerektiren ciddi bir sağlık sorunu oldu mu?	Evet	Hayır
Yakınlığı Sorun neydi?		

27. Size en uygun seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

Ev hanımıyım Çalışıyorum (doğum izni dışında) İşsizim Emekliyim

Varsa, mesleğiniz

Çalışmıyor iseniz lütfen 28. soruya geçiniz.

27a. Hamileliğiniz ile ilgili doğum öncesi ve sonrasında iş yerinizle bir sorun yaşadınız mı?

- Hiç sorun yaşamadım
 Çok az sorun yaşadım
 Biraz sorun yaşadım
 Çok sorun yaşadım

27b. Kaç ay sonra işe tekrar başlamayı planlıyorsunuz? ay

27c. Tekrar işe başladığınızda bebeğinizin bakımında size kim/kimler yardımcı olacak? (birden fazla seçenek işaretleyebilirsiniz)

- Kimse
 Eşim
 Anneanne
 Babaanne
 Kreş

- Diğer (belirtiniz)
- Henüz karar vermedim

27d. Tekrar işe başlayacak olmak sizi kaygılandırıyor mu?

- Çok kaygılandırıyor
- Biraz kaygılandırıyor
- Çok az kaygılandırıyor
- Hiç kaygılandırmıyor

28. Evinize giren aylık gelir miktarını işaretleyiniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
500 TL ve altı	500 – 1000 TL	1000 – 1500 TL	1500 – 2000 TL	2000 – 3000 TL	3000 – 5000 TL	5000 – 7000 TL	7.000 - 10.000 TL	10.000 – 15.000 TL	15.000 TL ve üzeri

29. Maddi sıkıntı çekiyor musunuz?

- Hiç sıkıntı çekmiyoruz
- Biraz sıkıntı çekiyoruz
- Çok sıkıntı çekiyoruz

30. Bebeğiniz doğduktan sonra maddi sıkıntılarınız arttı mı?

- Hayır hiç artmadı
- Evet biraz arttı
- Evet çok arttı

31. Eğitim düzeyinizi işaretleyiniz.

<input type="radio"/>	Okuma yazma bilmiyorum
<input type="radio"/>	İlkokul
<input type="radio"/>	Ortaokul
<input type="radio"/>	Lise
<input type="radio"/>	Yüksek okul (2 yıllık)
<input type="radio"/>	Üniversite (4 yıllık)
<input type="radio"/>	Master (Yüksek lisans) veya Doktora

32. Genel olarak evliliğinizden ne kadar memnunsunuz?

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

Hiç memnun değilim Memnun değilim Biraz memnun değilim Biraz memnunum Memnunum Çok memnunum

33. Genel olarak yaşamınızdan ne kadar memnunsunuz?

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

Hiç memnun değilim Memnun değilim Biraz memnun değilim Biraz memnunum Memnunum Çok memnunum

<p>Aşağıda bebeğinizin büyütürken eşinizle olan işbirliğiniz hakkında cümleler verilmiştir. Lütfen eşinizle ilişkinizi göz önünde bulundurarak bu cümlelere ne ölçüde katıldığınızı belirtiniz. Her bir ifadenin duygu ve düşüncelerinizi ne oranda yansıttığını karşısındaki 5 aralıklı cetvel üzerindeki ilgili rakamı yuvarlak içine alarak belirtiniz.</p> <p>1-----2-----3-----4-----5</p> <p>Hiç Biraz Kararsızım/ Biraz Tamamen</p> <p>katılmıyorum katılmıyorum fikrim yok katılıyorum katılıyorum</p>	Hiç Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım/fikrim yok	Biraz Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
1. Eşim bebeğimizle yalnız kalmaktan hoşlanır.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Hamilelik döneminde eşim, benim iyi bir anne olabileceğime olan güvenini gösterdi.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Bebeğimizle ilgili bir problem yaşadığımızda, eşimle birlikte iyi bir çözüm bulabiliyoruz.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Eşimle bebeğimiz hakkında oldukça iyi konuşabiliyoruz.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Eşim, bebeğimizin bakımı için gerekirse her zaman fedakarlık yapmaya hazırdır.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Eşimle bebeğimiz hakkında bir şey konuşmak beni sevindirir.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Eşim bebeğimize karşı oldukça ilgilidir.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Eşimle ben çocuğumuzun neyi yapması/neyi yapmaması konusunda aynı fikre sahibiz.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Eşimi bebeğimizle birlikte oynarken gördüğümde, kendimi eşime daha yakın hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Eşim çocuklarla nasıl ilgilenilmesi gerektiğini iyi bilir.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Eşim ve ben iyi bir takımızdır.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Eşim benim iyi bir anne olduğuma inanır.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Eşimin iyi bir baba olduğuna inanırım.	1	2	3	4	5

14. Eşim benim annelik görevimi yapmamı kolaylaştırıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Ben bebeğimizin işaretlerinden ne anlarsam eşim de aynısını anlar.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Eşim ve ben bebeğimizi temelde aynı şekilde tanımlar, anlatırız.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Çocuğumuzun cezalandırılması gerekiyorsa eşim ve ben nasıl ceza verileceği konusunda aynı fikirde oluruz.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Eşimin bebeğimiz için doğru olduğuna inandığı kararlardan memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Eşim benim iyi bir anne olduğumu söyler.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Eşimle ben bebeğimiz için aynı amaçlara sahibiz.	1	2	3	4	5

<p>Aşağıda bebeğinizi büyütürken karşılaşılabileceğiniz zorluklar hakkında cümleler verilmiştir. Lütfen her bir ifadenin duygu ve düşüncelerinizi ne oranda yansıttığını karşılardaki 5 aralıklı cetvel üzerinde ilgili rakamı yuvarlak içine alarak belirtiniz.</p> <p>1-----2-----3-----4-----5</p> <p>Hiç Biraz Kararsızım/ Biraz Tamamen</p> <p>katılmıyorum katılmıyorum fikrim yok katılıyorum katılıyorum</p>						Hiç Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım/fikrim yok	Biraz Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
1. Çoğu zaman bazı şeylerin üstesinden gelemiyormuşum hissine kapılıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5					
2. Bebeğimin ihtiyaçlarını karşılayabilmek için beklemediğim kadar çok şeyden vazgeçtiğimi fark ediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5					
3. Annelik görevlerimi yaparken kendimi kapana kısılmış gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5					
4. Bebek sahibi olduğumdan beri yeni ve değişik şeyler yapamadım.	1	2	3	4	5					
5. Bebek sahibi olduğumdan beri severek yaptığım şeyleri artık neredeyse hiç yapamaz hale geldim.	1	2	3	4	5					

6. Kendim için yaptığım son alışverişten hiç memnun kalmadım.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Hayatımla ilgili beni rahatsız eden bazı şeyler var.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Çocuk sahibi olmak eşimle olan ilişkimde beklediğimden çok daha fazla soruna yol açtı.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Kendimi yalnız ve hiç arkadaşım yokmuş gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Arkadaşlarımla buluşmaya gittiğimde pek keyif almayacağımı düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
11. İnsanlara olan ilgim eskisine göre azaldı.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Eskiden zevk aldığım şeylerden artık zevk almıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Bebeğim beni mutlu edecek şeyleri çok nadiren yapıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Bebeğim için birşeyler yaptığımda çabalarımın yeteri kadar takdir edilmediği hissine kapılıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Bebeğim bana beklediğimden daha az gülümsüyor.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Bazen bebeğimin benden hoşlanmadığı ve bana yakın olmak istemediği hissine kapılıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Bebeğim çok hassastır ve çok kolay huzursuzlanır.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Bebeğim diğer bebekler kadar hızlı öğrenemiyormuş gibi geliyor.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Bebeğim diğer bebekler kadar çok gülümsemiormuş gibi geliyor.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Bebeğim beklediğim kadar çok şey yapamıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Bebeğimin yeni şeylere alışması hem zor hem de çok uzun zaman alıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Ben.... (aşağıdaki seçeneklerden birini seçiniz): <input type="radio"/> Çok iyi bir anneyim <input type="radio"/> Ortalamadan daha iyi bir anneyim <input type="radio"/> Ortalama düzeyde bir anneyim <input type="radio"/> Annelik konusunda biraz sorun yaşayan biriyim <input type="radio"/> Annelik konusunda iyi değilim					
23. Bebeğim için daha yakın ve sıcak duygular hissetmeyi bekliyordum ve bu beni rahatsız ediyor.	1	2	3	4	5

24. Bazen bebeğim sırf beni kızdırmak için birşeyler yapıyor gibi.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Bebeğim diğer bebeklere göre daha fazla ağlar ve huysuzlanır.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Bebeğim uyandığında ruh hali genellikle kötüdür.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Bebeğimin huysuz ve kolayca mutsuz olduğunu hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Ortalama bir bebeğe göre, bebeğim günlük planı bozulduğunda ya da evde bir değişiklik olduğunda buna uyum sağlamakta çok zorlanır.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Hoşlanmadığı bir şey olduğunda bebeğim çok fazla tepki gösteriyor.	1	2	3	4	5
30. Kendisiyle oynandığında bebeğim gülmez veya kıkırdamaz.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Bebeğimin yeme ve uyku düzenini oturtmak beklediğimden çok daha zormuş.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Bebeğime bir şey yaptırmak ya da birşeyi yapmasını engellemek: <input type="radio"/> Beklediğimden çok daha zormuş <input type="radio"/> Beklediğimden biraz daha zormuş <input type="radio"/> Beklediğim kadar zormuş <input type="radio"/> Beklediğimden kolaymış <input type="radio"/> Beklediğimden çok daha kolaymış					
33. Dikkatlice düşünün ve bebeğinizin sizi rahatsız eden davranışlarının yaklaşık ne kadar olduğunu sayın. Bu sayıyı aşağıdaki uygun seçeneği işaretleyerek belirtin. Örneğin, bebeğinizin ağlaması, sizi dinlememesi, çok hareketli olması, kızması, mızızlanması v.b. (aşağıdaki seçeneklerden birini seçiniz): <input type="radio"/> 1-3 <input type="radio"/> 4-5 <input type="radio"/> 6-7 <input type="radio"/> 8-9 <input type="radio"/> 10'dan fazla					
34. Bebeğimin yaptığı bazı şeyler var ki beni gerçekten çok rahatsız ediyor.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Bebeğimin davranışları beklediğimden çok daha problemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
36. Bebeğim diğer bebeklere göre beni çok daha fazla zorluyor.	1	2	3	4	5

<p>Aşağıda verilen cümlelere ne ölçüde katıldığınızı <u>eşinizle olan ilişkinizi göz önünde bulundurarak cevaplayınız.</u> Her maddenin evliliğinizdeki duygu ve düşüncelerinizi ne oranda yansıttığını karşılardaki 5 aralıklı cetvel üzerinde ilgili rakamı yuvarlak içine alarak belirtiniz. Eğer eşinizi kaybettiyeniz veya eşinizden ayrı yaşıyorsanız, aşağıdaki maddeleri <u>bir ilişki içinde bulunduğunuzu varsayarak cevaplayınız.</u></p> <p>1-----2-----3-----4-----5</p> <p>Hiç Biraz Kararsızım/ Biraz Tamamen katılmıyorum katılmıyorum fikrim yok katılıyorum katılıyorum</p> <p>ÖNEMLİ NOT: Aşağıdaki cümlelerin bazılarında “yakın olmak” veya “yakınlaşmak” ifadeleri geçmektedir. Bu ifadelerle kastedilen eşinizle duygusal yakınlık kurmak, düşüncelerinizi veya başınızdaki geçenleri eşinize açmak, eşinize sarılmak ve benzeri davranışlardır. Lütfen ilgili soruları bu tanıma göre cevaplayınız.</p>	Hiç Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Biraz Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
1. Eşimin sevgisini kaybetmekten korkarım.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Gerçekte ne hissettiğimi eşime göstermemeyi tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Sıklıkla, eşimin artık benimle olmak istemediği korkusuna kapılırım.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Özel duygu ve düşüncelerimi eşimle paylaşmak konusunda kendimi rahat hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Sıklıkla, eşimin beni gerçekten sevmediği kaygısına kapılırım.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Eşime güvenip dayanmak konusunda kendimi rahat bırakmakta zorlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Eşimin beni, benim onu önemsemediğim kadar önemsemediğinden endişe duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5

8. Eşime yakın olma konusunda çok rahatımdır.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Sıklıkla, eşimin bana duyduğu hislerin benim ona duyduğum hisler kadar güçlü olmasını isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
10.Eşime açılma konusunda kendimi rahat hissetmem.	1	2	3	4	5
11.İlişkilerimi kafama çok takarım.	1	2	3	4	5
12.Eşime fazla yakın olmamayı tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
13.Benden uzakta olduğunda, eşimin başka birine ilgi duyabileceği korkusuna kapılırım.	1	2	3	4	5
14.Eşim benimle çok yakın olmak istediğinde rahatsızlık duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5
15.Eşime duygularımı gösterdiğimde, onun benim için aynı şeyleri hissetmeyeceğinden korkarım.	1	2	3	4	5
16.Eşimle kolayca yakınlaşabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
17.Eşimin beni terkedeceğinden pek endişe duymam.	1	2	3	4	5
18.Eşimle yakınlaşmak bana zor gelmez.	1	2	3	4	5
19.Eşim kendimden şüphe etmeme neden olur.	1	2	3	4	5
20.Genellikle, eşimle sorunlarımı ve kaygılarımı tartışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
21.Terk edilmekten pek korkmam.	1	2	3	4	5
22.Zor zamanlarımda, eşimden yardım istemek bana iyi gelir.	1	2	3	4	5
23.Eşimin, bana benim istediğim kadar yakınlaşmak istemediğini düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
24.Eşime hemen hemen her şeyi anlatırım.	1	2	3	4	5
25.Eşimin bazen bana olan duygularını sebepsiz yere değiştirdiğini hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5
26.Başımdan geçenleri eşimle konuşurum.	1	2	3	4	5
27.Çok yakın olma arzum bazen insanları korkutup uzaklaştırır.	1	2	3	4	5
28.Eşim benimle çok yakınlaştığında gergin hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5
29.Eşim beni yakından tanırsa, "gerçek ben"i sevmeyeceğinden korkarım.	1	2	3	4	5

30.Eşime güvenip dayanmak konusunda rahatımdır.	1	2	3	4	5
31.Eşimden ihtiyaç duyduğum şefkat ve desteği görememek beni öfkelenendirir.	1	2	3	4	5
32.Eşime güvenip dayanmak benim için kolaydır.	1	2	3	4	5
33.Başka insanlara denk olamamaktan endişe duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5
34.Eşime şefkat göstermek benim için kolaydır.	1	2	3	4	5
35.Eşim beni sadece kızgın olduğumda önemser.	1	2	3	4	5
36.Eşim beni ve ihtiyaçlarımı gerçekten anlar.	1	2	3	4	5

<p>Aşağıda bebeğinizin günlük bakımında bebeğinizin büyükanne ile olan ilişkiniz hakkında cümleler verilmiştir. Bu cümlelerde geçen 'Büyükanne' sözcüğü bebeğinizin <u>çalışmaya katılan anneannesini ya da babaannesini</u> belirtmektedir. Lütfen, büyükanne ile ilişkinizi göz önünde bulundurarak bu cümlelere ne ölçüde katıldığınızı belirtiniz. Her bir ifadenin duygu ve düşüncelerinizi ne oranda yansıttığını karşılarındaki 5 aralıklı cetvel üzerindeki ilgili rakamı yuvarlak içine alarak belirtiniz.</p> <p>1-----2-----3-----4-----5</p> <p>Hiç Biraz Kararsızım/ Biraz Tamamen katılmıyorum katılmıyorum fikrim yok katılıyorum katılıyorum</p>	Hiç Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım/fikrim yok	Biraz Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
1. Büyükanne ile olan ilişkimiz çok samimi.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Büyükanne ile çok yakınız.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Büyükanne ile olan ilişkimizden genel olarak çok memnunuz.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Bebeğimin yemek, uyku ve diğer günlük rutinleri hakkında büyükanne ile genellikle aynı fikirdeyiz.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Büyükanne ile pek çok konuda anlaşmazlık yaşıyoruz.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Bebek bakımı konusunda büyükanne çok şey öğreniyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

7. Büyükanne olmasaydı bebeğimin bakımı ile baş edemezdim.	1	2	3	4	5				
8. Büyükanne bebeğimin bakımında bana çok karışıyor.	1	2	3	4	5				
9. Büyükanne bebek bakımı konusunda beni çok eleştiriyor.	1	2	3	4	5				
10. Büyükanne ile bebek bakımı konusunda iyi bir takım olduğumuzu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5				
11. İleride çocuğumun nasıl yetiştirilmesi gerektiği konusunda büyükanne ile sorun yaşamam.	1	2	3	4	5				
12. Büyükanne benim iyi bir anne olduğumu düşünüyor.	1	2	3	4	5				
13. Büyükanne benim annelik görevlerimi yapmamı kolaylaştırıyor.	1	2	3	4	5				
14. Büyükannenin bebeğimin bakımında bu kadar rol alması beni rahatsız ediyor.	1	2	3	4	5				
15. Keşke kimse karışmasa ve ben bebeğimi kendi başıma büyütebilsem.	1	2	3	4	5				
16. Genel olarak, bebeğinizin bakımında büyükanne ile olan işbirliğinizi 1-10 arası hangi rakam ile değerlendirdiniz? (lütfen bir rakamı işaretleyiniz)									
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Kötü, bebek bakımında ihtiyaç olduğunda hiç yardımlaşmayan ya da sürekli olarak farklı fikirlerde olan ve birbirine müdahale eden			Yarı yarıya, bazen bebek bakımında gayet güzel işbirliği yapan bazen de sorunlar yaşayan			Harika, Bebek bakımında her zaman işbirliği gösteren ve her zaman herşeyi beraberce doğru yapan			

Aşağıda eşlerin evlilik ilişkileri ile ilgili olarak 16 madde bulunmaktadır. Her maddeyi dikkatlice okuduktan sonra size uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Lütfen hiçbir ifadeyi boş bırakmayınız. İçten ve doğru verdiğiniz yanıtlar için teşekkür ederiz.

Aşağıdaki maddelerde verilen konulara ilişkin olarak, siz ve eşiniz arasındaki anlaşma ya da anlaşmazlık derecesini yaklaşık olarak belirtiniz. Lütfen her maddeye uygun kutucuğa çarpı (X) koyunuz.

	Her zaman anlaşırız	Hemen her zaman anlaşırız	Arasıra anlaşamadığımız olur	Sıklıkla anlaşamayız	Hemen her zaman anlaşamayız	Hiç anlaşamayız
1. Aile bütçesini idare etme						
2. Boş zaman etkinlikleri						
3. Duyguların ifadesi						
4. Arkadaşlar						
5. Cinsel ilişkiler						
6. Toplumsal kurallara uyma (doğru, iyi veya uygun davranış)						
7. Yaşam felsefesi						
8. Eşin akrabaları ile anlaşma						

9. Aşağıdaki maddede, **evliliğinizdeki mutluluk düzeyini tüm yönleri ile en iyi tanımladığını inandığınız noktayı daire içine alınız.** Ortadaki “mutlu” sözcüğü üzerindeki nokta, çoğu kişinin evlilikten duyduğu mutluluk derecesini temsil etmekte ve ölçek kademeli olarak sol ucunda evliliğinde çok mutsuz olan küçük bir azınlığı, sağ ucunda ise evliliğinde çok büyük bir doyum ve mutluluk duyan küçük bir azınlığı temsil ederek derecelendirilmiş bulunmaktadır.

*	*	*	*	*	*
Çok mutsuz			Mutlu		Çok mutlu

Lütfen aşağıdaki maddelerde evliliğinizi en iyi ifade ettiğine inandığınız bir cevabı işaretleyiniz.

10. Ortaya çıkan uyumsuzluklar genellikle

a) Erkeğin susması ile b) Kadının susması ile c) Karşılıklı anlaşmaya varılarak sonuçlanır

11. Ev dışı faaliyetlerinizin ne kadarını eşinizle birlikte yaparsınız?

a) Hepsini b) Bazılarını c) Çok azını d) Hiçbirini

12. Boş zamanlarınızda aşağıdakilerden hangisini tercih edersiniz?

a) Dışarıda bir şeyler yapmayı b) Evde oturmayı

13. Eşiniz genellikle aşağıdakilerden hangisini tercih eder?

a) Dışarıda bir şeyler yapmayı b) Evde oturmayı

14. Hiç evlenmemiş olmayı istediğiniz olur mu?

a) Sık sık b) Arada sırada c) Çok seyrek d) Hiçbir zaman

15. Hayatınızı yeniden yaşayabilseydiniz,

a) Aynı kişiyle evlenirdiniz b) Farklı kişiyle evlenirdiniz c) hiç evlenmezsiniz

16. Eşinize güvenir, sırlarınızı ona açar mısınız?

a) Hemen hemen hiçbir zaman b) Nadiren c) Çoğu konularda d) Her konuda

Yakın zamanlarda bebeğiniz oldu. Sizin son hafta içindeki duygularınızı öğrenmek istiyoruz. Lütfen yalnızca bugün değil son 7 gün içinde, kendinizi nasıl hissettiğinizi en iyi tanımlayan ifadeyi işaretleyiniz.

1. Son 7 gündür; Gülebiliyor ve olayların komik taraflarını görebiliyorum.

- Her zaman olduğu kadar
- Artık pek o kadar değil
- Artık kesinlikle o kadar değil
- Artık hiç değil

2. Son 7 gündür; Geleceğe hevesle bakıyorum.

- Her zaman olduğu kadar

- Artık pek o kadar değil
- Artık kesinlikle o kadar değil
- Artık hiç değil

3. Son 7 gündür; Birşeyler kötü gittiğinde gereksiz yere kendimi suçluyorum.

- Evet, çoğu zaman
- Evet, bazen
- Çok sık değil
- Hayır, hiçbir zaman

4. Son 7 gündür; Nedensiz yere kendimi sıkıntılı ya da endişeli hissediyorum.

- Hayır, hiçbir zaman
- Çok seyrek
- Evet, bazen
- Evet, çoğu zaman

5. Son 7 gündür; İyi bir neden olmadığı halde korkuyor ya da panikliyorum.

- Evet, çoğu zaman
- Evet, bazen
- Çok sık değil
- Hayır, hiçbir zaman

6. Son 7 gündür; Her şey giderek sırtıma yükleniyor.

- Evet, çoğu zaman başa çıkamıyorum.
- Evet, bazen eskisi gibi başa çıkamıyorum.
- Hayır, çoğu zaman oldukça iyi başa çıkabiliyorum.
- Hayır, her zamanki gibi başa çıkabiliyorum

7. Son 7 gündür; Öylesine mutsuzum ki uyumakta zorlanıyorum.

- Evet, çoğu zaman
- Evet, bazen
- Çok sık değil
- Hayır, hiçbir zaman

8. Son 7 gündür; Kendimi üzüntülü ya da çökkün hissediyorum.

- Evet, çoğu zaman
- Evet, bazen
- Çok sık değil
- Hayır, hiçbir zaman

9. Son 7 gündür; Öylesine mutsuzum ki ağlıyorum.

- Evet, çoğu zaman
- Evet, oldukça sık
- Çok seyrek
- Hayır, asla

10. Son 7 gündür; Kendime zarar verme düşüncesinin aklıma geldiği oldu.

- Evet, oldukça sık
- Bazen.
- Hemen hemen hiç
- Asla

Anket bitmiştir, yardımlarınız için çok teşekkür ederiz.

Appendix G

Tezin Türkçe Özeti

Bebekler beyin gelişimlerini tam olarak tamamlanmadan doğarlar ve ilk iki yaş beyin gelişimlerinin en hızlı olduğu, sinir hücrelerinin ve bu hücreler arasındaki bağlantıların en çok arttığı dönemdir. Bu dönemdeki beyin gelişiminin sağlıklı olması ileriki yıllarda bebeğin sosyal, duygusal ve bilişsel gelişimlerini, öğrenme kapasitelerini ve zorluklarla baş edebilme yetilerini olumlu olarak etkilemektedir (Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000). Bebeğin beyin gelişimde sadece genetik etkenler ve fiziksel ihtiyaçların karşılanması değil, bebeğin çevreyle olan olumlu/olumsuz etkileşimleri de oldukça önemli bir yere sahiptir. Çevreye karşı aşırı hassas olan bebekler, çevrelerindeki olumlu ve olumsuz etkileşimleri algılayabilmekte ve bunlardan etkilenebilmektedirler. Dolayısıyla, bebekler kendilerine ilgi-bakım veren kişilerin duyarlıklarından ve sevecenliklerinden olumlu olarak etkilenirken, ilgisizlikten ya da huzursuzluktan olumsuz olarak etkilenmektedirler (Thompson, 2008). Bu nedenle, yaşamın ilk yıllarında bebeklerin kendilerine ilgi-bakım gösteren kişilerle olan etkileşimleri gelişimleri açısından kritik bir öneme sahiptir.

Geçmiş çalışmalar bebeklerin onlara ilgi bakım veren kişilerle olan etkileşimlerinin önemini göstermiş, özellikle anne-bebek ilişkisinin önemi üzerine durmuşlardır. Pek çok boylamsal çalışma annelerin sosyal ve psikolojik değişkenlerinin ve çocukla olan etkileşimlerinin çocuk gelişimindeki önemini göstermiştir. Babaların rolleri ise görece ihmal edilmiş, ancak 70'li yıllarda başlayan çalışmalar ile babaların hem ebeveyn davranışlarının (örn., Lamb, 1976) hem de anneyle olan ilişkilerinin uyumlu veya çatışmalı olmasının çocuk gelişimdeki rolü gösterilmiştir (örn., Cummings & Davies, 1996).

1990'lı yıllardan başlayarak aile içindeki ikili ilişkilerin (anne-bebek, baba-bebek, anne-baba) yanı sıra, aile bir aradayken paylaşılan üçlü (anne-baba-bebek) etkileşimlerin de çocuğun gelişiminde önemli ve ek bir rol oynadığı gösterilmiştir (örn.,

Belsky, Crnic, & Gable, 1995; McHale, 1995). Aile bir aradayken anne ve babaların olumlu/olumsuz ortak ebeveynlik davranışlarının ve oluşturulan güven ya da karmaşa ortamının, bireysel ebeveyn davranışları kontrol edildikten sonra bile çocuğun ileriki yıllardaki gelişimde etkili olduğu boylamsal çalışmalarla gösterilmiştir (McHale & Lindahl, 2011).

Salvador Minuchin'in (1974) Aile Sistemleri Kuramı'na göre anne ve babanın çocuk yetiştirirken gösterdikleri (ya da gösteremedikleri) işbirliği ve ortak ebeveynlik davranışları, aile içindeki diğer sistemleri (anne-çocuk, baba-çocuk, anne-baba ilişkisini) önemli ölçüde etkilemekte, hatta yönetmektedir. Ortak ebeveynlik, anne ve babanın aile içindeki mekanizmaları birlikte idare etmeleri, çocuk yetiştirmeye ilgili sorumlulukları paylaşmaları, birbirlerini desteklemeleri ve aile kavramını ortaklaşa korumaları olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Mchale, 1995). Anne ve babaların birbirleriyle iyi iletişim kurabilmeleri, çocuklarıyla birlikte iyi bir uyum içinde etkileşime girebilmeleri, ortaklaşa uyum içinde kararlar alabilmeleri etkili ortak ebeveynliğin temel boyutlarıdır. Yazında gördüğümüz çalışmalar etkili ortak ebeveynliğin hem çocukların hem de ebeveynlerin uyum değişkenleriyle olumlu yönde ilişkili olduklarını göstermiştir (McHale & Lindahl, 2011).

Ortak ebeveynlik ile ilgili yapılan çalışmaların çok büyük bir kısmı Batılı (Kuzey Amerika ve Avrupa) ülkelerde gerçekleştirilmiştir. Dünyanın diğer bölgelerindeki aile dinamikleri ortak ebeveynlik açısından çok az çalışılabilmiştir. Son yıllarda Uzakdoğu ülkelerinde (McHale, Dihn, & Rao, 2014) ve bazı Orta Doğu ülkelerinde (Feldman & Masalha, 2010) az sayıda ortak ebeveynlik çalışmaları yapılmış olmasına karşın daha fazla kültürlerarası çalışmaya ihtiyaç vardır. Türkiye'de de ortak ebeveynlik kavramını sistemli bir şekilde araştıran bir çalışmaya rastlanmamıştır. Bu nedenlerle, bu tez çalışmasında ortak ebeveynliğin Türkiye örneklemiyle çalışılması ve önceden elde edilen Amerika Birleşik Devletleri (ABD) örneklemiyle karşılaştırılması amaçlanmıştır.

Mevcut çalışmada, Türkiye ve ABD örneklemindeki ebeveynlerin ortak ebeveynlik davranışları yaklaşık 10 dakika süren yarı yapılandırılmış bir yöntem ile ölçülmüştür. Ayrıca eşlerin birbirleriyle olan ortak ebeveynlik işbirliği algısı her iki kültürde de öz bildirim yöntemi ile ölçülmüştür. Hem gözlemlenen hem de algılanan

ortak ebeveynliğin eşler arasındaki evlilik uyumu ve romantik bağlanma örüntüsü, ebeveynlik stresi ve doğum sonrası depresyon gibi çok sayıda değişken ile ilişkileri incelenmiştir. Türkiye kültüründe büyükanneler gibi geniş aile üyelerinin aile dinamiklerindeki önemi (Baydar, Akçınar, & İmer, 2012) göz önüne alınarak Türkiye örnekleminde ayrıca annelerin büyükanneler ile olan ortak ebeveynlik davranışları da incelenmiştir. Dolayısıyla ABD örnekleminde sadece ‘anne-baba-bebek’, Türkiye örnekleminde ise hem ‘anne-baba-bebek’ hem de ‘anne-büyükanne-bebek’ üçlü etkileşimleri incelenmiştir.

Mevcut çalışma iki bölümden oluşmaktadır. İlk bölümde üçlü etkileşimler ve gözlemlenen ortak ebeveynlik davranışları üzerine odaklanılmıştır. Anne ve babaların ortak ebeveynlik davranışları Türkiye ve ABD örneklemleri arasında karşılaştırılmıştır. Ayrıca, Türkiye örnekleminde ‘anne-baba-bebek’ üçlü etkileşimleri ‘anne-büyükanne-bebek’ üçlü etkileşimleri ile karşılaştırılmıştır. İkinci kısımda ise, aile üyelerinden öz-bildirim yöntemi ile ölçülen ortak ebeveynlik algısı ve diğer aile değişkenleri arasındaki ilişkiler incelenmiştir. Gözlemlenen ve algılanan ortak ebeveynliğin evlilik doyumu, romantik bağlanma, ebeveynlik stresi ve doğum sonrası depresyon ile olan ilişkileri araştırılmıştır. Araştırma soruları (AS) aşağıda sunulmuştur:

AS-1: ABD’de geliştirilmiş olan ortak ebeveynliği ölçmeyi amaçlayan araçların Türkiye örneklemindeki uygulanabilirlik düzeyi nedir?

AS-2: ‘Anne-baba-bebek’ üçlü etkileşimleri bağlamında Türkiye ve ABD örneklemleri arasındaki benzerlikler ve farklılıklar nelerdir?

AS-3: Türkiye örnekleminde ‘anne-baba-bebek’ ve ‘anne-büyükanne-bebek’ üçlü etkileşimleri arasındaki benzerlikler ve farklılıklar nelerdir?

AS-4: Türkiye örnekleminde anne eğitimi, ortak ebeveynlik ve diğer aile değişkenleri ile nasıl bir ilişki içindedir?

AS-5: Hem gözlemlenen hem de rapor edilen ortak ebeveynlik, evlilik doyumu ve romantik bağlanma gibi diğer ilişki temelli değişkenler ile nasıl bir ilişki içindedir?

AS-6: Hem gözlemlenen hem de rapor edilen ortak ebeveynlik, ebeveynlik stresi ve doğum sonrası stres gibi ebeveynlik uyumu değişkenleri ile nasıl bir ilişki içindedir?

Yöntem

Katılımcılar

Bu çalışma Türkiye ve ABD’den toplanan iki farklı örneklem içermektedir. ABD verisi 2005 yılında geniş çaplı boylamsal bir çalışma kapsamında toplanmıştır. Türkiye verisi ise 2013 Kasım-2014 temmuz tarihleri arasında Ankara’dan toplanmıştır.

ABD Örnekleme

ABD örnekleme, tezin ortak danışmanı Dr. James McHale’in yürütücülüğünü yapmış olduğu Ulusal Çocuk Sağlığı ve Gelişimi Enstitüsü (National Institute of Child Health and Development, NICHD, R01 HD42179) tarafından desteklenen “Zaman içinde Aileler Çalışması” (The Families through Time Study) isimli proje kapsamında toplanmıştır. Çalışmaya 3 aylık bebeği olan 54 evli aile katılmıştır. Ailelerin hepsi ilk çocuklarıyla çalışmaya katılmışlardır. Ailelere, hastanelerde doğum öncesi verilen ebeveynlik eğitimleri sınıflarından ulaşılmıştır. Bebeklerden 29’u kızdır, 3 bebeğin ise cinsiyeti belirtilmemiştir. Bu örnekleme ailelerin hepsi görece iyi eğitilmiş (en az üniversite mezunu) ve orta-yüksek gelir düzeyine (ortalama gelir düzeyi yıllık 70.000 USD) sahiptir.

Türkiye örnekleme

Türkiye örneklemindeki ailelere ulaşabilmek için 9 Aile Sağlık Merkezi’ne (ASM) başvurulmuştur. ASM çalışanlarının yardımı sayesinde 28 aile çalışmaya katılmıştır. Kartopu yöntemi ile 10 aile, araştırmacıların kendi sosyal ağları sayesinde ise 7 aile çalışmaya katılmıştır. Toplamda, 45 aile çalışmanın Türkiye örneklemini oluşturmuştur.

Bütün aileler bebekleri 3. aylarının içindeyken çalışmaya katılmışlardır ($Ort = 103.8$ günlük, $SS = 12.15$, $ranj = 66-127$). Sadece bir ailenin bebeği 127 günlük iken çalışmaya kabul edilmiştir. Otuz iki bebek katılan ailelerin ilk çocukları iken, 11 bebeğin bir kardeşi, 2 bebeğin ise ikiden fazla kardeşi vardır. Bütün anne-babalar en az bir senelik evli ve beraber yaşamaktadırlar. Evlilik süresi ortalaması 45.49 aydır ($SS = 27.18$, $ranj = 12-108$). Katılımcı anneler ($Ort = 28.44$, $SS = 4.37$, $ranj = 18-37$) babalardan ($Ort = 31.37$, $SS = 4.05$, $ranj = 23-41$) yaklaşık 3 yaş daha gençlerdir. Katılımcılardan 3 anne (% 6.7) ve 3 baba (% 7.3) ilkokul mezunu, 6 anne (%13.3) ve 7

baba (%17.1) ortaokul mezunu, 11 anne (% 13.3) ve 8 baba (% 19.5) lise mezunu, 14 anne (% 31.1) ve 17 baba (% 41.5) üniversite mezunu, 11 anne (% 24.4) ve 6 baba (%14.6) yüksek lisans mezunudur. Gelir düzeylerini, 4 aile (%8.9) 500-1000TL, 14 aile (% 31.3) 1000-2000TL, 12 aile (% 26.6) 2000-5000TL, 7 aile (%15.6) 5000-7000TL, 3 aile (% 6.7) 7000-10000TL ve 5 aile (% 11.1) 10000-15000TL arası olarak belirtmişlerdir.

Katılımcı ailelerden 28'inde hem baba hem de büyükanne anne ve bebekle birlikte çalışmaya katılmışlardır. Beş ailede babalar çalışmaya katılamamış, çalışma sadece büyükanneler ile tamamlanmıştır. On iki ailede ise sadece babalar çalışmaya katılmıştır. Toplam olarak 40 anne-baba-bebek; 33 anne-büyükanne-bebek üçlü etkileşimleri gözlemlenebilmiştir. Büyükannelerden 20'si anneanne, 13'ü ise babaannedir. Büyükannelerin yaş ortalaması 55 yıldır ($SS = 5.78$, $ranj = 43-70$).

İşlem

ABD örnekleme işlemi

Veri toplama çalışmalarını iki araştırmacı, bebekler 3. aylarını doldurdıkları zaman ailelerin evlerine ziyaretler yaparak tamamlamışlardır. Bu ziyaretlerin bebeklerin uyumadıkları saatlerde yapılmasına özen gösterilmiştir. Üçlü etkileşimleri video kaydına alabilmek amacıyla araştırmacılar kamera, tripod ve bebeklere uygun ortopedik bir sandalye ve büyük bir aynayı yanlarında getirmişlerdir. Etkileşimler için Türkiye örnekleminde olduğu gibi Lozan Üçlü Oyun paradigması (LTP, Fivaz-Depeursing & Corboz-Warnery, 1999) kullanılmıştır. Bu düzene göre anne, baba ve bebek bir üçgen oluşturacak şekilde sandalyelere oturmuşlardır. Ebeveynlerin arkasına ayna yerleştirilerek bebeğin yüzünün ve vücudunun videoya yansımaları sağlanmıştır. Anne ve babalar üçlü etkileşimleri tamamladıktan sonra kendilerine verilen ölçüm araçlarını doldurmuşlardır.

Türkiye örnekleme işlemi

Türkiye'deki veri toplama çalışmaları da ABD örnekleminde olduğu gibi ev ziyaretleri ile yapılmıştır. Tezin yazarı ile bir yüksek lisans öğrencisi araştırmacı tüm ev ziyaretlerini birlikte yapmışlardır. Aileler telefonla önceden araştırma hakkında bilgilendirilmiş ve tüm aile bireylerinin (anne, baba, büyükanne ve bebek) ziyaret

saatinde evde bulunmaları istenmiştir. Ev ziyaretleri ortalama 112 dakika ($SS = 32.86$, $ranj = 60-210$) sürmüştür.

Ev ziyaretleri sırasında öncelikle araştırmacılar kendilerini tanıtmış ve aileleri rahatlatacak sıcak bir atmosfer kurmaya çalışmışlardır. Sonrasında bilgilendirilmiş rıza formu sesli bir şekilde ailelere okunmuş, araştırmanın amacını açıklanmıştır. Formun imzalanmasından sonra veri toplama çalışmaları başlamıştır. Bebek uyumuyorsa ilk olarak gözleme dayalı ölçümler tamamlanmıştır. Eğer bebek uyuyorsa ya da huzursuz ise aile bireylerinden önce öz-bildirime dayalı ölçüm araçlarını cevaplandırmaları istenmiştir. Aile bireylerinden anketleri ayrı ayrı doldurmaları, cevaplarını birbirlerinden gizli tutmaları, birbirlerine soru sormamaları istenmiştir. Doldurulan anketler kapalı zarflarla alınmış, böylelikle katılımcıların mahremiyeti korunmuştur. Veri toplama işlemi bittikten sonra ailelere Türkiye Bilimler Akademisi'nin (TÜBA) verdiği maddi destek kapsamında 100TL ödeme yapılmış ve kendilerine hatıra olarak ODTÜ kupası hediye edilmiştir.

Lozan Üçlü Oyun Paradigması (Lausanne Trilogue Play Paradigm, LTP, Fivaz-Depeursing & Corboz-Warnery, 1999)

Üçlü etkileşimleri gözlemek amacıyla Lozan Üçlü oyun paradigması kullanılmıştır. Buna göre ebeveynler ve bebek bir üçgen oluşturacak şekilde sandalyelere oturmuşlardır. Bebeğin yaşına uygun anakucağı araştırmacılar tarafından getirilmiştir. Ebeveynlerin ve bebeğin arkasına tripod yardımcıyla kameralar yerleştirilmiştir. Ebeveynlerden mümkün olduğunca doğal bir şekilde yaklaşık 10 dakika birlikte oynamaları istenmiştir. Üçlü etkileşimlerin ilk kiminle yapılacağına (baba ya da büyükanne) aile bireyleri karar vermiştir. Üçlü etkileşim sırasında araştırmacılar başka bir odaya giderek aileleri yalnız bırakmışlardır.

Lozan üçlü oyun paradigması kapsamında ailelerden 4 adım izlemeleri istenmiştir. İlk olarak bir ebeveynin *aktif* bir şekilde bebekle oynaması/ilgilenmesi, diğer ebeveynin ise *pasif* olarak sadece izlemesi istenmiştir. İlk kimin aktif ebeveyn olacağına aileler karar vermiştir. İkinci aşamada, ebeveynlerden rolleri değiştirmeleri, ilk kısımda aktif olan ebeveynin pasif, pasif olan ebeveynin ise aktif hale gelmesi istenmiştir. Üçüncü aşamada her iki ebeveynin de aktif olması ve tüm aile bireylerinin birlikte

etkileşime girmeleri istenmiştir. Dördüncü aşamada ise ebeveynlerden bebekle ilgilenmemeleri sadece birbirleriyle konuşmaları istenmiştir. Tabi ki bebek ağlayarak tepki gösterirse ailelerin cevap verebilecekleri belirtilmiştir. Etkileşimler sırasında araştırmacılar odada olmayacakları için aşamalar arasındaki geçişleri ne zaman yapacaklarına ailelerin karar vermesi istenmiştir. Etkileşimler tamamlandıktan sonra aileler araştırmacıları odaya çağırılmışlardır.

Ortak ebeveynlik ve Aile Değerlendirme Sistemi (Coparenting and Family Rating System, CFRS, McHale, Kazali, Rotman, Talbot, Carleton, & Lieberman, 2004)

Lozan Üçlü Oyunu (LÜO) yöntemi ile video kaydına alınan aile etkileşimleri “Ortak ebeveynlik ve Aile Değerlendirme Sistemi” (McHale ve ark., 2004) kullanılarak kodlanmış ve değerlendirilmiştir. Bu sistem hem mikro hem de makro düzeyde değerlendirmeyi gerektirmektedir. İlk olarak video kaydı baştan sona izlenerek etkileşimler hakkında kodlayıcının genel bir fikir sahibi olması amaçlanır. Daha sonra kodlayıcı mikro analizine başlar. Mikro analizi kısmında kodlayıcı her 10 saniyede gerçekleşen ebeveyn davranışlarını kodlar. LÜO’nun ilk bölümlerinde aktif ve pasif ebeveynlerin davranışlarını kodlar. Aktif ebeveynlerin “konuşma/ses çıkarma”, “dokunma” ve “sevgi/şefkat gösterme” davranışları kodlanır. Pasif ebeveynin ise “izler/ilgili”, “izler/ilgisiz”, “kopuk”, “kopuk/yardımcı”, “müdahaleci/oyuncu”, müdahaleci/dikkat dağıtıcı”, ve “müdahaleci/yardımcı” davranışları kodlanır. LÜO’nun son iki bölümünde ise ebeveynlerin ortak davranışları (örn., sevgi/şefkat paylaşımı, aktif çekişme, uyumsuzluk) kodlanır. Mikro düzeydeki kodlamalar tamamlandıktan sonra makro düzeydeki değerlendirmelere geçilir. Aile hakkında fikir sahibi olmuş kodlayıcılar ebeveynlerin göstermiş olduğu “işbirliği”, “çekişme”, “sıcaklık”, “aşırı uyarım”, “kopukluk” ve “bebeğe karşı duyarlılık” global değişkenlerini 7’li Likert tipi ölçüm aracıyla değerlendirirler. Ayrıca ebeveynler arası sözel saldırıları da 5’li likert tipi ölçekle değerlendirirler. Tezin yazarı bu ölçüm sistemini kullanarak tüm ailelerin videolarını kodlamıştır. Çalışmanın güvenilirliğini sağlamak amacıyla bir yüksek lisans öğrencisi araştırmacı da ikinci kodlayıcı olarak videoların %20’sini kodlamıştır. Gözlemciler arası güvenilirlik katsayısı .81 olarak bulunmuştur.

Öz-bildirime Dayalı Ölçüm Araçları: Türkiye örnekleminde anne, baba ve büyükannelerin ayrı ayrı doldurmaları amacıyla üç adet soru bataryası hazırlanmıştır. Anne ve babalar, demografik soruları, Ebeveyn İşbirliği Ölçeği'ni (Parenting Alliance Inventory, PAI), Ebeveynlikte Stres Ölçeği Kısa Formu'nu (Parenting Stress Index-Short Form, PSI-4), Yakın İlişkilerde Yaşantılar Envanteri-II'yi (Fraley, Waller ve Brennan, 2000), Evlilik Uyumu Ölçeği'ni (Marital Adjustment Test, MAT) ve Edinburg Doğum Sonrası Depresyon Ölçeği'ni (Edinburg Postpartum Depression Scale) doldurmuşlardır. Anneler ayrıca bazı demografik özelliklerine ilişkin soruları cevaplamış ve Büyükanne-Anne İlişki Ölçeği'ni doldurmuşlardır.

Büyükannelere görece daha kısa bir soru bataryası uygulanmıştır. Kendilerinden 16 demografik soruyu cevaplandırmaları ve Büyükanne-Anne İlişki Ölçeği'ni doldurmaları istenmiştir. ABD örnekleminde anne ve babalar Türkiye örnekleminde de kullanılan Ebeveyn İşbirliği Ölçeği ve Evlilik Uyumu Ölçeği'ni doldurmuşlardır. Ebeveynlerin depresyon düzeylerini ölçmek amacıyla Türkiye'deki ölçüm aracından farklı olarak Epidemiyolojik Çalışmalar Merkezi Depresyon Ölçeği (Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale, CESD-D) kullanılmıştır. Katılımcılar ölçekleri 5'li Likert tipi değerlendirme sistemi kullanarak cevaplandırmışlardır.

Bulgular

Çalışmanın bu bölümünde öncelikle gözlemlenen üçlü etkileşimlerin betimleyici bulguları sunulacaktır. Türkiye ve Amerika örneklemlerinde gözlemlenen 'anne-baba-bebek' üçlü etkileşimleri arasındaki benzerlikler ve farklılıkları betimlemek için bağımsız örneklem t-testi ile analizler yapılmıştır. Ayrıca, Türkiye örnekleminde 'anne-baba-bebek' ve anne-büyükanne-bebek' üçlü etkileşimleri karşılaştırmak için eşleştirilmiş iki-grup t-testi (paired sample t-test) analizleri yapılmıştır. Anne eğitiminin bu üçlü etkileşimler üzerindeki etkisi de incelenmiştir. Daha sonra, gözlemlenen bu üçlü etkileşimlerin rapor edilen diğer aile değişkenleri olan ilişkilerini korelasyon analizleri ile incelenmiştir. Son olarak, rapor edilen değişkenler arasındaki ilişkileri eşler düzeyinde karşılıklı incelemek amacıyla aktör-partner bağımlılık modeli (APIM, Kenny et al., 2006) analizleri yapılmıştır.

Gözlemlenen Üçlü Etkileşimlerin Betimleyici Bulguları

Yöntem kısmında da belirtildiği gibi ev ziyaretleri sırasında hem ‘anne-baba-bebek’ hem de ‘anne-büyükanne-bebek’ üçlü etkileşimleri CFRS ölçeği kullanılarak değerlendirilmiştir. Ebeveynlerin hem aktif hem de pasif davranışları kodlanmıştır. Ebeveynlerin aktif davranışlarına baktığımızda, yapılan bağımlı örneklem t-test analizleri, hem Türkiye hem de ABD örneklemelerinde anne ve babalar arasında konuşma/ses çıkartma, dokunma ve sevgi gösterme değişkenlerinde anlamlı bir farklılık olmadığını göstermiştir. Ancak Türkiye’den katılan anne ve babaların ABD’li anne babalara kıyasla daha çok konuştukları/ses çıkarttıkları, dokundukları ve sevgi gösterdikleri bulunmuştur [anneler için sırasıyla; $t(87) = -9.53, p < .000, d = 2.04, t(87) = -2.17, p < .05, d = .47, t(87) = -11.24, p < .000, d = 2.41$; babalar için sırasıyla, $t(88) = -8.12, p < .000, d = 1.74, t(88) = -3.09, p < .05, d = .66, t(88) = -11.28, p < .000, d = 2.41$]. Ebeveynlerin pasif davranışlarına bakıldığında ise, hem Türkiye hem de ABD örneklemelerinde, annelerin babalar bebekle oynarken daha fazla izler-İlgili oldukları ve daha az izler-İlgisiz oldukları bulunmuştur [Türkiye örneklemini için sırasıyla; $t(40) = 3.81, p < .000, d = .86, t(40) = -2.04, p < .05, d = .42, t(40) = -1.86, p < .10, d = .30$; ABD örneklemini için sırasıyla; $t(47) = 2.89, p < .01, d = .52, t(49) = -3.03, p < .01, d = .50$]. Anne ve babaların flörtleşme ve araya girme/dikkat dağıtma değişkenlerinde farklılık göstermedikleri gözlenmiştir.

Anne ve babaların pasif davranışlarının Türkiye ve ABD örneklemelerindeki benzerlik ve farklılıklarını görebilmek amacıyla bağımsız örneklem t-testleri kullanılmıştır. Yapılan analizler sonucunda iki ülke arasında önemli farklılıklar bulunmuştur. Türkiye’deki annelerin ABD’deki annelere göre daha fazla izler-İlgili oldukları bulunmuştur [$t(88) = -2.3, p < .05, d = .24$]. Babaların pasif davranışları karşılaştırıldığında ise, Türkiye’deki babaların ABD’deki babalara göre daha fazla izler-İlgili ve daha az izler-İlgisiz oldukları gözlemlenmiştir [sırasıyla; $t(87) = -1.87, p < .10, d = .53; t(89) = 1.93, p < .10, d = .28$]. Ayrıca Türkiye’deki babaların ABD’deki babalara göre anne-bebek etkileşimleri sırasında daha fazla dikkat dağıtıcı oldukları gözlemlenmiştir [$t(89) = -2.27, p < .05, d = .22$].

Türkiye örnekleminde ayrıca ‘anne-baba-bebek’ üçlü etkileşimleri ile ‘anne-büyükanne-bebek’ üçlü etkileşimleri karşılaştırılmıştır. Annelerin aktif davranışlarında (konuşma / ses çıkartma, dokunma, sevgi gösterme) baba ve büyükanne ile olan üçlü etkileşimlerde farklılık gözlenmemiştir. Ancak annelerin pasif davranışlarında bazı farklılıklar görülmüştür. Annelerin büyükanneler ile birlikteyken gösterdikleri pasif davranışlara kıyasla babalar ile birlikteyken daha fazla izler-ilgili ve daha az izler-ilgisiz oldukları gözlemlenmiştir [sırasıyla; $t(28) = 2.71, p < .05, d = .50$; $t(28) = -1.85, p < .1, d = .40$]. Büyükannelerin pasif davranışlarında önemli bir bulgu elde edilmiştir. Büyükannelerin annelere kıyasla daha az izler-ilgisiz oldukları ve daha fazla flörtleşme ve dikkat dağıtıcı davranışlar gösterdikleri bulunmuştur [sırasıyla; $t(31) = 2.6, p < .05, d = .46$; $t(31) = -3.03, p < .01, d = .43$, $t(31) = -2.36, p < .05, d = .60$]. Büyükannelerin babalara kıyasla da daha az izler-ilgisiz oldukları ve daha fazla flörtleşme ve dikkat dağıtıcı davranışlar gösterdikleri bulunmuştur [sırasıyla; $t(28) = 2.0, p < .10, d = .48$; $t(28) = -1.84, p < .10, d = .47$; $t(28) = -1.85, p < .10, d = .40$].

Anne Eğitiminin Gözlemlenen Üçlü Etkileşimler Üzerindeki Rolü

Anne eğitiminin Türkiye’deki aile dinamikleri ve ebeveynlik davranışlarını üzerinde önemli bir rol oynadığı geçmiş çalışmalarda gösterilmiştir (Örn., Sümer ve ark., 2008). Bu nedenle Türkiye örnekleminin 20’si düşük, 25’i yüksek anne eğitimi olmak üzere iki gruba ayrılmıştır. Yapılan analizler bu iki grup arasında önemli farklılıklar olduğunu göstermiştir.

‘Anne-baba-bebek’ üçlü etkileşimlerinde aktif davranışlar göz önüne alındığında düşük eğitilmiş annelere kıyasla yüksek eğitilmiş annelerin daha çok konuştukları/ses çıkarttıkları ($M = .92, SD = .07$) ve daha fazla sevgi/şefkat gösterdikleri ($M = .97, SD = .06$) gözlemlenmiştir [düşük eğitilmiş anneler için: konuşma/ses çıkarma $M = .85, SD = .10, t(39) = -2.75, p < .01, d = .81$; sevgi/şefkat gösterme $M = .93, SD = .08; t(39) = -2.18, p < .05, d = .57$]. Ayrıca düşük eğitilmiş annelere kıyasla yüksek eğitilmiş annelerin pasif davranışları gereken zamanlarda daha az izler-ilgisiz oldukları ($M = .03, SD = .07$) ve daha az flörtleşme ($M = .01, SD = .02$) davranışları gösterdikleri gözlemlenmiştir [düşük eğitilmiş anneler için: izler-ilgisiz $M = .11, SD = .21, t(40) = 1.93, p < .10$; flörtleşme $M = .03, SD = .06, t(40) = 1.98, p < .10, d = .45$]. Anne eğitiminin babaların davranışları ile

ilişkisi göz önüne alındığında ise babaların aktif davranışlarında farklılıklar gözlenmemiştir. Ancak, yüksek anne eğitilmiş ailelere kıyasla ($M = .01$, $SD = .03$) düşük anne eğitilmiş ailelerde ($M = .13$, $SD = .15$) babaların daha fazla dikkat dağıtıcı davranışlarda bulunduğu gözlenmiştir [$t(39) = 3.54$, $p < .01$, $d = 1.11$]. Aktif ve pasif bireysel davranışlarda ‘anne-büyükanne-bebek’ üçlü etkileşimlerinde anne eğitiminin rolü gözlemlenmemiştir.

Ebeveynlerin ortak davranışlarına bakıldığında ise düşük anne eğitilmiş ailelere kıyasla yüksek anne eğitilmiş ailelerde anne ve babaların daha çok ortak hareket ettikleri ($M = .14$, $SD = .15$), babaların daha uyumlu işbirliği gösterdikleri ($M = .42$, $SD = .21$), annelerin de daha az kopukluk ($M = .00$, $SD = .00$) gösterdikleri bulunmuştur [düşük anne eğitilmiş aileler için sırasıyla $M = .06$, $SD = .07$, $t(40) = -2.28$, $p < .05$, $d = .68$; $M = .31$, $SD = .20$, $t(40) = -1.76$, $p < .10$, $d = .54$; $M = .03$, $SD = .06$, $t(40) = 2.22$, $p < .05$, $d = .71$]. Bu bulgular CFRS’in global değişkenleri ile de tutarlılık göstermiştir. Şöyle ki, düşük anne eğitilmiş ailelere kıyasla yüksek anne eğitilmiş anne ve babalar daha uyumlu işbirliği içinde [$t(40) = -3.24$, $p < .01$, $d = 1.02$] ve daha sıcak etkileşimler göstermiş [$t(40) = -2.33$, $p < .05$, $d = .73$], bebeğe karşı daha duyarlı davranmış [$t(40) = -3.57$, $p < .01$, $d = 1.09$] ve birbirlerine daha az sözel saldırıda [$t(40) = 2.76$, $p < .01$, $d = .82$] bulunmuşlardır.

‘Anne-büyükanne-bebek’ üçlü etkileşimlerine baktığımızda da yüksek anne eğitilmiş ailelerin düşük anne eğitilmiş ailelere göre daha uyumlu ortak ebeveynlik gösterdikleri gözlemlenmiştir. Şöyle ki, yüksek anne eğitilmiş ailelerde anne ve büyükanneler daha fazla uyumlu işbirliği [$t(31) = -2.00$, $p < .10$, $d = .74$], daha az çekişme [$t(31) = 1.82$, $p < .10$, $d = .62$] ve kopukluk [$t(31) = 2.40$, $p < .05$, $d = .79$] göstermişlerdir. Amerikan örneklemini ile Türkiye örneklemini karşılaştırılırken anne eğitimi göz önüne alındığında, Amerikan ailelerin yüksek anne eğitilmiş aileler ile düşük anne eğitilmiş ailelere kıyasla daha çok benzerlik gösterdiği bulgulanmıştır.

Gözlemlenen Ortak Ebeveynliğin Diğer Aile Değişkenleri ile İlişkisi

Çalışmanın önemli amaçlarından birisi gözlemlenen ortak ebeveynlik davranışlarının evlilik doyumu, romantik bağlanma ve ebeveynlik uyumu (stres, depresyon) gibi diğer aile değişkenleriyle olan ilişkisini araştırmaktır. Bu amaçla

değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiler korelasyon analizleri ile test edilmiştir. Sonuçlara baktığımızda ‘anne-baba-bebek’ üçlü etkileşimlerinde eşler arasında gözlemlenen *işbirliğinin*, demografik değişkenler, eşler arası ilişki değişkenleriyle ve ebeveynlik uyumu ile ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Yaşı daha büyük (anneler için $r = .45$; babalar için $r = .34$) ve eğitilmiş ebeveynlerin (anneler için $r = .44$) daha genç ve daha az eğitilmiş ailelere kıyasla üçlü etkileşimler sırasında daha fazla işbirliği içinde oldukları ve daha uyumlu bir ortak ebeveynlik ortamı oluşturdukları gözlemlenmiştir.

Ayrıca, eşler arasındaki ilişkiye bakıldığında, evlilik doyumu daha yüksek (anneler için $r = .48$; babalar için $r = .30$), bağlanma kaygısı (anneler için $r = -.51$; babalar için $r = -.40$) ve kaçınması (anneler için $r = -.49$; babalar için $r = -.28$) daha düşük anne-babaların üçlü etkileşimler sırasında daha fazla işbirliği içinde oldukları görülmüştür. Son olarak, üçlü etkileşimler sırasında daha fazla işbirliği gösteren anne babaların daha az ebeveynlik stresi (anneler için $r = -.35$; babalar için $r = -.34$), sadece annelerin daha az doğum sonrası depresyon ($r = -.36$) rapor ettiği bulunmuştur. Bu bulgular, geçmiş çalışmalar (McHale & Lindahl, 2011) ile tutarlı olarak sosyo-ekonomik açıdan avantajlı, çiftler arası uyumu yüksek olan anne babaların üçlü etkileşimler sırasında daha fazla işbirliği gösterdiğini ve bu ailelerin daha az stres ve depresyon yaşadıklarını göstermiştir.

Her ne kadar üçlü etkileşimler sırasında gözlemlenen işbirliği hemen hemen tüm diğer değişkenler ile anlamlı ve beklendik yönde ilişkili bulunmuşsa da, gözlemlenen *çekişme* sadece anne babaların romantik bağlanmaları ile ilişkili bulunmuştur. Annelerin hem bağlanma kaygısı ($r = .39$) hem de kaçınması ($r = .37$), babaların ise sadece bağlanma kaygısı ($r = .31$) çekişme davranışları ile anlamlı düzeyde ilişkili bulunmuştur.

Ebeveynlerde gözlemlenen bağlanma kaygısı ve çekişme arasındaki ilişki şu şekilde açıklanabilir. Yüksek bağlanma kaygısı nedeniyle aşırı ilişki içinde olma isteği, ebeveynlerin bebeğin ve eşlerinin bazı sinyallerini kaçırma ve ikisi arasındaki ilişkiye daha fazla müdahale etme eğilimine yol açabilir. Bu nedenle bağlanma kaygısı yüksek olan ebeveynlerin eşleri bebekle oynarken daha fazla olumsuz yorumda bulunabildiği, bu etkileşimlere daha çok müdahale edebildiği ve bunların da eşleriyle olan çekişme düzeyini arttırmış olduğu düşünülmektedir. Bağlanma kaçınması yüksek

olan anneler ise bebekleriyle eşleriyle birlikte oynamaktansa tek başlarına oynamak isteyebilmektedirler. Bebekleriyle ayrı oynama istekleri de eşleriyle beraber oynama isteklerinden ağır bastığı için bu durumun eşler arası çekişmeyi arttırmış olabileceği düşünülmektedir.

‘Anne-büyükanne-bebek’ üçlü etkileşimleri ile anne ve büyükannelerin rapor ettikleri birbirleriyle olan işbirliği arasında (anneler için $r = .30$; büyükanneler için $r = .35$) marjinal düzeyde anlamlı ilişki bulunmuştur. Birbirleriyle daha fazla işbirliğine sahip olduklarını rapor eden anne ve büyükanneler üçlü etkileşimler sırasında da daha fazla işbirlikçi davranışlar sergilemişlerdir. Bu bulgular, CFRS’nin anne-baba dışında anne-büyükanne ortak ebeveynleri için de kullanılabilirliğini göstermiştir.

Aktör-Partner Bağımlılık Modelleri

Ebeveynlerin öz bildirim yöntemiyle bildirdikleri değişkenler arası ilişkiler, Aktör-Partner Bağımlılık Modelleri (APIM, Kenny, Kashy, Cook, 2006) kullanılarak bir dizi iz (path) analizleri ile test edilmiştir. Anne ve babaların davranış ve duyguları birbirine bağımlı olduğu için APIM analizi kullanılmıştır. İlk olarak anne ve babaların bireysel ve ilişkisel değişkenlerinin algıladıkları ebeveynlik işbirliğini nasıl yordadığı test edilmiştir. İkinci olarak, algılanan ebeveyn işbirliğinin ebeveynlik stresini ve doğum sonrası depresyonunu yordama düzeyi incelenmiştir. Son olarak, evlilik doyumu ve romantik bağlanmanın ebeveynlik stresi ve doğum sonrası depresyonu nasıl yordadığı test edilmiştir.

Analizler sırasında, öncelikle Kenny ve arkadaşlarının (2006) önerdiği gibi bağımsız değişkenlerden bağımlı değişkenlere olan tüm ilişkiler tanımlanmıştır (fully saturated models). Bağımsız değişkenler arasındaki korelasyonlar kendi içlerinde birbirleri ile ilişkilendirilmiştir. Daha sonra ilgili modelde istatistiksel olarak anlamsız olan bütün bağlantılar (beta değerleri) tek tek çıkarılarak model yeniden test edilmiştir. Bu süreç içerisinde, eğer modifikasyon endeksinde her hangi bir ilişkinin yeniden anlamlı olabileceği işaret edilirse, bu ilişki tekrar model içerisinde tanımlanmıştır. En son model, bütün anlamsız ilişkilerin çıkarıldığı, sadece anlamlı olan ilişkilerden oluşmaktadır. Elde edilen iz modellerinin sonuçları aşağıda sunulmuştur.

Algılanan Ebeveyn İşbirliğinin Yordanması: İlk olarak hem Türkiye hem de Amerika örneklemi için evlilik doyumunun algılanan ebeveyn işbirliğini nasıl yordadığı test edilmiştir. Sonuçlar Türkiye örneğinde partner etkilerinin anlamsız olduğunu, sadece aktör etkilerinin anlamlı olduğunu göstermiştir. Yani, anne ($\beta = .51$) ve babaların ($\beta = .60$) evlilik doyumları kendi algıladıkları ebeveyn işbirliğini yordarken eşlerinin algılarını yordamamaktadır. Amerika örneğinde ise hem aktör hem de partner etkisi anlamlı bulunmuştur. Bu bulgu, Amerikalı anne babaların evlilik doyumları arttıkça hem kendilerinin (anneler için $\beta = .27$; babalar için $\beta = .38$) hem de eşlerinin (anneler için $\beta = .29$; babalar için $\beta = .52$) algıladıkları ebeveynlik işbirliğinin arttığına işaret etmektedir.

Amerika ve Türkiye örneklemelerini karşılaştırmak amacıyla gruplar arası iz analizi ('multi-group path analysis, Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993) yine LISREL programı kullanılarak test edilmiştir. Yapılan analizler sonucunda iki örneklem arasında anlamlı farklılıklar bulunmuştur. Amerika örneğindeki partner etkileri Türkiye örneğindekiyle göre anlamlı olarak daha güçlü bulunmuştur.

Sadece Türkiye örneğinde eşlerin romantik bağlanmalarının algıladıkları ebeveynlik işbirliğini nasıl yordadığı test edilmiştir. Sonuçlar yine partner etkilerinin anlamsız, bazı aktör etkilerinin de anlamlı olduğunu göstermiştir. Şöyle ki, hem annenin ($\beta = -.48$) hem de babanın ($\beta = -.51$) bağlanma kaçınmaları anlamlı olarak kendi ebeveynlik işbirliği algılarını negatif yönde yordamıştır. Bu demek oluyor ki, Türkiye örneğinde anne ve babaların bağlanma kaçınmaları arttıkça birbirleriyle olan ebeveynlik işbirliği algıları düşmektedir.

Doğum Sonrası Depresyonun Yordanması: Algılanan ebeveynlik işbirliği ile doğum sonrası depresyon arasındaki ilişki yine APIM kullanılarak hem Türkiye hem de Amerika örneklerinde test edilmiştir. Hem iki ülkede de partner etkileri anlamsız bulunurken sadece annelerin aktör etkileri anlamlı bulunmuştur. Yani anneler eşleriyle uyumlu bir işbirliği içinde olduklarını düşündükçe kendi depresyon düzeylerinde düşüş gözlenirken (Türkiye için $\beta = -.42$; ABD için $\beta = -.44$) bu durum eşlerinin depresyon düzeyleri üzerinde etkili değildir. Gruplar arası iz analizi de bu ilişki kapsamında Türkiye ve Amerika örneklemi arasında anlamlı bir fark olmadığını göstermiştir.

Türkiye örnekleminde romantik bağlanmanın doğum sonrası depresyonu nasıl yordadığı da test edilmiştir. Yapılan analizler sonucunda partner etkileri anlamsız bulunurken, bağlanma kaygısının hem annenin ($\beta = .55$) hem de babanın ($\beta = .44$) kendi depresyon düzeylerini pozitif yönde etkiledikleri bulunmuştur.

Ebeveynlik Stresinin Yordanması: Ebeveynlik stresi sadece Türkiye örnekleminde ölçülmüştür. Sadece babaların algıladıkları ebeveynlik işbirliğinin kendi ebeveynlik stresini negatif yönde etkilediği (aktör etkisi) bulunmuştur ($\beta = -.33$). Romantik bağlanma ve ebeveynlik stresi arasındaki ilişki de APIM kullanılarak test edilmiştir. Sonuçlar bu ilişki için hem aktör hem de bazı partner etkilerinin anlamlı olduğunu göstermiştir. Annelerin ($\beta = .62$) ve babaların ($\beta = .43$) bağlanma kaygılarının kendi ebeveynlik stresini pozitif olarak yordadığı bulunmuştur. Bağlanma kaçınması ise sadece babaların ebeveynlik stresini anlamlı olarak yordamıştır ($\beta = .30$). Tek partner etkisi annelerin bağlanma kaygısı ile babaların ebeveynlik stresi arasında bulunmuştur. Yani annelerin bağlanma kaygısı sadece kendilerinin değil eşlerinin de ebeveynlik stresini ($\beta = .25$) artırmaktadır.

Tartışma

Mevcut çalışmanın sonuçları Türkiye örnekleminde hem gözlemlenen hem de rapor edilen ortak ebeveynliğin ABD örneklemiyle karşılaştırılabilir nitelikte olduğunu ve diğer aile değişkenleri ile anlamlı ve beklenen yönde ilişkili olduklarını göstermiştir. Gözlemlenen ve rapor edilen ortak ebeveynliğin, eşler arası ilişkilerle (evlilik uyumu, romantik bağlanma) ve ebeveynlik uyumu (ebeveynlikte stres ve doğum sonrası depresyon) ile olan ilişkileri beklendik yönde ve anlamlı bulunmuştur. Bu bulgular Minuchin'in (1974) aile sistemleri kuramında bahsedilen ortak ebeveynliğin diğer aile dinamiklerini yöneten idareci bir alt-sistem olduğunu desteklemesi açısından önemlidir.

Aile dinamiklerini anlayabilmek için her bir aile bireyinin bireysel özelliklerini ya da bireyler arası ikili ilişkileri incelemenin (anne-bebek, baba-bebek, anne-baba) önemi geçmiş çalışmalar ile göstermiştir. Ancak son zamanlarda yapılan çalışmalar, bir ailenin tüm dinamiklerini anlayabilmek için bu değişkenleri ayrı ayrı çalışmanın yetersiz olduğunu ve aile bireylerinin bir aradayken nasıl bir etkileşim içinde olduklarını incelemenin de önemli olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu nedenle iki klinik araştırmacı (Fivaz-

Depeursing ve Corboz-Warnery, 1999) tarafından geliştirilen Lozan Üçlü Oyun paradigması yazına önemli bir katkıda bulunmuştur. Bu standart gözlem yöntemi sayesinde hem bireysel, hem ikili hem de üçlü etkileşimleri bir arada gözlemlemek mümkün olabilmiştir. İlk başlarda klinik vakalarda kullanılan bu paradigma daha sonra bilimsel araştırmalar için de kullanılmaya başlanmıştır. Mevcut çalışmadan elde edilen bulgular bu paradigmanın Türkiye örneğinde de uygulanabilir olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu ölçüm aracının Türkiye’de aile terapisi vb. alanlarda çalışan uygulamacılar ve ortak ebeveynlik ve aile dinamikleri çalışan diğer araştırmacılar için önemli bir kaynak olması beklenmektedir. Ayrıca bu aracın uygulama alanlarında da kullanılması, özellikle ortak ebeveynlik ve işlevsel aile dinamiklerini güçlendirmeyi amaçlayan müdahale programları için yararlı bir araç olması beklenmektedir.

Bu araştırma bazı kısıtlılıklar içermektedir. Öncelikle araştırma deseni boylamsal değildir ve bulgular ilişkinin yönüne bakarak doğrudan neden-sonuç ilişkisi olarak yorumlanmamalıdır. Bir diğer sınırlılık ise örneklem sayısının görece düşük olmasıdır. Gelecek çalışmalarda bu bulguların daha geniş bir örnekleme tekrarlanması önerilmektedir. Son olarak, ortak ebeveynlik dışındaki diğer değişkenler sadece öz-bildirim yöntemi ile ölçülmüştür. Bu da “ortak yöntem varyansı” nedeniyle istenirlik yanlılığına açık bir durumdur. Bu nedenle, gelecek çalışmalarda, örneğin eşler arası uyumun ya da anne-büyükanne gözlem (bir konu hakkında tartışırken) ya da görüşme (ayrıntılı sorular sorularak) yoluyla ölçülmesi önerilmektedir.

Kısıtlılıklarının yanı sıra mevcut çalışmanın güçlü yanları bulunmaktadır. Mevcut çalışma Türkiye’de ortak ebeveynlik konusunda yapılan ilk çalışma olması özelliği ile yazına önemli bir katkıda bulunmaktadır. Kültürlerarası bir çalışma olması sayesinde de ebeveynlik davranışlarının kültüre özgü boyutlarını anlamak bakımında değerli bulgular elde edilmiştir. Ayrıca, Türkiye kültüründe anne eğitiminin aile dinamiklerinde oynadığı önemli rolünü bir kez daha göstermesi açısından da yazına katkıda bulunmuştur. Son olarak, mevcut çalışmanın ortak ebeveynliği hem gözlem hem de öz-bildirim yöntemiyle ölçebilecek araçları Türkçe yazına kazandırmıştır. Böylece araştırmacıların yanı sıra aile terapisi/danışmanlığı ve müdahale programlarında çalışan uygulayıcılar için de yararlı bir kaynak oluşturulmuştur.

Appendix H

CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Surname, Name: Salman Engin, Selin
Nationality: Turkish (TC)
Date and Place of Birth: 26 February 1983, Ankara
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EDUCATION

Degree	Institution	Year of Graduation
MS	METU Social Psychology	2007
BS	METU Sociology	2004
High School	Yalova High School Bursa Science High School (1996-1998)	1999

WORK EXPERIENCE

Year	Place	Enrollment
August 2012 – May 2013	Family Study Center, St. Petersburg Campus, University of South Florida, U.S.A	Visiting Scholar
Spring, 2010	Psychology Department, Tampa Campus, University of South Florida, U.S.A	Teaching Assistant
2009-2010 academic year	Family Study Center, St. Petersburg Campus, University of South Florida, U.S.A	Visiting Scholar
July 2006- October 2008	Relationship Research Lab, Middle East Technical University	Project Assistant

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Advanced English, Basic in Spanish

RESEARCH INTERESTS

Coparenting, intervention programs for (co)parenting, attachment theory

SUPPORTS AND AWARDS

- Scholarship of the Integrated Ph.D. Program The Turkish Academy of Sciences (June, 2010 – September 2014)
- Jacobs Foundation International Travel Award (1.200 CAD)
Society for Research in Child Development (SRCD) Biennial Meeting (March, 2011)

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- **Salman-Engin, S.** & Sümer, N. (2014). *Anne ve büyükannelerin ortak ebeveynlik davranışlarının gözlemlenmesi (Observations of mother-grandmother coparenting behaviors)*. 18th National Psychology Congress, 9-12 April, Bursa, Turkey.
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- **Salman, S.** & Sümer, N. (2011). *"The Roles of Attachment Security and Temperament on Adjustment in Middle Childhood"* Poster presented at the Society for Research in Child Development (SRCD) Biennial Meeting, March 31- April 2, Montreal, Quebec, Canada.
- McHale, J., **Salman, S.**, Strozier, A., Cecil, D. (2011). *"Away but Not Forgotten: Mother-Grandmother-Preschooler Triadic Interactions upon Mother's Return Home Following Incarceration"*. Symposium at the Society for Research in Child Development (SRCD) Biennial Meeting, March 31- April 2, Montreal, Quebec, Canada.

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- **Salman, S., Sakallı-Uğurlu, N., Turgut, S.,** (2008). “*Cinsel tacize ilişkin tutumları yordayan faktörler: Kontrol odağı inancı ve çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçilik*” Poster presented at the 15th National Psychology Congress, September 3-5, Istanbul University, Istanbul, Turkey.
- **Salman, S., Doğruyol, B., & Sümer, N.** (2008). “*Anne Davranışları Sınıflandırma Setinin Türkiye Örnekleminde Değerlendirilmesi*”. Paper presented at the 2nd Psychology Graduate Students Congress, June 26-29, Ankara University, Ilgaz, Turkey.
- Selçuk, E., Günaydın, G., Sümer, N., Harma, M., & **Salman S.** (2008). “*Are Attachment Anxiety and Avoidance Related to Different Aspects of Maternal Caregiving?*” Poster presented at 9th Annual SPSP Conference, February 7-10, Albuquerque, New Mexico, U.S.A.
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Appendix I

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 : SALMAN ENGİN

Adı : SELİN

Bölümü : PSYCHOLOGY

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) : Coparenting Processes in the US and Turkey: Triadic Interactions among Mothers, Fathers, and Grandmothers with 3-Month-Old Infants

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 (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınamaz.

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ: