

INVESTIGATING PROACTIVE AND REACTIVE SENSITIVITY IN ADULT
ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS FROM A CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

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FULYA KIRIMER AYDINLI

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Prof. Dr. Yaşar Kondakçı
Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Prof. Dr. Sibel Kazak Berument
Head of Department

This is to certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Prof. Dr. Nebi Sümer
Co-Supervisor

Asst. Prof. Dr. Başak Şahin-Acar
Supervisor

Examining Committee Members

Prof. Dr. Bengi Öner Özkan (METU, PSY)

Asst. Prof. Dr. Başak Şahin-Acar (METU, PSY)

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Emre Selçuk (Sabancı Uni., PSY)

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Mehmet Harma (Kadir Has Uni., PSY)

Asst. Prof. Dr. İrem Metin Orta (Atılım Uni., PSY)

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Name, Last name: Fulya Kırimer-Aydınlı

Signature:

ABSTRACT

INVESTIGATING PROACTIVE AND REACTIVE SENSITIVITY IN ADULT ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS FROM A CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

Kırimer-Aydınlı, Fulya

Ph.D., Department of Psychology

Supervisor: Assist. Prof. Dr. Başak Şahin-Acar

Co-Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Nebi Sümer

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In three consecutive studies, the current dissertation investigated the roles of proactive and reactive sensitivity in adult romantic relationships from a cross-cultural perspective and the roles of attachment orientations in understanding potential differences in partner/spouse sensitivity. In the first study, the psychometric properties of partner sensitivity and perceived partner sensitivity measures were tested on married participants in Turkey ($N = 297$). Although two types of sensitivity were obtained, there was a high correlation between the subscales that called for further studies. In the second study, the sensitivity measure was converted into a binary forced-choice scenario-based scale, and thus, categorical sensitivity variables were obtained. A dyadic study was conducted with married couples in Turkey ($N = 112$ couples). The psychometric quality of the revised scale was satisfactory, and proactive sensitivity was positively associated with the indicators of relationship functioning. Wives with high attachment avoidance and husbands with high

attachment anxiety perceived their spouses' proactive sensitivity negatively. Wives' attachment avoidance also predicted husbands' perceived proactive sensitivity. In the third study, a cross-cultural study was conducted with married/cohabiting individuals in Turkey ($N = 201$) and the United States ($N = 224$). The measure was partially invariant across the samples. Contrary to expectations, reactive sensitivity was the predominant pattern in Turkey, while both proactive and reactive sensitivity were common in the US. As expected, women were perceived as more proactively sensitive than men. Attachment avoidance was the major predictor of both types of sensitivity in Turkey and proactive sensitivity in the US. Cultural implications of the findings and suggestions for further research were discussed.

Keywords: Proactive sensitivity, reactive sensitivity, attachment anxiety and avoidance, adult romantic relationships, culture

ÖZ

ÖNGÖRÜSEL VE TEPKİSEL DUYARLILIĞIN YETİŞKİN ROMANTİK İLİŞKİLERİNDE KÜLTÜREL AÇIDAN İNCELENMESİ

Kırimer-Aydınlı, Fulya

Doktora, Psikoloji Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi: Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Başak Şahin-Acar

Ortak Tez Yöneticisi: Prof. Dr. Nebi Sümer

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Bu tezde, birbirini takip eden üç çalışma ile öngörüşel ve tepkisel duyarlılığın yetişkin romantik ilişkilerindeki rolü kültürler arası bakış açısıyla incelenmiş ve bağlanma boyutlarının (kaygı ve kaçınma) partner/eş duyarlılığındaki farklılıkları açıklamadaki potansiyel rolü araştırılmıştır. İlk çalışmada, partner duyarlılığı ve algılanan partner duyarlılığı ölçeklerinin psikometrik özellikleri Türkiye’de evli katılımcılar ($N = 297$) üzerinde incelenmiştir. Faktör analizlerinde iki duyarlılık boyutu elde edilmesine karşın, alt ölçekler arasındaki korelasyonun yüksek olması ek çalışmaların gerekliliğini işaret etmiştir. İkinci çalışmada, ölçek zorunlu cevaplama yöntemi kullanılarak senaryo temelli bir ölçeğe dönüştürülmüş ve kategorik duyarlılık değişkenleri elde edilmiştir. Türkiye’de evli çiftlerin katıldığı bir çalışma yürütülmüştür ($N = 112$ çift). Gözden geçirilen ölçeğin psikometrik yapısı yeterli düzeyde bulunmuştur. Öngörüşel duyarlılık ile ilişki işlevi göstergelerinin olumlu yönde ilişkili olduğu görülmüştür. Kültürel beklentileri doğrulayan çift analizleri, kaçınan bağlanan kadınların ve kaygılı bağlanan erkeklerin eşlerinin öngörüşel

duyarlılığını olumsuz algıladığını göstermiştir. Kadınlarda kaçınan bağlanmanın eşlerinin algıladıkları öngörüsel duyarlılık üzerinde de partner etkisine sahip olduğu bulunmuştur. Üçüncü çalışmada, Türkiye ($N = 201$) ve Amerika Birleşik Devletleri'ndeki ($N = 224$) evli/birlikte yaşayan bireyler ile kültürler arası bir çalışma yürütülmüştür. Algılanan duyarlılık ölçeğinin örneklem arası ölçme eşdeğerliği test edilmiş, kültürler arası beklentiler araştırılmıştır. Bulgular ölçeğin iki örneklem için kısmen eşdeğer olduğunu göstermiştir. Beklentilerin aksine, tepkisel duyarlılık Türkiye için baskın örüntü olurken, ABD'de hem öngörüsel hem tepkisel duyarlılığın yaygın olduğu bulunmuştur. Beklendiği üzere, kadınlar erkekler tarafından daha fazla öngörüsel duyarlılığa sahip olarak algılanmıştır. Kaçınan bağlanma Türkiye'de her iki duyarlılık türünün de, ABD'de ise öngörüsel duyarlılığın baskın belirleyicisi olmuştur. Bulguların kültürel etkileri ve gelecek araştırmalar için öneriler tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Öngörüsel duyarlılık, tepkisel duyarlılık, kaygılı ve kaçınan bağlanma, yetişkin romantik ilişkileri, kültür

To mom's camomile, Edin...

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

*“My bounty is as boundless as the sea,
My love as deep; the more I give to thee,
The more I have, for both are infinite.”
William Shakespeare, Romeo and Juliet*

Feeling and making feel that the “source” is infinite is essential for the maintenance of a healthy relationship. Indeed, sensitivity is a key element of that source. If one acts generously sensitive to the partner and if the partner welcomes this act, then the course and the function of a relationship could prosper. What does sensitive behavior or perceived sensitivity mean? Is it more noteworthy to think of being anticipated one’s needs without any expression (i.e., proactive sensitivity) or being responded to explicit cues (i.e., reactive sensitivity) by the partner? Is this act positive or negative, and for whom? Could proactive sensitivity be more functional in a specific cultural context while reactive sensitivity is more functional in another one? Why individuals living in the same cultural context evaluate the partner’s caregiving sensitivity in different ways? Could attachment dynamics explain the perceived differences among individuals? At that point, it seems remarkable to explain caregiving sensitivity in adult romantic relationships from both within-culture and between-culture perspectives.

The primary aims of this dissertation are to investigate whether caregiving sensitivity (i.e., proactive and reactive), of which impacts have been examined in the early developmental period, continues to exist in adult romantic relationships in a dyadic form, and whether it is shaped by gender- and culture-related dynamics. The

secondary aim is to explore the potential predictor roles of attachment orientations (i.e., attachment anxiety and avoidance) in caregiving sensitivity.

In the following section, a brief literature review of the major constructs covered in this dissertation will be presented, and the main hypotheses will be stated. In chapters 2, 3, and 4, three studies that were conducted to examine the reliability and validity of a newly developed measure of proactive-reactive sensitivity among romantic couples and to test the hypotheses will be presented. A general discussion of the findings and critical remarks of the current dissertation will be introduced in chapter 5.

1.1. Proactive and Reactive Caregiving Sensitivity

Caregiving sensitivity is defined as responding to the child's needs and reliving and reassuring him/her by considering his/her cues and expressions as well as the situation (Trommsdorff & Freidlmeier, 2010). Past researchers who examined the communication styles in mother-child interactions classified maternal caregiving sensitivity as proactive vs. reactive sensitivity considering mothers' style in fulfilling the child's needs and demands (Trommsdorff & Kornadt, 2003). Proactive sensitivity refers to anticipating the child's needs and responding to him/her by interpreting his/her implicit cues. Reactive sensitivity is characterized as being responsive to the child's explicit needs and expressions (Rothbaum, Nagaoka, & Ponte, 2006). The main characteristics of proactive and reactive caregiving sensitivity that were documented in the past studies (Rothbaum, Nagaoka, & Ponte, 2006; Rothbaum, Pott, Azuma, Miyake, & Weisz, 2000; Trommsdorff & Heikamp, 2013; Trommsdorff & Rothbaum, 2008) were presented in Table 1.1. Proactive sensitivity refers to nonverbal communication and indirect expressions. It is identified with telepathy. The child is not expected to express his/her needs straightforwardly. In contrast, reactive sensitivity refers to open communication and direct signals; and thus, the child is expected to reveal his/her needs explicitly. Proactively sensitive caregivers tend to behave preventive and fulfill the child's needs by tutoring to maintain interpersonal control and physical closeness. Reactively sensitive caregivers, on the other hand, tend to be promotion-focused towards the child's unity and fulfill the child's needs by partnering to support the child's intrapersonal

Table 1.1. Characteristics of Proactive and Reactive Sensitivity

| <i>Proactive Sensitivity</i> | <i>Reactive Sensitivity</i> |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| Anticipation | Responsiveness |
| Conjoint agency | Disjoint agency |
| Subtle and indirect cues | Explicit expression |
| Tutoring | Partnering |
| Telepathy | Direct communication |
| Trust based on social group loyalty | Trust based on the sense of confidence in others |
| Interdependence | Autonomy |
| Symbiotic harmony | Generative tension |
| Accommodation | Individuation |
| Prevention focus | Promotion focus |
| Suppressing negative emotions | Expressing negative emotions |
| Interpersonal regulation | Intrapersonal regulation |
| Physical closeness | Self-efficacy |
| Intuiting | No intrusion |

regulation and self-efficacy. The expression of self-focused negative emotions is suppressed, while the expression of other-focused negative emotions is encouraged in the proactive sensitive caregiving style for the sake of maintaining social harmony and interdependence. However, the expression of negative personal emotions is functional in reactive sensitivity to support the development of individuation, which implies their culture-specific functions (Rothbaum, Pott, Azuma, Miyake, & Weisz, 2000; Trommsdorff & Friedlmeier, 2010; Trommsdorff & Rothbaum, 2008).

Because caregiving sensitivity mostly refers to early caregiver-child interactions, previous studies have conceptualized proactive and reactive sensitivity from the early developmental perspective by focusing on mother-infant, mother-child, or teacher-preschooler relationships (e.g., Park, Trommsdorff, & Lee, 2012; Rothbaum, Nagaoka, & Ponte, 2006; Trommsdorff & Friedlmeier, 2010; Ziehm, Trommsdorff, Heikamp, & Park, 2013). Although the role of caregiving sensitivity in adulthood has been studied before (e.g., Kuncie & Shaver, 1994), to the best of the author's knowledge, no study to date has examined the differences between proactive

and reactive sensitivity in adult romantic relationships and their effects on relationship functioning.

In this framework, the primary aim of the present dissertation was first to develop a psychometrically sound measure of proactive and reactive sensitivity for romantic relationships, and then to test the unique function of these two different types of sensitivity among romantic partners.

Hypothesis 1: Proactive and reactive sensitivity would be systematically associated with the dynamics of adult romantic relationships.

1.1.1. Culture-Specific Caregiving Sensitivity

Although how it is expressed may differ across cultures (see Trommsdorff & Rothbaum, 2008), caregiving sensitivity is the precursor of attachment security (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978; Bowlby, 1969/1982). As a pivotal contribution to this notion, Rothbaum and colleagues (2000) argued that rather than being universal, the forms and functions of sensitivity changes depending on the cultural expectations. Past studies testing this argument indicated that the tendency to show proactive or reactive sensitivity to the child's needs is predominantly determined by cultural expectations toward implicit and explicit communication styles. A caregiver's sensitivity pattern indeed fits the interdependent or independent cultural structure in a given society. For instance, in Western societies, it is essential to support and regard individuation and autonomy of the child; therefore, the mother waits for help until the child gives a verbal or visual signal, which corresponds to reactive sensitivity. By contrast, in Eastern societies, it is important to maintain social harmony. The mother-child relationship is usually intrusive, aiming to prevent the child from experiencing potential distress. Thus, the mother anticipates the child's thoughts and requests and interferes without waiting for any signal by the child, which represents proactive sensitivity. These two types of sensitivity serve adaptive functions within the cultures they are compatible with, such as contributing to the child's sense of security and emotion regulation processes (Rothbaum, Rosen, Ujiie, & Uchida, 2002).

Emotion regulation is a process that includes internal and external operations to observe, evaluate, and manage self-related and others-related emotional reactions (Thompson, 1994). According to the researchers in the field of socialization of

emotion regulation, culture-specific sensitivity approaches (i.e., attachment orientations and caregiving sensitivity) directly related to the child's emotion regulation practices. Cultural context determines parenting beliefs and behaviors, which, in turn, shape the child's emotion regulation strategies. For instance, parents in Eastern countries regard the maintenance of social harmony and try to prevent the expression of negative emotions. Thus, they opt for proactive sensitivity in emotion regulation. Parents in Western countries, in contrast, value the independence of individuals and encourage the expression of self-focused emotions. Thus, they prefer reactive sensitivity in emotion regulation (see Trommsdorff & Heikamp, 2013). In other words, the child's emotion regulation strategies are formed by culture-based parental expectations and behaviors.

Culture is the key concept that embeds functionality to behaviors, values, and skills and transmits them to other generations, thereby providing long-term adjustment to social settings (Trommsdorff & Kornadt, 2003). Values that one culture cares about are no more valuable or functional than those of other cultures. The meanings and targeted outcomes that cultures place on the same values are different (Rothbaum & Trommsdorff, 2007). Even if a specific behavior is enacted in different forms depending on cultural context, the same response could have the same function in various cultures. Likewise, yet different responses could have the same function among cultures (Bornstein, 2012). Therefore, the impact of culture-specific behaviors on the target should be assessed within the culture itself (Rothbaum & Trommsdorff, 2007). In a culture where relatedness and empathic concerns are considered as necessary in human relationships, emotional reactions are managed to maintain social harmony and interdependency. "The interdependent self" regards prevention goals, such as cherishing others' value judgments, following societal norms, and suppressing negative personal emotions. In a culture where autonomy and "independent self" are important to accomplish promotion goals, self-focused emotional expressions are encouraged to prevent harmful effects of suppression. Caregivers follow different sensitivity agencies while contributing to the child's developmental processes depending on these cultural mindsets (Trommsdorff & Heikamp, 2013; Trommsdorff & Rothbaum, 2008).

Differences in caregiving sensitivity in emotion regulation processes have been demonstrated in the previous cultural and cross-cultural studies. For instance, a scenario-based study was conducted among Korean mothers. For each scenario, including the child's positive or negative emotions (e.g., "when your child looks unhappy"), mothers were asked to choose either proactive or reactive sensitivity behavior toward the child's experience. Mothers who showed a proactive sensitivity tendency reported to give more importance to the child's immaturity and safety. Those who showed reactive sensitivity tendency reported that they promote the child's independence and self-disclosure (Park, Trommsdorff, & Lee, 2012). In a cross-cultural study, it was found that German mothers of first graders commonly preferred waiting for help until their children request (i.e., reactive sensitivity) to foster their autonomy. Korean mothers, however, respond proactively or reactively depending on the situation experienced by the child. They usually helped their children without waiting for an explicit request from them (i.e., proactive sensitivity) (Ziehm, Trommsdorff, Heikamp, & Park, 2013). In another scenario-based study conducted with preschool teachers in Japan and the United States, Japanese teachers reported that anticipating the child's needs in daily situations is more important while the most of the American teachers chose to respond to explicit expressions rather than anticipating (Rothbaum, Nagaoka, & Ponte, 2006). Both mothers' and teachers' explanations for proactive and reactive sensitivity behaviors supported the culturally relevant sensitivity approach, which suggests that preference for a sensitivity pattern is adaptive for the child's emotion regulation on its cultural context (Trommsdorff & Heikamp, 2013). As a result, the type of sensitivity that confirms culture-specific objectives is considered functional for that culture. Likewise, sensitivity behaviors in adulthood are shaped on the basis of cultural expectations. Similar to early proactive mother-child interaction, mind-reading and avoiding direct communication are important for reassuring the maintenance of a romantic relationship in Japan. In contrast, verbal communication and even conflict are seen as reinforcing trust and romance between partners in the United States (see Rothbaum et al., 2000).

In the light of previous findings and theoretical arguments, it is plausible to expect that sensitivity in adult romantic relationships may predominantly be proactive or reactive depending on the cultural context through the dyadic nature of

adult relationships. This expectation will be tested by comparing married individuals from the US, representing an individualist culture and Turkey representing a collectivist culture (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010) in the current dissertation. Moreover, unlike mother-child or teacher-preschooler interaction investigated in the past, romantic partners are more likely to have reciprocal relationships. Therefore, not only one's caregiving behavior but also the partner's caregiving pattern should be considered (Feeney & Collins, 2001). In this framework, it was predicted that in parallel with the early developmental period, proactive sensitivity is relatively compatible with collectivistic, and reactive sensitivity is compatible with the individualist cultural context in adulthood. Accordingly, the following hypothesis was proposed.

Hypothesis 2: Proactive sensitivity in Turkey and reactive sensitivity in the US would be the predominant pattern of sensitivity among romantic partners.

1.1.2. Gender-Specific Roles in Caregiving Sensitivity

In addition to cultural variations, gender roles, mostly in interaction with culture, may play a critical role in facilitating the adoption of proactive vs. reactive sensitivity. According to Brody and Hall (2008), the ways of expression and regulation of emotions are shaped by cultural and situational contexts as well as gender. Because the studies conducted in the early developmental period have focused on the primary caregiver's proactive and reactive sensitivity responses only, any explicit predictions have not been made about the potential role of caregiver's or caretaker's gender in the sensitivity process. Instead, the literature about the communication of emotion presents evidence to expect gender differences in evaluating the partner's sensitivity.

For instance, Hall, Carter, and Horgan (2000) speculated on gender differences in emotional expression through the differences in social knowledge practiced in society. As women and men are exposed to different social environments by the effects of gender roles, norms, stereotypes, and certain evolutionary expectations (e.g., reproduction and nursing), they develop different social skills and behaviors. Women are expected and encouraged to be more sensitive to other's needs. Thus, growing in a more sympathetic and sentient environment, as compared to men, women are more likely to develop nonverbal skills in a way to maintain

gender-fit behaviors. It is considered appropriate for women to behave warmly, supportively, and contentedly for the welfare of social relationships. Men, on the contrary, are expected to conceal some specific emotions, such as sadness, displeasure, and fear, which are considered as the weakness of power (Brody, 2000). Accordingly, women perceive nonverbally expressed emotions better than men do (McClure, 2000), whereas men use emotion-related words and gestures fewer than women do (Levenson, Carstensen, & Gottman, 1994). It has been emphasized that women are not only better in detecting nonverbal cues but also verbalizing their feelings in the interactions than men are (see Brody & Hall, 2008). Studies on emotional intelligence also supported that women detect emotions, convey thoughts through emotions, become aware of emotions, and regulate them more accurately than men do (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 1999). In the past studies conducted with married couples, wives were found to be more willing to initiate conversations and share their feelings, especially in stressful or anger-triggering situations, as compared to husbands. Husbands are more apt to withdraw verbal conflict and to attenuate facial expression and eye contact during stressful interactions (Burke, Weir, & Harrison, 1976; Christensen & Heavey, 1990; Vogel, Wester, Heesacker, & Madon, 2003).

In this framework, it was speculated that attributions to partner caregiving sensitivity might change for women and men depending on gender-related expectations. It is plausible to expect that women are more likely to detect implicit cues and respond simultaneously. In contrast, men are more likely to respond to women's overt signals and to expect their needs to be anticipated because of fewer emotional expressions. Based on the socially accepted roles, men could expect women to verbalize their feelings; therefore, it could be more probable to respond to women's psychological needs after they vocalize them. Unspoken could not be expected to men; therefore, they could prefer waiting for explicit expression and then responding as an indication of reactive sensitivity. Hence, women could be more likely to perceive men as reactively sensitive. Likewise, since women's non-verbal skills are more sophisticated, and men tend to avoid verbal expressions, men are more apt to perceive women as proactively sensitive. Accordingly, it was expected that women are open to reading the cues and detecting the needs, whereas men are

more likely to anticipate responding until the other side shows an obvious expression. Thus, it was hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 3: Women would be more proactively sensitive as compared to men, whereas men would be more reactively sensitive as compared to women.

1.2. The Potential Roles of Attachment Orientations in Proactive and Reactive Sensitivity

In addition to the cultural- and gender-related variations, personal differences may influence caregiving sensitivity behaviors and perceptions. It is, therefore, necessary to take into account the individual variables to detect the functionality of proactive and reactive sensitivity. Conceptually, caregiving cooperates with attachment in determining the quality of adult romantic relationships (Feeney, 1996; Feeney & Hohaus, 2001). Therefore, it was considered that adult attachment dynamics have the potential to explain the perceptual differences in proactive and reactive caregiving sensitivity.

Past researchers conceptualized the adult attachment into two orthogonal dimensions, namely, attachment anxiety and avoidance (Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Attachment anxiety refers to seeking constant intimacy and worrying about the loss of interest of the close others. Individuals with attachment anxiety tend to use hyperactivation strategies to keep the responsiveness and availability of the attachment figure. Attachment avoidance refers to feeling discomfort with intimacy and keeping the psychological and physical distance with close others. Individuals with attachment avoidance tend to use deactivation strategies to draw strict personal boundaries. The interaction of higher and lower levels of these two attachment dimensions results in four particular attachment styles. Secure attachment corresponds to the lower levels of both attachment anxiety and avoidance, whereas preoccupied attachment is the combination of higher levels of attachment anxiety and lower levels of attachment avoidance. Dismissing attachment refers to having lower levels of attachment anxiety but higher levels of attachment avoidance. Fearful attachment matches higher levels of both attachment anxiety and avoidance (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2003).

The attachment behavioral system is an intrinsic regulation-based mechanism. Supportive and consistent parenting is critical to developing robust attachment bonds with a caregiver, which provides long-lasting physical and psychological well-being (see Cassidy, 2008). To the attachment theory, independent from the “type” of sensitivity, feeling mother’s sensitivity is necessary for the child to exceed developmental milestones in a healthy way (e.g., exploration of the environment) and to form attachment security. Infant’s attachment behaviors are formed depending on the mother’s caregiving behaviors. The need for attachment in time also shapes caregiving. This process indicates a “dynamic equilibrium” between the mother and the child (Bowlby, 1982, p. 236). Based on this interaction, studies on caregiving sensitivity during adulthood have shown the role of attachment mechanisms in care-seeking and caretaking processes.

Conducting the first study about the link between adult attachment and caregiving sensitivity, Kuncze and Shaver (1994) developed an instrument to measure the quality of caregiving sensitivity among couples. The instrument includes *proximity, sensitivity, cooperation, and compulsive* caregiving dimensions. Proximity (vs. distance) represents being comfortable to show physical closeness, while sensitivity (vs. insensitivity) corresponds to being aware of the partner’s nonverbal expressions for needs and help. Cooperation (vs. control) reflects the extent of coerciveness in fulfilling the partner’s needs, whereas compulsive (vs. non-compulsive) caregiving corresponds to overinvolvement to partner’s problems. They found that securely attached individuals were more sensitive to the partner’s cues and needs, whereas those with insecure attachment (i.e., preoccupied, dismissing, or fearful) reported higher compulsive caregiving. The subsequent studies also focused on the appropriateness and effectiveness of caregiving behaviors. Supporting Kuncze and Shaver’s (1994) findings, and using their classifications for caregiving, researchers revealed that individuals with higher levels of attachment insecurity (i.e., anxiety or avoidance) were less sensitive, less cooperative, higher controlling, and higher compulsive to their partners’ needs in time of distress (e.g., Collins & Feeney, 2000; Feeney, 1996; Feeney & Collins, 2001; Feeney & Hohaus, 2001). In another study, caregiving activity was measured utilizing a composite score of reciprocal, engaging, and neglectful caregiving toward the partner. Reciprocal sensitivity

reflects whether partners show an equal amount of care to each other. Engaging in caregiving represents whether one takes an active role in showing sensitivity to the partner. Neglectful caregiving reflects whether one feels responsible for caring for the partner in times of need. Individuals who had fearful-avoidant attachment reported having less caregiving activity to their partners (Carnelley, Pietromonaco, & Jaffe, 1996). Feeney and Collins (2003) investigated the underlying motivations of providing or not providing caregiving among couples. They found that insecurely attached people have self-centered motives to provide caregiving, which, in turn, results in unqualified caregiving.

The findings of the abovementioned studies elucidate the expectations of the current study that attachment-related anxiety and avoidance might explain perceptual differences in partner's proactive and reactive sensitivity in dyadic relationships. It has been suggested before that one's attachment orientation could influence his/her support-seeking strategies that, in turn, determine the partner's caregiving behaviors (Millings & Walsh, 2009). Besides, this study differs from previous studies in terms of some critical points. First, approaches to caregiving were different. One of the particular purposes of the current study was to display whether individuals are more likely to be perceived as proactively or reactively sensitive by their partners rather than to examine the extent of effectiveness in the caregiving sensitivity process (e.g., Feeney & Collins, 2001). The aim was not to focus on whether individuals provide care or not to their partners, either (e.g., Feeney & Collins, 2003). Instead of making inferences that insecurely attached individuals can be ineffective caregivers or that their sensitivity behaviors are perceived as poor quality, it was aimed to examine which of these two sensitivity behaviors are prevalent among partners depending on their attachment patterns. Second, several studies conducted on this issue used dating couples from university student samples only (e.g., Carnelley, Pietromonaco, & Jaffe, 1996; Collins & Feeney, 2000), which were resulted in inconsistent findings (Millings & Walsh, 2009). Considering that the link of attachment and caregiving processes might function differently in relatively more stable and lasting relationships (Millings & Walsh, 2009), the samples of the current study were composed of community samples (i.e., married or cohabiting individuals in Study 1 and 3, and married or cohabiting couples in Study 2). Third, past research conducted

to date explained the link between attachment (in)security and caregiving sensitivity mainly through the Western individualist perspective and have not focused on the potential role of cultural dynamics. However, attachment tendencies of individuals might explain perceptual differences in partner's sensitivity depending on the cultural context (Rothbaum, Weisz, Pott, Miyake, & Morelli, 2000). Forth, to the best of our knowledge, potential interaction effects of culture and gender in the caregiving process has not been taken into account in adult attachment studies. Thus, in the current study, to explain within-culture and between-culture variations in proactive and reactive caregiving, culture- and gender-based functioning of attachment (in)security was considered. In the following section, specific expectations about the effects of attachment insecurity on perceived proactive and reactive caregiving sensitivity were addressed considering culture- and gender-based variations in attachment orientations.

1.2.1. Cultural and Gender Differences in Attachment Orientations

Adaptive functions of attachment orientations (i.e., attachment anxiety and avoidance) may vary in adulthood depending on the cultural contexts and gender roles in the societies (Harma & Sümer, 2016). The prevalence of attachment anxiety is higher in collectivist cultures, whereas the prevalence of attachment avoidance is higher in individualist cultures (Sagi, van IJzendoorn, & Koren-Karie, 1991; Schmitt, 2010; Schmitt et al., 2004; Sümer & Yetkili, 2018). According to Friedman, Rholes, Simpson, Bond, Diaz-Loving, and Chan's (2010) culture-fit hypothesis, if a specific insecure attachment orientation has a higher prevalence in a cultural context, then it would result in less negative consequences. Supporting this, they found that attachment avoidance was associated with lower perceived support and relationship satisfaction in collectivist cultures (i.e., Hong Kong and Mexico), as compared to individualist cultures (i.e., the United States). In Eastern collectivist societies, where physical and psychological tightness is more acceptable to retain familial bonds and societal harmony, attachment anxiety was not specifically maladaptive (Rothbaum, Rosen, Ujiie, & Uchida, 2002; Sümer & Kağıtçıbaşı, 2010). In Western cultures, however, attachment avoidance may have an adaptive function for the relationships because attachment avoidance supports the formation of autonomy in these societies (Rothbaum, Weisz, Pott, Miyake, & Morelli, 2000; Schmitt, 2010). In the current

study, considering the culture-fit hypothesis, it was expected that since attachment avoidance would be less adaptive in the collectivist cultural context, its power would be stronger in predicting perceived caregiving sensitivity constructs in Turkey. In contrast, attachment anxiety, which is incompatible with individualist cultural context, would predict perceived caregiving sensitivity constructs in the United States.

It was also emphasized in the literature that specific gender roles in a given society could explain within-culture variations in adult attachment orientations. The Turkish cultural context draws a psychological/emotional interdependence culture profile that prioritizing interpersonal relations as well as autonomy (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005). In this cultural context, women are expected to show absolute intimacy to children and spouse suggesting that the attachment anxiety could have an adaptive function, especially for women while women's attachment avoidance could be detrimental for the survival of the close family relationships (Ataca, 2009; Sümer & Kağıtçıbaşı, 2010). A study supporting the culture-fit hypothesis showed that women had higher levels of attachment anxiety than men (Sümer & Yetkili, 2018). A dyadic study conducted in Turkey found that although attachment anxiety was more prevalent among women and men than attachment avoidance, the predictive power of both spouses' attachment avoidance on their marital satisfaction and conflict was higher than attachment anxiety (Harma & Sümer, 2016). Another study revealed that women's attachment avoidance in Turkey was the only predictor of life satisfaction (Sümer & Yetkili, 2018). Women's attachment avoidance, but not anxiety, was also found to be negatively related to maternal sensitivity in Turkey (Selçuk et al., 2010). Accordingly, it was expected that wives with high attachment avoidance perceive husbands' caregiving sensitivity more negatively than those with high attachment anxiety in Turkey.

There is a plausible argument that can be proposed for men in the collectivist cultural context in terms of the adaptive functions of attachment insecurity. Although men are expected to be slightly anxiously attached to maintain family welfare, as an indicator of attachment anxiety, emotional expression was not as desirable as in women (Harma & Sümer, 2016). Men are expected to conceal their feelings because the expression of emotions could be evaluated as a weakness of power (Brody,

2000). It can be argued that hyperactivating regulation strategies seem to be more common among women, rather than men. The studies showing the match of avoidant women and anxious men was the most detrimental coupling for the relationship functioning (e.g., Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994; Feeney, 2008; Harma & Sümer, 2016) also support this argument. Another dyadic study carried out in Turkey showed the direct link between attachment insecurity and perceived partner behaviors. It was found that wives' attachment avoidance and husbands' attachment anxiety were negatively associated with their own perceived mattering and perceived responses toward capitalization attempts (Kırimer-Aydınlı & Sümer, unpublished manuscript). Thus, it was predicted that anxiously attached men are expected to perceive wives' caregiving sensitivity as more negative than avoidantly attached men in Turkey.

In the current study, the collaboration of caregiving sensitivity with attachment dynamics was considered from both cultural and gender roles perspective to better understand the variation in caregiving sensitivity in adulthood, and to explain underlying motivations for differential caregiving processes. Therefore, considering cultural differences, it was predicted that attachment avoidance would relate to perceived partner caregiving sensitivity more negatively than attachment anxiety in Turkey, while attachment anxiety would associate with evaluations of partner caregiving sensitivity more negatively than attachment avoidance in the United States. Within-culture and gender-related expectations were considered, and it was proposed that women's attachment avoidance and men's attachment anxiety would more likely link to negative evaluations in partner sensitivity in Turkey. The specific hypotheses were as follows:

Hypothesis 4: Attachment dimensions (i.e., anxious and avoidant) would predict both proactive and reactive sensitivity negatively.

Hypothesis 4a: Wives' attachment avoidance and husbands' attachment anxiety would be the predominant predictor of their own and spouses' perceived sensitivity in Turkey.

Hypothesis 4b: Overall, attachment avoidance in Turkey and attachment anxiety in the US would be the predominant predictor of perceived sensitivity.

1.3. Purpose of the Current Research and the Hypotheses

The previous studies concerning culture-specific caregiving sensitivity focused on parental sensitivity in early developmental periods only. Whether caregiving sensitivity is also observed in adult romantic relationships has been still unexamined. Therefore, this study primarily aims to examine whether proactive and reactive caregiving sensitivity are relevant to the dynamics of adult romantic relationships. Besides, cross-cultural studies have been conducted mainly comparing typical individualist Western countries (e.g., the United States and Germany) and typically collectivistic far Eastern countries (e.g., Japan, Korea, and China) Considering the adaptive functions of both self-reliance and harmony in the Turkish cultural context (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005) as a kind of combination of Western and Eastern cultures, the current study is expected to contribute literature on proactive and reactive caregiving sensitivity by providing a novel cultural perspective.

Contrary to caregiver-child relationships, romantic relationships are discretionary and symmetrical (Collins & Sroufe, 1999), indicating that caregiving becomes a mutual need, and both parties can take the caregiver roles (Feeney & Collins, 2001). Thus, proactive and reactive caregiving sensitivity will be investigated by considering gender differences. Moreover, since caregiver behaviors are expected to affect both parties' personal and relational outcomes, within-culture variations in caregiving sensitivity will be investigated from a dyadic perspective.

Besides, it was proposed that attachment anxiety and avoidance might be associated with partner sensitivity. Between- and within-culture variations in attachment dynamics, as well as gender-specific expectations, were considered to better understand the impacts of attachment orientations on proactive and reactive sensitivity.

In sum, in the current dissertation, it is aimed to investigate whether the effects of proactive and reactive caregiving sensitivity could be observed in adult romantic relationships and whether attachment anxiety and avoidance would be systematically associated with perceived caregiving sensitivity. Specific hypotheses are as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Proactive and reactive sensitivity would be systematically associated with the dynamics of adult romantic relationships.

Hypothesis 2: Proactive sensitivity in Turkey and reactive sensitivity in the US would be the predominant pattern of sensitivity among romantic partners.

Hypothesis 3: Women would be more proactively sensitive as compared to men, whereas men would be more reactively sensitive as compared to women.

Hypothesis 4: Attachment dimensions (i.e., anxious and avoidant) would predict both proactive and reactive sensitivity negatively.

Hypothesis 4a: Wives' attachment avoidance and husbands' attachment anxiety would be the predominant predictor of their own and spouses' perceived sensitivity in Turkey.

Hypothesis 4b: Overall, attachment avoidance in Turkey and attachment anxiety in the US would be the predominant predictor of perceived sensitivity.

CHAPTER 2

STUDY 1

2.1. Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of the first study is first to develop a measure of proactive and reactive caregiving sensitivity and to test its psychometric properties among adult romantic partners. The secondary purpose is to test Hypothesis 1, indicating that proactive and reactive sensitivity would be relevant to the dynamics of adult romantic relationships. In the scope of these purposes, it is necessary to examine whether proactive and reactive sensitivity are distinct from but related to specific constructs, such as self-disclosure and perceived partner responsiveness (PPR), caregiving system, regulatory focus that are known to have effects on relationship functioning with the dynamics similar to caregiving sensitivity. Thus, it was aimed to test the construct validity of the novel scale by proposing low-to-medium associations with related measures.

Self-disclosure can be defined as making the self known by the others (Jourard & Lasakow, 1958). It includes personal information as well as the feelings, wishes, fears, and beliefs that are important for the person (Reis, 2006). Since reactive sensitivity consists of explicit expressions, it was suggested that self-disclosure would be associated with reactive sensitivity stronger than its association with proactive sensitivity.

PPR is the evaluation process of the partner's reactions as responsive or unresponsive in times of need. PPR depends on three major qualities, namely, the sense of being understood, validated, and cared for by the partner (Reis & Shaver, 1988; Reis, Clark, & Holmes, 2004). Although PPR is similar in content to sensitivity, it is based on how the person evaluates partner responsiveness in general with making no distinction between proactive and reactive sensitivity. However, proactive and reactive sensitivity mostly involves evaluating the partner behaviors

towards certain emotional states and / or emotional needs depending on whether the person expresses his/her needs or not. Thus, proactive sensitivity, reactive sensitivity, and PPR are suggested to be moderately related.

Moreover, the socialization of emotion regulation process is usually determined by the prevalent cultural values. Regulatory focus mechanisms and attachment-related strategies are the two systems that form emotion regulation processes depending on cultural patterns and goals. In a cultural context, where the independent self is more valued than the interdependent self, people are assumed to have promotion-focused motivation to enhance the self-efficacy. In a cultural context, where the interdependent self is more valued than the independent self, people are assumed to have prevention-focused motivation to preclude the society from the potential threats by suppressing emotions in public (Trommsdorff & Rothbaum, 2008). Cross-cultural parenting studies addressed that people in Eastern cultures prefer proactive sensitivity to maintain social harmony that is provided with prevention-focus motivation. In contrast, those in Western cultures prefer reactive sensitivity to promote self-confidence that is provided with promotion-focus motivation (see Trommsdorff & Heikamp, 2013).

In parallel, deactivation or hyperactivation of the attachment system plays a role in emotion regulation. In independent cultures, where self-regulation is prioritized, deactivation of negative emotions prevents the self from further distress. In interdependent cultures, where the coregulation of the self and society is prioritized, hyperactivation of negative emotions provides people to gain support from others (Trommsdorff & Rothbaum, 2008). In this framework, proactive and reactive sensitivity are assumed to be associated with regulatory focus mechanisms and caregiving strategies in adulthood at varying levels, depending on the cultural values.

In addition to the construct validity, a potential gender difference can be interpreted as a support for the divergent validity of the measures. Specifically, in parallel with the gender-related hypothesis, women are expected to have higher levels of proactive sensitivity than men and men are expected to have higher levels of reactive sensitivity than women.

In sum, proactive sensitivity is expected to be associated with prevention-focused strategies, hyperactivating caregiving system in relationships, and being female; whereas reactive sensitivity is expected to be related with promotion-focus goals, deactivation of the caregiving system, and being male.

2.2. Method

2.2.1. Participants

The sample consisted of married or cohabiting individuals for at least six months. Most of the participants were recruited via social networks. Others were reached in a psychology course in return for extra credit.

In total, 359 participants completed the questionnaire battery. Those who gave incorrect answers to any of the three attention check items (e.g., “Mark this item as 2”), those who live out of Turkey, and those who were not married or cohabiting were removed from the data leaving 297 participants for further analyses. Of participants, 81% were women. The age range was between 22 and 68 ($M = 35.34$, $SD = 9.48$). Eighty-nine percent of the participants were married, and 11% were cohabiting. The duration of the marriage or cohabiting varied between 6 months and 44 years ($M = 131.52$ months, $SD = 111.78$). Majority of the participants had an undergraduate (60.3%) or a graduate degree (28.3%) ($M = 4.18$, $SD = .65$). Income levels were as follows: 48.8% middle, 39.1% middle-high, 7.1% high, 4% middle-low, and 0.7% low.

2.2.2. Procedure

Before the data collection, the questionnaire battery was submitted to the Human Participants Ethics Committee at Middle East Technical University. After the approval of the committee (see Appendix A), the battery (see Appendix B) was distributed via an online survey platform (www.qualtrics.com). The instruments were presented in a counterbalanced order.

2.2.3. Instruments

Caregiving Sensitivity and Perceived Caregiving Sensitivity Scales were developed, and a normative study was conducted to examine the relationships of proactive and reactive sensitivity with other related variables and to test its reliability and validity. The Self-Disclosure Index, Perceived Partner Responsiveness Scale, Caregiving System Scale (i.e., hyperactivating vs. deactivating), and Regulatory

Focus in Relationships Scale (i.e., prevention vs. promotion focus) were used to test the validity of the newly developed instruments. The Experiences in Close Relationships Scale was employed to investigate the potential associations between the two types of sensitivity and attachment orientations.

2.2.3.1. Caregiving Sensitivity and Perceived Caregiving Sensitivity Scales

To test the relevance of proactive and reactive caregiving sensitivity in adulthood, first, Caregiving Sensitivity Scale (CSS) and Perceived Caregiving Sensitivity Scale (PCSS) were planned to be developed for romantic relationships. Before developing the measurement tools, the methods used to measure proactive-reactive sensitivity in early childhood were reviewed.

One of the commonly utilized methods was observing and classifying mothers' sensitivity behaviors as proactive or reactive (e.g., Hirsh-Pasek & Burchinal, 2006; Trommsdorff & Friedlmeier, 2010). Another method was using a scenario-based assessment that was conducted to understand which type of sensitivity caregivers show in certain situations. For instance, the Caregiver Sensitivity Interview (CSI) Questionnaire with 12 scenarios was developed (Rothbaum, Nagaoka, & Ponte, 2006). After the presentation of each scenario, participants were asked to select one of the options representing proactive and reactive sensitivity beliefs (e.g., "If a child is in a bad mood, would you think: (a) it is better to go to this child and offer comfort by sitting close to him/her and talking to him/her or (b) it is better to let this child know that he/she can approach you if he/she feels she needs comfort?").

The interview method was first used to investigate teachers' expectations and reactions in context-dependent situations (Rothbaum, Nagaoka, & Ponte, 2006). The subsequent studies adapted the instrument to measure maternal sensitivity (e.g., Park, Trommsdorff, & Lee, 2012; Trommsdorff, Cole, & Heikamp, 2012). In a study, after choosing one of the options per scenario, in open-ended questions, mothers were asked to indicate why they chose this option. Then, mothers' responses were categorized as proactive or reactive behavior. For instance, if a mother told that the child needs to learn to deal with problems independently and the mother cannot know everything that the child may need, this rationalization was classified as an indicator of reactive behavior. If she told that the child is too young to know what to

do; therefore, the child needs someone who provides comfort, the response was considered as the representative of proactive sensitivity (Ziehm, Trommsdorff, Heikamp, & Park, 2013). Although the CSI and its derivatives were used to understand the role of proactive-reactive sensitivity in the caregiver-child interaction in early childhood, there is not any tool to measure these structures in adult romantic relationships. Moreover, the scenarios were specifically based on situations that children might encounter; therefore, the adaptation of the existing scenarios to adult romantic relationships would not be suitable. A novel instrument was decided to be developed.

Initially an item pool with 42 items was formed considering the past studies conducted for early parent-child interactions, and then, expert researchers in the relationship research arena were asked to rate items considering the provided criteria for reactive and proactive sensitivity. The items were listed in a counterbalanced order, and three questions were asked for each item in the expert evaluation. First, the expert raters were asked to select which category (i.e., proactive, reactive, none) the item represents. Second, it was asked to rate the degree of representation of the given category (1 = *never represents at all*, 9 = *totally represents*). Third, it was asked to add any additional comments or suggestions for rewording. Fifteen social and developmental psychologists from psychology departments in three universities rated the given items. The items classified in both categories or rated in a relatively wider range (e.g., from 5 to 9 in Likert) were removed from the pool. The wordings of certain items were revised by considering the comments of the researchers. Twenty-one items remained. Then, considering the comments and recommendations, 23 additional items were added by the author and co-advisor to increase the diversity of situations where partners could show sensitivity behaviors. The final version of the CSS consisted of 34 items (e.g., “I show her/him the support s/he needs without asking for help”). PCSS was generated by adapting the CSS items to measure the perceived partner’s caregiving sensitivity (e.g., “S/he shows the support I need without asking for help”). Six-point Likert scale was used (1 = *never*, 6 = *always*).

2.2.3.2. Self-Disclosure Index (SDI)

The SDI was developed by Miller, Berg, and Archer (1983) and measures the extent to which individuals have disclosed to their partners about personal aspects

and emotions (e.g., “What I like and dislike about myself”). The 10-item index was adapted into Turkish for this study using translation and back-translation procedure. Five-point Likert scale was used (1 = *haven't discussed at all*, 5 = *discussed fully and completely*). Cronbach's alpha value for the SDI was .87.

2.2.3.3. Perceived Partner Responsiveness (PPR)

The 18-item PPR was used to assess the cognitive-based evaluation of the partner's responsive behaviors from one's own perspective. The PPR was developed by Reis (2003) and adapted into Turkish by Taşfiliz, Sağel-Çetiner, and Selçuk (under review). The scale has one factor-structure, and higher scores correspond to evaluating partner responsiveness more positive (e.g., “My spouse/partner usually knows me well”). Seven-point scale was used (1 = *totally disagree*, 7 = *totally agree*). Internal consistency of the scale was found as .96.

2.2.3.4. Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R) - Short Version

The 10-item short version of ECR-R (Fraley, Waller, & Brennan, 2000; Selçuk, Günaydın, Sümer, & Uysal, 2005 for Turkish; Zayas, Mischel, Shoda, & Aber, 2011) was used to measure adult attachment orientations (i.e., anxiety and avoidance). It was rated on a scale ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 7 (totally agree). Higher scores in each dimension show more tendency to form anxious (e.g., “I often worry that my partner doesn't really love me”) or avoidant (e.g., “I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on my partner”) attachment with romantic partner or spouse. Cronbach's alpha values were .80 for attachment anxiety, and .78 for attachment avoidance.

2.2.3.5. Caregiving System Scale

The 20-item scale was originally developed by Shaver, Mikulincer, and Shemesh-Iron (2010) and translated into Turkish by Harma, Aktaş, and Yılmaz (unpublished manuscript). Respondents rated their emotions, thoughts, and behaviors while helping anybody who seeks for help. The items were revised to measure helping behaviors to the romantic partner rather than anybody. Helping behaviors were categorized into two main strategies, namely hyperactivation (e.g., “When helping my spouse/partner, I often worry that I won't be as good at it as other people are.”) and deactivation (e.g., “When I see my spouse/partner in distress, I don't feel comfortable jumping in to help”) strategies. Higher scores indicated using higher

hyperactivating or deactivating strategies (1 = *not at all*, 7 = *very much*). Cronbach's alpha values were calculated as .73 for hyperactivation, and .75 for deactivation subscales.

2.2.3.6. Regulatory Focus in Relationships Scale

Promotion/Prevention Scale was developed by Lockwood, Jordan, and Kunda (2002). The scale was adapted to romantic relationships by Winterheld and Simpson (2011), and renamed as "Regulatory Focus in Relationships". Since there was no Turkish version of it, the 13-item scale was translated into Turkish by considering the Turkish version of the Prevention/Promotion Scale (Doğruyol, 2008). Respondents rated to what extent they focus on promotion or prevention goals in their romantic relationships. Higher scores indicated higher focus on promotion (e.g., "I am typically striving to fulfill the hopes and dreams I have for my relationships") or prevention (e.g., "I often think about what I fear might happen to my romantic relationships in the future") goals. The seven-point scale was used (1 = *not at all true of me*, 7 = *highly true of me*). Cronbach's alpha values were .77 for promotion, and .75 for prevention focus.

2.2.3.7. Demographic Information

Gender, age, education level, family income level, relationship status, and duration of the relationship were asked in the demographic information form.

2.3. Results

Exploratory factor analyses were performed with SPSS for PCSS and CSS, respectively. Principal Component Analysis was used to test the factor structure of the items. The preliminary analysis showed that the factorability of the items in PCSS was sufficient (KMO = .97, Bartlett's test of sphericity $\chi^2(561) = 9647.94$, $p < .001$). While initial eigenvalues suggested a three-factor solution, which accounted for 64.39% of the variance, Parallel Analysis (O'Connor, 2000) recommended a two-factor solution for the items of the PCSS. Two-factor extraction was performed by considering this recommendation and the previous theoretical support. Since the correlation between the two factors was high ($r = .76$), Promax rotation method was used. According to the subsequent analysis, seven items were removed due to lower communality ($h < .20$), or cross-loading. The explained variance of the first factor was 60.98%, and the second factor was 7.15%.

The preliminary analysis presented sufficient factorability for the CSS (KMO = .94, Bartlett's test of sphericity $\chi^2(561) = 5731.32, p < .001$). Although eigenvalues were checked and Parallel Analysis was conducted for CSS, (eigenvalues suggested 6-factor and Parallel Analyses suggested 3-factor structure), to maximize interpretability and to be consistent with the factor structure of PCSS, the items were extracted to 2 factors and the same seven items were removed from the analyses. The explained variance of the first factor was 39.07%, and the second factor was 10.80%. Different from the PCSS, one item loaded to the opposite factor and loading of one item was under the cutoff .20. However, based upon the factor structure of PCSS, these items were kept in the analyses.

As a result, seven items were eliminated, and 14 items for proactive factor and 13 items for reactive items were retained. Factor loadings and communalities of the final factor structures were presented in Table 2.3.1 and 2.3.2. For both PCSS and CSS, the marker item of the first factor was "When I ask for help in a distressing moment, s/he tries to support me." corresponding to the reactive sensitivity, and the marker item of the second factor was "S/he can guess what I am thinking based on my mood." representing the proactive sensitivity. The internal consistency scores were .96 for the Proactive_PCSS, .96 for the Reactive_PCSS, .91 for Proactive_CSS, and .88 for Reactive_CSS. However, the correlation between the proactive and reactive sensitivity dimensions of the PCSS was .80, and the correlation between the subscales of CSS was .62, which was higher than expected showing a high degree of overlap between the two types of sensitivity.

The association between the PCSS, the CSS, and other variables were calculated to test the validity of the scales. As seen in the Table 2.3.3, although the correlations between proactive-reactive dimensions with self-disclosure, deactivation system, prevention, and attachment dimensions were in the expected direction and strength, the association of PPR with proactive sensitivity of PCSS was .83 and with reactive sensitivity of PCSS was .76. This unexpectedly high association did not change much even if some items with lower loadings or similar loadings with others were removed from the scale.

Table 2.3.1. Item Loadings, Communalities, and Explained Variances for Perceived Caregiving Sensitivity Scale (PCCS)

| | F1 | F2 | h ² |
|--|--------|-------|----------------|
| 20. When I ask for support in my troubled moment, s/he tries to support me. | .905 | | .736 |
| 4. S/He helps me when I tell her/him I'm having trouble. | .888 | | .735 |
| 2. When I verbalize my need, s/he acts to support me. | .866 | | .743 |
| 18. S/He is with me when I tell her/him I need help. | .856 | | .786 |
| 26. When I tell her/him, s/he helps me find a solution to my problem. | .854 | | .827 |
| 32. When I tell a problem, s/he offers me a solution. | .853 | | .695 |
| 6. When I tell him/her what I want, s/he helps me actualize it. | .846 | | .736 |
| 34. When I share my trouble, s/he interests with it. | .814 | | .752 |
| 24. When I express myself, s/he understands me better. | .759 | | .641 |
| 16. When I tell him about a good event, s/he shares my joy. | .703 | | .619 |
| 8. S/He expects me to tell her/him what happened. | .651 | | .526 |
| 10. When I am sorry, s/he expects me to say if there's anything s/he can do. | .619 | | .438 |
| 22. When I tell her/him that s/he hurt me, s/he takes action to compensate. | .593 | | .543 |
| 25. S/He guesses what I am thinking. | | .975 | .826 |
| 23. Even though I don't express my feelings directly, s/he understands how I feel. | | .963 | .793 |
| 13. S/He tries to sense my implicit feelings. | | .846 | .608 |
| 31. S/He regularly checks for changes in my mood. | | .807 | .663 |
| 19. S/He senses my changing mood without telling me. | | .799 | .694 |
| 11. S/He knows how I feel. | | .767 | .724 |
| 5. S/He knows s/he did something to hurt me without telling me. | | .762 | .596 |
| 21. S/He sympathizes what I want. | | .760 | .734 |
| 9. When I start a sentence, s/he knows the end beforehand. | | .741 | .561 |
| 15. Even if s/he is sure there is no problem, s/he checks if I am okay. | | .693 | .620 |
| 7. S/He tells my distress from my eyes. | .205 | .679 | .709 |
| 33. S/He understands whether my day was good or bad. | .247 | .658 | .734 |
| 29. S/He cares to understand my state and behavior that evoke help and support. | .223 | .641 | .672 |
| 3. When s/he sees that I am depressed, s/he tries to guess what is on my mind. | .282 | .596 | .684 |
| The proportion of Explained Variance | 60.98% | 7.15% | |
| Reliability (Total Cronbach's Alpha) | .96 | .96 | |

Note. Factor loadings < .20 are suppressed. F1: Reactive Sensitivity; F2: Proactive Sensitivity; h²: Communalities.

Table 2.3.2. Item Loadings, Communalities, and Explained Variances for Caregiving Sensitivity Scale (CCS)

| | F1 | F2 | h ² |
|--|--------|--------|----------------|
| 20. When s/he asks for support in her/his troubled moment, I try to support her/him. | .929 | | .722 |
| 18. I am with her/him when s/he tells me s/he needs help. | .918 | | .732 |
| 34. When s/he shares her/his trouble, I interest with it. | .863 | | .699 |
| 16. When s/he tells me about a good event, I share her/his joy. | .787 | | .533 |
| 26. When s/he tells me, I help her/him find a solution to her/his problem. | .780 | | .675 |
| 6. When s/he tells me what s/he wants, I help her/him actualize it. | .742 | | .573 |
| 32. When s/he tells a problem, I offer him/her a solution. | .692 | | .570 |
| 2. When s/he verbalizes my need, I act to support him/her. | .665 | | .418 |
| 4. I help her/him when s/he tells me s/he is having trouble. | .594 | | .509 |
| 24. When s/he expresses her/himself, I understand her/him better. | .589 | | .364 |
| 22. When s/he tells me that I hurt her/him, I take action to compensate. | .576 | | .418 |
| 29. I care to understand her/his state and behavior that evoke help and support. | .512 | .314 | .531 |
| 10. When s/he is sorry, I expect her/him to say if there's anything I can do. | .240 | | .092 |
| 8. I expect him/her to tell me what happened. | | | .086 |
| 25. I guess what s/he is thinking. | | .872 | .706 |
| 23. Even though s/he doesn't express her/his feelings directly, I understand how s/he feels. | | .823 | .679 |
| 21. I sympathize what s/he wants. | | .822 | .659 |
| 9. When s/he starts a sentence, I know the end beforehand. | -.325 | .816 | .491 |
| 19. I sense her/his changing mood without telling. | | .749 | .514 |
| 11. I know how s/he feels. | | .736 | .506 |
| 7. I tell my distress from her/his eyes. | | .691 | .616 |
| 33. I understand whether her/his day was good or bad. | .246 | .601 | .579 |
| 13. I try to sense her/his implicit feelings. | | .514 | .272 |
| 5. I know I did something to hurt her/him without telling. | | .504 | .302 |
| 31. I regularly check for changes in her/his mood. | .271 | .492 | .457 |
| 3. When I see that s/he is depressed, I try to guess what is on her/his mind. | .262 | .447 | .393 |
| 15. Even if I am sure there is no problem, I check if s/he is okay. | .265 | .424 | .370 |
| The proportion of Explained Variance | 39.07% | 10.80% | |
| Reliability (Total Cronbach's Alpha) | .88 | .91 | |

Note. Factor loadings < .20 are suppressed. F1: Reactive Sensitivity; F2: Proactive Sensitivity; h²: Communalities.

Table 2.3.3. Correlations and Descriptive Statistics

| Variables | A_Pro | A_Rea | P_Pro | P_Rea | PPR | Self_Dis | Att_An timer> | Att_Avo | Prevention | Promotion | CS_Hyper | CS_Deact |
|---------------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|----------|---------------|---------|------------|-----------|-----------|----------|
| A_Pro | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| A_Rea | .623** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| P_Pro | .393** | .346** | | | | | | | | | | |
| P_Rea | .334** | .474** | .797** | | | | | | | | | |
| PPR | .328** | .436** | .758** | .832** | | | | | | | | |
| SelfDis | .327** | .316** | .333** | .328** | .473** | | | | | | | |
| Att_An timer> | -.095 | -.250** | -.467** | -.539** | -.580** | -.260** | | | | | | |
| Att_Avo | -.116* | -.330** | -.387** | -.478** | -.468** | -.235** | .622** | | | | | |
| Prevention | .104 | -.012 | -.157** | .207** | -.212** | -.084 | .576** | .389** | | | | |
| Promotion | .370** | .337** | .164** | .220 | .206** | .224 | .129* | -.018 | .345** | | | |
| CS_Hyper | .213** | .199** | .089 | .076 | .013 | .022 | .257** | .100 | .399** | .329** | | |
| CS_Deact | -.313** | -.523** | -.305** | -.409** | -.347** | -.321** | .326** | .475** | .177** | -.182** | -.033 | |
| <i>Range of Possible Scores</i> | 1-6 | 1-6 | 1-6 | 1-6 | 1-7 | 1-5 | 1-7 | 1-7 | 1-7 | 1-7 | 1-7 | 1-7 |
| <i>Range for Current Data</i> | 2.85-6 | 2.42-6 | 1-6 | 1.25-6 | 1.17-7 | 1.60-5 | 1-7 | 1-5.80 | 1-7 | 1-8 | 1.20-6.40 | 1-5.40 |
| <i>M</i> | 5.00 | 5.45 | 4.12 | 4.94 | 5.10 | 4.06 | 2.68 | 3.02 | 3.31 | 4.95 | 3.30 | 1.77 |
| <i>SD</i> | .68 | .56 | 1.24 | 1.07 | 1.40 | .73 | 1.41 | .91 | 1.24 | 1.12 | .99 | .76 |
| <i>Cronbach's alpha</i> | .91 | .88 | .96 | .96 | .96 | .87 | .80 | .78 | .75 | .77 | .73 | .75 |

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Variables: A_Pro: Actual Proactive sensitivity, A_Rea: Actual Reactive Sensitivity, P_Pro: Perceived Proactive Sensitivity, P_Rea: Perceived Reactive Sensitivity, PPR: Perceived Partner Responsiveness, Self_Dis: Self-Disclosure, Att_An timer>

2.4. Overview of the Results

The first study aimed to develop a reliable and valid measure of proactive and reactive sensitivity dimensions in adult romantic relationships. Items were put into final form after taking advice from the experts in the field. The main study was conducted with cohabiting and married individuals. There were several limitations of the study. The majority of the participants were women, preventing gender comparison and limiting the generalizability of the findings. Although the factor analyses supported the two-factor structure for the CSS and PCSS, the variance was explained predominantly by the first factor. The correlations between the two dimensions were higher than expected. Internal consistencies of the subscales were high. These findings suggested that the respondents might have answered the questions by the notion that all of the proactive and reactive behaviors were possible and acceptable to be shown by the partner instead of attributing each behavior to the real-life experiences. In addition, since the Likert-type scale was used, they have not been forced to select proactive or reactive behaviors. They might have thought that when they need help, their spouses/partners give support by both anticipating and responding instead of considering the distinction between these two constructs. This argument also applies to higher levels of mean levels in both subscales. However, it was expected that a person showing any reactive response to the partner would not show proactive behavior in a similar situation. Therefore, social desirability bias might have produced a ceiling effect. Respondents also had a high level of education that might have led to a desirability problem. The measurement method should be revised by considering these arguments, and the generalizability of the findings should be increased by reaching participants from different education levels.

In addition, the correlations between the PCSS subscales and PPR were higher than expected, indicating that these instruments measure similar constructs. However, proactive and reactive sensitivity were expected to be conceptually distinguished from PPR. In fact, the types of sensitivity and PPR are different in content. In the sensitivity process, partner reactions were formed depending on whether the person tends to articulate his or her needs in specific situations while, in PPR, there is an induction for the general understanding, validating, and caring of one's partner. Therefore, the distinction between these constructs should be clarified.

Besides, the factorial structures of the PCSS and CSS did not exactly match with each other, which reduced the scale consistency. Indeed, both actual and perceived behaviors are necessary to make any assessment about the partner or relationship. However, the actor's interpretation of responses presents better estimations about personal and relational outcomes than the partner's actual behaviors. The influence of the partner's actual responses on the actor's personal and relationship outcomes depends on the actor's interpretation of responses (Reis, 2007). Therefore, to clarify the potential overlaps and misinterpretation, it was decided to focus on the partner's behaviors only and develop a measure to capture such behaviors.

Overall, this preliminary study expected to test the first hypothesis about whether proactive and reactive sensitivity are relevant to the romantic relationship dynamics. However, the hypotheses could not have been tested fully because of the problems of high collinearity between the subdimensions and validity of the measurement tools. Considering the possible reasons for the limitations of the first study, it was determined to revise the measurement method for proactive-reactive sensitivity for the following studies by developing scenarios as used in early childhood studies. In the previous studies, following the scenarios, respondents (i.e., mothers or teachers) were forced to select one of the two options representing either proactive or reactive sensitivity behaviors. Thus, for the second study, it was aimed to develop a forced-choice measure to ask individuals to classify their spouse's behaviors as proactive or reactive and eliminate the potential ceiling effect. To clarify the distinction between the two types of sensitivity as well as from PPR, the content of the measure was also needed to be scrutinized. Considering that compared to actual partner behaviors, how they are perceived can reflect more accurate information about the relationship, only *perceived* proactive and reactive sensitivity was aimed to be focused.

CHAPTER 3

STUDY 2

3.1. Purpose of the Study

As elaborated above, the function of proactive and reactive sensitivity in adult romantic relationships, as well as their antecedents and consequences have not been examined to date. To fill this gap, first, it is planned to conduct a dyadic study in which both couples in steady relationships participate and respond to the measures. Since the psychometric quality and uniqueness of proactive and reactive sensitivity could not be supported in the first study, the primary aim of the current study is to develop a new scenario-based perceived (partner) proactive-reactive sensitivity measure and test its reliability and construct validity. To test the convergent and divergent validity of the scale, the same variables in the first study were used (i.e., self-disclosure, PPR, caregiving system, and gender), except regulatory focus mechanisms. In addition, within-culture variations in these two types of sensitivity are examined. Considering the previous cultural speculations on sensitivity, it was expected that interdependent self-construal would be congruent with proactive sensitivity, and independent self-construal would be congruent with reactive sensitivity. In parallel with interdependent self-construal, defining the self as part of the partner's self or seeing the partner a kind of extension of the self can also be seen as a critical indicator of relatedness in collectivist cultures. As previous research has suggested, social engagement and physical closeness are necessary for emotion regulation process in interdependent cultural contexts, while social and physical distance are tried to be retained in independent cultural contexts (Trommsdorff & Rothbaum, 2008). Therefore, the "inclusion of other into the self" concept, which is defined as one's sense of being rapport with others, could represent the level of closeness in relationships (Aron, Aron, & Smollan, 1992). The overlap of selves might represent the prioritization of relatedness in interdependent cultural contexts.

Proactive sensitivity is expected to be relevant with this cultural context, and thus could be associated more with the inclusion of partner into the self. Accordingly, we argued that the more individuals define their partners into their selves, the more they are expected to be proactive sensitivity in Turkey. Then, the specific hypotheses will be tested.

It is expected that proactive and reactive sensitivity are relevant to the dynamics of adult romantic relationships (Hypothesis 1). Based on cultural expectations, it is hypothesized that proactive sensitivity would be more compatible with the collectivist Turkish sample as compared to reactive sensitivity (Hypothesis 2).

As presented above in the introduction, another purpose of the study is to investigate the hypothesized gender differences. Specifically, it is hypothesized that women will be more proactively sensitive as compared to men, whereas men will be more reactively sensitive as compared to women (Hypothesis 3). It is also expected that attachment orientations would be negatively associated with caregiving sensitivity (Hypothesis 4). In terms of gender roles, it is hypothesized that the power of wives' attachment avoidance will be stronger in predicting their own and husbands' perceived caregiving sensitivity than their attachment anxiety, whereas the power of husbands' attachment anxiety will be stronger in predicting their own and wives' perceived caregiving sensitivity than their attachment avoidance in Turkey (Hypothesis 4a).

3.2. Method

3.2.1. Participants

APIM Power Analysis was used to determine the sample size for dyadic analyses (Ackerman, Ledermann, & Kenny, 2016). Given that the previous studies on caregiving sensitivity have mainly focused on interview-based data from relatively smaller samples (e.g., Rothbaum, Nagoaka, & Ponte, 2006), the effect size could not be estimated based on the literature. Assuming a power level of .80 for actor effects (Cohen, 1988) and .60 for partner effects, a small to medium actor effect ($\beta = .25$), a small partner effect ($\beta = .15$), and moderate correlations of actor and partner effects ($r = .30$) with a significance level of .05, the minimum sample size was calculated as 59 dyads for actor effect, and as 100 dyads for partner effect.

The data was collected from 316 married individuals, 16 of which were excluded from the data due to high missing responses. Spouses of 76 participants did not participate in the study. Those who participated in the study as a couple were 224 (i.e., 112 couples). Descriptive and normative analyses were run by using the whole sample ($N = 300$), and dyadic analyses were conducted with 112 dyads.

Participants ($N_{female} = 163$) were living in 23 cities in Turkey (32.5% from Eskişehir, 31.9% from Ankara, and 11% from İstanbul). The age range was between 23 and 67 ($M_{female} = 35.43$, $SD = 8.23$; $M_{male} = 39.85$ $SD = 9.97$). The duration of marriage changed from 3 months to 36 years ($M = 117.16$ months, $SD = 112.16$). The demographic characteristics of the sample were presented in Table 3.2.1.

Convenience sampling using a snowball method was employed to reach the participants. Two hundred and fifty participants reached the questionnaire battery by the online survey platform (www.qualtrics.com), and the rest of the sample filled the paper-pencil version of the questionnaire. The printed batteries were presented to couples in separate envelopes. In the informed consent, it was reminded to the participants to fill the battery separately (see Appendix C). At the end of the survey, participants were asked to write the last three digits of their own and spouses' phone numbers to match the couples during the analyses.

3.2.3. Instruments

In parallel with the first study, to test the validity and unique effect of proactive and reactive sensitivity, the Self-Disclosure Index, PPR Scale, Caregiving System Scale, and ECR-R short version were employed. Two additional instruments (i.e., Self-Construal Scale and Inclusion of Other into the Self Scale) were used to examine within-culture variations in caregiving sensitivity tendencies. To show the roles of proactive and reactive sensitivity in relationship functioning, Relationship Happiness Scale was used.

3.2.2. Procedure

3.2.3.1. Proactive-Reactive Sensitivity (PRS) Scale

A new measure was developed to be able to ask participants to classify partner sensitivity behaviors as proactive or reactive (see Appendix C). Short scenarios that represent daily and personal situations or events were created. While forming the

Table 3.2.1. Demographic Characteristics of the Sample (N = 300)

| | | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | Range |
|----------------------|-------------|------------------|-----------|------------|
| Age | Female | 35.43 | 8.23 | 23-59 |
| | Male | 39.85 | 9.97 | 27-67 |
| Duration of marriage | | 117.16 | 112.16 | 3-435 |
| | | | Frequency | Percentage |
| Sex | Female | | 163 | 54.3 |
| | Male | | 137 | 45.7 |
| Income | Low | | 3 | 1 |
| | Low-Medium | | 12 | 4 |
| | Medium | | 127 | 42.3 |
| | Medium-High | | 138 | 46 |
| | High | | 18 | 6 |
| Education | Female | Primary school | 3 | 1.8 |
| | | Secondary school | 2 | 1.2 |
| | | High school | 17 | 10.4 |
| | | University | 78 | 47.9 |
| | | Master/PhD | 58 | 35.6 |
| | Male | Primary school | 1 | 0.7 |
| | | Secondary school | 3 | 2.2 |
| | | High school | 14 | 10.2 |
| | | University | 89 | 65 |
| | | Master/PhD | 29 | 21.2 |

scenarios, it was considered that people probably need sensitivity from the partner after a personal situation or event was occurred (e.g., “When I had a bad day, my spouse ...”). Proactive and reactive sensitivity options were created to each scenario (e.g., “When I had a bad day, my spouse reads me like an open book and knows my feelings” or “When I had a bad day, my spouse knows my feelings only after I talk about my day”). The items that were used in the first study and were appropriate for matching as proactive and reactive sensitivity options for the same context were combined. Additional proactive and reactive sensitivity options were also formed based on the scenarios. Thirty scenarios with items were evaluated by six experts in

social, developmental, or clinical psychology. Following the suggestions, two scenarios that seemed to be irrelevant for sensitivity were removed. The final version of the scale consisted of 28 scenarios. The sequence of proactive and reactive sensitivity options was inverted for each scenario.

3.2.3.2. Self-Construal Scale

The 30-item scale that measures independent and interdependent self constructs was developed by Singelis (1994) and adapted into Turkish by Wasti and Erdil (1997). Each subscale includes 15 items. The independent self-construal evaluates the level of uniqueness (e.g., “Being able to take care of myself is a primary concern for me”) while the interdependent self-construal assesses the connectedness (e.g., “It is important for me to maintain harmony within my group”) in thoughts, behaviors, and emotions in social relationships. Higher scores on the subscales indicated greater internalization of independence or interdependency in social relationships, on a scale ranging from 1 (*totally disagree*) to 7 (*totally agree*). Internal consistency of independent self-construal subscale was .74, and interdependent self-construal was .73.

3.2.3.3. Inclusion of Other into the Self (IOS) Scale

A one-item pictorial scale developed by Aron, Aron, and Smollan (1992) was used to measure the overlap of belonging between the self and the partner. This scale has been used to specify the levels of independent and interdependent self in relationships. The clusters were adapted as the “self” and “my spouse”. There are seven pictures, on which the clusters were getting to overlap progressively. As the midpoints of clusters get closer to each other, the self is defined as more nested with the spouse.

3.2.3.4. Relationship Happiness Scale

The 6-item scale was used to assess satisfaction, commitment, and happiness in one’s relationship (Fletcher, Fitness, & Blampied, 1990). Higher scores show greater pleasure from the relationship (e.g., “My marriage with my spouse makes me happy”). The items were rated on a 7-point scale (1 = *totally disagree*, 7 = *totally agree*). Cronbach’s alpha of the scale was .95.

In addition to the scales described above, the scales that were employed in the first study were used in the second study as well (i.e., Self-Disclosure Index, $\alpha = .89$;

Perceived Partner Responsiveness Scale, $\alpha = .95$; Caregiving System Scale, deactivation subscale $\alpha = .82$, hyperactivation subscale $\alpha = .75$; and ECR-R short version, attachment anxiety $\alpha = .76$, attachment avoidance $\alpha = .70$). Likert-point of the Self-Disclosure Index was changed from 5- to 7-point to be compatible with other scales' rating points.

3.2.3.5. Demographic Information

Gender, age, education level, family income level, relationship status, and duration of the relationship were asked in the demographic information form.

3.3. Results

3.3.1. Testing Hypothesis 1: Are proactive and reactive sensitivity relevant to romantic relationships?

To test Hypothesis 1, indicating that the existence of proactive and reactive sensitivity will be confirmed in adult relationships. First, the factorial structure of the scenario-based PRS Scale was tested. Second, bivariate correlation analyses were carried out to test the associations of PRS with other relational constructs.

3.3.1.1. Exploratory Factor Analyses

Before the normative and dyadic analyses, factor analyses were conducted to test the factorial structure of the scenarios in the PRS scale. POLYMAT-C program (Lorenzo-Seva & Ferrando, 2015), which was designed to calculate the polychoric correlation matrix for categorical measures and integrate it into SPSS, was performed. Instead of Principal Component Analysis, Unweighted Least Squares analysis, which was suggested to use while analyzing polychoric correlations (Lorenzo-Seva & Ferrando, 2015), was selected as the dimension-reduction method. Preliminary factor analysis was computed without using any extraction and rotation method. The factorability of the items was poor ($KMO = .39$, Bartlett's test of sphericity $\chi^2(378) = 6258.87, p < .001$). The initial eigenvalues suggested the two-factor solution. The Promax rotation method was used by considering the correlation between the two factors ($r = .68$). Subsequent factor analysis with two-factor extraction showed that the two factors explained 37.18% of the variance, of which 32.31% was explained by the first factor as a single dominant factor (see Table 3.3.1.1.1). Therefore, the unitary factor solution was determined as the best factor analytic model for the data. As a result of the factor analysis conducted with one-

factor extraction (see Table 3.3.1.1.2), six items that had lower communalities ($< .20$), and two items that had similar meanings with others and relatively lower contribution to the explained variance were removed from the scale. The factorability of the remaining 20 items improved with acceptable values ($KMO = .73$, Bartlett's test of sphericity $\chi^2(190) = 3504.61, p < .001$). The explained variance of the factor was 36.98%. Cronbach's alpha value of the 20-item scale was .85. Proactive and reactive sensitivity scores were calculated separately by counting participants' answers to each item. Since these scores were exact dependent variables ($r = -1.0, p < .01$), only proactive sensitivity scores were used in the subsequent analyses. Therefore, higher scores in the caregiving sensitivity variable (i.e., Pro) indicated higher levels of proactive sensitivity, and lower scores correspond to reactive sensitivity. To note that the following analyses were also rerun by using reactive sensitivity (i.e., Rea) scores instead of proactive sensitivity scores, and the same values were obtained in the opposite direction, because of complete interdependence in forced-choice item format. Thus, those who have higher than 11 (over 20) could be classified as proactively sensitive, and those who have scored lower than 9 could be classified as reactively sensitive.

3.3.1.2. Bivariate Correlations

Bivariate correlations were calculated to examine the associations between the major study variables and to examine the validity of the PRS Scale. Correlation coefficients of the variables were presented in Table 3.3.1.2. Proactive sensitivity significantly correlated with PPR ($r = .593, p < .01$), self-disclosure ($r = .181, p < .01$), IOS ($r = .357, p < .01$), relationship happiness ($r = .466, p < .01$), attachment anxiety ($r = -.330, p < .01$), and attachment avoidance ($r = -.417, p < .01$) in the expected directions. It was also comparatively related to deactivation of the sensitivity system ($r = -.133, p < .05$), but not hyperactivation of the system. The relationships of autonomous and related self-construal subscales with proactive sensitivity were nonsignificant. As a footnote, the correlations between proactive sensitivity and other study variables did not change when the level of education and relationship duration were controlled for. The validity of PRS was supported by the moderate-to-high correlation with PPR and an adequate level of correlation with self-disclosure. However, due to low and nonsignificant correlations between PRS and

Table 3.3.1.1.1. Item Loadings, Communalities, and Explained Variances for PRS Scale with 28 Scenarios

| Scenarios | F1 | F2 | h ² |
|--|--------|-------|----------------|
| 5. When I have a personal expectation that I want it to come true, my spouse: | .859 | -.205 | .542 |
| 19. When I want to solve a problem on my own, my spouse: | .853 | -.446 | .411 |
| 27. When I have a request, my spouse: | .726 | | .505 |
| 28. When I feel discomfort about any situation, my spouse: | .647 | | .526 |
| 9. When I want to be alone with my spouse, he/she: | .608 | | .349 |
| 8. If I am really bored at home, my spouse: | .558 | | .308 |
| 3. When I feel demoralized, my spouse: | .538 | .312 | .613 |
| 17. In a situation where I have trouble making decisions on my own, my spouse: | .491 | | .317 |
| 23. When there is unrest between us, my spouse: | .487 | | .245 |
| 25. When I am in a bad mood, my spouse: | .475 | .341 | .561 |
| 6. When he/she says something hurtful to me, my spouse: | .471 | | .290 |
| 21. About celebrating a special day, my spouse: | .451 | | .156 |
| 26. When I want his/her attention, my spouse: | .443 | .311 | .481 |
| 22. When s/he will get me a present, my spouse: | .428 | | .184 |
| 15. When I don't enjoy an activity that my spouse has initiated so that we can spend time together (listening to music, watching a movie, etc.) my spouse: | .417 | | .237 |
| 2. When I am experiencing mixed feelings, my spouse: | .397 | .264 | .369 |
| 12. When I am exhausted, my spouse: | .368 | .232 | .306 |
| 18. When I feel anxious while trying to meet a deadline with my work, my spouse: | .352 | .247 | .303 |
| 20. After our disagreements, my spouse: | .297 | | .091 |
| 16. When I was thoughtful about a topic, my spouse: | -.303 | .764 | .363 |
| 10. When I have a situation that I don't know how to tell, my spouse: | -.258 | .742 | .358 |
| 13. When my voice is louder than usual, my spouse: | | .687 | .402 |
| 11. When I receive good news, my spouse: | | .577 | .311 |
| 1. When I have had a bad day, my spouse: | .262 | .529 | .537 |
| 7. My spouse understands my mood changes: | .311 | .498 | .555 |
| 4. When I feel blue due to a problem that I had during the day, my spouse: | | .476 | .391 |
| 24. When I want to feel loved, my spouse: | .225 | .431 | .369 |
| 14. When I am excited or worried in an environment, my spouse: | .305 | .323 | .331 |
| The proportion of Explained Variance | 32.31% | 4.87% | |

Note. Factor loadings < .20 are suppressed.

Table 3.3.1.1.2. Item Loadings, Communalities, and Explained Variances for PRS Scale with 20 Scenarios

| Scenarios | F1 | h ² |
|--|--------|----------------|
| 25. When I am in a bad mood, my spouse: | .777 | .604 |
| 3. When I feel demoralized, my spouse: | .764 | .583 |
| 28. When I feel discomfort about any situation, my spouse: | .715 | .511 |
| 7. My spouse understands my mood changes: | .712 | .507 |
| 1. When I have had a bad day, my spouse: | .702 | .493 |
| 26. When I want his/her attention, my spouse: | .695 | .483 |
| 27. When I have a request, my spouse: | .635 | .404 |
| 24. When I want to feel loved, my spouse: | .594 | .353 |
| 2. When I am experiencing mixed feelings, my spouse: | .586 | .344 |
| 14. When I am excited or worried in an environment, my spouse: | .583 | .340 |
| 18. When I feel anxious while trying to meet a deadline with my work, my spouse: | .570 | .325 |
| 12. When I am exhausted, my spouse: | .568 | .322 |
| 9. When I want to be alone with my spouse, he/she: | .558 | .311 |
| 17. In a situation where I have trouble making decisions on my own, my spouse: | .553 | .306 |
| 6. When he/she says something hurtful to me, my spouse: | .535 | .286 |
| 8. If I am really bored at home, my spouse: | .533 | .284 |
| 13. When my voice is louder than usual, my spouse: | .518 | .268 |
| 11. When I receive good news, my spouse: | .491 | .241 |
| 15. When I don't enjoy an activity that my spouse has initiated so that we can spend time together (listening to music, watching a movie, etc.) my spouse: | .472 | .222 |
| 23. When there is unrest between us, my spouse: | .457 | .208 |
| The proportion of Explained Variance | 36.98% | |
| Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha) | .85 | |

Note. Factor loadings < .20 are suppressed.

3.3.1.2. Correlations and Descriptive Statistics (N=300)

| | Pro | PPR | Self_Dis | Att_An timer> | Att_Avo | RH | CS_Hyper | CS_Deact | IOS | SC_Interdep | SC_Indep | Education | Rel_Dur |
|---------------------------------|---------|---------|----------|---------------|---------|---------|----------|----------|--------|-------------|-----------|-----------|---------|
| Pro | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| PPR | .593** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Self_Dis | .181** | .446** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Att_An timer> | -.330** | -.468** | -.047 | | | | | | | | | | |
| Att_Avo | -.417** | -.645** | -.380** | .588** | | | | | | | | | |
| RH | .466** | .723** | .291** | -.387** | -.583** | | | | | | | | |
| CS_Hyper | -.041 | -.104 | .019 | .412** | .237** | -.052 | | | | | | | |
| CS_Deact | -.133* | .357** | -.243** | .419** | .499** | -.293** | .223** | | | | | | |
| IOS | .357** | .461** | .164** | -.120* | -.277** | .530** | .107 | -.144* | | | | | |
| SC_Interdep | .059 | .084 | .035 | .128* | .096 | .118* | .203** | .093 | .163** | | | | |
| SC_Indep | .059 | .122* | .080 | .025 | -.045 | .019 | .057** | .034 | -.005 | .154** | | | |
| Education | -.004 | -.001 | .088 | -.044 | -.175** | -.030 | -.098 | -.144* | -.066 | -.193** | -.066 | | |
| Rel_Dur | -.026 | -.064 | -.263** | -.061 | .120* | -.015 | .066 | .227** | -.014 | .104 | .084 | -.218** | |
| <i>Range of Possible Scores</i> | 0-20 | 1-7 | 1-7 | 1-7 | 1-7 | 1-7 | 1-7 | 1-7 | 1-7 | 1-7 | 1-7 | 1-5 | - |
| <i>Range for Current Data</i> | 0-20 | 1-7 | 1-7 | 1-7 | 1-7 | 1-7 | 1-6.40 | 1-6.40 | 1-7 | 2.13-7 | 2.80-6.80 | 1-5 | 3-468 |
| <i>M</i> | 10.36 | 5.49 | 5.34 | 2.59 | 2.41 | 5.87 | 3.41 | 1.90 | 5.04 | 4.64 | 4.90 | 4.12 | 127.66 |
| <i>SD</i> | 4.88 | 1.16 | 1.21 | 1.37 | 1.19 | 1.22 | 1.07 | .94 | 1.85 | .77 | .80 | .76 | 117.03 |
| <i>Cronbach's alpha</i> | .85 | .95 | .89 | .76 | .70 | .95 | .75 | .82 | - | .73 | .74 | - | - |

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Variables: Pro: Proactive Sensitivity; PPR: Perceived Partner Responsiveness, Self_Dis: Self-Disclosure, Att_An timer>

the subdimensions of the caregiving system scale, the validity of the scale was partially supported.

Overall, these findings supported Hypothesis 1 that proactive and reactive sensitivity can be assessed in romantic relationships. It was noted to need additional evidence to show the validity of the PRS Scale.

3.3.2. Testing Hypothesis 2: Is proactive sensitivity the predominant pattern in Turkey?

To test Hypothesis 2, indicating that proactive sensitivity will be more compatible with the collectivist Turkish sample as compared to reactive sensitivity, t-test analysis was conducted, and participants in proactive and reactive groups were compared in terms of study variables. Participants were categorized depending on their caregiving sensitivity scores in three groups, those who got higher scores in proactive sensitivity ($n = 154$), who got higher scores in reactive sensitivity ($n = 122$), and who got equal scores for each type of sensitivity ($n = 24$). Since the number of participants in the third group was very low, the three groups were not statistically compared in terms of study variables. Instead, proactive and reactive groups were compared. Independent samples t-test results showed that the proactive group reported significantly higher levels of PPR, self-disclosure, IOS, and relationship happiness and lower levels of deactivation of sensitivity system, attachment anxiety, and attachment avoidance than reactive group (see Table 3.3.2). However, it should be noted that when the proactive and reactive scores were compared in paired samples t-test, the means of proactive and reactive sensitivity scores did not significantly differ from each other.

Considering that greater interdependence between spouses and lower levels of attachment avoidance are common in the Turkish culture, supporting Hypothesis 2, the results showed that as compared to individuals who perceived their spouses as reactively sensitive, those who perceived their spouses proactively sensitive reported greater inclusion of their spouses into themselves and lower levels of attachment avoidance.

Table 3.3.2. Comparison of Proactive and Reactive Groups on the Study**Variables**

| | Proactive (n = 154) | | Reactive (n = 122) | | <i>t</i> | <i>p</i> | 95% CI | <i>d</i> |
|-------------|------------------------|-----------|-----------------------|-----------|----------|----------|---------------|----------|
| | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | | | | |
| PPR | 6.04 | .79 | 4.74 | 1.21 | 10.28 | .000 | [1.05, 1.54] | 1.27 |
| Self_Dis | 5.51 | 1.12 | 5.10 | 1.29 | 2.89 | .004 | [.13, .70] | .34 |
| Att_Anx | 2.22 | 1.16 | 3.18 | 1.44 | -5.95 | .000 | [-1.27, -.63] | .73 |
| Att_Avo | 2.02 | 1.00 | 2.91 | 1.27 | -6.39 | .000 | [-1.17, -.61] | .78 |
| RH | 6.33 | .82 | 5.25 | 1.40 | 7.59 | .000 | [.80, 1.36] | .94 |
| CS_Hyper | 3.39 | 1.08 | 3.52 | 1.08 | -1.02 | .304 | [.39, .12] | |
| CS_Deact | 1.78 | .93 | 2.04 | .96 | -2.26 | .024 | [-.48, -.03] | .28 |
| IOS | 5.58 | 1.64 | 4.39 | 1.94 | 5.45 | .000 | [.76, 1.63] | .66 |
| SC_Interdep | 4.66 | .79 | 4.62 | .78 | .41 | .680 | [-.14, .22] | |
| SC_Indep | 4.93 | .76 | 4.86 | .83 | .68 | .497 | [-.12, .25] | |

Variables: PPR: Perceived Partner Responsiveness, Self_Dis: Self-Disclosure, Att_Anx: Attachment Anxiety, Att_Avo: Attachment Avoidance, RH: Relationship Happiness, CS_Hyper: Caregiving Sensitivity Hyperactivation, CS_Deact: Caregiving Sensitivity Deactivation, IOS: Inclusion of Other into the Self, SC_Interdep: Interdependent Self-Construal, SC_Indep: Independent Self-Construal, respectively.

3.3.3. Testing Hypothesis 3: Are women more proactively sensitive and men more reactively sensitive?

To test Hypothesis 3, stating that women are perceived as more proactively sensitive while men are perceived as more reactively sensitive as compared to the opposite gender, correlation and t-test analyses were conducted with married couples.

Correlation analysis run with couples (see Table 3.3.3.1) showed that the relationship between wives' and husbands' proactive sensitivity was .28 ($p < .01$). Among dyadic variables, wives' proactive sensitivity significantly correlated with their own PPR, self-disclosure, IOS, relationship happiness, attachment anxiety, and attachment avoidance as well as husbands' PPR, self-disclosure, IOS, and relationship happiness. Husbands' proactive sensitivity was significantly related to their own IOS, relationship happiness, attachment anxiety, and attachment avoidance as well as wives' PPR, IOS, relationship happiness, attachment anxiety, and attachment avoidance.

T-test analyses were conducted to test gender differences in study variables. Wives and husbands differed from each other in two variables (see Table 3.3.3.2). First, husbands evaluated their wives as more proactive in caregiving sensitivity than

Table 3.3.3.1. Bivariate Correlations of the Study Variables among Dyads ($N_{dyad}=112$)

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 |
|--------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|--------|--------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|--------|
| 1. Pro_W | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. PPR_W | .608** | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Self_Dis_W | .345** | .531** | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Att_An timer_W | -.189* | -.406** | -.001 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Att_Avo_W | -.378** | -.576** | -.460** | .448** | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. RH_W | .334** | .562** | .302** | -.297** | -.467** | | | | | | | | |
| 7. IOS_W | .301** | .444** | .177 | -.033 | -.202* | .446** | | | | | | | |
| 8. Pro_H | .282** | .355** | .088 | -.224* | -.285** | .410** | .241* | | | | | | |
| 9. PPR_H | .269** | .395** | .135 | -.164 | -.299** | .516** | .265** | .553** | | | | | |
| 10. Self_Dis_H | .252** | .377** | .198* | .016 | -.145 | .148 | .153 | -.012 | .284** | | | | |
| 11. Att_An timer_H | .059 | -.132 | -.104 | .234* | .127 | -.186* | -.018 | -.314** | -.420** | -.042 | | | |
| 12. Att_Avo_H | -.099 | -.174 | -.088 | .191* | .214* | -.216* | -.038 | -.348** | -.577** | -.254** | .634** | | |
| 13. RH_H | .276** | .381** | .100 | -.250** | -.322** | .633** | .320** | .482** | .741** | .173 | -.327** | -.456** | |
| 14. IOS_H | .236* | .140 | .122 | -.093 | -.200* | .326** | .393** | .306** | .443** | .031 | -.120 | -.191 | .549** |

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Variables: W = Wives, H = Husbands, Pro: Proactive Sensitivity, PPR: Perceived Partner Responsiveness, Self_Dis: Self-Disclosure, Att_An timer: Attachment Anxiety, Att_Avo: Attachment Avoidance, RH: Relationship Happiness, IOS: Inclusion of Other into the Self, respectively.

Table 3.3.3.2. Gender Differences on the Study Variables ($N_{dyad} = 112$)

| | Wives | | Husbands | | <i>t</i> | <i>p</i> | 95% CI | <i>d</i> |
|--------------|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|----------|----------------|----------|
| | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | | | | |
| Pro | 9.11 | 4.94 | 11.56 | 4.49 | -3.89 | .000 | [-3.69, -1.21] | .52 |
| PPR | 5.47 | 1.12 | 5.58 | 1.06 | -.80 | .424 | [-.40, .17] | |
| Self_Dis | 5.46 | 1.22 | 5.18 | 1.13 | 1.76 | .080 | [-.03, .58] | |
| Att_An timer | 2.62 | 1.43 | 2.52 | 1.26 | .55 | .580 | [-.25, .45] | |
| Att_Avo | 2.35 | 1.19 | 2.39 | 1.08 | -.26 | .796 | [-.33, .25] | |
| RH | 5.92 | 1.06 | 5.98 | 1.09 | -.42 | .679 | [-.34, .22] | |
| CS_Hyper | 3.44 | 1.05 | 3.33 | 1.01 | .81 | .419 | [-.15, .38] | |
| CS_Deact | 1.75 | .79 | 1.99 | .97 | -2.07 | .040 | [-.47, -.01] | .27 |
| IOS | 5.00 | 1.79 | 5.38 | 1.55 | -1.68 | .095 | [-.81, .06] | |
| SC_Indep | 4.82 | .81 | 4.90 | .78 | -.78 | .931 | [-.21, .19] | |
| SC_Interdep | 4.70 | .78 | 4.71 | .76 | -.09 | .434 | [-.29, .12] | |

Variables: Pro: Proactive Sensitivity, PPR: Perceived Partner Responsiveness, Self_Dis: Self-Disclosure, Att_An timer: Attachment Anxiety, Att_Avo: Attachment Avoidance, RH: Relationship Happiness, CS_Hyper: Caregiving Sensitivity Hyperactivation, CS_Deact: Caregiving Sensitivity Deactivation, IOS: Inclusion of Other into the Self, SC_Interdep: Interdependent Self-Construal, SC_Indep: Independent Self-Construal, respectively.

wives did. Second, as compared to wives, husbands reported using higher levels of deactivation system in caregiving sensitivity. In this study, lower levels of proactive sensitivity corresponded to higher levels of reactive sensitivity vice versa. Therefore, lower levels of perceived proactive sensitivity in wives indicated that wives tended to perceive their husbands reactively sensitive.

As a supplementary analysis, a series of 2 (Gender) X 2 (Sensitivity type) between-subjects ANOVA was conducted to test the interaction effects on the study variables. There was no significant interaction effect. Additionally, those who participated in the study as couples and those whose spouses did not participate in the study were compared on the major study variables. There were two significant differences between the groups. The former group ($M = 5.19$, $SD = 1.68$) embedded their spouses into their selves (i.e., IOS) more than the latter group ($M = 4.61$, $SD = 2.24$), $t(105.12) = 2.08$, $p = .040$, 95% CI [.02, 1.13], $d = .29$. The former group ($M = 4.70$, $SD = .77$) also reported higher levels of interdependent self-construal than the latter group ($M = 4.47$, $SD = .77$), $t(298) = 2.27$, $p = .024$, 95% CI [.03, .43], $d = .30$. These results suggested that if individuals' sense of being interconnected with their spouses are high, they seem to be more motivated to participate in a study on close relationships and open to share their relationship experiences as a couple.

Analyses revealed that there was a significant gender difference in perceived proactive sensitivity scores. Supporting Hypothesis 3, husbands reported their wives as more proactively sensitive, while wives perceived their husbands more reactively sensitive.

3.3.4. Testing Hypothesis 4: Is the Link between Attachment Orientations and Sensitivity Negative?

The expected negative link between attachment insecurity dimensions and proactive sensitivity (Hypothesis 4) was tested by bivariate correlation analysis. Dyadic analyses were conducted to examine whether the power of wives' attachment avoidance is stronger while the power of husbands' attachment anxiety is stronger (Hypothesis 4a) in predicting their own and spouses' perceived sensitivity.

As can be seen in Table 3.3.1.2, correlation analysis carried out with all the participants revealed that perceived proactive sensitivity was negatively correlated with attachment anxiety ($r = -.330, p < .01$) and attachment avoidance ($r = -.417, p < .01$). Correlation analysis conducted among dyads (see Table 3.3.3.1) showed that wives' attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance were significantly correlated with their own and husbands' perceived proactive sensitivity. Husbands' attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance were significantly related to their own perceived proactive sensitivity.

3.3.4.1 Dyadic Analyses

Actor-Partner Interdependence Model (Kenny, Kashy, & Cook, 2006) was used to test the predictor role of couples' attachment orientations in perceived proactive sensitivity. Therefore, actor and partner effects were tested simultaneously by controlling the other's predictor power on the outcome variables. Following the construction of a fully saturated model, insignificant paths were excluded from the model subsequently. Models that were tested based on the hypotheses were presented below.

The dyadic associations of attachment anxiety and avoidance with perceived proactive sensitivity were tested. The trimmed model fit the data well ($\chi^2 (5, N = 112) = 6.05, p = .30, GFI = .99, AGFI = .93, NNFI = .98, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .043, 90\% CI [.00, .14]$). Wives' attachment anxiety and husbands' attachment avoidance did not predict their own or spouses' perceived proactive sensitivity. Two actor

effects and a partner effect were significant on the model (see Figure 3.3.4.1). Avoidantly attached wives reported lower levels of perceived proactive sensitivity from their husbands ($\beta = -.38, p < .05$). Anxiously attached husbands reported lower levels of perceived proactive sensitivity from their wives ($\beta = -.31, p < .05$). As a partner effect, husbands with avoidantly attached wives reported lower levels of proactive sensitivity ($\beta = -.24, p < .05$).

It was hypothesized that attachment anxiety and avoidance would negatively predict perceived caregiving sensitivity (Hypothesis 4). Supporting the hypothesis, there were significant negative associations between attachment orientations and perceived proactive sensitivity. Dyadic analyses indicated that wives' attachment insecurity was related to their own and husbands' perceived proactive sensitivity. Husbands' attachment insecurity was associated with only their own perceived proactive sensitivity. As culture-specific predictions, the power of wives' attachment avoidance was expected to be stronger in predicting their own and husbands' caregiving sensitivity as compared to their attachment anxiety. The power of

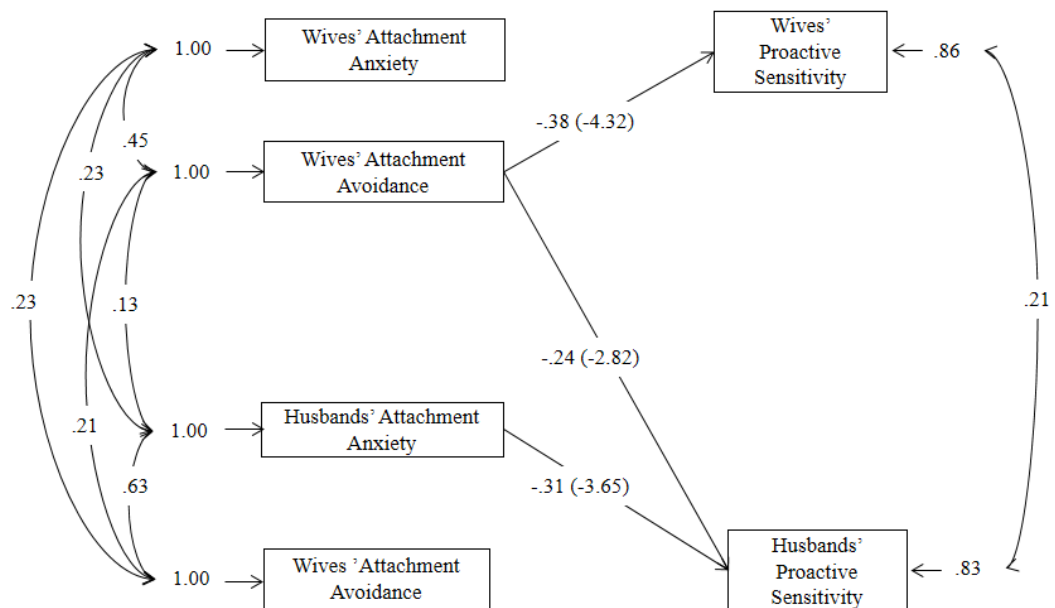


Figure 3.3.4.1. The Links of Attachment Anxiety and Avoidance with Perceived Proactive Sensitivity

Note. T-values are presented in parentheses. Error terms represent the percent of unexplained variance. Double-edged arrows represent error covariances.

husbands' attachment anxiety was expected to be stronger in predicting their own and wives' caregiving sensitivity as compared to their attachment avoidance (Hypothesis 4a). The dyadic analyses substantially supported Hypothesis 4a. Wives with higher levels of attachment avoidance reported their spouses as less proactively sensitive (actor effect) and were perceived as less proactively sensitive by their husbands (partner effect). The predictive power of the actor effect was higher than the partner effect. Husbands with higher levels of attachment anxiety reported their spouses as less proactively sensitive (actor effect). However, husbands' attachment anxiety did not have a partner effect.

3.4. Overview of the Results and Discussion

As the results of the exploratory factor analyses, the factorial structure of the scenario-based PRS Scale was examined. The scale had high reliability. The association of proactive sensitivity with PPR and self-disclosure supported the convergent validity of the scale, but due to the lack of associations with other variables (i.e., hyperactivation and deactivation systems), the validity of the scale was not fully supported. The finding that husbands perceived their wives as more proactively sensitive and wives perceived their husbands as more reactively sensitive supported the validity of the scale. As expected, proactive sensitivity was found to be related to relationship happiness and the level of inclusion of the partner into the self. Thus, Hypothesis 1 predicting the function of proactive and reactive sensitivity in romantic relationships was supported in the Turkish cultural context. When proactive and reactive groups were compared in terms of the study variables, it was found that individuals who perceived their spouses as proactively sensitive reported higher levels of PPR, more interdependency to their spouses, and happiness in their relationships. There was no significant difference on the mean levels of proactive and reactive sensitivity. However, considering its relatively stronger predictive power, proactive sensitivity, as compared to reactive sensitivity, seems to be more functional in the cultural context. Hypothesis 2 was supported for Turkey.

Analyses testing the gender differences in caregiving sensitivity showed that husbands perceived their wives more proactively sensitive and wives perceived their husbands more reactively sensitive, supporting Hypothesis 3. Moreover, observed negative associations between attachment orientations and proactive sensitivity

supported Hypothesis 4. Consistent with the culture-specific expectations, avoidant wives perceived their husbands as less proactively sensitive. Their husbands also perceived them as less proactively sensitive. Anxious husbands perceived their spouses as less proactively sensitive, but their wives did not evaluate them as less proactively sensitive. Therefore, Hypothesis 4a was fully supported for proactive sensitivity. However, it should be noted that reactive sensitivity could not be included in the same model as a separate variable. The potential effects of attachment insecurity on perceived reactive sensitivity should be investigated in further studies.

There are some critical limitations that should be considered in interpreting the findings. As the major limitation, proactive and reactive sensitivity were treated as dichotomous variables that made them exactly dependent on each other. Therefore, proactive and reactive sensitivity scores could not be included in the analyses simultaneously. To measure sensitivity constructs independent from each other, to test the validity of the constructs, and to examine their diverse roles in the relationship functioning, the scale should be converted into a form that continuous variables could be obtained. In addition, although within-culture variations among the major variables were revealed in the current study, cultural differences can be examined by including at least another relevant culture to examine the assumed cultural variation in the nature of sensitivity. Thus, a cross-cultural study was planned to examine whether proactive and reactive sensitivity vary depending on the given cultural context.

CHAPTER 4

STUDY 3

4.1. Purpose of the Study

There are two major differences between study 2 and study 3 in terms of measurement and methodology. First, in the current study, a rating scale is inserted into the scenario-based PRS Scale to obtain both categorical and continuous data. Thus, it is aimed to overcome the major limitation of the second study. Second, a cross-cultural methodology is followed. The data is planned to be collected from the United States, which is accepted as a typical representative of individualist cultures, and Turkey, which is mainly collectivistic (see Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Thus, both within-culture and between-culture expectations for the two cultural contexts are investigated. In this framework, the primary purpose of the third study is to test the construct validity of the continuous version of the scenario-based PRS Scale as well as to examine measurement invariance of Turkish and English versions of the scale. The secondary purpose of the study is to identify between-culture variations in proactive and reactive sensitivity and compare the associations of the types of sensitivity with attachment orientations across the samples.

Specifically, it is aimed to support the relevance of perceived proactive and reactive sensitivity in adult romantic relationships (Hypothesis 1). According to this expectation and the findings of the second study, it is aimed to test the convergent and divergent validity of the English and Turkish versions of the PRS Scale. As culture-based expectations, it is predicted that proactive sensitivity will be more compatible with the collectivist cultural structure of Turkey, whereas reactive sensitivity will be more compatible with the individualist cultural structure of the United States (Hypothesis 2). To test the gender-based variations in the types of sensitivity, it is proposed that women will be perceived as more proactively sensitive,

whereas men will be perceived as more reactively sensitive (Hypothesis 3). It is also expected that there will be a significant negative association between attachment orientations and perceived sensitivity (Hypothesis 4). In terms of culture-related expectations, it is hypothesized that the power of individuals' (both women and men's) attachment avoidance will be stronger in predicting their perceived caregiving sensitivity in Turkey while the power of individuals' attachment anxiety will be stronger in predicting their perceived caregiving sensitivity in the United States (Hypothesis 4b).

4.2. Method

4.2.1. Participants

A priori power analysis was conducted to determine the sample size by using G-Power software (version 3.0.10). Assuming a power level of .80, the minimum sample size was calculated as 193 per sample to test the equality of the two-sample case.

Participants in Turkey were recruited via social media sources. The participation was on a voluntary basis. Initially, 208 married or cohabiting individuals fully completed the survey via the online survey platform (www.qualtrics.com). Seven participants were removed from the data set due to responding at least one of the two attention check items (e.g., "Please, mark 'three' for this item.") incorrectly. Univariate and multivariate outliers were checked. The Turkish sample consisted of 194 (96.5%) married and 7 (3.5%) cohabiting participants whose relationship duration was ranged from 6 months to 54 years ($M_{month} = 107.73$, $SD = 103.95$). One hundred and fifty-nine (79.1%) participants were female, and 42 (20.9%) participants were male. The age range of the sample was between 23 and 73 ($M = 35.33$, $SD = 9.39$).

To reach the US sample, Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) marketplace was employed. Initially, 311 married or cohabiting individuals who reported being the US citizens fully completed the survey. Forty participants were excluded from the data set due to responding at least one of the two attention check items incorrectly. Thirty-four participants who filled out the survey in shorter than 5 minutes, which discredited the faithfulness of the responses, were removed. Thirteen participants who were detected as using algorithms in filling up the study were also

excluded. Univariate and multivariate outliers were checked. The subsequent analyses were carried out with the remaining 224 participants. Participants were paid 50¢ for their participation. The US sample finally consisted of 146 married (65.2%) and 78 cohabiting (34.8%) participants whose relationship duration was ranged from 6 months to 53 years ($M_{month} = 121.92$, $SD = 131.26$). One hundred and twenty-six (56.3%) participants were female, and 98 (43.8%) participants were male. The age range of the sample was between 18 and 73 ($M = 38.14$, $SD = 12.30$). The demographic characteristics of the two samples were presented in Table 4.2.1.

4.2.2. Procedure

Participants filled out the online survey, which was hosted by Qualtrics online survey platform. The US sample was reached via MTurk. The criteria for participation were announced in the description of the study. Those who were married or cohabiting with their partners for at least six months could participate in the study. After the participants approved the informed consent, they were asked to select their relationship status (i.e., married, cohabiting, flirting, or having no relationship). Those who did not meet the criteria were directed to the end of the survey. All of the items were revised for married individuals (e.g., “My spouse...”). If participants selected their relationship status as cohabiting, at the beginning of the survey, they were asked to answer the questions by considering the word “spouse” as “partner” throughout the study.

4.2.3. Instruments

A series of measures were used to test the construct validity and equivalence of the sensitivity constructs across cultures. Considering the theoretical and conceptual similarities of PPR and self-disclosure with sensitivity constructs, PPR Scale and the Self-Disclosure Index were used. Romantic Partner Conflict Scale (i.e., conflict avoidance and interactional reactivity in conflict) was also employed to test the convergent validity. Considering the content of the subscales, low-to-moderate levels of associations were expected between reactive sensitivity and conflict avoidance, and between proactive sensitivity and interactional reactivity in conflict.

The ECR-R short form was used to examine the power of attachment orientations in predicting proactive and reactive sensitivity. Relational-

Table 4.2.1. Demographic Characteristics of the Turkish and US Samples

| | | | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | Range |
|--------------------------|----|--------|----------|-----------|-------|
| Age | TR | Female | 33.75 | 8.41 | 23-73 |
| | | Male | 41.33 | 10.54 | 24-64 |
| | US | Female | 39.06 | 12.06 | 21-70 |
| | | Male | 36.96 | 12.56 | 18-73 |
| Duration of relationship | TR | Female | 98.66 | 100.99 | 6-645 |
| | | Male | 142.07 | 108.99 | 7-368 |
| | US | Female | 121.93 | 128.09 | 6-635 |
| | | Male | 121.90 | 135.89 | 6-605 |

| | | | Frequency | Percentage |
|-----------|----|------------------|-----------|------------|
| Sex | TR | Female | 159 | 79.1 |
| | | Male | 42 | 20.9 |
| | US | Female | 126 | 56.3 |
| | | Male | 98 | 43.8 |
| Income | TR | Low | 4 | 2.0 |
| | | Low-Medium | 16 | 8.0 |
| | | Medium | 82 | 40.8 |
| | | Medium-High | 82 | 40.8 |
| | | High | 15 | 7.5 |
| | US | Low | 12 | 5.4 |
| | | Low-Medium | 44 | 19.6 |
| | | Medium | 120 | 53.6 |
| | | Medium-High | 42 | 18.8 |
| Education | TR | Primary school | 1 | 0.5 |
| | | Secondary school | 9 | 4.5 |
| | | High school | 19 | 9.5 |
| | | University | 114 | 56.7 |
| | | Master/PhD | 55 | 27.4 |
| | US | Secondary school | 1 | 0.4 |
| | | High school | 41 | 18.3 |
| | | University | 145 | 64.7 |
| | | Master/PhD | 35 | 15.6 |

Interdependent Self-Construal Scale was used to investigate whether proactive sensitivity is related to the relatively more interdependent cultural structure of Turkey, while reactive sensitivity is associated with the relatively more independent cultural pattern of the US. In addition, to see the functioning of caregiving sensitivity in relational and personal outcomes, the Relationship Happiness Scale and the Scale of Positive and Negative Experience were employed.

4.2.3.1. Proactive-Reactive Sensitivity (PRS) Scale

In the current study, the 20-item version of the PRS scale, which was determined as the EFA results of Study 2, was employed. Distinct from Study 2, a six-point Likert scale (1 = *never*, 6 = *almost always*) was added per proactive and reactive options in each scenario. Participants were asked to read the scenario, and then rate each option for that scenario. If the participants had given the same ratings for the options, then an additional question appeared on the screen asking to select one of the items that their partners are more likely to do (see Appendix D). If they rated one of the options (e.g., proactive) higher than the other option (e.g., reactive), the former one was selected to construct a categorical variable. Then, it was summed up with the score that was selected in case of providing the same rating. Thus, both continuous and categorical variables were constructed for proactive and reactive sensitivity.

The scale was adapted into English by a Ph.D. student from the psychology department and an English philology expert. The items were put into final form after the translations were cross-checked by the author, the thesis co-advisor, and an expert and native speaker from the graduate school of education.

4.2.3.2. The Scale of Positive and Negative Experience

The 12-item scale, which was developed by Diener and colleagues (2010), was used to measure general and specific positive and negative feelings of the participants. It was translated into Turkish by the author for this study. Participants were asked to rate each item by considering their feelings experienced in the last four weeks (e.g., “Joyful”, “Afraid”). Five-point Likert scale was used (1 = *very rarely or never*, 5 = *very often or always*). The total score was calculated by subtracting negative feelings from positive feelings to get an affect balance score. Higher scores indicated higher levels of well-being. Cronbach’s alpha values were calculated as .91

and .92 for the positive feelings, and .92 and .89 for the negative feelings in the US and Turkish samples, respectively.

4.2.3.3. Romantic Partner Conflict Scale

The scale was developed by Zacchilli, Hendrick, and Hendrick (2009) to measure individuals' perceptions toward daily conflicts that they experienced in their romantic relationships. The original scale consisted of 39 items with six subscales. For the current study, nine items belonging to avoidance (e.g., "My spouse and I try to avoid arguments.") and interactional reactivity (e.g., "When my spouse and I disagree, we argue loudly.") subscales were used to investigate the discriminant validity of PRS Scale. The items were translated into Turkish for this study. Seven-point Likert scale was used ranging from 1 (*totally disagree*) to 7 (*totally agree*). Higher scores indicated higher conflict-avoidance and interactional reactivity in times of conflict. Cronbach's alpha values were calculated as .86 and .87 for avoidance subscale, and .88 and .80 for interactional reactivity subscale in the US and Turkish samples, respectively.

4.2.3.4. Relational-Interdependent Self-Construal Scale

Cross, Bacon, and Morris (2000) developed an 11-item scale to measure the relational form of interdependent self-view in close relationships (e.g., "In general, my close relationships are an important part of my self-image."). It was adapted into Turkish by Öztürk, Kılıçaslan Gökoğlu, and Karagonlar (2015). Seven-point Likert scale was used (1 = *totally disagree*, 7 = *totally agree*), indicating that higher scores corresponded to higher levels of relational-interdependent self-evaluations in close relationships. Although a two-factor solution was found in the Turkish adaptation study, supporting Cross and colleagues' (2000) original study, one-dimension structure was found in the current study. Cronbach's alpha values were .88 for the US and .81 for the Turkish samples.

4.2.3.5. Demographic Information

Citizenship, gender, age, education level, family income level, relationship status, and duration of the relationship were asked in the demographic information form.

In addition to the scales described above, the Self-Disclosure Index, Perceived Partner Responsiveness Scale, Experiences in Close Relationships-Short

Version, IOS, and Relationship Happiness Scale, which were used in the first and/or the second study were employed in the third study as well. Cronbach's alpha values were as follows for the US and Turkish samples, respectively: Self-Disclosure Index, $\alpha = .90$, $\alpha = .87$; Perceived Partner Responsiveness Scale, $\alpha = .97$, $\alpha = .96$; ECR-R short version, attachment anxiety $\alpha = .88$, $\alpha = .79$, attachment avoidance $\alpha = .86$, $\alpha = .76$; and Relationship Happiness $\alpha = .96$, $\alpha = .95$).

4.3. Results

4.3.1. Testing Hypothesis 1: Are proactive and reactive sensitivity relevant to romantic relationships?

The relevance of proactive and reactive sensitivity in adult romantic relationships has been confirmed for the Turkish sample in Study 2. In Study 3, it was aimed to cross-validate by testing the same hypothesis for the US sample and retesting it in a new Turkish sample. For this purpose, first, exploratory factor analysis was conducted to test the factorial structure of the continuous version of the scenario-based PRS Scale and, then confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to test the measurement invariance of the scale for both samples. Second, bivariate correlation analyses were carried out to identify the associations of the study variables, and then, the validity of both English and Turkish versions of the PRS scale was tested.

4.3.1.1. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

For both English and Turkish versions of the PRS Scale, factor analyses were conducted to test the factor structure of its continuous version. For the English version, the initial analysis suggested a two-factor solution. Since the correlation between the two components was low ($r = -.01$), subsequent analysis was conducted by using Varimax rotation. According to Principal Component Analysis with 2-factor extraction, the factorability of the scale was adequate (KMO = .87, Bartlett's test of sphericity $\chi^2(780) = 4565.46$, $p < .001$). The first factor explained 23.74% of the variance. The second factor explained 17.44% of the variance. As expected, proactive sensitivity items loaded to the first factor (i.e., "*When I am in a bad mood, my spouse: A. Understands my mood immediately and comforts me.*" – marker item), and reactive sensitivity items loaded to the second factor (i.e., "*When I feel discomfort about any situation, my spouse: A. Understands this and tries to comfort*

me after I talk about my discomfort.”). Cronbach’s alpha value for the scale with 20-scenario was .93 for the proactive sensitivity subscale, and .90 for the reactive sensitivity.

For the Turkish version of the scale, the initial analysis suggested the two-factor solution. In contrast to the US sample, the two components were highly correlated with each other ($r = .62$). Despite the high correlation, varimax rotation was used to compare the (in)consistencies of the item loadings between the two samples. Two-factor extraction with varimax showed that the factorability of the scale was also high (KMO = .91, Bartlett’s test of sphericity $\chi^2(780) = 4409.45$, $p < .001$). The first factor explained 28.33% of the variance. The second factor explained 13.04% of the variance. Proactive sensitivity items loaded to the first factor (i.e., “*When I am in a bad mood, my spouse: A. Understands my mood immediately and comforts me.*” – marker item), and reactive sensitivity items loaded to the second factor (i.e., “*When I am in a bad mood, my spouse: - B. Understands and comforts me after I talk about it.*”). Cronbach’s alpha value was .94 for the proactive sensitivity subscale, and .87 for the reactive sensitivity.

Unlike the US sample, four items in the reactive sensitivity subscale cross-loaded and had higher loadings on the opposite (proactive sensitivity) factor (i.e., 1-B, 4-A, 6-A, and 8-A) and two items in the reactive sensitivity had loadings below .20 (i.e., 9-B and 11-B). To test the improvement in the scale, those cross-loaded options and proactive sensitivity options (i.e., 1-A, 4-B, 6-B, 8-B, 9-A, and 11-A) corresponding to the problematic reactive sensitivity options were removed from the scale. However, the correlation between proactive and reactive sensitivity was still high ($r = .60$). Since EFA supported the factorial structure of the scale with 20-scenario for the US sample, it was determined to continue the analyses with 20 scenarios. Factorial structures of the scale with 20-scenario were presented for the two samples comparatively in Table 4.3.1.1.1.

4.3.1.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

EQS 6.1 statistical package was used to perform multi-group Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) in examining measurement invariance of the PRS Scale across the US and Turkish samples. The maximum likelihood estimation procedure

Table 4.3.1.1.1. Item Loadings, Communalities, and Explained Variances for the English and Turkish Versions of PRS Scale

| Scenarios & Options | English Version (US) | | | Turkish Version (TR) | | |
|---|----------------------|------|----------------|----------------------|------|----------------|
| | F1 | F2 | h ² | F1 | F2 | h ² |
| 1. When I have had a bad day, my spouse: - A. Reads me like an open book and knows my feelings | .651 | | .427 | .690 | | .548 |
| 1. When I have had a bad day, my spouse: - B. Knows my feelings only after I talk about my day | | .468 | .274 | .605 | .368 | .501 |
| 2. When I am experiencing mixed feelings, my spouse: - A. Does not sense my feelings unless I express them openly | -.455 | .379 | .351 | | .538 | .325 |
| 2. When I am experiencing mixed feelings, my spouse: - B. Senses my feelings without my having to say anything | .712 | | .519 | .717 | | .531 |
| 3. When I feel demoralized, my spouse: - A. Supports me before I talk about feeling demoralized | .670 | | .455 | .726 | | .589 |
| 3. When I feel demoralized, my spouse: - B. Supports me after I talk about feeling demoralized | | .676 | .458 | .440 | .603 | .557 |
| 4. When he/she says something hurtful to me, my spouse: - A. Tries to make amends only after I say I feel hurt by what was said | | .490 | .245 | .551 | .372 | .442 |
| 4. When he/she says something hurtful to me, my spouse: - B. Understands how I feel before I say anything about it and tries to make amends | .606 | | .370 | .764 | | .592 |
| 5. My spouse understands my mood changes: - A. Without my having to say anything | .761 | | .579 | .639 | | .432 |
| 5. My spouse understands my mood changes: - B. Only after I say something about it | -.322 | .547 | .403 | | .422 | .185 |
| 6. If I am really bored, my spouse: - A. Suggests different activities only after I say I am bored | | .580 | .343 | .498 | .349 | .370 |
| 6. If I am really bored, my spouse: - B. Recognizes my boredom and suggests different activities to relieve it | .641 | | .423 | .686 | | .476 |
| 7. When I want to be alone with my spouse, he/she: - A. Infers this through my attitude and behavior | .654 | | .435 | .638 | | .420 |
| 7. When I want to be alone with my spouse, he/she: - B. Expects me to clearly express this wish | -.348 | .481 | .352 | | .422 | .185 |
| 8. When I am exhausted, my spouse: - A. Understands when I say so and strives to make me feel comfortable | | .601 | .406 | .568 | .459 | .534 |

Table 4.3.1.1.1. (Cont'd)

| Scenarios & Options | English Version | | | Turkish Version | | |
|---|-----------------|------|----------------|-----------------|------|----------------|
| | F1 | F2 | h ² | F1 | F2 | h ² |
| 8. When I am exhausted, my spouse: - B. Understands without my having to say so and strives to make me feel comfortable | .630 | | .398 | .639 | | .419 |
| 9. When I receive good news, my spouse: - A. Understands my joy through my attitude and behavior, and tries to find the reason | .580 | | .343 | .539 | | .344 |
| 9. When I receive good news, my spouse: - B. Does not see my joy until I share the good news | | .408 | .219 | | | .046 |
| 10. When I am anxious or worried in an environment, my spouse: - A. Tries to calm me when I talk about my anxiety/worry | | .592 | .387 | .406 | .489 | .404 |
| 10. When I am anxious or worried in an environment, my spouse: - B. Tries to calm me after noticing my anxiety/worry | .546 | | .313 | .681 | | .509 |
| 11. When my voice is louder than usual, my spouse: - A. Feels my anger about something and tries to understand the reason | .515 | | .272 | .561 | .349 | .436 |
| 11. When my voice is louder than usual, my spouse: - B. Waits for me to explain my anger even if he/she feels it | | .547 | .304 | | | .043 |
| 12. When I don't enjoy an activity that my spouse has initiated so that we can spend time together (listening to music, watching a movie, etc.) my spouse: - A. Suggests another activity after I state my lack of enjoyment | | .549 | .338 | .308 | .435 | .284 |
| 12. When I don't enjoy an activity that my spouse has initiated so that we can spend time together (listening to music, watching a movie, etc.) my spouse: - B. Somehow perceives that I don't enjoy it and suggests another activity | .603 | | .368 | .584 | | .346 |
| 13. In a situation where I have trouble making decisions on my own, my spouse: - A. Realizes that I am having difficulty and tries to help me make a decision | .633 | | .404 | .564 | | .336 |
| 13. In a situation where I have trouble making decisions on my own, my spouse: - B. Tries to help me make a decision after I talk about my difficulty | | .637 | .405 | | .506 | .292 |

Table 4.3.1.1.1. (Cont'd)

| Scenarios & Options | English Version | | | Turkish Version | | |
|---|-----------------|--------|----------------|-----------------|--------|----------------|
| | F1 | F2 | h ² | F1 | F2 | h ² |
| 14. When I feel anxious while trying to meet a deadline with my work, my spouse: - A. Tries to help only when I ask for it | | .595 | .363 | .348 | .413 | .292 |
| 14. When I feel anxious while trying to meet a deadline with my work, my spouse: - B. Notices my anxiety and tries to make my task easier | .638 | | .407 | .625 | | .397 |
| 15. When there is unrest between us, my spouse: - A. Senses whether or not I am ready to talk | .605 | | .367 | .569 | | .346 |
| 15. When there is unrest between us, my spouse: - B. Waits for me to open the subject | | .511 | .293 | | .321 | .105 |
| 16. When I want to feel loved, my spouse: - A. Displays actions/says words of affection when I say this | | .710 | .547 | | .575 | .416 |
| 16. When I want to feel loved, my spouse: - B. Displays actions/says words of affection without my having to say anything | .626 | | .395 | .320 | | .460 |
| 17. When I am in a bad mood, my spouse: A. Understands my mood immediately and comforts me. | .840 | | .706 | .810 | | .721 |
| 17. When I am in a bad mood, my spouse: - B. Understands and comforts me after I talk about it | | .726 | .528 | | .679 | .536 |
| 18. When I want his/her attention, my spouse: - A. Shows me attention when I request it | | .652 | .451 | | .666 | .528 |
| 18. When I want his/her attention, my spouse: - B. Realizes this and shows me attention without my having to request it | .724 | | .525 | .712 | | .524 |
| 19. When I have a request, my spouse: - A. Understands this without my making a request and tries to fulfill it | .706 | | .499 | .729 | | .549 |
| 19. When I have a request, my spouse: - B. Understands this and tries to fulfill it after I make a request | | .677 | .484 | .361 | .541 | .423 |
| 20. When I feel discomfort about any situation, my spouse: - A. Understands this and tries to comfort me after I talk about my discomfort | | .741 | .565 | .358 | .605 | .494 |
| 20. When I feel discomfort about any situation, my spouse: - B. Understands my discomfort and tries to comfort me | .744 | | .554 | .771 | | .612 |
| Proportion of Explained Variance | 23.74% | 17.44% | | 28.33% | 13.04% | |

Note. Factor loadings < .30 are suppressed.

was used for parameter estimation. Since the χ^2 difference tests are sensitive to the sample size (Hu & Bentler, 1995), the differences in Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and RMSEA values between the models were used to establish invariance of the scale (Byrne, 2009; Meade, Johnson, & Braddy, 2008). The cutoff criterion for the Δ CFI between the base model and the constrained model was suggested as .01 (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002), and Δ RMSEA was suggested as .015 (Chen, 2007). The ratio of χ^2 to df was also considered. The χ^2 /df ratio, which was less than three, was acceptable to obtain a reasonably well model (Carmines & McIver, 1981).

Before the main analyses, the normality assumption was checked. According to the first models of both samples, normality was above the cutoff 5 for the US sample (Mardia's $z = 25.25$) and for the Turkish sample (Mardia's $z = 22.99$). Therefore, robust statistics were interpreted.

Initially, a two-factor model to be confirmed was hypothesized and tested for the samples separately. One item loading to each factor was fixed to 1.0. Single group CFA showed that the unconstrained models had poor fits both for the US sample ($S-B\chi^2(739) = 1530.16, p = .00, CFI = .767, RMSEA = .069, 90\% CI [.06, .07]$) and the Turkish sample ($S-B\chi^2(739) = 1349.41, p = .00, CFI = .818, RMSEA = .064, 90\% CI [.05, .06]$). Lagrange Multiplier (LM) test results for multivariate statistics suggested modifying several error covariances and regression weights. All but one of the error covariances was added between the items on the same factor (i.e., between the error terms of proactive sensitivity items and between the error terms of reactive sensitivity items). The fit indices with additional parameters indicated a modestly well-fitting model for both samples (see Table 4.3.1.2).

Configural invariance was tested to see whether the overall model fit for the two samples. The configural model showed an acceptable fit ($S-B\chi^2(794) = 1594.17, p = .00, CFI = .882, RMSEA = .069, 90\% CI [.06, .07]$) meaning that the latent factor was similar across the groups. After the factorial structures were constrained equal across the groups, measurement invariance analyses were conducted. First, factor loadings of the indicator variables were constrained equal to test metric invariance. The Lagrange Multiplier Test suggested several constraints for releasing. Although Δ CFI did not meet the cutoff criteria, Δ RMSEA and χ^2 /df were acceptable for the fit (Δ CFI = .03, Δ RMSEA = .003, χ^2 /df = 1.850), indicating the non-invariance of the

samples in terms of factor loadings. Thus, invariance was proceeded to be investigated. Second, factor covariance was constrained to equal across the samples to test the structural invariance. The difference between the metric model and the structural covariance model was also acceptable to the criteria with rounding ($\Delta\text{CFI} = .011$, $\Delta\text{RMSEA} = .003$, $\chi^2/\text{df} = 1.913$). Third, scalar invariance was tested to see whether the samples have the same intercepts. The model showed an acceptable fit ($\Delta\text{CFI} = .002$, $\Delta\text{RMSEA} = .003$, $\chi^2/\text{df} = 2.120$). Finally, to see the specific differences across the groups, the latent mean analysis was conducted. Turkish sample was the reference group, and the US sample was the freely estimated group. Construct equations showed that the US sample perceived reactive sensitivity as significantly lower than the Turkish sample did ($B = .12$, $t = -8.41$).

Overall, the measurement invariance analyses were conducted for the PRS Scale with 20 scenarios. The results indicated that the CFI and RMSEA differences and χ^2/df tests argued for acceptable configural, structural, and scalar invariance. However, metric invariance of the scale was not fully supported. This might have resulted from the finding that the mean of reactive sensitivity was low for the US sample. As aforementioned, the correlation between the two latent variables was high for the Turkish sample but nonsignificant for the US sample. To test the same model, the factor covariance was added to the model. Therefore, these constraints resulted in a decrement in the model fit. The subsequent analyses were performed by considering that the scale was partially invariant for the two samples.

4.3.1.3. Bivariate Correlations

Bivariate correlation analyses were conducted for both samples (see Table 4.3.1.3). For the Turkish sample, the correlation between proactive and reactive sensitivity was $.694$ ($p < .01$). Proactive and reactive sensitivity were correlated with PPR, self-disclosure, IOS, relationship happiness, well-being, and relational self-construal positively. They were correlated with attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, and interactional reactivity in conflict negatively.

For the US sample, the correlation between proactive and reactive sensitivity was insignificant. Proactive sensitivity was correlated with PPR, self-disclosure, IOS, relationship happiness, well-being, relational self-construal, and conflict avoidance positively. It was correlated with attachment avoidance and interactional reactivity in

Table 4.3.1.2. Summary of Fit Indices from CFA and Invariance Analyses across the Samples for PRS Scale

| Model | Satorra-Bentler χ^2 (df) | <i>p</i> | χ^2 /df | CFI | RMSEA [90% CI] | Δ CFI |
|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------|--------------|------|-------------------|--------------|
| <i>Single group CFA models</i> | | | | | | |
| US Sample (unconstrained) | 1530.1676(739) | .00 | 2.070 | .767 | .069 [.064, .074] | |
| Turkish Sample (unconstrained) | 1349.4177(739) | .00 | 1.826 | .818 | .064 [.059, .069] | |
| US Sample (all error cov. added) | 865.5082(397) | .00 | 2.180 | .862 | .073 [.066, .079] | |
| Turkish Sample (all error cov. added) | 739.2186(397) | .00 | 1.862 | .898 | .066 [.058, .073] | |
| <i>Multigroup CFA models</i> | | | | | | |
| Configural Invariance | 1594.1747(794) | .00 | 2.007 | .882 | .069 [.064, .074] | |
| Metric Invariance | 2172.4001(1174) | .00 | 1.850 | .852 | .063 [.059, .067] | .030 |
| Structural Invariance | 2248.4630(1175) | .00 | 1.913 | .841 | .066 [.061, .070] | .011 |
| Scalar Invariance | 2576.1898(1215) | .00 | 2.120 | .843 | .069 [.063, .073] | .002 |

Table 4.3.1.3. Bivariate Correlations among the Study Variables

| | Pro | Rea | PPR | Self_Dis | Att_Anx | Att_Avo | RH | WB | Conf_Avo | Conf_IntR | IOS | Self_Cons | Rel_Dur |
|-----------|---------|---------|---------|----------|---------|---------|---------|---------|----------|-----------|---------|-----------|---------|
| Pro | - | -.049 | .664** | .496** | -.087 | -.375** | .608** | .310** | .301** | -.176** | .510** | .345** | -.111 |
| Rea | .694** | - | .138* | .140* | .172** | .037 | .107 | -.024 | -.005 | .176** | .066 | -.086 | .019 |
| PPR | .759** | .665** | - | .730** | -.318** | -.677** | .867** | .431** | .239** | -.419** | .654** | .391** | -.059 |
| Self_Dis | .361** | .306** | .548** | - | -.199** | -.592** | .651** | .301** | .162* | -.358** | .496** | .387** | -.055 |
| Att_Anx | -.448** | -.338** | -.530** | -.220** | - | .576** | -.370** | -.445** | -.066 | .653** | -.136* | -.231** | -.167* |
| Att_Avo | -.586** | -.497** | -.659** | -.514** | .584** | - | -.677** | -.423** | -.114 | .585** | -.485** | -.381** | .005 |
| RH | .721** | .622** | .846** | .434** | -.471** | -.638** | - | .524** | .271** | -.458** | .690** | .376** | -.009 |
| WB | .465** | .399** | .570** | .171* | -.491** | -.465** | .663** | - | .246** | -.462** | .388** | .250** | .039 |
| Conf_Avo | .055 | .060 | .098 | -.016 | .101 | .116 | .155* | .060 | - | -.169* | .158* | .172* | .067 |
| Conf_IntR | -.386** | -.286** | -.410** | -.185** | .576** | .491** | -.442** | -.501** | -.075 | - | -.201** | -.202** | -.070 |
| IOS | .531** | .454** | .599** | .295** | -.250** | -.480** | .631** | .422** | .131 | -.280** | - | .308** | -.006 |
| Self_Cons | .029 | -.047 | .124 | .140* | -.066 | -.043 | .125 | .132 | .051 | -.041 | .160* | - | .059 |
| Rel_Dur | -.137 | -.158* | -.056 | -.065 | -.074 | .063 | -.091 | .070 | .193** | -.179* | -.032 | .047 | - |

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Note. Correlations for the Turkish sample are presented below the diagonal. Correlations for the US sample are presented above the diagonal.

Variables: Pro: Proactive Sensitivity, Rea: Reactive Sensitivity, PPR: Perceived Partner Responsiveness, Self_Dis: Self-Disclosure, Att_Anx: Attachment Anxiety, Att_Avo: Attachment Avoidance, RH: Relationship Happiness, WB: Well-Being, Conf_Avo: Conflict Avoidance, Conf_IntR: Conflict Interactional Reactivity, IOS: Inclusion of Other into the Self, Self_Cons: Relational-Interdependent Self-Construction, Rel_Dur: Relationship Duration, respectively.

conflict negatively. Reactive sensitivity was correlated with PPR, self-disclosure, attachment anxiety, and interactional reactivity in conflict positively.

For both samples, the relationships of proactive sensitivity with PPR, self-disclosure, attachment avoidance, relationship happiness, well-being, interactional reactivity in conflict, and IOS were significant and in the same direction. The relationships of reactive sensitivity with PPR and self-disclosure were significantly positive for both samples. While reactive sensitivity was significantly correlated with attachment avoidance, relationship happiness, well-being, and IOS in the Turkish sample, they were nonsignificant for the US sample. Overall, these findings confirmed Hypothesis 1 that proactive and reactive sensitivity are relevant to the dynamics of adult romantic relationships. It was also found that there are cultural differences, especially in terms of the associations of reactive sensitivity with the other study variables.

4.3.1.4. Validation Analysis for the PRS Scale

For validation of the PRS Scale, it was discovered whether perceived proactive and reactive sensitivity are related to but differ from other constructs, such as self-disclosure and PPR that are theoretically and conceptually similar. As expected, self-disclosure and the two types of sensitivity were significantly related in both samples. Although, it was expected that reactive sensitivity and self-disclosure are more related with each other, as compared to proactive sensitivity theoretically, the correlations of proactive sensitivity ($r = .361, p < .01$) and reactive sensitivity ($r = .306, p < .01$) with self-disclosure did not significantly differ from each other in the Turkish sample. The association of proactive sensitivity with self-disclosure ($r = .496, p < .01$) was significantly higher than that of reactive sensitivity with self-disclosure ($r = .140, p < .01; z = 4.24, p < .001$).

Especially perceived proactive sensitivity and PPR showed a high association in both Turkish ($r = .759, p < .01$) and the US samples ($r = .664, p < .01$). Reactive sensitivity had a lower correlation with PPR in the US ($r = .138, p < .05$), but higher correlation in Turkey ($r = .665, p < .01$). When the mean differences of proactive sensitivity and PPR were tested, it was found that PPR had a significantly higher level of mean than proactive sensitivity in both samples ($t = 22.19, p < .001$ in Turkey; $t = 28.58, p < .001$ in the US) indicating that they are not overlapping

variables. To test the decomposite factorial structures of proactive sensitivity subdimension and PPR, additional EFA was conducted for both samples. When the items of proactive sensitivity and PPR were included, the analyses suggested two-factor solution by substantially grouping the items into their own factors. This finding yielded an evidence that proactive sensitivity and PPR did not measure the same construct. Additionally, simple regression analyses were conducted to test the unique effects of PPR, proactive sensitivity, and reactive sensitivity on relationship happiness. For the Turkish sample, it was found that proactive sensitivity ($\beta = .16, p = .008$) and PPR ($\beta = .69, p < .001$) significantly and uniquely predicted relationship happiness. Although PPR and proactive sensitivity had a high level of common method variance, they remained explaining a unique variance on relationship functioning in Turkey. However, in the US sample, PPR was the only significant predictor of relationship happiness ($\beta = .84, p < .001$). Positive and medium-to-high associations between the variables provided partial evidence for the construct validity for the PRS Scale. The difference in the strength of the link between reactive sensitivity and PPR between the two cultural contexts should be taken into account in further studies.

The two subscales of the Romantic Partner Conflict Scale (Zacchilli, 2007), namely, conflict avoidance and interactional reactivity in conflict, were also used to test the validity of the PRS Scale. Low-to-moderate levels of associations were expected between reactive sensitivity and conflict-avoidance, and between proactive sensitivity and interactional reactivity in conflict. In the US sample, proactive sensitivity was related to conflict avoidance ($r = .301, p < .01$) and interactional reactivity ($r = -.176, p < .01$). Reactive sensitivity was related to interactional reactivity ($r = .176, p < .01$), but not conflict avoidance. In the Turkish sample, proactive sensitivity was related to interactional reactivity ($r = -.386, p < .01$). Reactive sensitivity was also related to interactional reactivity ($r = -.286, p < .01$). Although reactive sensitivity was not correlated with conflict avoidance, its moderate association with the sensitivity and conflict subscales supported the construct validity of the PRS scale.

Inconsistent with the results of second study, men were not found to be significantly more reactively sensitive in this study. However, women were

perceived as more proactively sensitive, partially supporting the divergent validity of the revised version of the scale in Turkey and the U.S.

4.3.1.5. Comparing the US and Turkey on the Study Variables

First, the two samples were compared in terms of demographic variables by using independent samples t-test. The mean of participants' age was higher in the US sample ($M = 38.14$, $SD = 12.30$) than in the Turkish sample ($M = 35.33$, $SD = 9.39$, $t(412.67) = -2.66$, $p = .008$, 95% CI [-4.88, -.73]). The income level of participants was higher in the Turkish sample ($M = 3.44$, $SD = .83$) than the US sample ($M = 2.93$, $SD = .83$, $t(415.01) = 6.36$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.35, .67]). Then, ANCOVA was conducted to compare the two cultural contexts in terms of the study variables by controlling for gender, age, relationship duration, and income level. Means, standard deviations, and group differences were administered in Table 4.3.1.5. There were several significant differences between the two samples. The US sample reported higher levels of PPR, self-disclosure, relationship happiness, IOS, and conflict avoidance, as compared to the Turkish sample. The level of perceived reactive sensitivity was significantly higher in the Turkish sample than in the US sample.

Fisher's z-value transformation was used to compare the correlation coefficients of proactive and reactive sensitivity with other study variables for the two samples. The results indicated that the positive correlations of proactive sensitivity with PPR, and relationship happiness in the US sample were lower than those in the Turkish sample ($z = -1.98$, $p = .04$; $z = -2.08$, $p = .03$). The negative correlation of perceived proactive sensitivity with attachment avoidance in the US sample was lower than those in the Turkish sample ($z = 2.83$, $p < .01$). In turn, the positive correlations of perceived reactive sensitivity with PPR in the US sample were lower than those in the Turkish sample ($z = -6.77$, $p < .001$). While the correlation between reactive sensitivity and attachment anxiety was significantly positive in the US sample, this association was significantly negative in the Turkish sample.

Additionally, relative frequencies of the Turkish and US participants' responses to forced-choice items of the PRS Scale were calculated and presented in Figure 4.3.1.5. US participants reported higher levels of perceived proactive sensitivity for all of the twenty scenarios than Turkish participants did. All but four

Table 4.3.1.5. Cultural Differences on the Study Variables

| Variables | Turkish Sample (<i>n</i> =201) | | US Sample (<i>n</i> =224) | | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> |
|-----------|------------------------------------|-----------|-------------------------------|-----------|----------|----------|
| | <i>M</i> | <i>SE</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SE</i> | | |
| Pro | 3.727 | .071 | 3.822 | .067 | .860 | .354 |
| Rea | 4.120 | .058 | 3.721 | .055 | 22.904 | .000 |
| PPR | 5.015 | .094 | 5.615 | .089 | 19.713 | .000 |
| Self_Dis | 5.226 | .081 | 5.539 | .076 | 7.264 | .007 |
| Att_Anx | 2.893 | .113 | 2.951 | .106 | .130 | .719 |
| Att_Avo | 2.577 | .102 | 2.676 | .096 | .459 | .499 |
| RH | 5.306 | .109 | 5.722 | .102 | 7.162 | .008 |
| WB | 1.589 | .114 | 1.823 | .107 | 2.057 | .152 |
| Conf_Avo | 3.713 | .112 | 4.766 | .105 | 43.026 | .000 |
| Conf_IntR | 2.885 | .098 | 2.667 | .092 | 2.428 | .120 |
| IOS | 4.663 | .129 | 5.467 | .122 | 18.832 | .000 |
| Self_Cons | 5.077 | .076 | 5.103 | .071 | .059 | .809 |

Note. Gender, age, relationship duration, and income were controlled.

Variables: Pro: Proactive Sensitivity, Rea: Reactive Sensitivity, PPR: Perceived Partner Responsiveness, Self_Dis: Self-Disclosure, Att_Anx: Attachment Anxiety, Att_Avo: Attachment Avoidance, RH: Relationship Happiness, WB: Well-Being, Conf_Avo: Conflict Avoidance, Conf_IntR: Conflict Interactional Reactivity, IOS: Inclusion of Other into the Self, Self_Cons: Relational-Interdependent Self-Construal, respectively.

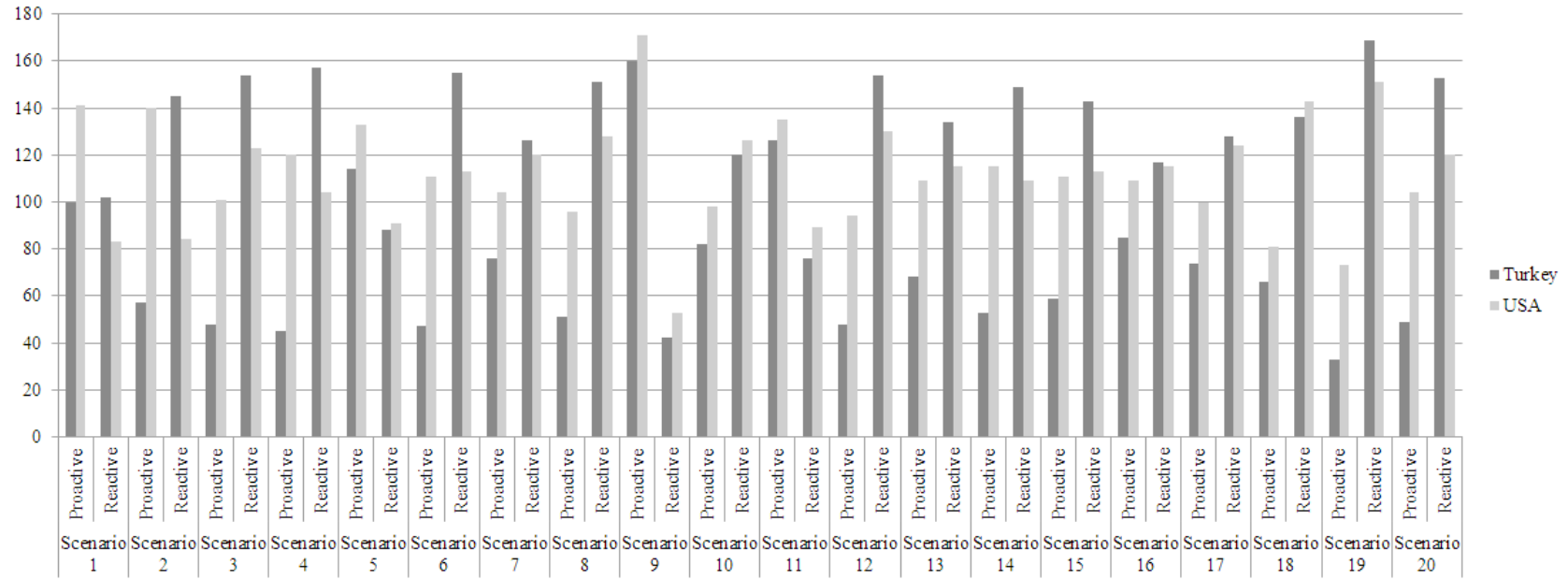


Figure 4.3.1.5. Relative Frequencies of Responses to Forced-Choice Items of the PRS Scale ($n_{Turkey} = 201$; $n_{USA} = 224$)

scenarios, Turkish participants reported higher levels of perceived reactive sensitivity than American participants did.

4.3.1.5.1. A Supplementary Analysis for Country Comparison

To see whether proactive and reactive partners are predominant in each culture, K-means cluster analysis was conducted, and continuous proactive and reactive scores were clustered in four groups. The number of cases in the cluster, including higher levels of proactive sensitivity scores and lower levels of reactive sensitivity scores, was compared with those in the cluster, including lower levels of proactive sensitivity scores and higher levels of reactive sensitivity scores. However, for the Turkish sample, proactive sensitivity scores were lower than reactive sensitivity scores in both clusters. The number of cases was higher in the cluster ($n = 68$), in which reactive sensitivity mean was higher ($M = 4.20$) than those in the other cluster ($n = 57$) in which reactive sensitivity mean was lower ($M = 4.04$). For the US sample, the number of cases in the cluster ($n = 44$), in which proactive sensitivity scores were higher ($M = 4.75$) and reactive sensitivity scores were lower ($M = 2.77$), was equal to the number of cases in the cluster ($n = 44$), in which reactive sensitivity scores were higher ($M = 4.35$) and proactive sensitivity scores were lower ($M = 3.14$). Therefore, an unmitigated comparison could not be made between the clusters.

Overall, these results revealed that the Turkish sample could not clearly separate the proactive and reactive sensitivity. The mean levels of the two types of sensitivity were close to each other. Four items of reactive sensitivity had cross-loadings indicating that these two constructs seem to be confused semantically. Scenario-based comparisons showed that the same daily personal situations seemed to be evaluated differently in the two countries. However, the cluster analysis showed that when the participants were grouped according to higher and lower scores in the proactive and reactive sensitivity, the numbers of individuals were equal to each other in the US sample. In the Turkish sample, reactive sensitivity scores were higher even in the group, where proactive sensitivity scores were expected to be higher. Thus, it was emphasized that proactive and reactive sensitivity constructs were not completely differentiated by the Turkish sample.

4.3.2. Testing Hypothesis 2: Are proactive sensitivity in Turkey and reactive sensitivity in the US the predominant pattern of sensitivity?

Hypothesis 2 predicted that proactive sensitivity in Turkey and reactive sensitivity in the US is the predominant pattern of sensitivity. Supporting the hypothesis for Turkey, Study 2 showed that the individuals who perceived their spouses as proactively sensitive reported less attachment anxiety and avoidance, and more satisfaction in their relationships and they defined their spouses as a greater part of themselves, as compared to those who perceived their spouses as reactively sensitive. In the current study, the analyses were re-conducted to test the findings for Turkey. However, paired-samples t-test showed that the mean level of reactive sensitivity ($M = 4.16$, $SD = .77$) was higher than proactive sensitivity ($M = 3.73$, $SD = 1.04$; $t(200) = -8.06$, $p < .001$, 95%CI [-.53, -.32]). It was also revealed that there was no significant difference between the mean levels of proactive ($M = 3.92$, $SD = .90$) and reactive ($M = 3.69$, $SD = .80$) sensitivity for the US sample ($p = .131$).

The results indicated that contrary to the expectations, reactive sensitivity, but not proactive sensitivity, is the predominant pattern for the Turkish sample, whereas reactive sensitivity is not prevalent in the US sample. The level of perceived proactive sensitivity in the US sample tended to be higher than perceived reactive sensitivity though the difference was not statistically significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 expecting a cultural pattern for the sensitivity constructs was not supported.

4.3.3. Testing Hypothesis 3: Are women more proactively sensitive and men more reactively sensitive?

Hypothesis 3 proposed that women are perceived as more proactively sensitive while men are perceived as more reactively sensitive. This hypothesis has been supported for both women and men in the Turkish sample in Study 2. However, since only categorical proactive sensitivity scores could be calculated in Study 2, it is necessary to confirm the findings by using continuous proactive and reactive sensitivity variables. Therefore, it was aimed to test this hypothesis for the US sample and retest it in the Turkish sample. T-test analyses and ANOVA were conducted to examine both within-culture and between-culture gender differences.

First, gender differences among study variables were tested in the US sample. Only two significant gender differences were found. Men reported significantly more conflict avoidance ($M_{Male} = 5.03, SD = 1.23$) to their spouses ($M_{Female} = 4.65, SD = 1.49$), $t(222) = -2.07, p = .039$. Men also reported significantly higher levels of interactional reactivity in conflict ($M_{Male} = 2.89, SD = 1.57$), as compared to women ($M_{Female} = 2.44, SD = 1.21$), $t(222) = -2.35, p = .019, 95\% CI [-.83, -.07]$. They did not differ from each other in perceived proactive and reactive sensitivity.

Second, gender differences among study variables were tested in the Turkish sample by considering that the numbers of females and males were highly different from each other. There was a significant gender difference. Women reported significantly less well-being ($M_{Female} = 1.44, SD = 1.60$) than men did ($M_{Male} = 2.05, SD = 1.23$), $t(199) = -2.68, p = .009, 95\% CI [-1.06, -.15]$. They did not differ from each other in terms of perceived proactive and reactive sensitivity.

Third, 2 (Gender) x 2 (Culture) between-subjects ANOVA was conducted to test the gender differences between the two countries on perceived proactive and reactive sensitivity levels. Results showed significant main effect for gender on perceived proactive sensitivity, $F(1, 425) = 5.33, p = .022, \eta_p^2 = .012$. Men perceived their wives as more proactively sensitive ($M = 3.94, SE = .09$) than women did ($M = 3.70, SE = .06$). The main effect of culture and the interaction effect were non-significant. Moreover, there was a significant main effect of culture on perceived reactive sensitivity, $F(1, 425) = 28.68, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .064$. Turkish participants perceived their spouses as more reactively sensitive ($M = 4.16, SE = .07$) than American participants did ($M = 3.70, SE = .05$). The main effect of gender and the interaction effect were nonsignificant. The results did not change when the education level, age, and relationship duration were controlled for in the above analyses.

Overall, the findings revealed that independent from the cultural context, women were perceived as more proactively sensitive by their spouses. However, there was no significant gender effect on perceived reactive sensitivity. Since being male was not found to be related to being more reactively sensitive, Hypothesis 3 has been partially supported. The finding that as compared to the US sample, the Turkish sample perceived their spouses/partners as more reactively sensitive has been affirmed.

4.3.4. Testing Hypothesis 4: Is the Link between Attachment Orientations and Sensitivity Negative?

The expected negative associations of attachment insecurity dimensions with sensitivity constructs (Hypothesis 4) were tested by bivariate correlation analysis. Path analyses were conducted to test if attachment avoidance in Turkey and attachment anxiety in the US are the prevalent predictors of caregiving sensitivity (Hypothesis 4b).

For the Turkish sample, the correlation analysis (see Table 4.3.1.3) showed that proactive sensitivity was negatively associated with attachment anxiety ($r = -.448, p < .01$) and avoidance ($r = -.586, p < .01$). Reactive sensitivity was also negatively correlated with attachment anxiety ($r = -.338, p < .01$) and avoidance ($r = -.497, p < .01$). The hypothesized model indicating the associations of attachment anxiety and avoidance with proactive and reactive sensitivity was tested using LISREL. Gender was the control variable. Following the construction of a fully saturated model, insignificant paths were excluded from the model subsequently. The trimmed model fit the data very well ($\chi^2(2, N = 201) = 1.28, p = .52, GFI = .99, AGFI = .98, NNFI = 1.01, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00, 90\% CI [.00, .12]$). In the model (see Figure 4.3.4.1), attachment anxiety predicted proactive sensitivity ($\beta = -.12, p < .05$), but not reactive sensitivity. Attachment avoidance predicted both proactive sensitivity ($\beta = -.53, p < .05$) and reactive sensitivity ($\beta = -.50, p < .05$) with much stronger beta weights. Chi-square difference test was conducted to test the magnitude of predictive powers of attachment orientations on sensitivity constructs. The power of attachment avoidance was significantly stronger than the power of attachment anxiety in predicting proactive sensitivity ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 16.86, p < .01$). The power of attachment avoidance in predicting proactive sensitivity was stronger than the power of it in predicting reactive sensitivity ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = 7.41, p < .01$).

As a supplementary analysis, the interaction effect of attachment anxiety and avoidance on proactive and reactive sensitivity was tested to see if the four attachment categories inferred from the interaction effects have significant effects above and beyond the effects of the dimensions of attachment anxiety and avoidance. Gender and attachment dimensions were centered at their means, and the interaction term was calculated by multiplying the centered attachment variables. Three-stage

hierarchical regression analyses were conducted with proactive and reactive sensitivity as the outcome variables. Gender was entered at the first step to control for its effect, attachment anxiety and avoidance were entered into the second step, and the interaction term was entered into the final step. For the Turkish sample, the interaction of attachment anxiety and avoidance did not make a significant contribution to the models.

For the US sample, the correlation analysis (see Table 4.3.1.3) revealed that proactive sensitivity was negatively correlated with attachment avoidance ($r = -.375$, $p < .01$) but not attachment anxiety. Unexpectedly, reactive sensitivity was positively correlated with attachment anxiety ($r = .172$, $p < .01$). It did not significantly correlate with attachment avoidance. The hypothesized model indicating the associations of attachment anxiety and avoidance with proactive and reactive sensitivity was tested by controlling for the effect of gender. The trimmed model fit the data well ($\chi^2(3, N = 224) = 2.57$, $p = .46$, GFI = .99, AGFI = .97, NNFI = 1.01, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00, 90% CI [.00, .10]). In the model, however, attachment anxiety positively predicted proactive sensitivity ($\beta = .18$, $p < .05$) and reactive sensitivity ($\beta = .17$, $p < .05$), while attachment avoidance negatively predicted proactive sensitivity ($\beta = -.49$, $p < .05$), but not reactive sensitivity. Attachment anxiety was significant predictors of proactive and reactive sensitivity in the opposite way of expectations. Given the nonsignificant but in the negative direction correlation between attachment anxiety and proactive sensitivity ($r = -.087$), a suppression effect was suspected. Therefore, attachment anxiety was removed from the equation, which remained including gender and attachment avoidance. The adjusted model (see Figure 4.3.4.2) showed a good fit ($\chi^2(2, N = 224) = 0.50$, $p = .77$, GFI = .99, AGFI = .99, NNFI = 1.12, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00, 90% CI [.00, .08]). Attachment avoidance predicted proactive sensitivity when gender was controlled ($\beta = -.39$, $p < .05$).

In sum, it was hypothesized that attachment anxiety and avoidance would negatively predict perceived sensitivity (Hypothesis 4). The hypothesis was supported for the Turkish sample. However, for the US sample, there was only a negative relationship between attachment avoidance and proactive sensitivity. Unexpectedly, attachment anxiety was positively correlated with reactive sensitivity.

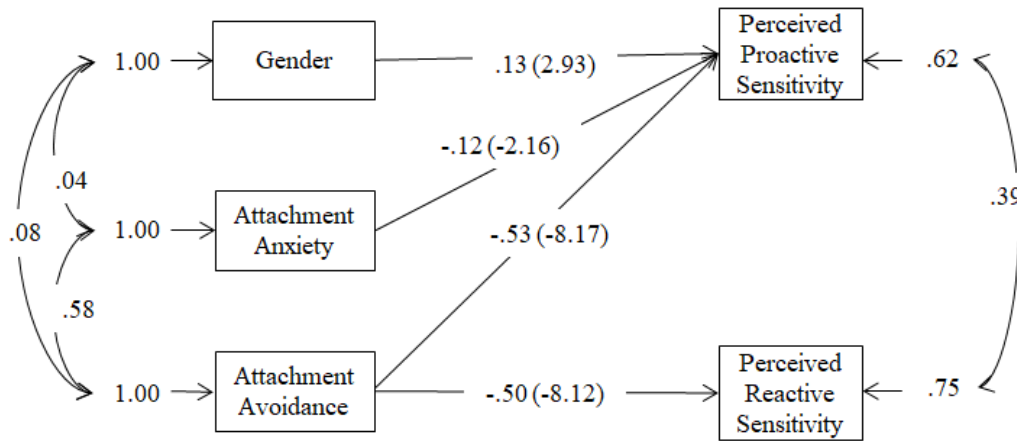


Figure 4.3.4.1. The Links of Attachment Orientations with Sensitivity Constructs for the Turkish Sample

Note. Gender: 1 = Women, 2 = Men

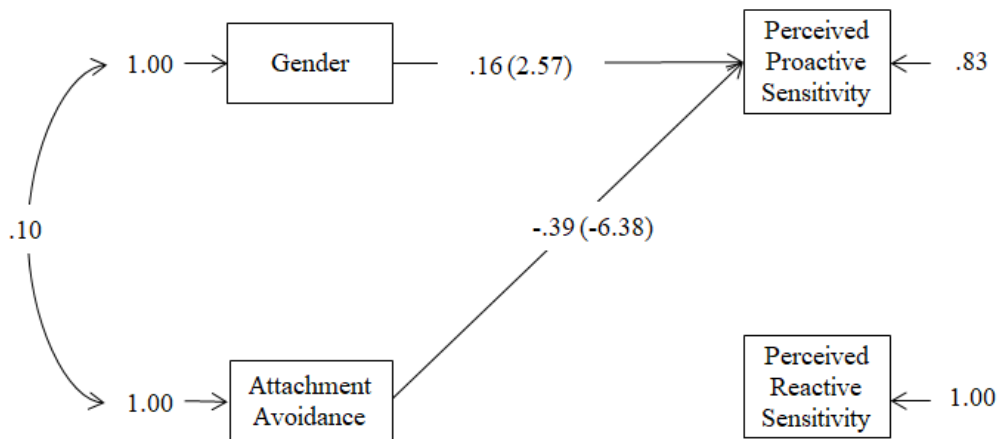


Figure 4.3.4.2. The Link of Attachment Avoidance with Sensitivity Constructs for the US Sample

Note. Gender: 1 = Women, 2 = Men

Therefore, the hypothesis was not fully supported for the US sample. As a culture-specific prediction, the power of attachment avoidance was expected to be stronger in predicting sensitivity as compared to attachment anxiety in Turkey, while the power of attachment anxiety was expected to be stronger in predicting sensitivity as compared to attachment avoidance (Hypothesis 4b). For the Turkish sample, the predominance effect of attachment avoidance on proactive and reactive sensitivity was revealed. Attachment avoidance also seemed to be the predominant factor for proactive sensitivity for the US sample. However, the predictor role of attachment

anxiety could not be tested because a suppression effect was detected. The model was tested by including only attachment avoidance. Therefore, the interaction effect of attachment orientations could not be tested for the US sample. The measurement equivalence of path models for the two samples could not be tested either. As a result, the hypothesis was supported for the Turkish sample, but not for the US sample.

4.4. Overview of the Results

Overall, the current study provided support for the function of proactive and reactive sensitivity in romantic relationships and partial support for the culture- and gender-related expectations about the adaptive functions of sensitivity constructs, and the predictor roles of attachment orientations in perceived sensitivity.

Specifically, in the current study, proactive and reactive sensitivity have been investigated both from within-culture and between-culture perspectives. A scenario-based PRS Scale consisting of both categorical and continuous rating scales was developed. The two-factor structure of English and Turkish versions of the scale was supported. The measurement invariance of the scale across the two samples was partially supported. The main reason for this result is considered as the high correlation between the two sensitivity constructs in Turkey. They were uncorrelated in the US sample. The subsequent analyses were carried out by considering that the scale was partially (non-)invariant for the two samples. Sensitivity constructs had low-to-moderate correlations with self-disclosure and conflict variables, and medium-to-high correlations with PPR, which supported the validity of the measure.

The relationships between sensitivity constructs with other study variables (i.e., self-disclosure, PPR, IOS, and relationship happiness) suggested that proactive and reactive sensitivity have functions in adult romantic relationships. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported.

According to the cross-cultural findings, individuals in the Turkish sample showed more tendencies to perceive their spouses/partners more reactively sensitive than those in the US sample did. Although there was no significant difference in terms of the mean levels of the sensitivity constructs, individuals in the US sample were more apt to perceive their spouses/partners as proactively sensitive. Considering the responses of individuals to each scenario in the PRS Scale, it was

detected that individuals in the US sample had higher scores in all of the proactive sensitivity options. In contrast, those in the Turkish sample had higher scores in the majority of the reactive sensitivity options.

In the Turkish sample, proactive and reactive sensitivity were closely associated with each other. Therefore, the correlations with other study variables were highly similar to each other. They were significantly correlated with PPR, self-disclosure, relationship happiness, IOS, well-being, attachment anxiety, and attachment avoidance in the expected directions. However, individuals in the Turkish sample reported higher levels of perceived reactive sensitivity than proactive sensitivity.

Hypothesis 2 indicating that proactive sensitivity would be the predominant factor for the Turkish samples was rejected. On the other hand, in the US sample, individuals who perceived their spouses as more proactively sensitive reported higher levels of PPR, self-disclosure, relationship happiness, and well-being. They also showed more tendencies to include their spouses into themselves and to define their self-construals interdependent. Accordingly, Hypothesis 2 was rejected for both the Turkish and the US sample. The expectation of a typical cultural pattern for sensitivity constructs was not fully supported.

As compared to men, women were perceived as more proactively sensitive by their spouses. There was no evidence that men were perceived to be more reactively sensitive. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was supported only for women in both samples.

There were cross-cultural differences in terms of the link between attachment orientations and the types of sensitivity. As expected, negative relationships were detected for all of the variables for the Turkish sample. For the US sample, although there was a negative association between attachment avoidance and proactive sensitivity, attachment anxiety positively related to reactive sensitivity that was unexpected. The correlation between proactive sensitivity and attachment anxiety, as well as the correlation between reactive sensitivity and attachment avoidance, were nonsignificant. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was supported for the Turkish sample only. In terms of culture-specific expectations, the predictive power of attachment avoidance was significantly higher than attachment anxiety in predicting proactive sensitivity for the Turkish sample. Unlike attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance

also predicted reactive sensitivity. The results supported Hypothesis 4b, indicating that attachment avoidance is the predominant predictor of sensitivity constructs in Turkey. In contrast, Hypothesis 4b was not supported by the US sample. Attachment anxiety was excluded from the path model due to the suppression effect. Accordingly, the predictive powers of attachment orientations and measurement equivalence of the models across the samples could not be tested.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The general purpose of the current dissertation was to investigate the function of proactive and reactive sensitivity in adult romantic relationships from dyadic and cultural perspectives. For this purpose, in the first study, a perceived proactive-reactive sensitivity scale was developed. Because the validity of the newly developed measure was not strong enough, this measure was converted into a scenario-based format in the second study. In addition, culturally adaptive functions of sensitivity constructs were explored dyadically in the Turkish cultural context. In the third study, cross-cultural variations in the roles of sensitivity constructs were examined by comparing the samples from Turkey and the US. In the following sections, first, the main findings of each study are summarized and discussed. Then, the contributions, implications, and limitations of the current research, together with the suggestions for further studies, are addressed.

5.1. Discussion of the Main Findings of the Current Research

5.1.1. Study 1

To date, culturally adaptive functions of proactive and reactive sensitivity have been investigated in caregiver-child relationships (e.g., Park, Trommsdorff, & Lee, 2012; Rothbaum, Nagaoka, & Ponte, 2006; Trommsdorff & Friedlmeier, 2010; Ziehm, Trommsdorff, Heikamp, & Park, 2013). The functions of proactive and reactive sensitivity in adult romantic relationships have been left unexamined. To fill this gap, the caregiving sensitivity scale and perceived caregiving sensitivity scales were developed. In the first study, the reliability and validity of the developed measures were tested with married/cohabiting individuals in Turkey. The majority of the sample consisted of women, which limited comparison of women and men in terms of the variables. Although factor analyses supported the two-factor structure of

the measure, the internal consistencies and correlations of the proactive and reactive sensitivity subscales were quite high. Moreover, the magnitude of the correlations between the subscales of new measure and PPR was very high, indicating that the adult sensitivity measures were not separated from PPR. Negatively skewed distributions of the proactive and reactive sensitivity scores also connoted that participants could not have differentiated the proactive and reactive meanings of the items. Participants rather might have focused on whether their partner/spouse is “purely sensitive” or not, as measured in the previous studies (e.g., Feeney & Collins, 2003). The validity of the measure was speculative due to the ceiling effect also suggesting a desirability effect (Hessling, Traxel, & Schmidt, 2004). As a result, hypotheses could not be tested in the first study. Considering these limitations, the second study was designed and the item format was converted in a scenario-based measure with forced-choice options.

5.1.2. Study 2

Several methodological changes were made in the second study. First, given that caregiving experiences are more likely to be higher in marital relationships than dating relationships (Knapp et al., 2016), married couples only participated in the second study. Second, to obtain cross-informant data, sensitivity constructs have been explored from a dyadic perspective, which allowed probing the relationship functioning from a broader perspective (van Dulmen & Goncy, 2010). Besides, gender differences in the associations between attachment orientations and evaluations in partner sensitivity have been explored. Third, unlike the first study, instead of actual sensitivity behaviors of participants, perceived sensitivity was assessed considering that perceptions of partner behaviors give more accurate information about these behaviors and the relationship process (Matthews, Wickrama, & Conger, 1996).

In the new scenario-based binary forced-choice method, participants were asked to select one of the partner behaviors referring to proactive or reactive sensitivity. Although this method minimizes the social desirability in responding, it also has some limitations. First, it may lead to ignoring the qualified answers of respondents who do not intentionally try to give misleading answers (Jackson, Wroblewski, & Ashton, 2000). Still, the difficulty in identifying these respondents

might apply to all measurement methods of any kind. Second, forcing respondents to select one of the two undesired alternatives might also be problematic (Jackson, Wroblewski, & Ashton, 2000). Indeed, some of the participants in the second study expressed this problem at the end of the survey. The respondents might have perceived their spouses as insensitive to their personal needs; therefore, they might not want to select any of the options. However, unlike the previous research which explored the quality of caregiving (Kunce & Shaver, 1994) or the (non)existence of sensitivity (e.g., Feeney & Collins, 2003), the current study focused on the types of sensitivity when a person expressed her/his needs to the partner explicitly or implicitly. Therefore, this method was preferred to measure one's tendency to classify partner behaviors as proactive or reactive. Last, this method allowed mutually exclusive categorical classification, which led to the proactive and reactive scores to be completely interdependent. Thus, proactive and reactive sensitivity could not have been included in the same analyses.

The correlation between proactive sensitivity and PPR was high, indicating that the two structures may work in relationship functioning as counterparts, or they may explain unique variance on different relationship dynamics. These arguments were discussed after the results of the third study were presented.

Examination of newly developed scale's validity revealed that proactive sensitivity had significant relationships with the indicators of relational dynamics (i.e., PPR, self-disclosure, IOS, relationship happiness, attachment anxiety, and attachment avoidance) in the expected directions. These associations also supported Hypothesis 1 and showed the relevance of proactive sensitivity in relationship functioning. Those who perceive their partners/spouses proactively sensitive also felt more satisfaction in their relationships and perceived them as an essential part of themselves. The findings of the previous research have also shown that spousal caregiving had a positive impact on marital satisfaction (e.g., Carnelly, Pietromonaco, & Jaffe, 1996; Feeney, 1996).

Hypothesis 2, indicating that proactive sensitivity would be more compatible with the Turkish cultural context, has been supported. The participants were classified into three groups according to their scores in perceived proactive and reactive sensitivity and were compared on the major study variables. It was found

that the proactive group reported significantly higher levels of PPR, self-disclosure, IOS, and relationship happiness and lower levels of attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance than the reactive group. Previous cross-cultural studies have demonstrated that the role of caregiver sensitivity in emotion regulation processes suggesting that caregivers in collectivist cultures show proactive sensitivity tendency to foster social cohesion (e.g., Park, Trommsdorff, & Lee, 2012; Rothbaum, Nagaoka, & Ponte, 2006; Trommsdorff & Heikamp, 2013; Ziehm, Trommsdorff, Heikamp, & Park, 2013). Considering that the Turkish cultural context draws a psychological/emotional interdependence culture profile that prioritizing interpersonal relations (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005), the associations between proactive sensitivity and relationship dynamics were in line with those of the studies conducted in the early developmental period. However, given that proactive and reactive sensitivity scores are dependent on this measurement method, there is a need for obtaining two independent scores to be able to compare the mean levels of proactive and reactive sensitivity.

The analysis conducted to test gender differences in sensitivity constructs supported Hypothesis 3 and yielded that wives were evaluated as more proactively sensitive, whereas husbands were perceived as more reactively sensitive by their spouses. This finding was compatible with gender-fit expectations about the role of women in managing emotional needs and processes (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 1999). The studies about the communication of emotions argued that women are more likely to develop nonverbal skills and read implicit cues for the maintenance of the intrafamilial cohesion (Brody, 2000; McClure, 2000). Therefore, women could anticipate men's needs for support and be evaluated as proactively sensitive. In contrast, men are less apt to use affectional words and mimics than women are (Levenson, Cartensen, & Gottman, 1994). They tend to withdraw verbal conflict (Vogel, Wester, Heesacker, & Madon, 2003). Besides, women are more willing to initiate conversations and vocalize their needs (Christensen & Heavey, 1990). Men might prefer responding until women expressed their needs explicitly, which is in line with reactive sensitivity.

The link between attachment orientations and the types of sensitivity was investigated to better understand the underlying individual-based mechanisms in

perceived partner responses. Hypothesis 4 has been supported. Attachment anxiety and avoidance were negatively related to perceived proactive sensitivity. The previous research suggested that the coupling of an avoidant wife and an anxious husband was the most unfavorable match for the relationship welfare (e.g., Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994; Feeney, 2008; Harma & Sümer, 2016). As a culture- and gender-based expectation, it was hypothesized that wives' attachment avoidance and husbands' attachment anxiety would be the most detrimental predictors of perceived spousal sensitivity. Supporting the previous findings and Hypothesis 4a, the results revealed that avoidantly attached wives and anxiously attached husbands perceived their spouses as less proactively sensitive. Additionally, as a partner effect, husbands with avoidantly attached wives reported less proactive sensitivity. This finding is important to emphasize how strongly attachment avoidance in women influences men's perceived sensitivity among married couples. Thus, not only the role of attachment in marital sensitivity but also the prevalent role of gender has been shown (Feeney, 1996). In conclusion, this study has significantly contributed to the sensitivity literature by explaining the relevance of perceived proactive sensitivity in marriages in the Turkish cultural context. Adhering to the cross-cultural arguments about the proactive and reactive sensitivity in the early developmental studies (e.g., Trommsdorff & Heikamp, 2013; Trommsdorff & Rothbaum, 2008), a supplementary study has been conducted to explore the types of sensitivity in a cross-cultural setting.

5.1.3. Study 3

In the third study, the two major limitations of the second study were eliminated. First, the Likert scale was added to the binary forced-choice PRS Scale to be able to employ proactive and reactive sensitivity as separate variables in the analyses. Second, a cross-cultural study was designed to examine whether the prevalence and function of proactive and reactive sensitivity change depending on the cultural context. Before testing the main hypotheses, the factorial structure, measurement equivalence, and validity of the Turkish and English versions of the PRS scale were tested. In the second study, as the result of the forced-choice format, a unitary factorial structure has been supported for the scale in Turkey. However, in the third study, the factor analyses showed that six items corresponding to the

reactive sensitivity had cross-loadings or had lower loadings in the Turkish sample. Although the problematic items were removed from the scale, there was still a high correlation between the two dimensions. Considering that the factorial structure of the scale was satisfactory and yielded a clear two-factor solution in the US sample, 20 scenarios were retained in the analyses. Configural invariance of the scale was satisfactory after all the error covariances were added between the error terms of items loading to the same factor. However, measurement invariance of the scale was partially supported. Although removing the non-invariant items from the models may be a solution in the short-run, this could impair the psychometric quality and the scope of the content. Instead, the literature suggests using partially non-invariant models, which allows the researchers analyzing the samples at the construct level (see Ock, McAbee, Mulfinger, & Oswald, 2019). In a recent article, Funder (2020) suggested that a failure of measurement invariance should not restrict further analyses, and configural invariance could be adequate if the purpose of the study is to focus on correlations of measures within countries. Indeed, the current study had a correlational nature, and the main purpose of it was to explore the relevance of the types of sensitivity in the romantic relationship settings. Accordingly, further analyses remained for the countries but the findings were interpreted cautiously.

In addition, it should be noted that metric non-invariance might result from the fact that proactive and reactive sensitivity were highly correlated with each other in the Turkish sample, while they were uncorrelated in the US sample. This finding indicated that proactive and reactive sensitivity seemed to be indistinguishable for the Turkish sample. Two possible explanations may lie at this result. First, individuals in this cultural context might indeed have the tendency to show both types of sensitivity to the partner to minimize the possibility to be rejected/left by the partner. Rejection sensitivity is defined as the expectation of being rejected by important others (Downey, Mougios, Ayduk, London, & Shoda, 2004). Cross-cultural studies showed that the level of rejection sensitivity is higher in Eastern societies than Western societies (Garris, Ohbuchi, Oikawa, & Harris, 2011; Lou & Li, 2017) because the maintenance of relationships and the sense of belongingness to social environment are more critical in collectivist cultures than in individualist cultures (see Sato, Yuki, & Norasakkunkit, 2014). Proactive and reactive sensitivity

might cooperate with each other to deal with the threat of rejection. That is, partners might not regard the actor's overt or covert expressions as a prerequisite to be sensitive and might just be trying to be sensitive in any case to avoid potential rejection and protect their relationships.

Second, individuals in this cultural setting might form a more situation-specific sensitivity, as compared to the US people. In the two studies conducted in the early developmental period, it was found that Korean and Japanese mothers' responses to the scenarios varied (i.e., proactive or reactive) depending on the situation that the child experienced, while German mothers' responses were relatively more consistent across the situations. The researchers pointed out that although the mothers in Eastern societies showed the tendency to be proactively sensitive, their sensitivity patterns should be regarded as situation-specific sensitivity (Trommsdorff and Friedlmeier, 2010; Ziehm, Trommsdorff, Heikamp, & Park, 2013). In line with this argument, individuals in Turkey might have preferred to be proactively or reactively sensitive in particular situations that the actors need for help/support. Nevertheless, further studies should re-test whether proactive and reactive sensitivity could be decomposite variables in Turkey before drawing a definite conclusion.

The validation of the scales was investigated for the two samples. The results showed that most of the associations between the types of sensitivity and other variables (i.e., self-disclosure, PPR, and romantic partner conflict) were significant in the expected directions. Small-to-moderate relationships of sensitivity with self-disclosure and conflict subscales contributed to the construct validity of the PRS. However, the validity of proactive and reactive sensitivity was partially supported due to the high correlations between PPR and proactive sensitivity. Besides, there were other critical findings. First, the link between self-disclosure and proactive sensitivity was higher than the link between self-disclosure and reactive sensitivity in the US, indicating that the more the actor shares personal features or situations, the better the partner anticipates the actor's needs. Second, PPR was found to be highly related to especially proactive sensitivity in both samples, indicating that PPR and proactive sensitivity seem to have moderately high overlap in measuring the same structure. To assess this possibility, supplementary regression analyses were

conducted, and the unique variances of the two types of sensitivity and PPR in explaining relationship happiness were tested. The results showed that PPR was the only significant predictor of relationship happiness in the US, while both proactive sensitivity and PPR significantly predicted relationship happiness in Turkey. Although the analyses showed the effect of PPR above and beyond it, proactive sensitivity remained to explain unique variance in Turkey. These findings might infer that there might be an instrumental similarity between these two variables, which means that anticipating one's needs without s/he verbalizes might indeed refer to responsiveness.

Although the correlation between proactive sensitivity and relationship happiness was high, proactive sensitivity did not predict relationship happiness, when PPR was in the model in the US. The unique and dominant effect of PPR on relationship happiness indicated that proactive sensitivity could be a subset of PPR in adult relationships. PPR and proactive sensitivity seem to overlap in terms of their main components, which are the sense of being understood, validated, and cared for by the partner. "Feeling understood" refers to the belief that the partner is aware of innermost concerns. "Feeling validated" corresponds to the belief that the partner respects personal desires and goals. "Feeling cared for" stands for the belief that the partner helps fulfill personal and psychological needs (Reis, Clark, & Holmes, 2004; Reis & Shaver, 1988). Indeed, these components also typify proactive sensitivity. The intuition/anticipation of one's needs (i.e., understanding), taking care of the needs (i.e., validation), and responding to the needs (i.e., caring) are the prerequisites for proactive sensitivity. However, the major characteristic of proactive sensitivity is still the anticipation of the needs that the actor expressed tacitly. In this manner, it could be expected that proactive sensitivity would be more inclusive than PPR because the partner shows a sensitive behavior by considering one's preference in the way of expressing the needs, which is not assessed in PPR specifically. Since the results depicted the overarching role of PPR in the US, the sense of being understood in the PPR process might depend on the accurate evaluation of one's nonverbal expressions, thereby encapsulating proactive sensitivity, at least in that cultural setting.

Alternatively, since proactive sensitivity and PPR had unique variances in explaining the relational outcome, at least in the Turkish sample, their conceptual (dis)similarity should be also taken into consideration in further studies. Indeed, the items of the PPR and perceived sensitivity scales are different and target partner behaviors. While the PPR Scale is based on the cognitive evaluations toward partner behaviors, the PRS Scale measures the partner responses through the individual's own overt or covert expressions in time of need. Therefore, they might have different functions in relationships. As depicted in this study, PPR could be a distinctive factor for relationship satisfaction. Still, it might be possible to detect the effect of proactive sensitivity, and even reactive sensitivity, above and beyond PPR in other relationship dynamics. For instance, perceiving the partner as proactively or reactively sensitive might determine the conflict management strategies. Effective conflict management strategies are necessary to maintain relationship welfare (Beach, Fincham, & Katz, 1998). The effectiveness of communication is identified with constructive communication strategies used in the time of conflict (Caughlin & Vangelisti, 2006). It has been claimed that if the critical problems are not openly discussed within a relationship, this might result in relationship dissatisfaction in the long-run (Canary, Cupach, & Messman, 1995), emphasizing the importance of open communication. However, considering the individual differences in perceived sensitivity, it could be speculated that the constructiveness of the strategies may be evaluated at the individual-level and tried to be explained by regarding the individual's preference to overt or covert expressions in the sensitivity process. Specifically, if one's proactive sensitivity is higher, then the partner may sense the relational problem and take action to solve it without one's bringing up the matter. Those who perceived their partners as proactively sensitive may be more apt to find a strategy more constructive, while those who perceived their partners as reactively sensitive may be more likely to evaluate another strategy as more constructive, thereby enhancing relationship welfare in separate pathways. Considering these two arguments, further studies should examine whether PPR and proactive sensitivity are in accord with each other in all relational contexts or decompose from each other in some specific situations.

In Hypothesis 1, it was expected that proactive and reactive sensitivity would be relevant to romantic relationships. The relationships of proactive and reactive sensitivity with other study variables supported the hypothesis for the two samples and suggested that they have important roles in adult romantic relationships. The current dissertation is a pioneer study depicting the relevance of proactive and reactive sensitivity in the relationship dynamics. Thus, the roles of proactive and reactive sensitivity in romantic relationships should be replicated in different samples before generalizing the results.

In Hypothesis 2, it was proposed that proactive sensitivity in Turkey and reactive sensitivity in the US would be the predominant predictor in relationships. This hypothesis has been supported for Turkey in the second study. In the third study, cross-cultural findings depicted that although proactive and reactive sensitivity were highly correlated with each other, Turkish participants perceived their spouses/partners as reactively sensitive rather than proactively sensitive. On the contrary, there was a trend to recognize the spouse/partner proactively sensitive among the US participants. As compared to the Americans, who perceived their spouses/partners reactively sensitive, those, who perceived their spouses proactively sensitive, reported higher levels of PPR, self-disclosure, IOS, relationship happiness, and well-being.

This result implies that perceiving the partner as proactively sensitive provides relationship maintenance in individualist cultures. One possible explanation for this finding may lie in the relational mobility literature. Relational mobility refers to the amount of opportunities that people have in a given society to initiate and terminate interpersonal relationships. As compared to societies low in relational mobility, in societies high in relational mobility, the existing relationships are more fragile, and people are less likely to establish long-term relationships (Yuki et al., 2007). As Rothbaum and Trommsdorff (2007) suggest, relatedness has central importance not only in collectivist cultures but also in all cultural contexts. For the Americans, it has been pointed out that they define themselves as individualistic as well as relational in their groups (Oyserman, Coon, & Kemmelmeier, 2002). Even though the possibility to establish novel relationships is high, people in individualist societies may also need a stable, safe, and familiar environment because failure to

establish a new relationship could result in negative outcomes, such as loneliness (Lykes & Kimmelmeier, 2014). Therefore, if people in high mobility situations are willing to consolidate their relationships, they have to commit extra energy to use maintenance strategies (Schug, Yuki, & Maddux, 2010). Accordingly, proactive sensitivity might be one of the relationship maintenance strategies. It might be important for those people to sense and support the partner's needs without s/he telling his/her needs so that the partner can provide the relationship commitment. Finding that relationship happiness was highly correlated with proactive sensitivity, but not reactive sensitivity, emphasizes the functionality of proactive sensitivity in relationships in the US. It means that people prefer their partners to anticipate their needs and intervene to feel happy in the relationship, thereby minimizing the possibility of relational mobility. The potential association between proactive sensitivity and relational mobility should be investigated in further studies.

Moreover, in the second and the third studies, contradictory findings were observed mostly for the Turkish culture. Proactive sensitivity in the second study and reactive sensitivity in the third study were more predominant patterns than the other alternative. At that point, it should be noted that the values and practices within a culture might considerably diverse, indicating the heterogeneity in cultures. Autonomy and relatedness might go hand in hand in a given society, and even in an individual (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1996; Trommsdorff & Kornadt, 2003; Oyserman, Coon, & Kimmelmeier, 2002). The contradictory findings in the current research might result from this heterogeneity within the Turkish cultural context. Specifically, relatively autonomous individuals might prioritize their self-efficacy and thus prefer to determine the way of fulfillment of their needs. Thus, they might evaluate their partners as more sensitive when they respond to their explicit expressions (i.e., reactive). In contrast, those, who pay more regard to relatedness, compared to autonomy, might find the partner's anticipation of and intervention to their needs more functional for the relationship and personal welfare (i.e., proactive). It has been found that interdependent self-construal positively correlated with proactive sensitivity in the US. Their relationship in Turkey was also positive but insignificant. This finding may also support the argument that the more a person defines him/herself as interdependent in a relationship, the higher s/he benefits from

proactive sensitivity. Therefore, it is necessary to consider both within a culture and between cultures variations in further studies. Participants from diverse socioeconomic status should also be recruited, and longitudinal studies should be conducted to identify if any predominance of proactive or reactive sensitivity in Turkey.

The observed cultural variation in proactive and reactive sensitivity in adult romantic relationships in this study was not fully in line with the previous findings found in caregiver-child relationships. These inconsistent findings suggest that, unlike in early developmental period, proactive and reactive sensitivity in adult romantic relationships may be domain-specific or relationship-specific structures in adulthood. In Turkey, being reactively sensitive or showing situation-specific sensitivity may be more functional in romantic relationships. In the US, however, proactive sensitivity may strengthen the relationships by maintaining the relationships in high relationally mobile cultural context. Different sensitivity mechanisms may work for other relationship types (e.g., friendships, kinship, brother/sisterhood, adult-parent relationships) in Turkey and the US. Unlike the previous studies on parental sensitivity caregiver-child relationships, a culture-specific sensitivity tendency may not exist. The potential variations in sensitivity types should be further investigated in different relationship domains.

Indeed, the current research has assessed romantic partner sensitivity by considering individuals' emotional needs. Thus, the individuals' practices in being proactively sensitive to the romantic partner may be prevalent in the US to provide relationship stability. However, if the instrumental needs have been considered, reactive sensitivity might have been the dominant type of sensitivity in the US. The formation, maintenance, and meaning of the relationships are different for the two societies. Therefore, individuals may need for instrumental support rather than emotional support depending on the state of affairs in a relationship. Likewise, individuals' perceptions in proactive and reactive sensitivity may also differ according to the need for support in different developmental periods. For instance, in adolescence, parental proactive sensitivity may not be welcomed by the adolescents because it may be perceived as an intrusive behavior or violating their personal boundaries. These variations should also be examined in further studies.

As a result, Hypothesis 2 was not supported. A typical cultural pattern could not be identified for proactive and reactive sensitivity. These findings suggested that proactive and reactive sensitivity might be culture-independent for adults or might be explained by other culture-related variables.

In Hypothesis 3, it was expected that women would be perceived as more proactively sensitive while men would be perceived as more reactively sensitive. In the second study, this hypothesis has been supported for both women and men in Turkey. However, this finding was only confirmed for women in the two countries. In line with the gender-fit expectations in emotion regulation processes (e.g., Brody, 2000; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 1999), women were evaluated to be more proactively sensitive by their spouses.

It was expected that men would be more likely to be perceived as reactively sensitive than women. This expectation was based upon two arguments in the literature. First, women are superior in verbalizing emotions during conversations. Second, men avoid verbal and facial contact in dyadic interactions and use emotion-related expressions fewer than women do (Burke, Weir, & Harrison, 1976; Christensen & Heavey, 1990; Levenson, Carstensen, & Gottman, 1994; Vogel, Wester, Heesacker, & Madon, 2003). Accordingly, it was plausible to expect that men wait for women to vocalize their needs before showing sensitivity behavior, or women express their needs because they know that men are not as superior as they are in reading implicit cues. However, the gender difference in reactive sensitivity was insignificant. This finding suggested that it is necessary to examine whether there is an unexpected pattern in men's emotion regulation strategies or women's attributions to the men's role in conversations.

In Hypothesis 4, negative associations between attachment orientations and sensitivity constructs were expected for both samples. In Hypothesis 4b, attachment avoidance in Turkey and attachment anxiety in the US were expected to be predominant predictors of perceived sensitivity. The hypotheses were supported for the Turkish sample, but mixed findings were obtained for the American sample. In Turkey, attachment anxiety and avoidance negatively related to proactive and reactive sensitivity. Attachment avoidance predicted both proactive and reactive sensitivity. The power of attachment avoidance was stronger than attachment anxiety

in predicting proactive sensitivity. However, the interaction of attachment anxiety and avoidance was not significant. Supporting the previous research (e.g., Schmitt, 2010; Schmitt et al., 2004; Sümer & Yetkili, 2018), the mean level of attachment anxiety was significantly higher than that of attachment avoidance. Attachment avoidance had a predominantly negative effect on proactive and reactive sensitivity. These two findings supported the culture-fit hypothesis for Turkey, which represents the collectivist cultural structure (Friedman, Rholes, Simpson, Bond, Diaz-Loving, & Chan, 2010). The results also showed that one's attachment anxiety inhibited perceiving the partner proactively sensitive. Attachment anxiety was not evaluated as specifically maladaptive in Turkey (e.g., Özen, Sümer, & Demir, 2011; Sümer & Kağıtçıbaşı, 2010). Still, it might be claimed that even if the partner is willing to help/support without the individual's telling, the partner's sensitivity behaviors might be regarded as inadequate due to those individuals' excessive distress about relationship intimacy and maintenance. Nevertheless, attachment anxiety was associated with less negative evaluations in partner sensitivity, as compared to attachment avoidance.

In the US, there was a negative association between attachment avoidance and proactive sensitivity. As an unexpected finding, attachment anxiety was positively related to reactive sensitivity. Moreover, the correlation between attachment anxiety and proactive sensitivity and the correlation between attachment avoidance and reactive sensitivity were insignificant. In the path model, attachment anxiety predicted sensitivity variables positively, which called in doubt about the suppression effect. Therefore, the analysis was carried out by including only attachment avoidance in the model. It predicted perceived proactive sensitivity negatively. As a result, although the predictive powers of attachment orientations could not be statistically compared, the predictor role of attachment avoidance in proactive sensitivity has been revealed. The previous research suggested that attachment avoidance has an adaptive function by fostering autonomy in relationships in individualist cultures (Rothbaum, Weisz, Pott, Miyake, & Morelli, 2000; Schmitt, 2010). Unlike the culture-fit expectations, the mean level of attachment anxiety was significantly higher than that of attachment avoidance. Collins and Feeney (2000) found that individuals with higher levels of attachment

avoidance made fewer attempts to take support than those with lower levels of attachment avoidance in times of distress. When they sought for support, they used indirect cues, such as hinting and sulking. This might explain the current finding that attachment avoidance was associated with proactive sensitivity, not reactive sensitivity. That means a proactive sensitivity mechanism could be more salient for avoidantly-attached individuals when looking for support. When the strong negative association between avoidance and proactive sensitivity was considered, it might be argued that, on the one hand, they might seek for support even if it is not often. On the other hand, when they need support, they might perceive partner sensitivity as a threat to the relational and personal distance they try to keep constant (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2003). Thus, the negative effect of sensitive behaviors might take precedence over the benefits of the behaviors. Moreover, the suppression effect constrained from testing the potential effects of four attachment styles on proactive and reactive sensitivity. Measurement equivalence could not be tested for the path models across the samples. Thus, it should be noted that depending on partial (non-)invariance in the Turkish and English versions of the PRS Scale, the models might also be partially nonequivalent. Before making a cross-cultural inference, it is necessary to test these predictions.

5.1.4. General Overview of the Findings

In the current dissertation, the relevance of proactive and reactive sensitivity to adult romantic relationships has been investigated. The possible underlying mechanisms (i.e., culture, gender, and attachment dimensions) of perceived proactive and reactive sensitivity have been explored in three studies. As a result of the first study, it was decided to revise the newly developed sensitivity scale into a new format to clarify the distinction between proactive and reactive sensitivity. The second study provided correlational evidence that proactive and reactive sensitivity were related to the other relationship functioning variables, indicating the function of the two types of sensitivity in adult relationships. The dyadic interplay in proactive and reactive sensitivity has also been examined in Turkey. As expected, proactive sensitivity emerged as the predominant pattern. Husbands reported their wives as proactively sensitive, whereas wives reported their husbands as reactively sensitive. Gender-based emotion regulation strategies have supported these findings.

Attachment avoidance in wives and attachment anxiety in husbands have been the most detrimental predictors of perceived proactive sensitivity in Turkey. The third study aimed to complement the second study by eliminating the methodological limitations of the PRS Scale. It was also investigated if the adaptive functions of proactive and reactive sensitivity were explained by cross-cultural variations. In line with the expectation, proactive and reactive sensitivity have explained unique variances on study variables. However, compared to the US, reactive sensitivity had a more dominant pattern among married/cohabiting individuals in Turkey. In contrast, proactive sensitivity has shown a tendency to be more salient in romantic relationships in the US. Attachment avoidance has explained a higher variance in explaining spousal proactive (in both countries) and reactive (only in Turkey) sensitivity. In conclusion, the overall results suggested that proactive and reactive sensitivity have an important role in adult romantic relationships, but, unlike the studies in the early developmental period, their functions should be explored by taking into account several culture-specific or culture relevant expectations and dyadic experiences.

5.2. Contributions and Implications of the Current Research

The current dissertation bears several contributions to current literature and provides both theoretical and practical implications for understanding the role of proactive and reactive sensitivity in romantic relationships. First, testing the function of proactive and reactive sensitivity in this period provided a major contribution to relationship research. The past research investigated the roles of proactive and reactive sensitivity in the early developmental period. The caregiver's proactive sensitivity in collectivist cultures and reactive sensitivity in individualist cultures had an adaptive function in emotion regulation processes of infants and preschoolers (e.g., Rothbaum, Nagaoka, & Ponte, 2006; Ziehm, Trommsdorff, Heikamp, & Park, 2013). Indeed, caregiving is not observed in caregiver-child relationships only. It is the most frequently expressed and central feature of romantic love (Fehr, 1988), indicating that the caregiving system is a natural part of romantic relationships (Kunze & Shaver, 1994), which is necessary both in good and bad times (George-Levi et al., 2017). However, the potential contributions of proactive and reactive sensitivity to adult relationships have been left unexamined. The current dissertation

exhibited that proactive and reactive sensitivity are the structures worth examining in adult romantic relationships. As a practical implication of the current research, it could be suggested that perceived sensitivity tendencies of couples might be taken into consideration in couple therapies. Practitioners might make individuals aware that explicit or implicit expression of their needs underlies the partner's sensitivity actions.

Second, to measure adults' perceived proactive and reactive sensitivity, an instrument has been developed in the present research (i.e., Proactive-Reactive Sensitivity Scale). The caregiving scales developed to date have disregarded to evaluate which of the caregiving behaviors are more likely to be acted by the partner. In the second study, daily scenarios have been created to provide individuals to focus on personal situations that they might need for partner support. In the third study, the scale was converted into a Likert type and binary forced-choice instrument to obtain both categorical and continuous scores. The validity of the scale has been tested in both the Turkish and American samples. It could be possible to use the scale to examine the potential associations of proactive and reactive sensitivity with other related variables. Moreover, the scale could be adapted to different developmental periods (e.g., adolescence) to assess individuals' perceived proactive and reactive sensitivity toward their caregivers. The combinations of Likert scale and forced-choice in the scale could be used by caregiving studies in the early developmental period to gather systematic information about the caregiver's tendency in proactive or reactive sensitivity.

Third, the present research presented methodological contributions to the literature on caregiving. Unlike the most of the previous caregiving studies using dating couples from university samples (e.g., Carnelley, Pietromonaco, & Jaffe, 1996; Collins & Feeney, 2000), married or cohabiting couples or individuals were employed in the current research to explain sensitivity patterns in more stable and committed relationships (Millings & Walsh, 2009). In the second study, a dyadic structural model was used to consider the mutual contributions of actors and partners to the sensitivity mechanisms. Within-culture variations in sensitivity have also been explained from a broader perspective. The third study was carried out to account for cross-cultural differences in perceived proactive and reactive sensitivity across

different cultural settings. Examining the community samples from dyadic and cross-cultural perspectives could have strengthened the findings.

Forth, the current research has not only contributed to the caregiving but also adult attachment literature. It has been suggested that one's attachment orientations shape support-seeking strategies, thereby influencing the partner's caregiving behaviors (Millings & Walsh, 2009). The previous research revealed the associations between attachment dynamics and caregiving effectiveness (e.g., Collins & Feeney, 2000; Feeney, 1996; Feeney & Collins, 2001; Feeney & Hohaus, 2001). However, a little is known about whether individuals' attachment orientations explain perceptual differences in the specific types of partner sensitivity, which are provided in response to the individuals' explicit or implicit expressions. The current research demonstrated the predictor roles of attachment anxiety and avoidance in perceived proactive and reactive sensitivity from a dyadic and cross-cultural perspective. Besides, this study is valuable to understand the effect of attachment on care-seeking, not only on caregiving (Millings & Walsh, 2009), because the partner's proactive and reactive sensitivity tendencies were measured through the individual's explicit or implicit care-seeking strategies. The findings of the second study yielded that wives' attachment avoidance and husbands' attachment anxiety in Turkey were the predominant predictors of proactive sensitivity. In the third study, it was revealed that independent from the cultural structure (i.e., individualist or collectivist), individuals' attachment avoidance explained perceived negativity in proactive sensitivity (in Turkey and the US) and in reactive sensitivity (in Turkey). Considering these within- and between-culture results, perceptual distortions of insecurely attached couples might be evaluated within the framework of couple therapy.

Fifth, the link between attachment and caregiving in adulthood has been searched predominantly through the lenses of individualist Western perspective to date. Actually, only if attachment orientations are evaluated from a cultural perspective, accurate conclusions could be drawn about caregiving sensitivity (Rothbaum, Weisz, Pott, Miyake, & Morelli, 2000). In the current research, in line with the studies conducted in the early developmental period, the cultural dynamics have been focused on while explaining the link between attachment orientations and

perceived sensitivity. It is also important to note that country-specific, but not culture-based, findings were obtained, indicating that there might be some other underlying mechanisms beyond the culture that explain perceived proactive and reactive sensitivity. Unexpectedly, proactive sensitivity was more likely to be predominant sensitivity pattern, and attachment avoidance was the strongest factor inhibiting the benefits of proactive sensitivity in the US sample. As Rothbaum and Trommsdorff (2007) suggested, this finding might shed light on the socialization of relatedness in the individualist United States. Since this is a preliminary study, future studies will have the opportunity to examine the findings in more detail.

Last, past research in proactive and reactive sensitivity examined the sensitivity in mother-child or teacher-child interactions by taking only the caregiver's perspective. Therefore, the potential effect of gender has not been taken into consideration to date. The present research provided the opportunity to account for gender differences in this specific sensitivity process, and thus, the findings have also contributed to the related literature.

5.3. Limitations of the Current Research and Suggestions for Further Studies

The studies conducted in the scope of this dissertation yielded significant findings for the role of proactive and reactive sensitivity in adult romantic relationships. However, some limitations should be considered while interpreting the results. First, the current research suggested novel sensitivity constructs for adult romantic relationships, calling for the replicating the findings in future studies. Although the measurement invariance of the Turkish and English versions of the PRS Scale was considerably shown, further studies should be cautious about the cross-validation of the scale and the cross-loaded items detected for the Turkish sample. It should also be considered that the correlation between proactive and reactive sensitivity was high in the Turkish sample, while that was insignificant in the US.

Second, although the studies consisted of couples who varied in terms of age, duration of the marriage, and occupation, which increased the generalizability of the findings, the high education level of the participants, especially in Turkey, was an important limitation in this regard. The conclusions were predominantly based on middle-upper class and highly educated urban individuals. Thus, the findings may

not fully reflect the marriage/relationship structures of couples with lower income levels (Karney & Bradbury, 2020).

Third, cross-sectional design was used through single-time data collection, which prevented to draw causal and long-term conclusions. In future studies, the stability in proactive and reactive sensitivity should be investigated. Daily diary studies might provide profound information for the consistency in perceived sensitivity. Thus, the external validity of the findings could be strengthened. Moreover, as the attachment theory emphasized, the roots of romantic relationship quality lie at the quality of infant-caregiver relationships and peer relations in preschool, middle childhood, and adolescence (Collins & Sroufe, 1999; Collins, Welsh, & Furman, 2009). It has also been found that women, who reported more positive caregiving experiences with their mothers, were more likely to show caregiving sensitivity to their partners (Carnelley, Pietromonaco, & Jaffe, 1996). Therefore, the possible transmission of perceived proactive and reactive sensitivity from childhood to adulthood should also be tested.

Forth, in the third study, the predictor role of attachment anxiety in sensitivity constructs could not be tested due to the suppression effect. Therefore, the interaction effects of attachment dimensions could not be analyzed, indicating that the model should be re-tested in a different sample to provide a broader framework about the associations between attachment and perceived sensitivity.

Fifth, in the second study, dyadic processes were tested in Turkey. However, the PRS Scale consisted of only forced-choice options, which obstructed to analyze both proactive and reactive sensitivity on the same analyses. Therefore, they could not be analyzed simultaneously in the dyadic framework. In the third study, this limitation was eliminated, but the data could not be gathered from the couples. Further dyadic studies that would be conducted in different countries might provide a broader perspective to understand the reciprocity in sensitivity behaviors.

Last, it should be noted that, in the current research, the sensitivity behavior of the partner was evaluated according to whether the individual expressed his/her needs explicitly or implicitly. Contrary to past research (e.g., Kuncze & Shaver, 1994; Feeney & Collins, 2003), the degree of the partner's insensitivity was not in the scope of this research. Further studies should answer the question of whether it is

possible to define the partner as insensitive when s/he gets lower scores on both proactive and reactive sensitivity.

5.4. Conclusion

The current research provided preliminary support for the relevance of proactive and reactive sensitivity in adult romantic relationships. The adaptive functions of the proactive and reactive sensitivity have been addressed from dyadic and cross-cultural perspectives. The predictor roles of attachment orientations in perceived partner sensitivity have also been shown. Wives' attachment avoidance and husbands' attachment anxiety were the strongest predictors of negative evaluations in proactive and reactive sensitivity in Turkey. Attachment avoidance in both Turkey and the US was the strongest predictor of perceived sensitivity. The findings indicated that to better understand the implications and effects of partner sensitivity for relationship functioning, it should be specifically analyzed at the individual, dyadic, gender, and cultural contexts. Finally, this study has demonstrated that proactive sensitivity and reactive sensitivity play critical role for relationship quality and happiness though their effects seem to vary depending on cultural contexts.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. APPROVAL OF THE METU HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE

UYDULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER



DUMLUPINAR BULVARI 06800
ÇANKAYA ANKARA/TURKEY
T: +90 312 210 22 91
F: +90 312 210 79 59
uas@metu.edu.tr

Sayı: 28620816/385

25 Haziran 2018

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgililer: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Fulya Kırmır AYDINLI

"Algılanan Partner Duyarlılığının Kültürel Açıda İncelenmesi" başlıklı araştırmanız İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay 2018-SOS-119 protokol numarası ile 01.08.2018 - 30.12.2019 tarihleri arasında geçerli olmak üzere verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Prof. Dr. Ayhan SOL

Üye

Prof. Dr. Ş. Halil TURAN

Başkan V

Prof. Dr. Ayhan Gürbüz DEMİR

Üye

Doç. Dr. Yaşar KONDAKÇI

Üye

Doç. Dr. Zana ÇITAK

Üye

Doç. Dr. Emre SELÇUK

Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Pınar KAYGAN

Üye

APPENDIX B. STUDY 1: THE QUESTIONNAIRE PACKAGE

Araştırmaya Gönüllü Katılım Formu

Bu araştırma, ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü doktora öğrencilerinden Arş. Gör. Fulya Kırimer Aydınli'nin doktora tezi kapsamında yürüttüğü bir çalışmadır. Bu form sizi araştırma koşulları hakkında bilgilendirmek için hazırlanmıştır.

Çalışmanın Amacı Nedir? Araştırmanın amacı, katılımcıların evliliklerinde/romantik ilişkilerinde genel olarak deneyimledikleri duygu düzenleme süreçleri ve algılanan partner davranışları hakkında bilgi sahibi olmaktır.

Bize Nasıl Yardımcı Olmanızı İsteyeceğiz? Araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ederseniz, sizden beklenen, ankette yer alan bir dizi soruyu derecelendirme yöntemi ile yanıtlamanızdır. Bu çalışmaya katılım yaklaşık olarak 15 dakika sürmektedir.

Sizden Topladığımız Bilgileri Nasıl Kullanacağız? Araştırmaya katılımınız tamamen gönüllülük temelinde olmalıdır. Ankette, sizden kimlik veya kurum belirleyici hiçbir bilgi istenmemektedir. Cevaplarınız tamamıyla gizli tutulacak, sadece araştırmacı tarafından değerlendirilecektir. Katılımcılardan elde edilecek bilgiler toplu halde değerlendirilecek ve bilimsel yayımlarda kullanılacaktır. Çalışmaya katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz takdirde "Evet" tuşuna bastığınızda çalışma başlayacaktır.

Katılımınızla ilgili bilmeniz gerekenler: Anket, genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek sorular içermemektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz cevaplandırmayı yarıda bırakıp çıkmakta serbestsiniz.

Araştırmayla ilgili daha fazla bilgi almak isterseniz: Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için Psikoloji Bölümü doktora öğrencilerinden Arş. Gör. Fulya Kırimer Aydınli (E-posta: kirimer@metu.edu.tr) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Yukarıdaki bilgileri okudum ve bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum.

Evet

Hayır

Destek Olma-I

Eşinizle / birlikte yaşadığınız partnerinizle geçirdiğiniz herhangi bir zamanda kendisinin ne sıklıkta aşağıdaki davranışlarda bulunduğunu belirtin.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|--------------|---|---|---|---|-----------|
| Hiçbir zaman | | | | | Her zaman |

Her bir maddenin başına size uygun olan ifadeyi koyarak yanıtlayın:

“Eşim/partnerim...”

1. İhtiyaç duyduğum desteği ben yardım istemeden gösterir.
2. Değişen ruh halimi ben söylemeden sezer.
3. Moralimin bozuk olduğunu gördüğünde aklımdan geçenleri tahmin etmeye çalışır.
4. Halimden ne istediğimi anlar.
5. Beni kıracak bir şey yaptığımı ben söylemeden anlar.
6. Duygularımı açıkça ifade etmesem de ne hissettiğimi anlar.
7. Sıkıntılı halimi gözümden anlar.
8. Düşünceli olduğumu gördüğünde ne düşündüğümü tahmin edebilir.
9. Bir cümleye başladığımda sonunu önceden bilir.
10. Benimle konuşmadan uyum içinde hareket eder.
11. Ne hissettiğimi anlar.
12. Yardım ve destek çağrıştıran hal ve hareketlerimi anlamak için özen gösterir.
13. Üstü kapalı duygularımı sezmeye çalışır.
14. Ruh halimde bir değişiklik olup olmadığını düzenli bir şekilde kontrol eder.
15. Bir sorun olmadığından emin olsa bile iyi olup olmadığını gözlemler.
16. Günümün iyi mi kötü mü geçtiğini yüzümde okur.
17. Bir aktiviteden keyif alıp almadığımı davranışlarımdan çıkarır.
18. Yardıma ihtiyaç duyduğumu söylediğimde yanımda olur.
19. Dile getirdiğimde bana destek olmak için harekete geçer.
20. Sıkıntılı anımda destek talep ettiğimde bana destek olmaya çalışır.
21. Bir konuda zorlandığımı söylediğimde bana yardımcı olur.
22. Beni kırdığımı söylediğimde telafi etmek için harekete geçer.
23. Ne istediğimi söylediğimde onu gerçekleştirmeme yardımcı olur.
24. Kendimi ifade ettiğimde beni daha iyi anlar.
25. Başımdan geçeni anlatmamı bekler.
26. Anlattığımda sorunuma bir çözüm bulmama yardımcı olabilir.
27. Üzgün olduğumda yapabileceği bir şey varsa söylememi bekler.
28. İhtiyaçlarımı açıkça söylememi bekler.
29. Ben istemeden bana yardımda bulunmak konusunda tereddüt eder.
30. Kötü hissettiğim zamanlarda onunla rahatlıkla konuşabileceğimi hissettirir.
31. Sıkıntıyla ilgili bir işaret gördüğünde bana yardımda bulunur.
32. Bir problemimi anlattığımda bana çözüm önerir.

33. Yaşadığım iyi bir olayı anlattığımda sevincimi paylaşıp.
34. Bir sıkıntımı paylaştığımda derdime ortak olur.

Destek Olma-II

Eşinizle / birlikte yaşadığınız partnerinizle geçirdiğiniz herhangi bir zamanda ne sıklıkta kendisine aşağıdaki davranışlarda bulunduğunuzu belirtin.

| | | | | | |
|--------------|---|---|---|---|-----------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| Hiçbir zaman | | | | | Her zaman |

1. Yardım istemeden ona ihtiyaç duyduğu desteği gösteririm.
2. Değişen ruh halini, o söylemeden sezerim.
3. Moralinin bozuk olduğunu gördüğümde aklımdan geçenleri tahmin etmeye çalışırım.
4. Halinden ne istediğini anlarım.
5. Onu kıracak bir şey yaptığımı o söylemeden anlarım.
6. Duygularını açıkça ifade etmese de ben onun ne hissettiğini anlarım.
7. Sıkıntılı halini gözünden anlarım.
8. Düşünceli olduğunu gördüğümde ne düşündüğünü tahmin edebilirim.
9. Bir cümleye başladığında cümlesinin sonunu önceden bilirim.
10. Onunla konuşmadan uyum içinde hareket ederim.
11. Ne hissettiğini anlarım.
12. Yardım ve destek çağrıştıran hal ve hareketlerini anlamak için özen gösteririm.
13. Üstü kapalı duygularımı sezmeye çalışırım.
14. Ruh halinde bir değişiklik olup olmadığını düzenli bir şekilde kontrol ederim.
15. Bir sorun olmadığından emin olsam bile onun iyi olup olmadığını gözlemlerim.
16. Gününün iyi mi kötü mü geçtiğini yüzünden okurum.
17. Bir aktiviteden keyif alıp almadığını davranışlarından çıkarırım.
18. Yardıma ihtiyaç duyduğunu söylediğinde yanında olurum.
19. Dile getirdiğinde ona destek olmak için harekete geçerim.
20. Sıkıntılı anında destek talep ettiğinde ona destek olmaya çalışırım.
21. Bir konuda zorlandığını söylediğinde ona yardımcı olurum.
22. Onu kırdığımı söylediğinde telafi etmek için harekete geçerim.
23. Ne istediğini söylediğinde onu gerçekleştirmesine yardımcı olurum.
24. Kendini ifade ettiğinde onu daha iyi anlarım.
25. Başından geçeni anlatmasını beklerim.
26. Anlattığında sorununa bir çözüm bulmasına yardımcı olabilirim.
27. Üzgün olduğunda yapabileceğim bir şey varsa söylemesini beklerim.
28. Ondaki ihtiyaçlarını açıkça söylemesini beklerim.
29. O istemeden ona yardımda bulunmak konusunda tereddüt ederim.
30. Kötü hissettiği zamanlarda benimle rahatlıkla konuşabileceğini ona hissettirim.

31. Onun sıkıntısıyla ilgili bir işaret gördüğümde ona yardımda bulunurum.
32. Bir problemini anlattığında ona çözüm öneririm.
33. Yaşadığı iyi bir olayı anlattığında sevincini paylaşıyorum.
34. Bir sıkıntısını paylaştığında derdine ortak olurum.

Kendini İfade Etme

Aşağıdaki konularla ilgili kendinizi eşinize/partnerinize ne derecede ifade ettiğinizi belirtin.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|------------------------|---|---|---|---|
| Bu konuda hiç konuşmam | | | | Bu konuda tam olarak/etrafıca konuşurum |

Her bir maddenin sonuna bu ifadeyi koyarak yanıtlayın: "... hakkında eşimle/partnerimle konuşurum"

1. Huylarım/alışkanlıklarım...
2. Yaptığım için suçluluk duyduğum şeyler...
3. Herkesin arasında yapmayacağım şeyler...
4. En derin duygularım...
5. Sevdiğim ve sevmediğim yanlarım...
6. Hayatta benim için önemli olan konular...
7. Beni ben yapan şeyler...
8. En büyük korkularım...
9. Yaptığım için gurur duyduğum şeyler...
10. Diğer insanlarla olan yakın ilişkilerim...

Yardıma Etme

Aşağıdaki ifadeleri eşinize/partnerinize genel olarak destek olma konusundaki duygu ve davranışlarınızı göz önünde bulundurarak değerlendirin.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|--------------|---|---|---|---|---|-----------|
| Hiçbir zaman | | | | | | Her zaman |

1. Onu (eşimi/partnerimi) sıkıntılı gördüğümde yardıma koşmak konusunda çok rahat hissetmem.
2. Ona yardım ederken genellikle diğer insanlar kadar iyi olamayacağımdan endişe ederim.
3. Ona yardım etmeyi zaman kaybı olarak görürüm.
4. O sıkıntıdaiken yardım edemeyecek durumda olduğumda kendimi değersiz hissedirim.
5. Onun rahatsızlık ve sıkıntılarına pek aldırım.
6. O yardımımı istemediği zaman kendimi kötü hissedirim.
7. Ona yardım etmeye çalışmak konusunda çok fazla enerji harcamam.
8. Ona benden gerçekten istediğinden daha fazla yardım etmeye çalışırım.
9. Ona yardım etme düşüncesi beni çok heyecanlandırmaz.
10. O yardımımı istemediği zaman bile zorla yardım etmeye çalışırım.
11. Ona yardım etme konusunda pek arzu hissetmem.
12. Onun yardımına ihtiyacı olmadığını düşündüğümde kaygılanırım.
13. Başta dertte ya da sıkıntıda olduğunda ona yardım etme konusundan sıkıntım yoktur.
14. Yardımına ihtiyacı olduğunda ona yardım ettiğimde başarılı olamamaktan korkarım.
15. Onun yardıma ihtiyacı olduğunu fark ettiğimde, bunun parçası olmayı istemem.
16. Ona yardım etmeye karar verdiğimde problemi çözememek ya da onun sıkıntısını azaltamamaktan korkarım.
17. Ona yardım etmeye çalışma konusunda daha fazla ilgi geliştirmek benim için zordur.
18. Ona benden istediğinden daha fazla yardım etmeye çalışmaktan korkarım.
19. Ona yardım etmem gerektiğinde rahatsız hissedirim.
20. Ona yardım etmeye çalışırken bazen fazla müdahil olduğumu hissedirim.

İlişkiniz-I

Aşağıdaki ifadeleri evliliğinize/romantik ilişkinize dair genel hislerinizi düşünerek değerlendirin.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|----------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|----------------------|
| Benim için hiç doğru değil | | | | | | Benim için çok doğru |

1. Romantik ilişkimin gelecekte başına gelmesinden korktuğum kötü şeyler hakkında sık sık düşünürüm.
2. İlişkime dair umut ve hayallerimi gerçekleştirmek için genellikle çaba gösteririm.
3. İlişkime dair görev ve yükümlülüklerimi yeterince yerine getiremeyeceğim diye sıklıkla kaygılanırım.
4. Sık sık ilişkiye dair hedeflerimi gerçekleştiremeyeceğimden endişe duyarım.
5. Sık sık, ilişkimde olmasını temenni ettiğim iyi şeyleri (örn., yakınlık, paylaşılan keyifli anlar vb.) yaşadığımı hayal ederim.
6. Genellikle ilişkiyi büyütme, geliştirmeye ve güçlendirmeye çalışırım.
7. Sık sık başarılı bir ilişkiye nasıl sahip olacağımı düşünürüm.
8. Genel olarak ilişkiye dair heyecanlı ve coşkulu hissetmek isterim.
9. Sık sık, ilişkimin başına gelmesinden korktuğum kötü şeyleri (örn., reddedilme, ihanet, acı çekme) yaşadığımı hayal ederim.
10. Öncelikli olarak, ilişkiyi “olması beklendiği gibi” yapmak adına ilişkiye dair görev ve sorumluluklarımı yerine getirmeye çalışırım.
11. Genellikle ilişkimde, olumlu sonuçlar elde etmeye çalışmak yerine olumsuz sonuçları önlemeye çalışırım.
12. İlişkimde genellikle, ulaşmayı umut ettiğim başarılarla (örn., mutluluk) odaklanırım.
13. Öncelikli olarak, “idealimdeki ilişki”ye ulaşmak adına ilişkiye dair hayal ve arzularımı gerçekleştirmeye çalışırım.

İlişkiniz-II

Eşinizin/partnerinizin size yönelik tepkilerine dair ifadelere ne derecede katıldığınızı belirtin.

Eşim/Partnerim genellikle: _____

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---------------------|---|---|---|---|---|------------------------|
| Hiç katılmıyorum | | | | | | Tamamen katılıyorum |

1. ... nasıl biri olduğumu çok iyi bilir.
2. ... “gerçek ben”i görür.
3. ... iyi yönlerimi ve kusurlarımı, benim kendimde gördüğüm gibi görür.
4. ... söz konusu bensem yanılmaz.
5. ... zayıf yönlerim de dahil her şeyimi takdir eder.
6. ... beni iyi tanır.
7. ... iyisiyle kötüsüyle “gerçek ben”i oluşturan her şeye değer verir ve saygı gösterir.
8. ... çoğu zaman en iyi yönlerimi görür.
9. ...ne düşündüğümün ve hissettiğim farkındadır.
10. ... beni anlar.
11. ... beni gerçekten dinler.
12. ... bana olan sevgisini gösterir ve beni yüreklendirir.
13. ... ne düşündüğümü ve hissettiğimi duymak ister.
14. ... benimle birlikte bir şeyler yapmaya heveslidir.
15. ... yetenek ve fikirlerime değer verir.
16. ... benimle aynı kafadadır.
17. ... bana saygı duyar.
18. ...ihtiyaçlarıma duyarlıdır.

İlişkiniz-III

Aşağıda verilen her bir ifadenin ilişkinizdeki duygu ve düşüncelerinizi ne oranda yansıttığını değerlendirin.

| | | | | | | |
|---------------------|---|---|---|---|---|------------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Hiç katılmıyorum | | | | | | Tamamen katılıyorum |

1. Eşimin/Partnerimin başka insanlara denk olamadığımı düşünmesinden endişe duyarım.
2. Özel duygu ve düşüncelerimi eşimle/partnerimle paylaşmak konusunda kendimi rahat hissederim.
3. Eşimle/Partnerimle olan ilişkiyi kafama çok takarım.
4. Eşime/Partnerime güvenip dayanmak konusunda kendimi rahat bırakmakta zorlanırım.
5. Sıklıkla, eşimin/partnerimin beni gerçekten sevmediği kaygısına kapılırım.
6. Eşime/Partnerime yakın olma konusunda çok rahatımdır.
7. Eşimin/Partnerimin beni, benim onu önemseydiğim kadar önemsemediğinden endişe duyarım.
8. Eşime/Partnerime açılma konusunda kendimi rahat hissetmem.
9. Eşim/Partnerim kendimden şüphe etmeme neden olur.
10. Gerçekte ne hissettiğimi eşime/partnerime göstermemeyi tercih ederim.

Kişisel Bilgiler

1. Cinsiyetiniz: _____
2. Yaşınız: _____
3. Eğitim durumunuz:
__ İlkokul __ Ortaokul __ Lise __ Üniversite __ Yüksek lisans/Doktora
4. Ailenizin toplam aylık gelirini hangi düzeyde tanımlarsınız?
__ Düşük __ Orta Düşük __ Orta __ Orta Yüksek
__ Yüksek
5. İlişkinizi nasıl tanımlarsınız?
__ Evliyiz __ Birlikte yaşıyoruz __ Çıkıyoruz __ Diğer _____
6. Eşinizle / birlikte yaşadığınız partnerinizle ne kadar zamandır birliktesiniz?
Yıl ve ay olarak _____

Katılım Sonrası Bilgilendirme Formu

Değerli Katılımcı,

Geçmiş çalışmalarda ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkisinde, tepkisel ve öngörüs el duyarlık açısından kültürel farklar olduğu vurgulanmıştır. Tepkisel duyarlık çocuğun ifade ettiği duygularına tepki göstermeye karşılık gelmekte olup daha çok bireyci kültürlerde gözlemlenmektedir. Öngörüs el duyarlık ise çocuğun duygularını empati yoluyla anlayarak tepki gösterme anlamına gelmekte ve daha çok toplulukçu kültürlerdeki bakım verenler tarafından tercih edilmektedir. Her iki duyarlık boyutu da kendi kültür bağlamı içinde çocuğun duygu düzenlemesinde uyumlu işleve sahiptir. Bu boyutların yetişkinlik dönemi romantik ilişkilerinde karşılıklı duyarlık gösterme davranışları olarak varlığını sürdürüp sürdürmediği daha önce incelenmemiştir.

Bu çalışmanın amacı öngörüs el ve tepkisel duyarlığın etkilerinin yetişkin romantik ilişkisinde gözlenip gözlenemeyeceğini ve bireyci ve toplulukçu kültür yapılarında bu ilişkinin farklılık gösterip göstermeyeceğini incelemektir. Bu amaç doğrultusunda bu çalışmada, geliştirilen öngörüs el-tepkisel duyarlık ölçeğinin Türkiye'de güvenilirlik ve geçerliğinin test edilmesi hedeflenmektedir.

Çalışmaya bulunduğunuz değerli katkılar için teşekkür ederiz.

Araştırmanın sonuçlarını öğrenmek ya da daha fazla bilgi almak için aşağıdaki iletişim bilgilerinizi kullanabilirsiniz.

Arş. Gör. Fulya Kırimer Aydınli (E-posta: kirimer@metu.edu.tr)

APPENDIX C. STUDY 2: THE QUESTIONNAIRE PACKAGE

Araştırmaya Gönüllü Katılım Formu

Bu araştırma, ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü doktora öğrencisi Arş. Gör. Fulya Kırimer Aydınlı'nın doktora tezi kapsamında yürütülmektedir. Araştırmaya **evli çiftlerin (her iki eşin de) katılımı beklenmektedir.** Eşlerin anketi ayrı ayrı ve tek başlarına doldurması, cevapları birbiriyle paylaşmaması araştırmanın güvenilirliği açısından önemlidir.

Çalışmanın Amacı Nedir? Araştırmanın amacı, eşlerin ilişkilerinde yaşadıkları farklı duygu ve davranışları nasıl algıladıkları hakkında bilgi sahibi olmaktır.

Bize Nasıl Yardımcı Olmanızı İsteyeceğiz? Araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ederseniz, sizden beklenen, ankette yer alan bir dizi soruyu derecelendirme yöntemi ile yanıtlamanızdır. Çalışma yaklaşık olarak 15 dakika sürmektedir.

Sizden Topladığımız Bilgileri Nasıl Kullanacağız? Araştırmaya katılımınız tamamen gönüllülük temelinde olacaktır. Ankette, sizden kimlik veya kurum belirleyici hiçbir bilgi istenmemektedir. Cevaplarınız tamamıyla gizli tutulacak, sadece araştırmacı tarafından değerlendirilecektir. Katılımcılardan elde edilecek bilgiler toplu halde değerlendirilecek ve sadece bilimsel yayımlarda kullanılacaktır. Çalışmaya katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz takdirde “Evet” tuşuna bastığınızda çalışma başlayacaktır.

Katılımınızla ilgili bilmeniz gerekenler: Anket, genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek sorular içermemektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz cevaplandırmayı yarıda bırakıp çıkabilirsiniz.

Araştırmayla ilgili daha fazla bilgi almak isterseniz: Fulya Kırimer Aydınlı (e-posta: kirimer@metu.edu.tr) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz. Bu çalışmaya katıldığımız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Yukarıdaki bilgileri okudum ve bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum.

Evet

Hayır

Ben ve Eşim

Lütfen açıklamayı dikkatle okuyunuz: Aşağıda, çiftlerin yaşadığı bazı durumlar ikili cümleler halinde verilmiştir. Her iki durum da bütün ilişkilerde yaşanabilir. Dolayısıyla doğru veya yanlış diye bir seçenek yoktur. Sizden istediğimiz eşinizin size karşı genel davranışlarını dikkate alarak verilen her bir durum için her iki seçeneği de okuduktan sonra size en uygun seçeneği işaretlemenizdir.

Lütfen eşinizin her bir durum için verilen iki alternatiften hangisini GENELLİKLE ve DAHA ÇOK yaptığını işaretleyiniz. Eğer verilen durum sizin ilişkinizde şimdiye dek yaşanmadıysa yaşandığını farz ederek eşinizin davranışını bu durumda en iyi yansıtabilecek seçeneği belirtebilirsiniz. Unutmayınız ki, aklınıza gelen ilk seçenek sizi en iyi yansıtan durumdur. Bu nedenle üzerinde çok fazla düşünmeden aklınıza gelen ilk seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

1. Günüm kötü geçtiğinde eşim:

___ (a) Günümün kötü geçtiğini yüzümden okuyup hislerime ortak olur.

___ (b) Gün içinde yaşadıklarımı anlattıktan sonra hislerime ortak olur.

2. Karmaşık duygular içinde olduğumda eşim:

___ (a) Duygularımı açıkça ifade etmemi bekler.

___ (b) Duygularımı söylemeden sezer.

3. Moralim bozuk olduğunda eşim:

___ (a) Moralimin bozuk olduğunu ben söylemeden bana destek olur.

___ (b) Moralimin bozuk olduğunu söylediğimde bana destek olur.

4. Gün içinde yaşadığım bir sorun yüzünden canım sıkkın olduğunda eşim:

___ (a) Sıkıntımı söylediğimde daha iyi hissetmem için uğraşır.

___ (b) Sıkıntılı halimi bir şekilde anlar ve daha iyi hissetmem için uğraşır.

5. Gerçekleşmesini istediğim kişisel bir beklentim olduğunda eşim:

___ (a) Açıkça ifade etmesem de beklentimi anlar ve yerine getirir.

___ (b) Beklentimi söylediğimde bunu yerine getirir.

6. Beni kıracak bir söz söylediğinde eşim:

___ (a) Kırıldığımı söylediğimde telafi etmeye çalışır.

___ (b) Kırıldığımı söylemesem de anlar ve telafi etmeye çalışır.

7. Eşim ruh halimin değiştiğini:

___ (a) Ben söylemeden anlar.

___ (b) Ben söyledikten sonra anlar.

8. Evde çok sıkılmışsam eşim:

___ (a) Sıkıldığımı söylediğimde farklı aktiviteler yapmayı önerir.

___ (b) Sıkıldığımı fark edip farklı aktiviteler yapmayı önerir.

9. Onunla baş başa kalmak istediğimde eşim:

___ (a) Bunu hal ve hareketlerimden anlar.

___ (b) Bunu açıkça ifade etmemi bekler.

10. Nasıl söyleyeceğimi bilemediğim bir durum yaşadığımda eşim:

___ (a) Durumu anlatmam için bekler.

___ (b) Durumu sorular sorarak öğrenmeye çalışır.

11. Sevindiğim bir haber aldığımda eşim:

___ (a) Sevincimi hal ve hareketlerimden anlar ve nedenini öğrenmeye çalışır.

___ (b) Haberi öğrenmek için ben paylaşıncaya kadar bekler.

12. Çok yorgun olduğumda eşim:

___ (a) Bunu söylediğimde anlar ve beni rahat ettirmek için çaba gösterir.

___ (b) Bunu söylemeden halimden anlar ve beni rahat ettirmek için çaba gösterir.

13. Ses tonum normalden yüksek çıktığında eşim:

___ (a) Bir şeye öfkelendiğimi hissedip sebebini anlamaya çalışır.

___ (b) Öfkelendiğimi hissetse bile bunun sebebini anlatmam için bekler.

14. Bir ortamda kaygılı ya da heyecanlı olduğumda eşim:

___ (a) Kaygımı/heyecanımı paylaştığımda beni sakinleştirmek için uğraşır.

___ (b) Kaygımı/heyecanımı görüp beni sakinleştirmek için uğraşır.

15. Eşimin birlikte vakit geçirmemiz için başlattığı bir etkinlikten (müzik dinlemek, film izlemek vb.) hoşlanmadığımda eşim:

___ (a) Hoşlanmadığımı bir şekilde sezip başka bir etkinlik önerir.

___ (b) Hoşlanmadığımı söylediğimde başka bir etkinlik önerir.

16. Bir konu hakkında düşünceli olduğumda eşim:

___ (a) Konuyu benim açmamı bekler.

___ (b) Sorular sorarak konuyu öğrenmeye çalışır.

17. Kendi kendime karar vermekte zorlandığım bir durum olduğunda eşim:

___ (a) Zorlandığımı fark edip karar vermeme yardımcı olmaya çalışır.

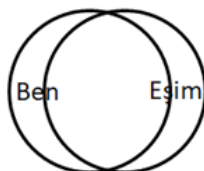
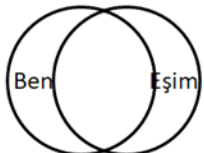
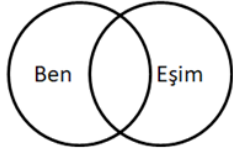
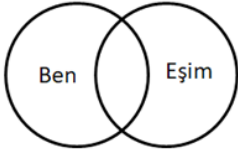
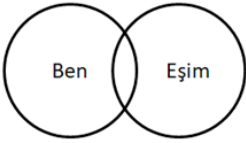
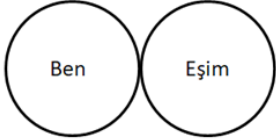
___ (b) Zorlandığımı söylediğimde karar vermeme yardımcı olmaya çalışır.

18. Yetiştirmem gereken işler yüzünden telaşlı olduğumda eşim:
___ (a) Talep ettiğimde yardımcı olmaya çalışır.
___ (b) Telaşımı fark edip işleri kolaylaştırmaya çalışır.
19. Bir sorunumu kendi başıma halletmek istediğimde eşim:
___ (a) Bunu ben söylemeden fark edip beni kendi haline bırakır.
___ (b) Bunu ifade ettiğimde beni kendi haline bırakır.
20. Tartışmalarımız sonrasında eşim:
___ (a) Sakinleştikten sonra benim konuşmamı bekler.
___ (b) Ne zaman sakinleşip konuşacağımı bilir.
21. Özel bir günü kutlama konusunda eşim:
___ (a) Bu günü kutlamak istediğimi düşünüp plan yapar.
___ (b) Bu günle ilgili planımı sorar.
22. Bana hediye alacağı zaman eşim:
___ (a) Ne istediğimi sorarak hediye seçer.
___ (b) Neyi sevdiğimi bilip ona göre hediye seçer.
23. Aramızda bir huzursuzluk olduğunda eşim:
___ (a) Konuşmaya hazır olup olmadığını hisseder.
___ (b) Konuyu açmamı bekler.
24. Sevildiğimi hissetmek istediğim zamanlarda eşim:
___ (a) Bunu söylediğimde sevdiğini gösteren sözler söyler/davranışlarda bulunur.
___ (b) Bunu söylemesem de sevdiğini gösteren sözler söyler/davranışlarda bulunur.
25. Ben kötü bir ruh hali içindeyken, eşim:
___ (a) Halimi hemen anlar ve beni rahatlatır.
___ (b) Yanına gidip onunla konuştuğumda beni rahatlatır.
26. İlgisini hissetmek istediğim zamanlarda eşim:
___ (a) Bunu söylediğimde bana ilgi gösterir.
___ (b) Bunu fark edip bana ilgi gösterir.
27. Bir isteğim olduğunda eşim:
___ (a) İsteğimi söylemeden de anlar ve yerine getirmeye çalışır.
___ (b) Bu isteğimi belirttiğimde yerine getirmeye çalışır.
28. Herhangi bir durumdan rahatsız olduğumda eşim:
___ (a) Ben söylemeden rahatsızlığımı anlar ve rahatlatmaya çalışır.

____(b) Ben söylediğimde anlar ve rahatlatmaya çalışır.

Benlik-I

Bazı insanlar eşleriyle olan ilişkilerini benliklerinden daha ayrı tutarken bazıları benliklerini ve eşleriyle olan ilişkilerini daha iç içe tanımlar. Lütfen, sizi ve eşinizle olan ilişkinizi en iyi tanımlayan resmi seçip işaretleyiniz.



Benlik-II

Aşağıdaki ifadelere GENEL OLARAK ne derece katılıp katılmadığınızı belirtiniz.

1- Hiç katılmıyorum

7- Tamamen katılıyorum

1. Birçok yönden kendine özgü ve başkalarından farklı olmaktan hoşlanırım.
2. Benden yaşça epey büyük olsa bile biriyle tanıştıktan kısa süre sonra ona ilk ismiyle hitap etmekten çekinmem.
3. Grubun üyelerine hiç katılmasam bile tartışmadan kaçınırım
4. İlişkide bulunduğum otoritelere saygı duyarım.
5. Başkaları ne düşünürse düşünsün kendi bildiğimi okurum.
6. Kendileri hakkında alçakgönüllü olan insanlara saygı duyarım.
7. Bağımsız bir kişi olarak davranmanın benim için çok önemli olduğunu hissederim.
8. İçinde bulunduğum grubun menfaati için kişisel çıkarlarımı feda ederim.
9. Yanlış anlaşılmaktansa, doğrudan “hayır” demeyi tercih ederim.
10. Canlı bir hayal gücüm olması benim için önemlidir.
11. Eğitimim ve kariyerimle ilgili plan yaparken anne-babamın tavsiyelerini göz önünde bulundurmam gerekir.
12. Kaderimin çevremdekilerin kaderiyle örülü olduğunu düşünürüm.
13. Yeni tanıştığım kişilerle muhatap olduğumda açık ve dobra olmayı tercih ederim.
14. Başkalarıyla işbirliği yaptığım zaman kendimi iyi hissederim.
15. Herkesin arasından seçilerek ödüllendirilmek veya övülmek konusunda kendimi rahat hissederim.
16. Kardeşim başarısız olsa kendimi sorumlu hissederim.
17. Çoğu zaman başkalarıyla ilişkilerimin kendi başarılarımdan daha önemli olduğunu hissederim.
18. Bir toplantı sırasında fikirlerimi beyan etmek benim için sorun değildir.
19. Otobüste yerimi amirime teklif ederdim.
20. Kiminle olursam olayım, aynı şekilde davranırım.
21. Benim mutluluğum çevremdekilerin mutluluğuna bağlıdır.
22. Sağlığımın iyi olmasına her şeyden çok değer veririm.
23. Mutlu olmasam bile eğer bir grubun bana ihtiyacı varsa grupta kalırım.
24. Başkalarını nasıl etkilerse etkilesin, kendim için en iyi olanı yapmaya çalışırım.

25. Kendi başımın çaresine bakabiliyor olmak benim için birincil kaygıdır.
26. Grup içinde verilen kararlara saygı göstermek benim için önemlidir.
27. Başkalarından bağımsız olarak bireysel kimliğim benim için çok önemlidir.
28. Grubum içindeki uyumu muhafaza etmek benim için önemlidir.
29. Evde ve işte aynı şekilde davranırım.
30. Kendim farklı şeyler yapmak istesem bile, genelde diğerlerinin yapmak istediklerine uyarım.

İlişkim-III

Aşağıdaki ilişkinize dair memnuniyetinizi ölçmeye yönelik maddelere ne derecede katıldığınızı 7 aralıklı değerlendirme cetvelini kullanarak belirtiniz.

1 Hiç katılmıyorum 2 3 4 5 6 7 Tamamen katılıyorum

1. Eşimle iyi bir ilişkim var.
2. Eşimle ilişkim çok istikrarlıdır.
3. Eşimle ilişkim çok güçlüdür.
4. Eşimle ilişkim beni mutlu ediyor.
5. Eşimle kendimi gerçekten bir bütünün parçası gibi hissediyorum.
6. Genel olarak evliliğimdeki her şeyden çok memnunum.

Kişisel Bilgiler

1. Cinsiyetiniz: _____
2. Yaşınız: _____
3. Mesleğiniz: _____
4. Yaşadığınız şehir: _____
5. Eğitim durumunuz:
__ İlkokul __ Ortaokul __ Lise __ Üniversite __ Yüksek lisans/Doktora
6. Ailenizin toplam aylık gelirini hangi düzeyde tanımlarsınız?
__ Düşük __ Orta Düşük __ Orta __ Orta Yüksek
__ Yüksek
7. Evlilik süreniz (yıl ve ay olarak) _____

APPENDIX D. STUDY 3: THE QUESTIONNAIRE PACKAGE

CONSENT FORM

Consent Form

You are being asked to participate in a study. Please read this form carefully and if you have any questions you may have before agreeing to complete the study send an e-mail.

What the study is about: If you are **married**, you are invited to participate in the current study about romantic relationships. The aim of the study is to understand the relationships between perceived partner behaviors and relationship dynamics.

What we will ask you to do: If you agree to participate, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire that asks about your relationships with your spouse, your own perception of relationships, and a few questions for your demographic characteristics. The questionnaire takes about 20 minutes to complete.

Risks and benefits: There are no risks to you by participating in this study. None of the questions/items are harmful. Your participation will help us to understand the complex associations between perceived partner behaviors and by comparing the findings from this study with other studies in different cultures.

Your data will be confidential: Your identification will be completely confidential. We will not ask you to report any names in the questionnaire. We just ask for some demographic information that we need for statistical analyses.

Taking part is voluntary: Taking part in this study is completely voluntary. If you decide not to take part, you are free to quit responding at any time.

If you have questions: Any questions that you have now or later can be directed to her at fulyakirimer@gmail.com. If you have any questions or concerns regarding your rights as a participant in this study, you may contact the Human Subjects Ethic Committee at <http://ueam.metu.edu.tr/>.

Statement of Consent: I have read the above information and have received answers to any questions I asked. I consent to take part in the study.

I agree to participate in this study.

I agree to participate in this study.

o I agree.

o I disagree.

My Spouse

Please read the following instructions carefully

A number of specific situations (scenarios) that could be experienced by couples in close relationships are presented below in dual response format.

First, please read each situation and, second, rate the two possible spouse responses using the 6-point scales provided (1= Never, 6 = Always). There are no correct or incorrect answers.

Although both types of spouse reactions may be encountered in relationships please do not provide the same rating for the two responses for each item. If you provide the same rating for the two items, then you will be asked to select which of the two is more likely to be encountered in your relationship. If you have not yet experienced the given scenario in your relationship, rate the response according to how you imagine your spouse would react.

Example item format:

1. When I have had a bad day, my spouse:

| | 1 (Never) | 2 (Rarely) | 3 (Sometimes) | 4 (Often) | 5 (Usually) | 6 (Always) |
|---|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| A. Reads me like an open book and knows my feelings | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |
| B. Knows my feelings only after I talk about my day | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> |

You provided the same rating to the two statements. Which one of these reactions does your spouse show in general?

1. When I have had a bad day, my spouse:

- A. Reads me like an open book and knows my feelings
- B. Knows my feelings only after I talk about my day

1. When I have had a bad day, my spouse:

- A. Reads me like an open book and knows my feelings

B. Knows my feelings only after I talk about my day

2. When I am experiencing mixed feelings, my spouse:

A. Does not sense my feelings unless I express them openly

B. Senses my feelings without my having to say anything

3. When I feel demoralized, my spouse:

A. Supports me before I talk about feeling demoralized

B. Supports me after I talk about feeling demoralized

4. When he/she says something hurtful to me, my spouse:

A. Tries to make amends only after I say I feel hurt by what was said

B. Understands how I feel before I say anything about it and tries to make amends

5. My spouse understands my mood changes:

A. Without my having to say anything

B. Only after I say something about it

6. If I am really bored, my spouse:

A. Suggests different activities only after I say I am bored

B. Recognizes my boredom and suggests different activities to relieve it

7. When I want to be alone with my spouse, he/she:

A. Infers this through my attitude and behavior

B. Expects me to clearly express this wish

8. When I am exhausted, my spouse:

A. Understands when I say so and strives to make me feel comfortable

B. Understands without my having to say so and strives to make me feel comfortable

9. When I receive good news, my spouse:

A. Understands my joy through my attitude and behavior, and tries to find the reason

B. Does not see my joy until I share the good news

10. When I am anxious or worried in an environment, my spouse:

A. Tries to calm me when I talk about my anxiety/worry

B. Tries to calm me after noticing my anxiety/worry

11. When my voice is louder than usual, my spouse:

A. Feels my anger about something and tries to understand the reason

B. Waits for me to explain my anger even if he/she feels it

12. When I don't enjoy an activity that my spouse has initiated so that we can spend time together (listening to music, watching a movie, etc.) my spouse:

- A. Suggests another activity after I state my lack of enjoyment
- B. Somehow perceives that I don't enjoy it and suggests another activity

13. In a situation where I have trouble making decisions on my own, my spouse:

- A. Realizes that I am having difficulty and tries to help me make a decision
- B. Tries to help me make a decision after I talk about my difficulty

14. When I feel anxious while trying to meet a deadline with my work, my spouse:

- A. Tries to help only when I ask for it
- B. Notices my anxiety and tries to make my task easier

15. When there is unrest between us, my spouse:

- A. Senses whether or not I am ready to talk
- B. Waits for me to open the subject

16. When I want to feel loved, my spouse:

- A. Displays actions/says words of affection when I say this
- B. Displays actions/says words of affection without my having to say anything

17. When I am in a bad mood, my spouse:

- A. Understands my mood immediately and comforts me
- B. Understands and comforts me after I talk about it

18. When I want his/her attention, my spouse:

- A. Shows me attention when I request it
- B. Realizes this and shows me attention without my having to request it

19. When I have a request, my spouse:

- A. Understands this without my making a request and tries to fulfill it
- B. Understands this and tries to fulfill it after I make a request

20. When I feel discomfort about any situation, my spouse:

- A. Understands this and tries to comfort me after I talk about my discomfort
- B. Understands my discomfort and tries to comfort me

My Feelings

Please think about what you have been doing and experiencing **during the past 4 weeks.**

Then report how much you experienced each of the following feelings, using the scale

below(1 = Very rarely or never, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Often, 5 = Very often or always)

1. Positive
2. Negative
3. Good
4. Bad
5. Pleasant
6. Unpleasant
7. Happy
8. Sad
9. Afraid
10. Joyful
11. Angry
12. Contented

Conflict

Think about how you handle conflicts with your spouse and rate each item using 7-point scale below (1 = Totally disagree, 7= Totally agree)

1. My spouse and I try to avoid arguments.
2. I avoid disagreements with spouse.
3. I avoid conflict with my spouse.
4. When my spouse and I disagree, we argue loudly.
5. Our conflicts usually last quite awhile.
6. My spouse and I have frequent conflicts.
7. I suffer a lot from conflict with my spouse.
8. I become verbally abusive to my spouse when we have conflict.
9. My spouse and I often argue because I do not trust him/her.

My Close Relationships

Listed below are a number of statements about various attitudes and feelings. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of these statements, using the following scale (1 = Totally disagree, 7 = Totally agree).

1. My close relationships are an important reflection of who I am.
2. When I feel very close to someone, it often feels to me like that person is an important part of who I am.
3. I usually feel a strong sense of pride when someone close to me has an important accomplishment.
4. I think one of the most important parts of who I am can be captured by looking at my close friends and understanding who they are.
5. When I think of myself, I often think of my close friends or family also.
6. If a person hurts someone close to me, I feel personally hurt as well.
7. In general, my close relationships are an important part of my self-image.
8. Overall, my close relationships have very little to do with how I feel about myself.
9. My close relationships are unimportant to my sense of what kind of person I am.
10. My sense of pride comes from knowing who I have as close friends.
11. When I establish a close friendship with someone, I usually develop a strong sense of identification with that person.

Demographic Information

1. Gender: _____

2. Age: _____

3. Occupation: _____

4. Education level:

Primary school Secondary school High school College Postgraduate

5. Please indicate monthly income level of your family:

Low Low-to-moderate Moderate Moderate-to-high High

6. How long have you been married with your spouse?/cohabiting with your partner?

Year: _____ Month: _____

APPENDIX E. CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Surname, Name: Kırimer-Aydınlı, Fulya
Date and Place of Birth: July 12, 1988, Eskişehir
email: fulyakirimer@gmail.com

EDUCATION

| Degree | Institution | Year of Graduation |
|-------------|---|--------------------|
| MS | METU Psychology | 2014 |
| BS | METU Psychology | 2011 |
| High School | Eskişehir Kılıçoğlu Anadolu High School | 2006 |

WORK EXPERIENCE

| Year | Place | Enrollment |
|----------------|-------------------------------|--------------------|
| 2013 - Present | METU Department of Psychology | Research Assistant |

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Advanced English

PUBLICATIONS

Kırimer, F., Akça, E., & Sümer, N. (2014). Anxious and Avoidant Attachment to Mother in Middle Childhood: The Adaptation of Experiences in Close Relationships-R – Middle Childhood into Turkish. *Türk Psikoloji Yazıları*, 17, 45-57.

Şengül-İnal, G., Kırimer-Aydınlı, F. ve Sümer, N. (2018). The role of attachment insecurity and big five traits on sensory processing sensitivity. *The Journal of Psychology: Interdisciplinary and Applied*, 152(7), 497-514.

Şengül-İnal, G., Kırimer-Aydınlı, F., & Sümer, N. (2018). Culture and family. In M. Akyıldız (Ed.), *Intra-family adaptive communication* (pp. 30-53). Eskişehir: Anadolu University Press.

Küçükkömürler, S. ve Kırimer-Aydınlı, F. (2019). Investigating the Status of Women in the Workforce from the Perspective of Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions. *The Journal of Human and Work*, 6(1), 43-53.

ÖNGÖRÜSEL VE TEPKİSEL DUYARLILIĞIN YETİŞKİN ROMANTİK İLİŞKİLERİNDE KÜLTÜREL AÇIDAN İNCELENMESİ

Duyarlılık sağlıklı ilişkilerin sürdürülebilmesi için gerekli olan ana unsurlardan biridir. Eğer birey partnerine yönelik duyarlılığı cömertçe sergiler ve partneri de bu duyarlılığı içtenlikle karşılırsa ilişkinin gidişatı ve işlevi bundan olumlu etkilenebilir. Bu noktada duyarlılığı ve duyarlılık algısını tanımlamak, birey için ihtiyaçlarının kendisi dile getirilmeden sezilmesinin mi (öngörüselsel duyarlılık) yoksa ihtiyaçlarını açıkça ifade ettikten sonra mı (tepkiselsel duyarlılık) uygun karşılığın verilmesinin daha değerli olduğunu anlamak gerekir. Bugüne kadar yapılan çalışmalarda, öngörüselsel ve tepkiselsel duyarlılığın belirli kültürel bağlamlarda daha işlevselsel olup olmadığı, aynı kültür içindeki bireylerin partner duyarlılığını farklı algılama sebepleri, bağlanma dinamiklerinin partner duyarlılığını farklı değerlendirmedeki rolü araştırılmamıştır. Bu çalışmanın öncelikli amacı, erken gelişimselsel dönemdeki rolleri daha önceki çalışmalar tarafından incelenmiş olan öngörüselsel ve tepkiselsel duyarlılığın yetişkin romantik ilişkilerinde varlıklarını sürdürüp sürdürmediklerini ve cinsiyete ve kültüre ilişkin dinamikler yoluyla şekillenip şekillenmediklerini araştırmaktır. İkincil amaç ise, bağlanma boyutlarının (kaygılı ve kaçınan) öngörüselsel ve tepkiselsel duyarlılık üzerindeki potansiyel rolünü incelemektir.

Öngörüselsel ve Tepkiselsel Duyarlılık

Bakım veren duyarlılığı çocuğun işaretlerini, ifadelerini ve aynı zamanda durumu göz önünde bulundurarak ihtiyaçlarına karşılık vermek, onu rahatlatmak ve güvende hissettirmek olarak tanımlanır (Trommsdorff ve Freidlmeier, 2010). Anne-çocuk etkileşiminde iletişim biçimlerini inceleyen araştırmacılar annelerin çocuklarının ihtiyaç ve isteklerini karşılama biçimlerini göz önünde bulundurarak annenin bakım veren duyarlılığını öngörüselsel ve tepkiselsel duyarlılık olarak sınıflandırmıştır (Trommsdorff ve Kornadt, 2003). Öngörüselsel duyarlılık çocuğun ihtiyaçlarını sezme ve onun üstü kapalı işaretlerini yorumlayarak karşılık vermeye karşılık gelir. Tepkiselsel duyarlılık ise çocuğun açıkça ifade ettiği ihtiyaçlarına yanıt vermek olarak tanımlanır (Rothbaum, Nagaoka ve Ponte, 2006). Geçmiş

çalıřmalarda yer alan öngörüsel ve tepkisel duyarlılıđın ana özellikleri Tablo 1.1'de sunulmuřtur (Rothbaum, Nagoaka ve Ponte, 2006; Rothbaum, Pott, Azuma, Miyake ve Weisz, 2000; Trommsdorff ve Heikamp, 2013; Trommsdorff ve Rothbaum, 2008). Öngörüsel duyarlılık sözsüz iletiřimi ve dolaylı anlatımı, tepkisel duyarlılık ise açık iletiřimi ve açık anlatımı iřaret eder. Öngörüsel duyarlılıđa sahip bakım verenler önleyici (prevention) odaklı davranma ve çocuđu kiřilerarası kontrolü ve fiziksel yakınlıđı devam ettirmeye yönelik olarak yönlendirme eğilimindedirler. Tepkisel duyarlılıđa sahip olanlar ise çocuđun içsel düzenlemesini ve öz yeterliliđini desteklemek amacıyla çocuđun birliđine yaklařmacı (promotion) odaklı davranma eğilimindedirler. Öngörüsel duyarlılık biçiminde sosyal ahengin ve karřılıklı bađımlılıđın sürdürülmesi için benliđe yönelik olumsuz duyguların bastırılması, bařkalarına yönelik olumsuz duyguların ise ifade edilmesi teřvik edilir. Olumsuz kiřisel duyguların ifadesi, bireyselleřmenin gelişmesini desteklediđi için tepkisel duyarlılıkta işlevseldir (Rothbaum, Pott, Azuma, Miyake ve Weisz, 2000; Trommsdorff ve Friedlmeier, 2010; Trommsdorff ve Rothbaum, 2008).

Bakım veren duyarlılıđı daha çok erken dönem bakım veren-çocuk etkileřimini iřaret ettiđinden, geçmiř çalıřmalar öngörüsel ve tepkisel duyarlılıđı erken gelişimsel dönem bakıř açısıyla ele almıř ve anne-bebek, anne-çocuk ya da okul öncesi öđretmeni - öđrenci iliřkilerine odaklanmıřtır (örn., Park, Trommsdorff ve Lee, 2012; Rothbaum, Nagoaka ve Ponte, 2006; Trommsdorff ve Friedlmeier, 2010; Ziehm, Trommsdorff, Heikamp ve Park, 2013). Bakım veren duyarlılıđı daha önce yetiřkinlikte çalıřılmıř olmasına karřın (örn., Kuncce ve Shaver, 1994), bilindiđi kadarıyla bugüne kadar yetiřkin romantik iliřkilerinde öngörüsel ve tepkisel duyarlılık farkları ve iliřki işlevindeki etkileri incelenmemiřtir.

Bu çerçevede, bu doktora çalıřmasının öncelikli amacı romantik iliřkiler için psikometrik açıdan geçerli bir öngörüsel-tepkisel duyarlılık ölçeđi geliřtirmek ve bu iki farklı duyarlılık türünün romantik partnerler arasındaki özgün işlevlerini test etmektir.

Hipotez 1: Öngörüsel ve tepkisel duyarlılık sistematik olarak yetiřkin romantik iliřkileri dinamikleri ile bađlantılı olacaktır.

Kültüre Özgü Bakım Veren Duyarlılığı

İfade etme yolları kültürden kültüre değişse de (bkz., Trommsdorff ve Rothbaum, 2008), bakım veren duyarlılığı güvenli bağlanmanın öncüsüdür (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters ve Wall, 1978; Bowlby, 1969/1982). Bu görüşe en önemli katkıyı yapan Rothbaum ve arkadaşları (2000), duyarlılık biçim ve işlevlerinin evrensel olmalarından ziyade kültürel beklentilere göre değişeceğini savunmuştur. Bu iddiayı test eden geçmiş çalışmalar, çocuğun ihtiyaçlarına öngörüsül veya tepkisel duyarlılık gösterme eğiliminin baskın bir şekilde örtük ve açık iletişim şekillerine yönelik kültürel beklentiler tarafından belirlendiğini göstermiştir. Bir bakım verenin duyarlılık örüntüsü aslında bir toplumun karşılıklı bağımlı veya bağımsız kültürel yapısıyla uyumludur. Örneğin, Batı toplumlarında çocuğun bireyciliğini ve özerkliğini gözetmek ve desteklemek önemlidir. Dolayısıyla bir anne yardım etmek için, çocuğu sözel ve görsel bir işaret verene dek bekler ki bu tepkisel duyarlılığa karşılık gelmektedir. Doğu toplumlarında ise sosyal ahengi sürdürmek önemlidir. Anne-çocuk ilişkisi çocuğu olası sıkıntılardan korumak adına çoğunlukla müdahalecidir. Dolayısıyla, anne çocuğun düşüncelerini ve taleplerini sezer ve çocuktan bir işaret gelmesini beklemeden müdahalede bulunur ki bu da öngörüsül duyarlılığı işaret etmektedir. Bu iki duyarlılık türü, uyumlu oldukları kültürlerde çocuğun güvenli hissetme ve duygu düzenleme süreçlerine katkıda bulunmak gibi işlevlere sahiptir (Rothbaum, Rosen, Ujiie ve Uchida, 2002).

Duygu düzenleme süreçlerinde bakım veren duyarlılığındaki farklılıklar geçmişte kültürel ve kültürler arası çalışmalarda gösterilmiştir. Örneğin, Koreli annelerle yapılan senaryo temelli bir çalışmada, öngörüsül duyarlılık davranışını seçen anneler çocuğun güvenliğine önem verdiklerini belirtmiş, tepkisel duyarlılık eğilimindeki anneler ise çocuğun kendini ifade edebilmesini desteklediklerini belirtmiştir (Park, Trommsdorff, & Lee, 2012). Kültürler arası bir çalışmada, Alman anneler çocuklarının özerkliğini desteklemek amacıyla kendileri talep edene kadar yardımda bulunmamayı tercih ederken, Koreli anneler çoğunlukla çocuklarının açıkça talepte bulunmasını beklemeden yardımda bulunmayı tercih etmişlerdir (Ziehm, Trommsdorff, Heikamp ve Park, 2013). Japonya’da ve Amerika Birleşik Devletleri’ndeki (ABD) okul öncesi öğretmenleriyle yapılan başka bir çalışmada, Japon öğretmenler çocuğun ihtiyaçlarını sezmenin, Amerikalı öğretmenler ise açık

ifadelere karşılık vermenin daha önemli olduğunu belirtmiştir (Rothbaum, Nagaoka, ve Ponte, 2006). Sonuç olarak, kültüre özgü değerlendirmeleri doğrulayan duyarlılık türü söz konusu kültür için işlevseldir.

Geçmiş çalışmaların ve teorik görüşlerin ışığında, yetişkin romantik ilişkilerinde de duyarlılığın baskın olarak öngörülen ya da tepkisel olmasının kültürel bağlamda açıklanabilmesi olasıdır. Bu çalışmada, bu beklenti bireyci kültürü temsil eden ABD’de ve toplulukçu kültürü temsil eden Türkiye’deki (Hofstede, Hofstede ve Minkov, 2010) evli bireyleri karşılaştırarak test edilmesi planlanmıştır. Ayrıca, bakım veren-çocuk etkileşiminden farklı olarak, romantik partnerlerin ilişkileri çift taraflıdır. Bu nedenle, yalnızca bireyin bakım verme davranışı değil partnerinin bakım verme örüntüsü de hesaba katılmalıdır (Feeney ve Collins, 2001). Bu çerçevede,

Hipotez 2: Romantik partnerler arasında Türkiye’de öngörülen duyarlılık, ABD’de tepkisel duyarlılık baskın duyarlılık örüntüleri olacaktır.

Bakım Verme Duyarlılığında Cinsiyete Özgü Roller

Kültürel farklılıkların yanı sıra kültürle ilintili biçimde cinsiyet rolleri de öngörülen veya tepkisel duyarlılığın benimsenmesini kolaylaştırmada önemli bir role sahip olabilir. Brody ve Hall (2008), kültüre ve durumsal bağlamlar kadar cinsiyet de duyguların düzenlenmesi ve aktarımını şekillendirmektedir. Erken gelişimsel dönem çalışmaları yalnızca öncelikli bakım verenin duyarlılık davranışlarına odaklandığı için bakım verenin veya bakım alanının cinsiyetinin duyarlılık sürecindeki olası rolleri hakkında herhangi bir öngörüle bulunmamıştır. Duygu iletişimi yazını, bu konuda partner duyarlılığını değerlendirmede cinsiyet farkı beklenebileceğini göstermektedir.

Hall, Carter ve Horgan (2000) duygu ifadesindeki cinsiyet farklılıklarını toplumda deneyimlenen sosyal deneyimlerdeki farklılıklara dayandırmaktadır. Kadınlar ve erkekler cinsiyet rolleri, normlar, önyargılar ve belirli evrimsel beklentilerin etkisiyle farklı sosyal çevrelere maruz kaldıkça farklı sosyal beceri ve davranışlar geliştirirler. Örneğin, kadınların başkalarının ihtiyaçlarına daha duyarlı olmaları beklenir. Bu nedenle erkeklere göre daha anlayışlı ve sevgili bir çevrede yetişen kadınlar sözel olmayan becerileri geliştirerek cinsiyetle uyumlu davranışları sürdürürler. Erkeklerin ise mutsuzluk, memnuniyetsizlik, korku gibi belirli bazı

duyguları güçsüzlüğün göstergesi olması nedeniyle toplum tarafından saklanması beklenir (Brody, 2000). Kadınlar sadece sözsüz ipuçlarını sezmekte değil aynı zamanda etkileşim anında duygularını ifade etmekte de erkeklerden daha başarılıdır (bkz., Brody ve Hall, 2008). Evli çiftlerle yapılan çalışmalarda kadınların özellikle gergin durumlarda konuşmayı başlatmaya ve duygularını paylaşmaya daha istekli olduğu, erkeklerin ise sözel tartışmadan, yüz ifadelerinden ve göz kontağından kaçındığı bulunmuştur (Burke, Weir ve Harrison, 1976; Christensen ve Heavey, 1990; Vogel, Wester, Heesacker ve Madon, 2003).

Bu çerçevede, kadınların örtük ipuçlarını sezmeye ve onlara karşılık vermeye daha meyilli olacakları, erkeklerin kadınların açık ifadelerine karşılık vermeye meyilli olacakları ve daha az ifade kullanmaları sebebiyle kendi ihtiyaçlarının sezilmesine ihtiyaç duyacakları öngörülebilir.

Hipotez 3: Kadınlar erkeklere göre daha öngörüsül duyarlı olurken erkekler kadınlara göre daha tepkisel duyarlı olacaktır.

Bağlanma Yönelimlerinin Öngörüsül ve Tepkisel Duyarlılık Üzerindeki Olası Roller

Kültüre ve cinsiyete özgü farklılıkların yanı sıra bireysel farklılıklar da duyarlılık davranışlarını ve algısını etkileyebilir. Bakım verme, yetişkin romantik ilişkilerinin kalitesini belirlemede bağlanma ile iş birliği içindedir (Feeney, 1996; Feeney ve Hohaus, 2001). Bu nedenle yetişkin bağlanma dinamikleri öngörüsül ve tepkisel duyarlılıktaki algısal farklılıkları açıklayabilir.

Yetişkinlikte bağlanma, kaygılı bağlanma ve kaçınan bağlanma olmak üzere iki ortogonal boyut ile tanımlanmaktadır (Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Kaygılı bağlanma yakın ilişkide bulunan kişiyle sürekli yakınlık arama ve bu kişinin ilgisini kaybetme kaygısını işaret etmektedir. Kaçınan bağlanma ise yakınlıktan rahatsız olma ve yakın ilişkide bulunan kişiyle psikolojik ve fiziksel mesafeyi korumayı ifade etmektedir (Bartholomew ve Horowitz, 1991; Mikulincer ve Shaver, 2003).

Bağlanma kuramına göre duyarlılık türünden bağımsız olarak anne duyarlılığını hissetmek çocuğun gelişimsel kilometre taşlarına sağlıklı bir şekilde erişmesi ve güvenli bağlanma geliştirmesi için gereklidir (Bowlby, 1982). Duyarlılık ve bağlanma etkileşimini temel alan yetişkinlikte duyarlılık çalışmaları bağlanma

mekanizmalarının duyarlılık sürecindeki yerini göstermiştir. Kuncce ve Shaver (1994) bu konudaki ilk çalışmayı yürütmüş ve geliştirdiği ölçekte *yakınlık, duyarlılık, işbirliği ve zorlanımlı (compulsive)* bakım verme boyutlarını ele almıştır. Güvenli bağlanan bireylerin partnerlerinin işaretlerine ve ihtiyaçlarına daha duyarlı olduğu, güvensiz bağlananların ise zorlanımlı bakım verdiği bulunmuştur. Takip eden çalışmalar da bakım verme davranışlarının uygunluğu ve etkililiğine odaklanmıştır (örn., Collins ve Feeney, 2000; Feeney, 1996; Feeney ve Collins, 2001; Feeney ve Hohaus, 2001). Feeney ve Collins (2003) çiftler arasında bakım sağlama veya sağlamamanın altında yatan nedenleri araştırmış, güvensiz bağlanan bireylerin bakım sağlama konusunda benmerkezci dürtüyle hareket ettiklerini, bunun da kalitesiz bakım verme ile sonuçlandığını bulmuştur. Bu çalışmaların bulguları, mevcut çalışmanın kaygılı ve kaçınan bağlanmanın ikili ilişkilerdeki öngörülse ve tepkisel duyarlılıktaki algısal farklılıkları belirleyebileceği yönündeki beklentilerini açıklamaktadır.

Bağlanma Yönelimindeki Kültürel ve Cinsiyet Farklılıkları

Yetişkinlikte bağlanma yönelimlerinin uyumlu işlevleri, toplumdaki kültürel bağlamlara ve cinsiyet rollerine bağlı olarak değişebilir (Harma ve Sümer, 2016). Toplulukçu kültürlerde bağlanma kaygısı daha yaygın iken, bireyci kültürlerde bağlanma kaçınması daha yaygındır (Sagi, van IJzendoorn ve Koren-Karie, 1991; Schmitt, 2010; Schmitt ve ark., 2004; Sümer ve Yetkili, 2018). Friedman, Rholes, Simpson, Bond, Diaz-Loving ve Chan'ın (2010) kültür uyumluluğu hipotezine göre, eğer bir güvensiz bağlanma yönelimi belirli bir kültürel bağlamda yüksek bir yaygınlığa sahipse, daha az olumsuz sonuçlara yol açmaktadır. Bu çalışmada, bu hipotez ve buna dair bulgular göz önüne alındığında, kaçınan bağlanma toplulukçu kültürel bağlamda daha az uyumlu olacağından, Türkiye'de algılanan bakım duyarlılığı yapılarını yordama gücünün daha güçlü olacağı, buna karşılık, bireyci kültürel bağlamla bağdaşmayan bağlanma kaygısının ABD'de algılanan bakım duyarlılığı yapılarını daha güçlü yordayacağı beklenmiştir.

Türkiye kişilerarası ilişkilere ve özerkliğe öncelik veren psikolojik / duygusal karşılıklı bağımlılık kültürü profili çizmektedir (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2005). Bu kültürel bağlamda, kadınların çocuklara ve eşlerine mutlak yakınlık göstermeleri beklenmektedir, bu da bağlanma kaygısının özellikle kadınlar için uyumlu bir işlevi

olabileceğini düşündürmektedir. Ancak kadınlarda kaçınan bağlanma, yakın aile ilişkilerinin hayatta kalması için zararlı olabilir (Ataca, 2009; Sümer & Kağıtçıbaşı, 2010). Türkiye’de yapılan çalışmalar, kadınlarda kaçınan bağlanmanın evlilik doyumu, çatışma (Harma ve Sümer, 2016), yaşam doyumu (Sümer ve Yetkili, 2018) ve anne duyarlılığını (Selçuk ve ark., 2010) yordamıştır. Erkeklerde kaygılı bağlanma aile refahını korumak adına kabul edilebilir görünse de, duygusal ifade kadınlarda olduğu kadar arzu edilmemektedir (Harma ve Sümer, 2016). Kaçınan bağlanan kadın ve kaygılı bağlanan erkek çiftlerinin ilişki işlevine en zarar verici eşleşme olduğu bulgusu da (örn., Kirkpatrick ve Davis, 1994; Feeney, 2008; Harma ve Sümer, 2016) bu görüşü desteklemektedir. Kültür içi ve toplumsal cinsiyetle ilgili beklentiler dikkate alınarak geliştirilen hipotezler aşağıdaki gibidir:

Hipotez 4: Bağlanma boyutları (kaygılı ve kaçınan) hem öngörüselsel hem de tepkisel duyarlılığı olumsuz yönde ilişkili olacaktır.

Hipotez 4a: Türkiye’de kadınların bağlanma kaçınması ve erkeklerin bağlanma kaygısı kendilerinin ve eşlerinin algılanan duyarlılığının baskın belirleyicisi olacaktır.

Hipotez 4b: Genel olarak, Türkiye’de kaçınan bağlanma ve ABD’de kaygılı bağlanma algılanan duyarlılığın baskın belirleyicisi olacaktır.

Çalışma 1

Amaç

İlk çalışmanın temel amacı öngörüselsel ve tepkisel duyarlılık için bir ölçüm aracı geliştirmek ve romantik partnerlerde psikometrik özelliklerini test etmektir. İkincil amaç, öngörüselsel ve tepkisel duyarlılığın yetişkin romantik ilişki dinamikleriyle ilgili olacağını belirten Hipotez 1’i test etmektir.

Yöntem

Katılımcılar

Katılımcılara sosyal ağlar ve bir psikoloji dersi üzerinden ulaşılmıştır. Çalışmaya en az 6 aydır evli olan veya partneriyle birlikte yaşayan 297 birey (%81’i kadın) katılmıştır. Katılımcıların %89’u evli iken, yaş ortalaması 35.34 ($SS = 9.48$), ilişki süresi ortalaması 131.52 aydır ($SS = 111.78$).

İşlem

ODTÜ Uygulamalı Etik Araştırma Merkezi'nden etik izin (bkz., Ek A) alındıktan sonra anket (bkz., Ek B) çevrimiçi anket platformu (Qualtrics) üzerinden katılımcılara ulaştırılmıştır.

Veri Toplama Araçları

Bakım Verme Duyarlılığı (BVD) ve Algılanan Bakım Verme Duyarlılığı (ABVD) Ölçekleri: Yetişkinlikte öngörülse ve tepkisel bakım verme duyarlılığını ölçmek amacıyla BVD ve ABVD geliştirilmesi planlanmıştır. Bu amaçla öncelikle erken gelişimsel dönemde kullanılan ölçüm yöntemleri incelenmiştir. Senaryo temelli değerlendirmelerde (örn., CSI, Rothbaum, Nagaoka, & Ponte, 2006) bakım verenin her bir durumda gösterme eğiliminde olduğu davranışlar öngörülse veya tepkisel olarak sınıflandırılmıştır (örn., “Eğer çocuk keyifsizse, hangisini yapmak daha iyidir: (a) Çocuğun yanına oturup onunla konuşarak onu rahatlatmak (b) Çocuğun rahatlamak istediğinde size yaklaşabileceğini bilmesini sağlamak”). Ancak, erken dönem çalışmalarında kullanılan ölçüm yöntemlerinin romantik ilişkilere birebir uyarlanabilir olmaması nedeniyle yeni bir ölçüm aracı geliştirilmesine karar verilmiştir.

Başlangıçta, önceki çalışmaları göz önünde bulundurarak 42 maddelik bir havuz oluşturulmuş ve bu maddelerin sosyal ve gelişim psikolojisi alanındaki 15 uzman araştırmacı tarafından değerlendirilmesi istenmiştir. Araştırmacılara her bir maddenin öngörülse veya tepkisel duyarlılık kategorilerinden birini temsil edip etmediği, ne derecede temsil ettiği (1 = *hiç temsil etmiyor*, 9 = *tam anlamıyla temsil ediyor*) ve herhangi bir yorum veya düzeltme önerileri olup olmadığı sorulmuştur. 9'lu derecelendirmede 5 ile 9 arasında geniş aralıkta değerlendirilen maddeler elenmiştir. Kalan 21 maddeye, partnerlerin duyarlılık davranışında bulunabileceği durumların çeşitliliğini arttırmak amacıyla yazar ve ortak tez yöneticisi tarafından 23 madde daha eklenmiştir. 34 maddelik BVD ölçeğinin maddeleri (örn., “Yardım istemeden ona ihtiyaç duyduğu desteği gösteririm.”) algılanan partner duyarlılığını ölçmek amacıyla uyarlanarak ABVD ölçeği maddeleri (örn., “İhtiyaç duyduğum desteği ben yardım istemeden gösteririm”) oluşturulmuştur. Katılımcılar maddelere ne derecede katıldıklarını belirtmişlerdir (1 = *hiçbir zaman*, 6 = *her zaman*).

Kendini İfade Etme Endeksi: Kişilerin kişisel özelliklerini ve duygularını partnerleriyle ne derecede paylaşma eğiliminde olduğunu ölçmek amacıyla Miller, Berg ve Archer (1983) tarafından geliştirilmiştir (örn., “Sevdiğim ve sevmediğim yanlarım”). 10 maddelik bu ölçek, mevcut çalışma için çeviri-tekrar çeviri yöntemiyle Türkçe’ye uyarlanmıştır (1 = *bu konuda hiç konuşmam*, 5 = *bu konuda tam olarak/etraflıca konuşurum*). Cronbach alfa güvenilirlik katsayısı .87 olarak bulunmuştur.

Algılanan Partner Duyarlılığı: 18 maddelik ölçek partnerlerin duyarlılık davranışlarını kişinin gözünden bilişsel temelli değerlendirme ile ölçmek amacıyla kullanılmıştır. Reis (2003) tarafından geliştirilen ölçek Türkçe’ye Taşfiliz, Sağel-Çetiner ve Selçuk (değerlendirme aşamasında) tarafından uyarlanmıştır (örn., “... nasıl biri olduğumu çok iyi bilir”; 1 = *hiç katılmıyorum*, 7 = *tamamen katılıyorum*). Cronbach alfa güvenilirlik katsayısı .96 olarak bulunmuştur.

Yakın İlişkiler Yaşantılar Envanteri – II (YİYE-II) – Kısa Form: Ölçeğin (Fraley, Waller ve Brennan, 2000; uyarlayan Selçuk, Günaydın, Sümer ve Uysal, 2005) 10 maddelik kısa formu (Zayas, Mischel, Shoda ve Aber, 2011) kişilerin bağlanma yönelimlerini (kaygılı ve kaçınan) ölçmek amacıyla kullanılmıştır (örn., “Partnerime güvenip dayanmak konusunda kendimi rahat bırakmakta zorlanırım”; 1 = *hiç katılmıyorum*, 7 = *tamamen katılıyorum*). Cronbach alfa güvenilirlik katsayıları kaygılı bağlanma için .80, kaçınan bağlanma için .78 olarak bulunmuştur.

Bakım Verme Sistemi Ölçeği: 20 maddelik ölçek Shaver, Mikulincer ve Shemesh-Iron (2010) tarafından geliştirilmiş, Harma, Aktaş, and Yılmaz tarafından Türkçe’ye uyarlanmıştır (yayımlanmamış metin). Katılımcılardan yardım bekleyen romantik partnerlerine destek olurken deneyimledikleri duygu, düşünce ve davranışları derecelendirmeleri istenmiştir (1 = *hiçbir zaman*, 7 = *her zaman*). Maddeler iki ana kategoride yer almıştır: Aşırılaştırma (örn., Partnerime yardım ederken genellikle diğer insanlar kadar iyi olamayacağımdan endişe ederim”) ve etkisizleştirme (örn., “Partnerimi sıkıntılı gördüğümde yardıma koşmak konusunda çok rahat hissetmem”). Cronbach alfa güvenilirlik katsayıları aşırılaştırma için .73, etkisizleştirme için .75 olarak bulunmuştur.

İlişkilerde Düzenleme Odağı Ölçeği: Winterheld ve Simpson (2011) Yaklaşmacı-Önleyici Odak Ölçeği’ni (Lockwood, Jordan ve Kunda, 2002) romantik ilişkilere

uyarlamıştır. Türkçe adaptasyonu bulunmadığından, 13 maddelik ölçek Yaklaşmacı ve Önleyici Odak Ölçeği'nin Türkçe versiyonu (Doğruyol, 2008) dikkate alınarak Türkçe'ye uyarlanmıştır. Katılımcılardan ilişkilerinde ne derecede (1 = *benim için hiç doğru değil*, 7 = *benim için çok doğru*) yaklaşmacı veya önleyici hedeflere odaklandıklarını belirtmeleri istenmiştir (örn., “Romantik ilişkimin gelecekte başına gelmesinden korktuğum kötü şeyler hakkında sık sık düşünürüm”). Cronbach alfa güvenilirlik katsayıları yaklaşmacı odak için .77, önleyici odak için .75 olarak bulunmuştur.

Kişisel Bilgiler: Kişisel bilgiler formunda cinsiyet, yaş, eğitim düzeyi, aile gelir düzeyi, ilişki durumu ve ilişki süresi soruları yer almıştır.

Bulgular ve Tartışma

BVD ve ABVD ölçekleri için açımlayıcı faktör analizleri (AFA) yapılmıştır. ABVD için 2 faktörlü yapı önerilmiş ve 7 madde ölçekten çıkarılmıştır. BVD ölçeği için 3 faktörlü yapı önerilmesine karşın, tutarlılık açısından bu ölçek de 2 faktörlü yapı ile test edilmiş ve aynı 7 madde ölçekten çıkarılmıştır. Faktör yükleri ve ortak etken varyans değerleri Tablo 2.3.1 ve 2.3.2'de sunulmuştur. Özellikle ABVD ölçeğinde öngörüşel ve tepkisel duyarlılık boyutları arasındaki korelasyonun yüksek olması ($r = .80$) iki tür duyarlılık arasında yüksek düzeyde bir örtüşme olduğunu göstermiştir. Her iki ölçekte de alt boyutların Cronbach alfa iç tutarlılık katsayılarının yüksek bulunmuştur ($\alpha = .88 - .96$). Geçerlilik testi için duyarlılık alt boyutlarının diğer değişkenlerle korelasyonlarına bakıldığında (bkz., Tablo 2.3.3) APD ile ABVD ölçeğindeki öngörüşel duyarlılığın korelasyonu .83, tepkisel duyarlılığın ise .76 olarak bulunmuştur.

Katılımcıların büyük çoğunluğunun kadınlardan oluşması cinsiyet karşılaştırmasını ve bulguların genellenmesini sınırlandırmıştır. Yüksek korelasyon değerleri ve iç tutarlılık katsayıları nedeniyle katılımcıların maddeleri derecelendirirken her iki duyarlılık davranışının da partnerleri tarafından gösterilmesini mümkün ve kabul edilebilir buldukları sonucuna varılmıştır. Dolayısıyla, sosyal istenirlik eğilimi, tavan etkisi yaratmış olabilir. Likert tipi derecelendirme kullanılmasına bağlı olarak katılımcılar öngörüşel veya tepkisel duyarlılık davranışlarından birini seçmeye mecbur bırakılmamıştır. Hâlbuki tepkisel duyarlılık gösteren birinin benzer bir senaryoda öngörüşel duyarlılık göstermesi

beklenen bir sonuç değildir. Ölçüm yöntemi bu görüşler dikkate alınarak gözden geçirilmelidir. Ayrıca, BVD ve ABVD ölçeklerinin faktör yapıları birbiriyle tam olarak uyumlu bulunmamıştır ki bu da ölçek tutarlılığını azaltmıştır. Aslında aktörün partner davranışlarını yorumlaması, kişisel ve ilişkisel sonuçlar hakkında partnerin gerçek davranışlarından daha iyi tahminler sunar (Reis, 2007). Bu nedenle, olası çakışmaları ve yanlış yorumlamaları önlemek adına, yalnızca partnerin (algılanan) davranışlarına odaklanmaya ve bu davranışları ölçmeye yönelik yeni bir ölçek geliştirmeye karar verilmiştir.

Çalışma 2

Amaç

Bu çalışmada, görece daha istikrarlı ilişkilerdeki her iki çiftin de katıldığı bir çalışma yapılması planlanmıştır. Öngörüşel ve tepkisel duyarlılığın psikometrik kalitesi ve özgünlüğü ilk çalışmada desteklenemediğinden, bu çalışmanın temel amacı yeni bir senaryo temelli algılanan (partner) öngörüşel-tepkisel duyarlılık ölçeği geliştirmek ve yapı geçerliliğini test etmektir. Ölçeğin yakınsak ve ıraksak geçerliliğini test etmek için, ilk çalışmada kullanılan değişkenler (kendini ifade etme, PPR, bakım veren sistemi ve cinsiyet) kullanılmıştır. Ayrıca, bu iki duyarlılık türündeki kültür içi farklılıklar incelenmiştir. Duyarlılık ile ilgili daha önceki kültürel yorumlar göz önüne alındığında, birbirine bağımlı benlik kurgusunun öngörüşel duyarlılıkla uyumlu olması ve bağımsız benlik kurgusunun tepkisel duyarlılıkla uyumlu olması beklenmiştir. Bağımlı benlik kurgusuna paralel olarak, benliği partnerin benliğinin bir parçası olarak tanımlamak da toplulukçu kültürlerde ilişkinin kritik bir göstergesi olarak görülebilir. Bu doğrultuda, Türkiye'deki katılımcıların partnerlerini kendi benlikleriyle ne kadar iç içe tanımlarlarsa, o kadar öngörüşel duyarlı algılayacakları öne sürülmüştür. Ardından, belirli hipotezlerin (Hipotez 1, 2, 3, 4 ve 4a) test edilmesi planlanmıştır.

Yöntem

Katılımcılar

Çalışmaya 300 evli birey katılmıştır. 76 katılımcının eşleri çalışmaya katılmamıştır. Çalışmaya çift olarak katılanların sayısı 224'tür (112 çift). Örneklemin tamamı kullanılarak tanımlayıcı ve normatif analizler, 112 çift ile ikili analizler yapılmıştır. Katılımcıların özellikleri Tablo 3.2.1'de sunulmuştur.

İşlem

Katılımcılara kartopu yöntemiyle ulaşılmıştır. Katılımcılar anketi çevrimiçi anket platformu ve basılı anket formları üzerinden doldurmuştur (bkz., Ek C).

Veri Toplama Araçları

Öngörüşel-Tepkisel Duyarlılık (ÖTD) Ölçeği: Katılımcılardan partnerlerinin duyarlılık davranışlarını öngörüşel veya tepkisel olarak sınıflandırmaları için senaryo temelli yeni bir ölçek geliştirilmiştir. Günlük ve kişisel durumları veya olayları temsil eden kısa senaryolar oluşturulmuştur (örn., “Günüm kötü geçtiğinde eşim...”). Her senaryo için öngörüşel veya tepkisel duyarlılık seçenekleri belirlenmiştir (örn., “(a) Günümün kötü geçtiğini yüzümden okuyup hislerime ortak olur.”, (b) “Gün içinde yaşadıklarımı anlattıktan sonra hislerime ortak olur.”). 30 senaryo maddeleriyle birlikte sosyal, gelişim ve klinik psikoloji uzmanları tarafından değerlendirilmiştir. Ölçeğin son hali 28 senaryodan oluşmuştur.

Benlik Kurgusu Ölçeği: Bağımsız ve bağımlı benlik yapılarını ölçen 30 maddelik ölçek Singelis (1994) tarafından geliştirilmiş ve Wasti ve Erdil (1997) tarafından Türkçe'ye uyarlanmıştır. Alt ölçeklerdeki yüksek puanlar, ilişkilerde bağımsızlığın veya karşılıklı bağımlılığın daha fazla içselleştirildiğini göstermiştir (1 = *hiç katılmıyorum*, 7 = *tamamen katılıyorum*). Bağımsız benlik alt ölçeğinin iç tutarlılık katsayısı .74 ve bağımlı benlik alt ölçeğinin ise .73'tür.

Başkalarını Benliğe Dahil Etme Ölçeği: Benlik ve partner arasındaki örtüşmeyi ölçmek için Aron, Aron ve Smollan (1992) tarafından geliştirilen tek maddelik ölçek benlik ve eş kümelerinin aşamalı olarak örtüştüğü yedi resimden oluşmaktadır. Kümelerin orta noktaları birbirine yaklaştıkça benlik eşle daha iç içe olarak tanımlanmaktadır.

İlişki Mutluluğu Ölçeği: 6 maddelik ölçek (Fletcher, Fitness ve Blampied, 1990) kişilerin ilişkideki bağlılık ve mutluluğunu değerlendirmek için kullanılmıştır (örn., “Eşimle evliliğim beni mutlu ediyor”). (1 = *hiç katılmıyorum*, 7 = *tamamen katılıyorum*). Ölçeğin iç tutarlılık katsayısı .95 olarak bulunmuştur.

Yukarıdaki ölçeklere ek olarak, ilk çalışmada kullanılan ölçekler (Kendini İfade Etme Endeksi, APD Ölçeği, Bakım Verme Sistemi Ölçeği ve YİYE-II - Kısa Form) de kullanılmıştır.

Bulgular

Hipotez 1: Öngörüşel ve tepkisel duyarlılık romantik ilişkilerle bağlantılı mıdır?

Hipotez 1'i test etmek için ilk olarak senaryo temelli ÖTD Ölçeği'nin faktör yapısı test edilmiştir. İkinci olarak, ölçeğin diğer ilişkisel yapılarla ilişkilerini test etmek için korelasyon analizleri yapılmıştır. AFA sonuçları (bkz., Tablo 3.3.1.1.1 ve Tablo 3.3.1.1.2) ölçeğin tek faktörlü yapısını desteklemiştir. 8 madde çeşitli nedenlerle ölçekten çıkarılmıştır. 20 maddelik ölçek için Cronbach alfa iç tutarlılık katsayısı .85 olarak bulunmuştur. Öngörüşel ve tepkisel duyarlılık skorları, katılımcıların her bir maddeye verdikleri cevapları sayarak ayrı ayrı hesaplanmıştır. Bu skorlar tam bağımlı değişkenler olduğu için ($r = -1.0, p < .01$), sonraki analizlerde sadece öngörüşel duyarlılık puanları kullanılmıştır. Bu nedenle, bakım verme duyarlılığı değişkenindeki (Pro) yüksek skorlar, daha yüksek öngörüşel duyarlılığa, daha düşük skorlar tepkisel duyarlılığa karşılık gelmiştir.

ÖTD Ölçeği'nin geçerliliği APD ile orta-yüksek korelasyon ve kendini ifade etme ile yeterli korelasyon düzeyi ile desteklenmiştir (bkz., Tablo 3.3.1.2). Ancak, ÖTD ile bakım verme sistemi ölçeğinin alt boyutları arasındaki düşük ve anlamlı olmayan korelasyonlar nedeniyle ölçeğin geçerliliği kısmen desteklenmiştir.

Genel olarak, bu bulgular öngörüşel ve tepkisel duyarlılığın romantik ilişkilerde değerlendirilebileceği hipotezini desteklemiştir.

Hipotez 2: Öngörüşel duyarlılık Türkiye'de baskın bir örüntü oluşturur mu?

Yapılan bağımsız örneklem t-test analizleri ile öngörüşel ($n = 154$) ve tepkisel ($n = 122$) duyarlılık grupları karşılaştırılmıştır. Öngörüşel duyarlılık algısı yüksek olan gruptakiler, tepkisel duyarlılık algısı yüksek olan gruptakilere göre anlamlı düzeyde daha yüksek APD, kendini ifade etme, eşi benliğe dahil etme ve ilişki mutluluğu, daha düşük bakım verme sisteminin etkisizleştirilmesi, bağlanma kaygısı ve kaçınması beyan etmiştir (bkz., Tablo 3.3.2). Bu bulgulara göre, eşler arasında yüksek düzeyde karşılıklı bağlılık ve düşük düzeyde kaçınan bağlanmanın Türk kültüründe yaygın olduğu göz önüne alındığında, Hipotez 2 desteklenmiştir.

Hipotez 3: Kadınların daha öngörüşel duyarlı, erkekler daha tepkisel duyarlı mıdır?

Çiftlerle yürütülen t-test analizlerine göre (bkz., Tablo 3.3.3.2), erkeklerin kadınları öngörüşel duyarlı olarak algılama, kadınların ise erkekleri tepkisel duyarlı

algılama eğilimlerinin anlamlı olarak daha yüksek olduğu bulunmuştur ve hipotez desteklenmiştir.

Hipotez 4: Bağlanma yönelimleri ile duyarlılık arasındaki ilişki olumsuz mudur?

Tüm katılımcılarla ve evli çiftlerle yapılan korelasyon analizleri (bkz., Tablo 3.3.1.2 ve Tablo 3.3.3.1) algılanan öngörüselsel duyarlılık ile kaygılı ve kaçınan bağlanma arasında anlamlı olarak olumsuz ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir. Aktör-Partner Bağımlılık Modeli (Kenny, Kashy ve Cook, 2006) kullanılarak bağlanma boyutlarının algılanan öngörüselsel duyarlılık üzerindeki yordayıcı rolü (Hipotez 4a) test edilmiştir. Anlamlı olmayan bağlantılar modelden çıkarıldığında (bkz., Şekil 3.3.4.1), kaçınan bağlanan kadınların ve kaygılı bağlanan erkeklerin kendi algıladıkları öngörüselsel duyarlılığı olumsuz yönde yordadığı bulunmuştur. Bir partner etkisi olarak, kaçınan bağlanan eşe sahip erkekler düşük düzeyde öngörüselsel duyarlılık algısına sahip olarak bulunmuştur. Bulgular Türkiye örnekleminde Hipotez 4'ü ve büyük ölçüde Hipotez 4a'yı desteklemiştir.

Tartışma

Bu çalışmanın en büyük sınırlılığı olarak, öngörüselsel ve tepkisel duyarlılık, birbirine bağımlı ikili değişkenler olarak ele alınmıştır. Bu nedenle öngörüselsel ve tepkisel duyarlılık skorları aynı anda analizlere dâhil edilememiştir. Duyarlılık yapılarını birbirinden bağımsız olarak ölçmek, yapıların geçerliliğini test etmek ve ilişki işleyişindeki çeşitli rollerini incelemek için ölçeğin sürekli değişkenlerin elde edilebileceği bir biçime dönüştürülmesi gerekliliği öngörülmüştür. Buna ek olarak, bu çalışmada değişkenler arasında kültür içi farklılıklar ortaya konmasına karşın, duyarlılığın doğasında olduğu varsayılan kültürler arası farklılığı incelemek için en az bir başka ilgili kültürden daha veri toplayarak kültürel farklılıkların incelenmesi gerekliliği ortaya konmuştur. Dolayısıyla, öngörüselsel ve tepkisel duyarlılığın verilen kültürel bağlama bağlı olarak değişip değişmediğini incelemek için kültürlerarası bir çalışma planlanmıştır.

Çalışma 3

Amaç

İkinci ve üçüncü çalışmalar arasında ölçüm ve yöntem açısından iki önemli fark bulunmaktadır. İlk olarak, bu çalışmada, hem kategorik hem de sürekli veriler

elde etmek için senaryo temelli ÖTD Ölçeği'ne bir derecelendirme ölçeği eklenmiştir. Böylece ikinci çalışmanın en büyük sınırlılığının ortadan kaldırılması amaçlanmıştır. İkincisi, kültürler arası karşılaştırma yapılmıştır. Verilerin, bireyci kültürlerin tipik bir temsilcisi olarak kabul edilen ABD'den ve görece toplulukçu yapıya sahip olan Türkiye'den toplanması planlanmıştır (bkz. Hofstede, Hofstede ve Minkov, 2010). Böylece, iki kültürel bağlam için hem kültür içi hem de kültürler arası beklentiler araştırılmıştır. Bu çerçevede, üçüncü çalışmanın temel amacı, senaryoya dayalı ÖTD Ölçeği'nin sürekli sürümünün yapı geçerliliğini test etmek ve ölçeğin Türkçe ve İngilizce sürümlerinin ölçüm değişmezliğini incelemektir. Çalışmanın ikincil amacı, öngörüşel ve tepkisel duyarlılıkta kültürler arası değişimleri tanımlamak ve duyarlılık türlerinin bağlanma boyutları ile ilişkilerini örneklem arasında karşılaştırmaktır. Bu amaçla belirli hipotezler test edilmiştir (Hipotez 1, 2, 3, 4, 4b).

Yöntem

Katılımcılar

Türkiye'deki katılımcılara ($N = 201$) sosyal medya kaynakları üzerinden, ABD'deki katılımcılara ise ($N = 224$) MTurk platformu üzerinden ulaşılmıştır. Katılımcıların özellikleri Tablo 4.2.1'de sunulmuştur. Örneklem evli veya birlikte yaşayan bireylerden oluşmuştur.

Veri Toplama Araçları

Öngörüşel-Tepkisel Duyarlılık (ÖTD) Ölçeği: Ölçeğin 20 maddelik sürümünde yer alan senaryolardaki her bir seçenek için (öngörüşel ve tepkisel duyarlılık) 6'lı Likert tipi derecelendirme eklenmiştir. Katılımcılardan her bir senaryoyu okumaları ve ardından bu senaryo için her bir seçeneği derecelendirmeleri istenmiştir. Katılımcılar seçenekler için aynı derecelendirmeyi yaptığı taktirde, ekranda partnerlerinin yapması daha muhtemel olan davranışlardan birini seçmesini isteyen ek bir soru belirlemiştir (bkz., Ek D). Seçeneklerden birini (örn., öngörüşel) diğer seçenekten (örn., tepkisel) daha yüksek olarak derecelendiklerinde, yüksek derecelendirilen seçenek kategorik bir değişken oluşturmak için kullanılmıştır. Ölçek, bir doktora öğrencisi ve bir İngiliz filoloji uzmanı tarafından İngilizce'ye uyarlanmıştır. Uyarlamalar yazar, ortak tez danışmanı ve eğitim fakültesinden anadili İngilizce olan bir uzman tarafından kontrol edildikten sonra son halini almıştır.

Olumlu ve Olumsuz Deneyimler Ölçeği: 12 maddelik ölçek Diener ve arkadaşları (2010) tarafından katılımcıların bazı genel ve özel olumlu ve olumsuz duygularını ölçmeye yönelik olarak geliştirilmiştir. Ölçek bu çalışma için Türkçe'ye çevrilmiştir. Katılımcılardan son dört hafta içinde yaşadıkları duyguları göz önünde bulundurarak her bir maddeyi derecelendirmeleri (1 = *çok nadir veya hiç*, 5 = *çok sık veya her zaman*) istenmiştir (örn., “Neşeli”, “Korkmuş”). Toplam skor olumsuz duyguların olumlu duygulardan çıkarılmasıyla hesaplanmıştır. Cronbach alfa iç tutarlılık katsayıları ABD ve Türkiye örneklemelerinde sırasıyla pozitif duygular için .91 ve .92, olumsuz duygular için .92 ve .89 olarak bulunmuştur.

Romantik Partner Çatışma Ölçeği: Zacchilli, Hendrick ve Hendrick'in (2009) bireylerin ilişkilerinde yaşadıkları günlük çatışmalara yönelik algılarını ölçmek amacıyla geliştirdiği 39 maddelik ölçeğin iki alt ölçeğine (çatışmadan kaçınma ve etkileşimli tepkisellik) ait 9 maddesi mevcut çalışma için Türkçe'ye çevrilmiş ve kullanılmıştır (örn., Eşim ve ben tartışmalardan kaçınmaya çalışırız”; 1 = *kesinlikle katılmıyorum*, 7 = *tamamen katılıyorum*). Cronbach alfa iç tutarlılık katsayıları ABD ve Türkiye örneklemelerinde sırasıyla çatışmadan kaçınma için .86 ve .87, etkileşimli tepkisellik için .88 ve .80 olarak bulunmuştur.

İlişkisel-Bağımlı Benlik Kurgusu Ölçeği: 11 maddelik ölçek Cross, Bacon ve Morris (2000) tarafından ilişkideki benliğin partnere bağımlılık derecesini ölçmek amacıyla geliştirilmiş, Öztürk, Kılıçaslan Gökoğlu ve Karagonlar (2015) tarafından Türkçe'ye uyarlanmıştır (örn., “Yakın ilişkilerim benim kim olduğumun önemli bir yansımasıdır”; 1 = *kesinlikle katılmıyorum*, 7 = *tamamen katılıyorum*). Ölçeğin orijinaline uygun olarak desteklenen tek faktörlü yapısının iç tutarlılık kat sayıları ABD için .88, Türkiye için .81 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

Yukarıdaki ölçeklere ek olarak, önceki çalışmalarda kullanılan ölçekler (Kendini İfade Etme Endeksi, APD Ölçeği, YİYE-II - Kısa Form, Başkalarını Benliğe Dâhil Etme Ölçeği ve İlişki Mutluluğu Ölçeği) bu çalışmada da kullanılmıştır.

Bulgular

Hipotez 1: Öngörüşel ve tepkisel duyarlılık romantik ilişkilerle bağlantılı mıdır?

Yetişkin romantik ilişkilerindeki öngörüşel ve tepkisel duyarlılığın önemi ikinci çalışmada Türk örnekleme için gösterilmiştir. Bu çalışmada, ABD örnekleme

için aynı hipotezi test ederek ve yeni bir Türkiye örnekleminde tekrar test ederek çapraz doğrulamanın yapılması amaçlanmıştır. Bu amaçla ilk olarak senaryo temelli ÖTD Ölçeği'nin sürekli versiyonunun faktör yapısını test etmek için AFA yapılmış, daha sonra her iki örnekleme ölçeğin ölçüm değişmezliğini test etmek için doğrulayıcı faktör analizi yapılmıştır. İkinci olarak, çalışma değişkenlerinin ilişkilerini belirlemek için ikili korelasyon analizleri yapılmış ve daha sonra ölçeğin hem İngilizce hem de Türkçe sürümlerinin geçerliliği test edilmiştir.

AFA her iki örnekleme de ölçeğin iki faktörlü yapısını desteklemiştir (bkz., Tablo 4.3.1.1.1). ABD örnekleminde farklı olarak, Türkiye'de ölçeğin 6 maddesi ilgili faktörden düşük yük veya karşı faktörden çapraz yük almıştır. ABD'de öngörülse ve tepkisel duyarlılık arasındaki korelasyon $-.01$ iken Türkiye'de $.62$ olarak hesaplanmıştır. Türkiye örneklemindeki sorunlu maddeler ölçekten çıkarıldığında da iki duyarlılık boyutu arasındaki korelasyon yüksek bulunmuştur. AFA, ABD için 20 maddelik ölçeğin faktör yapısını desteklediğinden sonraki analizlere madde çıkarmadan devam etmeye karar verilmiştir.

Çoklu grup doğrulayıcı faktör analizleri EQS 6.1 ile yürütülmüştür (bkz., Tablo 4.3.1.2). Test edilen modeller (konfigürasyon, metrik, yapısal ve skalar) CFI farkı, RMSEA farkı ve ki-kare/serbestlik derecesi oranı açısından karşılaştırılmıştır. Sonuçlar, iki örnekleme için ölçeğin kabul edilebilir düzeyde konfigürasyon, yapısal ve skalar değişmezliğe sahip olduğunu göstermiştir. Ancak metrik değişmezlik desteklenememiştir. Bunun ABD örnekleminde tepkisel duyarlılık ortalamasının düşük olmasından kaynaklanmış olabileceği düşünülmüştür. Daha önce de belirtildiği gibi, iki gizil değişken arasındaki korelasyon Türkiye örneklemi için yüksektir, ancak ABD örneklemi için anlamlı değildir. Model karşılaştırması yapabilmek adına, iki örnekleme de modele faktör kovaryansı eklenmiştir. Bu kısıtlamaların model uyumunda bir azalmaya neden olabileceği göz önünde bulundurulmuştur. Sonraki analizler, ölçeğin iki örnekleme için kısmen değişmez olduğu hesaba katılarak yürütülmüştür.

Korelasyon analizlerinde (bkz., Tablo 4.3.1.3), her iki örnekleme için de öngörülse duyarlılığın APD, kendini ifade etme, kaçınan bağlanma, ilişki mutluluğu, iyi olma hali, çatışmada etkileşimli tepkisellik ve partneri benliğe dahil etme ile ilişkisi beklendik yönde ve anlamlı bulunmuştur. Tepkisel duyarlılığın APD ve

kendini ifade etme ile ilişkisi her iki örneklem için de anlamlı derecede olumlu bulunmuştur. Türkiye örnekleminde, tepkisel duyarlılığın kaçınan bağlanma, ilişki mutluluğu, iyi olma hali ve partneri benliğe dâhil etme ile anlamlı düzeyde korelasyona sahip olduğu, ABD örnekleminde ise bu ilişkilerin anlamlı düzeyde ilişkili olmadığı bulunmuştur. Genel olarak, bu bulgular öngörüşel ve tepkisel duyarlılığın yetişkin romantik ilişki dinamikleriyle ilişkili olduğunu (Hipotez 1) doğrulamıştır.

ÖTD Ölçeği'nin geçerliliğini test etmek amacıyla algılanan öngörüşel ve tepkisel duyarlılığın, teorik ve kavramsal olarak benzer olan, kendini ifade etme ve APD gibi yapılarla ilişkili ve aynı zamanda farklı olup olmadığı araştırılmıştır. Beklendiği üzere, her iki örneklemde de kendini ifade etme ve iki duyarlılık türü anlamlı olarak ilişkili bulunmuştur. Her ne kadar teorik olarak, öngörüşel duyarlılık ile karşılaştırıldığında, tepkisel duyarlılık ve kendini ifade etmenin daha yüksek düzeyde ilişkili olması beklenmiş olsa da Türkiye örnekleminde, kendini ifade etme ile duyarlılık türleri arasındaki korelasyon değerlerinde anlamlı bir fark bulunmamıştır.

Özellikle algılanan öngörüşel duyarlılık ve APD, hem Türkiye hem de ABD örnekleminde yüksek ilişkili bulunmuştur. Öngörüşel duyarlılık ve APD arasındaki ortalama farkları hesaplandığında APD'nin her iki örneklemde de öngörüşel duyarlılıktan anlamlı olarak daha yüksek ortalamaya sahip olduğu bulunmuştur ki bu da bu iki değişkenin birebir örtüşen değişkenler olmadığını göstermiştir. Öngörüşel duyarlılık alt boyutu ve APD'nin ayrışan faktör yapılarını test etmek için her iki örneklemde de ek bir AFA yapılmıştır. Öngörüşel duyarlılık ve APD maddeleri birlikte analiz edildiğinde, maddelerin kendi faktörlerinden yük aldıkları iki faktörlü yapı desteklenmiştir. Bu bulgu, öngörüşel duyarlılık ve APD'nin aynı yapıyı ölçmediğine dair önemli bir kanıt sağlamıştır.

Tepkisel duyarlılık ile çatışmadan kaçınma arasında ve öngörüşel duyarlılık ile çatışmadaki etkileşimli tepkisellik arasında düşük-orta düzeyde ilişki beklenmiştir. ABD örnekleminde öngörüşel duyarlılık, çatışmadan kaçınma ve etkileşimli tepkisellik ile ilişkili bulunmuştur. Tepkisel duyarlılık etkileşimli tepkisellik ile ilişkili bulunurken çatışmadan kaçınma ile ilişkili bulunmamıştır. Türkiye örnekleminde öngörüşel ve tepkisel duyarlılık etkileşimli tepkisellik ile

ilişkili bulunmuştur. Duyarlılık ve çatışma alt ölçeklerinin düşük-orta seviyede ilişkili olması, ÖTD Ölçeği'nin yakınsak geçerliliğine katkıda bulunmuştur.

İkinci çalışmadan farklı olarak, bu çalışmada erkeklerin anlamlı olarak daha yüksek düzeyde tepkisel duyarlı olduğu gösterilememiştir. Ancak bu çalışmada da kadınlar anlamlı olarak daha öngörüselsel duyarlı olarak algılanmıştır. Bu bulgu ölçeğin yeni sürümünün iki örnekleme uzaksak geçerliliğine kısmen katkıda bulunmuştur.

ABD ve Türkiye'nin Değişkenler Açısından Karşılaştırılması

İki örneklem, çalışmada kullanılan değişkenlerin ortalama değerleri açısından ANCOVA ile karşılaştırılmıştır. Cinsiyet, yaş, ilişki süresi ve gelir düzeyi kontrol değişkenleri olarak kullanılmıştır (bkz., Tablo 4.3.1.5). ABD örneklemini Türkiye örneklemine kıyasla daha yüksek seviyelerde APD, kendini ifade etme, ilişki mutluluğu, benliği partnerin benliğinin bir parçası olarak tanımlama ve çatışmadan kaçınma bildirmiştir. Algılanan tepkisel duyarlılık düzeyinin, Türkiye örnekleminde ABD örnekleminde anlamlı derecede yüksek olduğu bulunmuştur.

Ayrıca, Türkiye ve ABD'deki katılımcıların ÖTD Ölçeği'nin zorunlu-seçmeli maddelerine verdikleri yanıtların karşılaştırmalı frekansları hesaplanmış ve Şekil 4.3.1.5'te sunulmuştur. ABD'deki katılımcılar, yirmi senaryo için Türkiye'deki katılımcılara göre daha yüksek düzeyde algılanan öngörüselsel duyarlılık bildirmiş olup, dört senaryo haricinde, Türkiye'deki katılımcılar Amerika'daki katılımcılara göre daha yüksek düzeyde algılanan tepkisel duyarlılık bildirmişlerdir.

Hipotez 2: Öngörüselsel duyarlılık Türkiye'de, tepkisel duyarlılık ABD'de baskın bir örüntü oluşturur mu?

İkinci çalışmada elde edilen Türkiye'ye dair bulguları yeniden test etmek amacıyla analizler yapılmıştır. Eşleştirilmiş örneklem t-testi, ortalama tepkisel duyarlılık seviyesinin ($Ort = 4.16, SS = .77$) öngörüselsel duyarlılıktan daha yüksek olduğunu göstermiştir ($Ort = 3.73, SS = 1.04; t(200) = -8.06, p < .001, \%95 GA [-.53, -.32]$). Ayrıca ABD örneklemini için ortalama öngörüselsel ($Ort = 3.92, SS = .90$) ve tepkisel ($Ort = 3.69, SS = .80$) duyarlılık düzeyleri arasında anlamlı bir fark olmadığı bulunmuştur ($p = .131$).

Bulgular, beklentilerin aksine, Türkiye'de öngörüselsel duyarlılığın değil, tepkisel duyarlılığın baskın örüntü olduğunu, ABD örnekleminde tepkisel duyarlılığın yaygın olmadığını göstermiştir. ABD'de fark istatistiksel olarak anlamlı

olmasa da algılanan öngörüşel duyarlılık düzeyi, algılanan tepkisel duyarlılıktan daha yüksek olma eğilimi göstermiştir. Bu nedenle, duyarlılık yapıları için kültürel bir model öngören Hipotez 2 desteklenmemiştir.

Hipotez 3: Kadınların daha öngörüşel duyarlı, erkekler daha tepkisel duyarlı mıdır?

İki ülkede algılanan öngörüşel ve tepkisel duyarlılık düzeylerindeki cinsiyet farklılıklarını test etmek için 2 (Cinsiyet) x 2 (Kültür) ANOVA yapılmıştır. Bulgular, cinsiyetin algılanan öngörüşel duyarlılık üzerinde önemli bir ana etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir, $F(1, 425) = 5.33, p = .022, \eta^2 = .012$. Erkekler eşlerini kadınlardan daha öngörüşel duyarlı ($Ort = 3.94, SH = .09$) olarak algılamışlardır ($Ort = 3.70, SH = .06$). Kültürün ana etkisi ve etkileşim etkisi anlamlı bulunmamıştır. Ayrıca, kültürün algılanan tepkisel duyarlılık üzerinde önemli bir ana etkisi olduğu saptanmıştır, $F(1, 425) = 28.68, p < .001, \eta^2 = .064$. Türkiye'deki katılımcılar eşlerini Amerika'daki katılımcılara göre daha tepkisel duyarlı ($Ort = 4.16, SH = .07$) olarak algılamışlardır ($Ort = 3.70, SH = .05$). Cinsiyetin ana etkisi ve etkileşim etkisi anlamsız bulunmuştur. Aynı analizler eğitim seviyesi, yaş ve ilişki süresi kontrol edilerek yapıldığında da sonuçlar değişmemiştir.

Bulgular, kültürel bağlamdan bağımsız olarak, kadınların eşleri tarafından daha öngörüşel duyarlı olarak algılandığını ortaya koymuştur. Ancak, algılanan tepkisel duyarlılık üzerinde anlamlı bir cinsiyet etkisi bulunmamıştır. Erkek olmanın tepkisel duyarlı olma ile ilişkili olmadığı tespit edildiğinden, Hipotez 3 kısmen desteklenmiştir. ABD örneklemiyle karşılaştırıldığında, Türkiye örnekleminin partnerlerini daha tepkisel duyarlı olarak algıladığı bulgusu teyit edilmiştir.

Hipotez 4: Bağlanma yönelimleri ile duyarlılık arasındaki ilişki olumsuz mudur?

Türkiye örnekleminde yapılan korelasyon analizi (bkz., Tablo 4.3.1.3), öngörüşel ve tepkisel duyarlılık değişkenlerinin bağlanma kaygısı ve kaçınması ile olumsuz ilişkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Bağlanma kaygısı ve kaçınması ile duyarlılık türleri arasındaki ilişkiyi göstermek üzere önerilen model LISREL'de test edilmiştir. Cinsiyet kontrol değişkeni olarak alınmıştır. Modelde (bkz., Şekil 4.3.4.1), kaygılı bağlanma öngörüşel duyarlılığı yordamış, kaçınan bağlanma hem öngörüşel hem de

tepkisel duyarlılığı olumsuz yönde yordamıştır. Ki-kare fark testine göre, kaçınan bağlanma öngörüselsel duyarlılığı kaygılı bağlanmadan daha güçlü yordamıştır.

Amerikan örnekleminde yapılan korelasyon analizi (bkz., Tablo 4.3.1.3), öngörüselsel duyarlılığın yalnızca kaçınan bağlanma ile olumsuz yönde ilişkili olduğunu, kaygılı bağlanma ile ilişkisinin anlamsız olduğunu göstermiştir. Beklenmedik bir şekilde, tepkisel duyarlılığın kaygılı bağlanma ile olumlu ilişkili olduğu, kaçınan bağlanma ile anlamlı bir ilişkiye sahip olmadığı saptanmıştır. Cinsiyetin kontrol değişkeni olarak alındığı modelde (bkz., Şekil 4.3.4.2), bağlanma kaygısı, öngörüselsel ve tepkisel duyarlılığı beklentilerin tersi yönde, olumlu yordamıştır. Bağlanma kaygısı ile öngörüselsel duyarlılık arasında anlamlı olmayan ancak olumsuz yönde olan korelasyon göz önüne alındığında, bir baskılama etkisinden şüphelenilmiştir. Dolayısıyla bağlanma kaygısı modelden çıkarılmıştır. Kaçınan bağlanma öngörüselsel duyarlılığı olumsuz yönde yordamıştır.

Özetle, Hipotez 4 Türkiye örneklemini için desteklenmiş, Amerika örneklemini için büyük ölçüde desteklenmemiştir. Kültüre özgü beklentiler göz önünde bulundurulduğunda (Hipotez 4b), Türkiye örneklemini için kaçınan bağlanmanın öngörüselsel ve tepkisel duyarlılık üzerindeki baskın etkisi ortaya çıkmıştır. ABD örnekleminde de kaçınan bağlanmanın öngörüselsel duyarlılık için baskın faktör olduğu görülmüştür. Bağlanma kaygısının ABD modelinden çıkarılması sebebiyle iki örneklem için modellerin ölçüm denkliği test edilememiştir. İlgili hipotezler Türkiye için desteklenmiş, ABD için desteklenmemiştir.

Genel Tartışma

Bu tezin genel amacı, yetişkin romantik ilişkilerindeki öngörüselsel ve tepkisel duyarlılığın işlevini ikili ve kültürel perspektiflerden araştırmaktır. Bu amaçla ilk çalışmada algılanan öngörüselsel-tepkisel duyarlılık ölçeği geliştirilmiştir. Yeni geliştirilen ölçeğin geçerliliği yeterince güçlü olmadığından, bu ölçek ikinci çalışmada senaryo temelli bir formata dönüştürülmüştür. Ayrıca, duyarlılık yapılarının kültüre uyumlu işlevleri, Türkiye’de evli çiftlerin katıldığı bir çalışma ile araştırılmıştır. Üçüncü çalışmada, duyarlılık yapılarındaki kültürlerarası farklılıklar, Türkiye ve ABD örneklemi karşılaştırılarak incelenmiştir.

Üçüncü çalışmada ölçeğin iki örneklemindeki ölçüm değişmezliği kısmen desteklenmiştir. Değişmezliği bozan maddelerin ölçekten çıkarılmasının kısa vadede

bir çözüm olabileceği, ancak bunun psikometrik kaliteyi ve içeriğin kapsamını bozabileceği ileri sürülmektedir. Bunun yerine, literatür, araştırmacıların örneklemeleri yapı düzeyinde analiz etmelerine izin veren kısmen değişmeyen modellerin kullanılmasını önermektedir (bkz., Ock, McAbee, Mulfinger ve Oswald, 2019). Buna göre, ülkeler için sonraki analizlere devam edilmiş, ancak bulgular ihtiyatlı bir şekilde yorumlanmıştır. Ayrıca, metrik değişmezliğin gösterilememesinde, öngörülse ve tepkisel duyarlılığın ABD’de ilişkili değilken, Türk örneğinde yüksek derecede ilişkili olmasından kaynaklanabileceği belirtilmelidir. Bu bulgu Türkiye örneğinde öngörülse ve tepkisel duyarlılığın ayırt edilemez olabileceğini göstermektedir. Bu bulguya dair iki olası açıklama yapılabilmektedir. Birincisi, bu kültürel bağlamdaki bireyler, partner tarafından reddedilme / bırakılma olasılığını en aza indirmek için partnere her iki duyarlılık davranışında da bulunma eğiliminde olabilirler. Reddetme duyarlılığı başkaları tarafından reddedilme olasılığının değerlendirilmesi olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Downey, Mougios, Ayduk, Londra ve Shoda, 2004). Kültürlerarası çalışmalar, reddetme duyarlılığı düzeyinin Doğu toplumlarında Batı toplumlarına göre daha yüksek olduğunu göstermiştir (Garris, Ohbuchi, Oikawa ve Harris, 2011; Lou ve Li, 2017). Öngörülse ve tepkisel duyarlılık, reddedilme tehdidi ile başa çıkmak için birbirleriyle işbirliği yapabilir. Yani, partnerler olası reddedilmeyi önlemek ve ilişkilerini korumak için her durumda duyarlı olmaya çalışıyor olabilirler.

İkincisi, bu kültürel ortamdaki bireyler ABD’ye kıyasla daha duruma özgü bir duyarlılık oluşturabilir. Erken gelişim döneminde yapılan iki çalışmada, Koreli ve Japon annelerin senaryolara verdiği yanıtların çocuğun yaşadığı duruma bağlı olarak değiştiği (öngörülse veya tepkisel), Alman annelerin yanıtlarının tepkisel duyarlılık yönünde görece daha tutarlı olduğu bulunmuştur. Araştırmacılar, Doğu toplumlarındaki annelerin öngörülse duyarlı olma eğilimi göstermelerine rağmen, duyarlılık modellerinin *duruma özgü duyarlılık* olarak görülmesi gerektiğine dikkat çekmiştir (Trommsdorff ve Friedlmeier, 2010; Ziehm, Trommsdorff, Heikamp ve Park, 2013). Bu görüş doğrultusunda, Türkiye’deki bireyler partnerlerinin destek ihtiyacı duydukları belirli durumlarda öngörülse veya tepkisel duyarlı olmayı tercih etmiş olabilirler. Bununla birlikte, kesin bir kanıya varmadan önce ileriki çalışmalar

Türkiye'de öngörüşel ve tepkisel duyarlılıđın ayrışan deđişkenler olup olmadığını yeniden test etmelidir.

ABD'de, ilişki mutluluđunun öngörüşel duyarlılık ile yüksek oranda ilişkilili iken tepkisel duyarlılık ile ilişkilili olmaması, ilişkililerde öngörüşel duyarlılıđın işlevselliđini vurgulamaktadır. Bu bulgu için olası bir açıklama ilişkilisel hareketlilik yazınından edinilebilir. İlişkilisel hareketlilik, bir toplumda insanların kişilerarası ilişkilileri başlatma ve sonlandırma fırsatlarının niceliđini ifade eder. İlişkilisel hareketliliđin düşük olduđu toplumlarla karşılaştırıldığında, ilişkilisel hareketliliđin yüksek olduđu toplumlarda, mevcut ilişkililer daha kırılıgandır ve insanların uzun vadeli ilişkililer kurma olasılıkları daha düşüktür (Yuki ve ark., 2007). Bir anlamda, ABD'de bireyler ilişkililer doyumunu yaşamak için partnerlerinin ihtiyaçlarını sezerek müdahale etmelerini tercih edebilir, böylece ilişkilisel hareketlilik olasılıđını en aza indirebilir. Öngörüşel duyarlılık ve ilişkilisel hareketlilik arasındaki olası bađlantı ileriki çalışmalarda araştırılmalıdır.

İkinci ve üçüncü çalışmalarda, Türkiye için çelişkilili bulgular gözlenmiştir. İkinci çalışmada öngörüşel duyarlılıđın, üçüncü çalışmada ise tepkisel duyarlılıđın daha baskın kalıplar olduđu saptanmıştır. Bu noktada, bir kültür içindeki deđerlerin ve uygulamaların, kültürlerdeki heterojenliđi gösterir şekilde oldukça farklı olabileceđi hesaba katılmalıdır. Özerklik ve ilişkililik, belirli bir toplumda ve hatta bir bireyde bir arada gözlenebilir (Kađıtçıbaşı, 1996; Trommsdorff ve Kornadt, 2003; Oyserman, Coon ve Kimmelmeier, 2002). Bu araştırmadaki çelişkilili bulguların, Türkiye'de kültürel bađlamdaki bu heterojenlikten kaynaklanabileceđi düşünölmektedir. Özellikle, görece özerk bireyler öz-yeterliklerine öncelik verebilir ve böylece ihtiyaçlarının karşılanma yolunu belirlemeyi tercih edebilirler. Dolayısıyla, açık ifadelerine yanıt verdiklerinde (tepkisel) partnerlerini daha duyarlı olarak deđerlendirebilirler. Buna karşılık, özerkliğe kıyasla ilişkilililiđi daha fazla önemseyenler, partnerin ilişkililerini ve kişisel refahı için ihtiyaçlarını önceden tahmin etmelerini ve müdahalelerini (öngörüşel) daha işlevsel bulabilirler. İlişkilisel benliđin ABD'deki öngörüşel duyarlılık ile olumlu korelasyon gösterdiđi bulunmuştur. Bu bulgu aynı zamanda bir kişi kendisini bir ilişkilide ne kadar karşılıklı bađımlı olarak tanımlarsa, öngörüşel duyarlılıktan o kadar yüksek fayda sağladıđı görüşünü destekleyebilir. Bu nedenle, daha sonraki çalışmalarda hem bir kültür içinde hem de

kültürler arasındaki farklılıkları göz önünde bulundurmak gerekmektedir. Farklı sosyoekonomik konumdaki katılımcılara da ulaşılmalı ve Türkiye'de öngörüselsel veya tepkisel duyarlılığın baskın olup olmadığını belirlemek için boylamsal çalışmalar yapılmalıdır.

Üçüncü çalışmada, tepkisel duyarlılıkta anlamlı bir cinsiyet farkı bulunmamıştır. Bu bulgu, erkeklerin duygu düzenleme stratejilerinde ya da kadınların iletişim esnasında erkeklerin rolüne yaptıkları atıflarda beklenmedik bir örüntü olup olmadığını incelemenin gerekli olduğunu ortaya koymuştur.

Önceki araştırmalar, kaçınan bağlanmanın bireyci kültürlerdeki ilişkilerde özerkliği teşvik ederek uyumlu bir işleve sahip olduğunu ileri sürmüştür (Rothbaum, Weisz, Pott, Miyake ve Morelli, 2000; Schmitt, 2010). Kültüre uygun beklentilerin aksine, bağlanma kaygısı düzeyi, bağlanmadan kaçınma düzeyinden anlamlı derecede yüksek bulunmuştur. Collins ve Feeney (2000) sıkıntılı zamanlarda yüksek düzeyde kaçınan bağlanan bireylerin, düşük düzeyde kaçınan bağlanana göre daha az destek alma girişiminde bulduklarını, destek istediklerinde de ima ve somurtma gibi dolaylı yolları kullandıklarını göstermiştir. Bu, kaçınan bağlanmanın tepkisel duyarlılık yerine öngörüselsel duyarlılıkla ilişkili olduğunu gösteren mevcut bulguyu açıklayabilir. Öngörüselsel duyarlılık mekanizması, kaçınan bağlanan bireyler için destek aradıklarında daha belirgin olabileceği çıkarımında bulunulabilir.

Araştırmanın Sağladığı Katkılar ve Pratik Çıkarımlar

Bu araştırma, öngörüselsel ve tepkisel duyarlılığın yetişkin romantik ilişkilerinde incelenmeye değer yapılar olduğunu göstermiştir. Pratiğe yönelik bir çıkarım olarak, çift terapilerinde çiftlerin algılanan duyarlılık eğilimlerinin dikkate alınabileceği söylenebilir. Uzmanlar, ihtiyaçları açıkça veya örtük olarak ifade etmenin partnerlerin duyarlılık eylemlerinin belirleyicisi olabileceğini gösterebilir. Araştırma kapsamında Öngörüselsel-Tepkisel Duyarlılık Ölçeği geliştirilmiştir. Ölçeğin geçerliliği hem Türkiye hem de Amerika örneğinde test edilmiştir. Ölçeği, öngörüselsel ve tepkisel duyarlılığın diğer ilgili değişkenlerle olası bağlantısını incelemek için kullanmak mümkündür. Ayrıca ölçek, farklı gelişim dönemlerinde (örn., ergenlik) yakın ilişki figürlerinin duyarlılıklarını incelemek amacıyla uyarlanabilir. Ölçek Likert derecelendirmesi ve zorunlu-seçimi bir arada içermesi nedeniyle, erken gelişim dönem bakım verme çalışmalarında bakım verenin

duyarlılık eğilimi hakkında sistematik bilgi edinmek için kullanılabilir. Bu araştırma sadece bakım verme değil aynı zamanda yetişkin bağlanma yazınına da katkıda bulunmuş, bağlanma kaygısı ve kaçınmasının algılanan öngörüselsel ve tepkisel duyarlılıktaki rolünü, ikili ve kültürlerarası bakış açısıyla incelemiştir. Ayrıca, bu çalışma, bağlantının sadece bakım veren değil, bakım arayanlar üzerindeki etkisini anlamak için de değerlidir (Millings ve Walsh, 2009). Kültür içi ve kültürler arası sonuçlar göz önüne alındığında, güvensiz bağlanan çiftlerin algısal sapmaları çift terapisi çerçevesinde değerlendirilebilir.

Bağlanma yönelimleri ancak kültürel bir bakış açısından değerlendirilirse bakım duyarlılığı hakkında doğru sonuçlara ulaşılabilir (Rothbaum, Weisz, Pott, Miyake ve Morelli, 2000). Bu çalışmada, bağlanma yönelimleri ile algılanan duyarlılık arasındaki bağlantı açıklanırken kültürel dinamikler üzerinde durulmuştur. Ayrıca bu çalışma, kültüre dayalı olmayan fakat ülkelere özgü bulguların elde edilmesi ve algılanan duyarlılık türünü belirleyen kültürün ötesinde başka mekanizmalar olabileceğini göstermesi açısından önemlidir.

Araştırmanın Sınırlılıkları ve İleriki Çalışmalar İçin Öneriler

Bu araştırma, yetişkin romantik ilişkileri için yeni duyarlılık yapıları önerdiğinden gelecek çalışmalarda bulguların tekrarlanması gerekmektedir. Her ne kadar ÖTD Ölçeği'nin Türkçe ve İngilizce sürümlerinin ölçüm değişmezliği önemli ölçüde gösterilmiş olsa da, ölçeğin çapraz doğrulaması hakkında daha fazla çalışma yapılmalıdır. Katılımcılar yaş, evlilik süresi ve meslek açısından farklılık gösteren ve bulguların genellenebilirliğini arttıran bireylerden oluşmasına karşın, özellikle Türkiye'de bulgular ağırlıklı olarak orta-üst sosyoekonomik konumdaki yüksek eğitilmiş kentsel bireylere dayanmaktadır. Dolayısıyla, bulgular daha düşük gelir düzeyine sahip çiftlerin ilişki yapılarını tam olarak yansıtmayabilir (Karney ve Bradbury, 2020). Kesitsel desen kullanılması sebebiyle, nedensel ve boylamsal sonuçlar ortaya konamamıştır. Gelecek çalışmalarda, öngörüselsel ve tepkisel duyarlılığın ilişkilerdeki sürekliliği araştırılmalıdır. Günlük çalışmaları, algılanan duyarlılıktaki tutarlılık hakkında derinlemesine bilgi sağlayabilir. Ayrıca algılanan öngörüselsel ve tepkisel duyarlılığın çocukluktan yetişkinliğe geçişi de test edilmelidir.

APPENDIX G. TEZ İZİN FORMU / THESIS PERMISSION FORM

ENSTİTÜ

- Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü
- Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü
- Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü
- Enformatik Enstitüsü
- Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü

YAZARIN

Soyadı : Kırırmer-Aydınlı
Adı : Fulya
Bölümü : Psikoloji

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) : Investigating Proactive and Reactive Sensitivity in Adult Romantic Relationships From a Cultural Perspective

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans Doktora

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

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ: