

**The Impact of Parental Divorce and Interparental Conflict in Intact Families on
Heterosexual Functioning of Young Turkish Women**

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by

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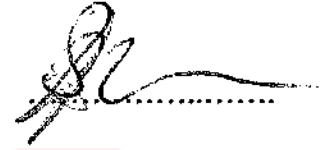
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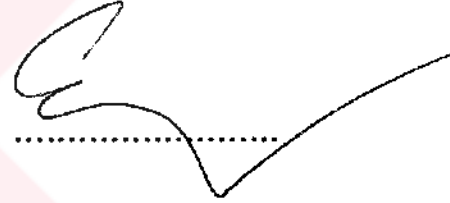
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Dedicated to my husband for his love and steadfastness and much more...

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I feel like a little girl who has got all the energy, willingness and courage to push her limits to do her best but was told to hold her breath. Now, I believe it is the time to take a deep breath and let this be *a figure* for me.

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ABSTRACT

The Impact of Parental Divorce/Separation and Interparental Conflict in Intact Families on Heterosexual Functioning of Young Turkish Women

By

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The present study investigates the heterosexual functioning of 309 young Turkish women, studying in Boğaziçi University, 272 from intact and 37 from divorced/separated families. With intact group divided into 2 groups, the heterosexual functioning of young Turkish women coming from high conflictual intact (N = 39), low conflictual intact (N = 34) and divorced/separated families (N = 37) were investigated. The Heterosexual Trust Scale, the Marital Attitudes Scale, the Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict Scale and the Personal History Questionnaire were used.

Compared to daughters from intact families, those from divorced/separated families held more negative attitudes toward marriage but did not differ on heterosexual trust. Subjects from divorced/separated families had higher negative marital attitudes than those coming from low conflict intact families. Subjects of high conflict intact families had the highest level of heterosexual mistrust and subjects of divorced/separated families had the lowest levels of heterosexual mistrust. For dating experiences, subjects from low conflictual intact group reported more satisfaction whereas others reported more indecisiveness and dissatisfaction in the current dating relationship. More subjects in divorced/separated group reported having started dating compared to others in high conflict and low conflict groups. The age at first dating was around 16 for those subjects who had started dating among 3 parental groups. But, the groups did not appear to be

different from each other with respect to the quality and quantity of other dating experiences.

For divorce/separation variables, subjects with both of the parents remarried reported the lowest levels of and subjects with only one remarried parent reported the highest levels of mistrust. While all of the subjects whose both parents were remarried were currently involved in a romantic relationship, nearly half of the subjects with none of their parents being remarried were not currently involved in a relation. Subjects with good relations with the noncustodial fathers reported lower levels of mistrust than those who have bad relations with their fathers. And, most of the subjects whose parents divorced/separated when they were in preschool or in late adolescence reported higher levels of satisfaction in current dating relationship among 3 groups. Subjects whose parents had good relations in the post-life have begun dating earlier, had more relations lasting longer than 2 months and more long lasting relationships than those whose parents had acrimonious relations in the post-divorce life. None of the analyses yielded statistically significant results for marital attitudes and dating history variables in terms of the divorce/separation variables.

ÖZET

Ailedeki Boşanmanın ve Boşanmamış/Ayrılmamış Ebeveynler Arasındaki Çatışmanın

Genç Türk Kadınlarının Karşı Cinsle İlişkileri Üzerindeki Etkisi

By

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Bu çalışmada, Boğaziçi Üniversitesi'nde okuyan, boşanmamış/ayrılmamış ailelerden gelen 272 kız öğrencinin ve boşanmış/ayrılmış ailelerden gelen 37 kız öğrencinin oluşturduğu 309 kişilik bir örneklemin karşı cinsle ilişkileri araştırılmaktadır. Aynı zamanda, aile içi çatışmanın çok olduğu boşanmamış/ayrılmamış ailelerden gelen kızların (N = 39), aile içi çatışmanın az olduğu boşanmamış/ayrılmamış ailelerden gelen kızların (N = 34) ve boşanmış/ayrılmış ailelerden gelen kızların (N= 37) karşı cinsle ilişkileri araştırılmaktadır. Karşı Cinsle Güven Ölçeği (The Heterosexual Trust Scale), Evlilikle İlgili Tutumlar Ölçeği (The Marital Attitudes Scale), Çocukların Evlilik Çatışmasını Algısı Ölçeği (The Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict Scale) ve Kişisel Geçmiş Anket Formu (Personal History Questionnaire) bu çalışmada kullanılmıştır.

Boşanmış/ayrılmış ailelerden gelen kızlar, boşanmamış/ayrılmamış ailelerden gelen kızlarla karşılaştırıldığında, evlilikle ilgili daha olumsuz tutum gösterirken, karşı cinsle olan güven konusunda bir fark göstermemektedirler. Boşanmış/ayrılmış ailelerden gelen kızlar, çatışmanın az olduğu boşanmamış/ayrılmamış ailelerden gelen kızlarla karşılaştırıldıklarında, evlilikle ilgili olarak daha olumsuz tutumlar göstermektedirler. Diğer yandan, çatışmanın çok olduğu boşanmamış/ayrılmamış ailelerden gelen kızlar en yüksek düzeyde karşı cinsle güvensizlik gösterirken, boşanmış/ayrılmış ailelerden gelen

kızlar en düşük düzeyde karşı cinse güvensizlik göstermektedirler. Bu 3 aile grubundan gelen kızlar, karşı cinsle flört yaşantıları gözönüne alınarak karşılaştırıldığında, düşük çatışmanın olduğu boşanmamış/ ayrılmamış ailelerden gelen kızlar, ilişkileriyle ilgili olarak daha çok memnuniyet belirtirken, diğer gruplardaki kızlar daha çok kararsızlık ve memnuniyetsizlik belirtmektedirler. 3 gruptaki kızlar içinde, en çok boşanmış/ayrılmış ailelerden gelen kızlar flört etmeye başladıklarını bildirmişlerdir. Her grubun içindeki kızların flört etmeye başlama yaşı 16'ya yakın olarak bulunmuştur. Fakat gruplar arasında, flört yaşantılarının diğer kalite veya miktar özellikleri açısından önemli bir fark görülmektedir

Boşanma/ayrılma değişkenleri araştırılırken, ebeveynlerinin her ikisi de yeniden evlenen kızların hepsi mevcut bir ilişkileri olduğunu belirtmiştir. Diğer yandan, ebeveynleri yeniden evlenmeyen kızların yarıya yakını şu anda bir ilişkide olmadıklarını belirtmişlerdir. Ebeveynlerinin her ikisi de yeniden evlenen kızların, en düşük düzeyde karşı cinse güvensizlik gösterdikleri ve ebeveynlerinden sadece biri evlenen kızların, en yüksek düzeyde karşı cinse güvensizlik gösterdikleri bulunmuştur. Vesayeti altında olmadıkları babayla iyi ilişkileri olan kızların, babayla kötü ilişkileri olan kızlara oranla, karşı cinse güvensizliklerinin daha düşük düzeyde olduğu bulunmuştur. Ailelerinde boşanma/ayrılma olduğu dönemde yuva çağında veya ergenliğin ileri aşamalarında olan kızlar, ilişkilerinin büyük bir çoğunluğunda diğer gruplardaki kızlara oranla daha fazla memnuniyet bildirmişlerdir. Boşanma/ayrılma sonrasındaki dönemde, ebeveynlerinin arasındaki ilişkinin iyi olduğunu bildiren kızların, erken flört etmeye başladıkları, 2 aydan uzun süren ilişkilerinin fazla olduğu ve genelde ilişkilerinin uzun sürdüğü bulunmuştur. Boşanma/ayrılma değişkenleri ile evlilikle ilgili tutum değişkeni ve geçmiş flört yaşantıları arasında yapılan analizlerde anlamlı bir farklılık bulunmamıştır.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES	xii
REVIEW OF LITERATURE	1
Long-Term Effects of Parental Divorce during Childhood/Adolescence on Late Adolescents'/ Young Adults' Adjustment	3
Long-Term Effects of Divorce on Psychological Functioning in adolescence	3
Divorce Related Variables	9
Developmental status	9
Interparental Conflict	11
Interparental conflict in intact families	12
Interparental conflict in divorced families versus intact families	13
Interparental conflict and child adjustment	16
Post-Divorce Parent-Child Relations	21
The Custodial mother-child relations	21
The Noncustodial father-child relations	23
Studies of Parental Divorce in Turkey	26
Effects of Divorce on Daughters' Heterosexual Functioning	30
Dating Behaviors	30
Level of satisfaction with heterosexual relations	35
Management of conflicts in heterosexual relations	37

Heterosexual Trust	39
Marital Attitudes	40
Statement of the Problem	44
METHOD	46
Subjects	46
Instruments	48
Heterosexual Trust Scale (HETTRUST)	48
Marital Attitudes Scale (MAS)	49
Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict Scale (CPCI)	50
Personal History Questionnaire	53
Procedure	54
RESULTS	54
DISCUSSION	84
REFERENCES	98
APPENDICES	105

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of Demographic Variables	57
Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of Dating Experiences	61
Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of Parental Divorce/Separation	64
Table 4. Descriptive Statistics about the Instruments	65
Table 5. Factor Analysis for Subscales of The Children’s Perception of Interparental Conflict Scale (CPIC)	67
Table 6. Analysis of Variance for Heterosexual Trust and Marital Attitudes Scores by Family Structure	68
Table 7. Analysis of Covariance for years of Maternal Education and Marital Attitudes by Family Structure	69
Table 8. Analysis of variance for Heterosexual Trust and Marital Attitudes by Parental Groups and Interparental Conflict	70
Table 9. Analysis of Covariance for years of Maternal Education and Heterosexual Trust and Marital Attitudes by Parental Groups	71
Table 10. Distribution of Parental Groups by Dating History	72
Table 11. Distribution of the Current Dating Status by Parental Groups	73
Table 12. Distribution of the Levels of Satisfaction in Current Relationship By Parental Groups	73
Table 13. Distribution of the Levels of Satisfaction in Current Dating Relationship Lasting longer than 9 Months by Parental Groups	74

Table 14. Distribution of the General Length of Dating Relationships by Parental Groups	75
Table 15. Analysis of Variance for Heterosexual Trust and Marital Attitudes by Remarriage of Parents	76
Table 16. Analysis of Variance for Heterosexual Trust and Marital Attitudes for the Quality of Relations with the Noncustodial Parents	78
Table 17. Analysis of Variance for Age at First Date and Quality of Relations between Divorced/Separated Families	79
Table 18. Distribution of Young Women’s Current Dating Status with Respect To Parental Remarriage Groups	81
Table 19. Distribution of Young Women with Respect to Levels of Satisfaction in the Current Dating Relationship among Three Age groups at Parental Divorce/Separation	81
Table 20. Analysis of Variance for Number of Relations Lasting Longer than Two months and Quality of Relations between Divorced/Separated Parents	82
Table 21. Distribution of Young Women for the General Length of Romantic Relationships among Groups of Remarriage of Parents	82
Table 22. Distribution of Young Women for the General Length of Romantic Relationships among Groups of Quality of Relations between Divorced/Separated Parents	82
Table 23. Analysis of Variance for Threat and Self Blame Subscales of CPIC by Parental Groups	84

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Parental divorce is generally conceptualized as an intense experience in the children's lives (Emery, 1988; cited in Amato & Booth, 1991). Since divorce rates are increasing in our society in recent years, concern for its impact on the children is mounting. Although there have been many studies that have reported the immediate effects of parental divorce on the many domains of children's lives such as economic, psychological, academic and interpersonal areas (Seltzer, 1994), few studies have examined the long-term impact of parental divorce during childhood on late adolescence or young adulthood (Franklin, Janoff-Bulman, & Roberts, 1990). For some children, the disruptive immediate effect of parental divorce has a tendency to decrease within 2 years, especially for girls (Hetherington, Cox & Cox, 1979; cited in Buchanan, Maccoby, & Dornbusch, 1991), while other children show evidence of a long term effect, in that some children, especially young women, whom at the start showed no immediate problems after parental divorce, appear to exhibit "sleeper effects" that are manifested as adjustment problems in early adulthood as they encounter the challenges of a new developmental stage (Wallerstein & Blakeslee, 1990; Wallerstein & Corbin, 1989). The offspring's attitudes toward courtship and marriage are indicated as one of the most affected areas by parental divorce (Amato, 1988). Some studies also suggest that compared to females who grew up in intact families, young women from divorced families are more likely to enter into earlier and frequent heterosexual activities and report more conflict in heterosexual relationships (Hetherington, 1972; Booth, Binkerhoff, & White, 1984).

Interparental conflict has also been found to have long-term negative consequences for young people. Children from divorced families and those coming

from intact families who have high levels of conflicts have shown similarities in their negative marital attitudes, and in having more sexual partners (Jennings, Salts, & Smith, 1991; Booth et al., 1984).

The available studies on the effects of family structure on late adolescence and early adulthood adjustment have yielded relatively limited information on variables related to heterosexual functioning by treating marital separation as a single event in impacting the immediate and later functioning of children, such studies have examined only the differences between intact families and divorced families (Newcomer & Udry, 1987; Jacquet & Surra, 2001). However, by focusing only on the effects of divorce, it is easy to overlook the processes in the family of origin that may or may not end up in parental divorce (Wallerstein & Corbin, 1989). All intact families cannot be assumed to involve nonconflictual relations among the parents and thus cannot be treated as a monolith. The existing literature has a tendency to divide families into two categories – intact and separated/divorced, without taking into consideration the level of dysfunctionality that may be inherent in some of intact families. However, for examining the impact of family dissolution and witnessing high levels of interparental conflict on daughters' psychological functioning (Long, 1986; Jennings et al., 1991), studies that further divide intact families into high and low levels of interparental conflict make for a better comparison. From the review of literature, it also seems important to get the females' perception of interparental conflict in examining its relation with females' heterosexual functioning (Jennings et al.). This study begins with the assumption that females' perception of the level of interparental conflict may have an impact on their heterosexual functioning, regardless of whether or not the parents are actually divorced/separated. The present study is important because it is one of the first attempts in Turkey for investigating

the heterosexual functioning of college aged women coming from divorced/separated and intact families with different levels of interparental conflict taken into consideration.

In the next section, research on the long-term effects of parental divorce and interparental conflict in intact families will be reviewed with special attention given to daughters' of divorce dating behavior, heterosexual trust and marital attitudes.

Long-Term Effects of Parental Divorce during Childhood/Adolescence on the Adjustment of Late Adolescents/ Young Adults

It is very important to study the long-term impact of parental divorce. While a number of researchers examined the internalizing problems of children of divorce over time (Allison & Furstenberg, 1985; Amato & Keith, 1991), some focused on the externalizing behavior of children of divorce (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980, cited in Wallerstein, 1985; Newcomer & Udry, 1987). Others investigated the changes in the domain of parent-child relations after parental divorce and the effects of these changes for future adult functioning (Southworthz & Schwartz, 1987). Finally, many researchers have found evidence that the long-term influences of divorce would appear to come out in romantic relationships (Glenn & Kramer, 1987; Franklin, et al., 1990). It is proposed that difficulties in functioning in that domain show that there may be distinctive patterns of courtship and marriage in adult children of divorce (Kinnaird & Gerrard, 1986; Amato & Booth, 1991).

Long-Term Effects of Parental Divorce on Psychological Functioning in Adolescence/Young Adulthood

Researchers found that people who experienced parental divorce during their childhood or adolescence may be more vulnerable to internalizing problems such as anxiety, depression and low self esteem than other people who come from intact

families (Wallerstein & Corbin, 1989). Many researchers as well viewed the behavioral problems of adolescence such as delinquency, angry or aggressive behavior as part of the long-term effects of parental divorce (Wallerstein & Corbin, 1989; Hetherington, Stanley-Hagan, & Anderson, 1989).

Conducting one of the first few longitudinal studies, Wallerstein and her colleagues (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980; cited in Wallerstein, 1985) reported several instances of the long-term effects of parental divorce on children from different age groups. In the first stage of their study, they studied the experiences of 60 families whose 131 children and adolescents (48 % boys, 52 % girls) were between 2 and 18 years old at the time of the decisive parental divorce from specifically white, middle-class homes in Northern California. Results from the first stage of the study, conducted at the time of parental divorce (within a 6-week period to the parental disruption), revealed that these children and adolescents alike experience anxiety, depression, worry, guilt and resentment and loyalty conflicts in relation with their parents along with a wish to restore pre-divorce family. However, the child's reactions to parental breakup were found to be related to age and stage of development related issues rather than the history or the dynamics of the families. Youngsters who were between the ages of 9 to 18 years at the time of parental breakup were divided into two groups by age: Those who were still in latency or preadolescence, or those who were in adolescence. Those children of divorce who were in their latency or preadolescence expressed their feelings of helplessness and fright about the breakup and deep anger at one or both parents for initiating divorce. The adolescent group had been found to be suffering from acute depression, delinquency and emotional and social withdrawal from friends and school as well as bearing an intense anxiety in relation to their own future.

In the second stage of the study, 18 months later, children who seemed to cope well with divorce at the time of separation, began to give evidence of psychological difficulties (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980; cited in Wallerstein, 1985). Differences between the sexes came out prominently at that stage of the study. Young boys who were either in latency or preadolescence compared to young girls below the age of adolescence were found to have more problems in their schoolwork and behavior at school, playground and in the house. To be more specific, after the examiners interviewed the members of the family separately to provide a psychological and social assessment, it came out that many of those girls who were in latency or preadolescence appeared to recover from their early distress that they expressed at the decisive time of parental divorce. It is important to note that there were not so many differences between the adolescent boys and adolescent girls in expression of distress at the second stage of the study.

At the 5-year follow up (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980; cited in Wallerstein, 1985), it was found that children of divorce (96 children from 56 families) were still angry at one or both of the parents for precipitating divorce. More than one third of those subjects were found to have moderate or severe clinical depression. It was revealed that the subject's psychological well-being was significantly related to the quality of experiences that take place in the family in the post-divorce period. More specifically, the features of parenting practices in the post-divorce life, the relations with the noncustodial parent, and the extent of post-divorce interparental conflict were found to be associated with the psychological adjustment of the child. It was recognized that factors such as the age at the time of parental divorce or the sex of the child were found to be related to the reaction to parental divorce in the early stages of study. However, those factors have lost their significant influence on the

adjustment of children at the 5-year mark (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980; cited in Wallerstein, 1985).

At the 10-year follow up, Wallerstein and Corbin (1989) selected only daughters from the original longitudinal study sample, consisting of 63 of the original 68 girls in the initial study. The findings reflected that earlier patterns of good psychological well-being or poor adjustment tended to endure for some while more than one third of daughters of divorce declined from good adjustment to poor adjustment at the 10-year mark. It was found that the poor psychological adjustment of girls at the time of divorce did not improve by good quality of experience in the post-divorce family. Young adolescent girls who were toddlers and preschool age children at the breakup and showed most distressed reactions to divorce at the time of parental divorce (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980; cited in Wallerstein, 1985), seemed to be functioning well (doing well in school, having good interpersonal relations and were open to new experiences) at the 10-year mark (Wallerstein & Corbin, 1989). The results of older adolescent girls were quite different from those of the younger adolescent group. Of those young female adolescents whose parents divorced when they were 6-8 years old, less than 40 % of the all the young female adolescents were experiencing good psychological adjustment. An identical number showed varied adjustment and nearly one quarter had poor adjustment. The reports of women 19 to 29 years of age gave the evidence that their good functioning at the time of parental separation declined by the time of late adolescence. At the 10-year mark, approximately 60 % of those young women who were between 9 and 19 at the time of parental divorce were functioning poorly. 45% of those girls recalled distressful memories of those events at the time of parental divorce. Most of those women reported sadness and anger to one or both of the parents for initiating divorce and

majority felt that they had lost their childhood and adolescence by the parental breakup. Some of those women exhibited externalizing behaviors such as drug and alcohol abuse and delinquency. They found that many of young women showed the “sleeper effects” that is manifested as a significant increase of anxiety in adolescence that might have been repressed in the early development and revisiting the emotional upheaval of parental divorce in adolescence that is reflected in their preoccupation with parental divorce. It is explained that the reason of the manifestation of the “sleeper effects” with the young adult girls of divorced parents might be related to the girls’ attempts to master the separation-individuation issues of adolescence that became more conflictual for the girls while living with the single mother over time (Kalter, 1984; Kalter, Riemer, Brickman, & Chen, 1985).

Although there must be some caution in generalizing the Wallerstein’s findings because of their failure to include subjects from intact groups to make comparisons in their long-term study, the strength of the study lies in its ability to track the developmental sequelae for children of divorced families. There is support for the Wallerstein’s proposal of the greater detrimental long-term impact of parental divorce on females than on males. For example, Glenn and Kramer (1987) examined the impact of parental divorce on divorce-proneness of adults through the study of data from 11 U.S national surveys conducted about 10 years apart. It is reported that female children of divorce, unlike male children, are more likely to have their own marriages end in divorce.

Several studies examining the long term impact of parental divorce have found some significance between individuals from intact versus divorced homes. In the examination of the influence of parental breakup during adolescence on young adults who were between 18 and 25 years old, Richardson and McCabe (2001) found

that young adults from divorced/separated families compared to young adults from intact families have a poorer level of adjustment on life satisfaction, anxiety and same sex relations. However, there were no significant differences between intact and divorced groups on depression, stress, and self-concept. Richardson and McCabe (2001) suggested that the young adults' coping well with their experience of parental divorce and their increased need to separate from parents due to their mastering separation/individuating task of that developmental period might explain why parental divorce was not found very pervasive on those domains.

In another study, using meta-analysis of 92 studies dealing with the long-term consequences of parental divorce, Amato and Keith (1991) found that adults who come from divorced homes compared with those who come from intact families have poorer psychological adjustment (depression, low life satisfaction). However, it was revealed that those differences were small rather than large.

Similarly, Kulka and Weingarten (1979) compared men and women from divorced families with those from intact families on measures of role adjustment and psychological adjustment using data from two national cross sectional surveys carried out almost 20 years apart. It was found that men, but not women, who experienced parental divorce during their childhood were more likely to report anxiety, a possible nervous breakdown and that for them things were harder to handle when bad things occurred in their lives than men from intact families. However, these differences were generally weak and differences were not found for depression, self esteem, personal efficacy or life satisfaction. It was noted that the long-term effects of parental divorce experienced during childhood seem to dissipate over time as individuals acquired new coping skills.

On the basis of these studies, it can be concluded that the impact of divorce may have some, albeit vague, detrimental effects on the general psychological functioning and adjustment of young adults. It can also be stated that adjustment is a complex issue.

Divorce-Related Variables

Divorce related factors such as the child's developmental status, interparental conflict, and parent-child relations have been examined for their impact on the adjustment of children of divorce.

Developmental Status

There are several studies that suggest the age at the time of parental breakup to be an important variable in the children' and adolescents' immediate and long-term reactions to parental divorce. However, it is indicated that the relationship between age at divorce and adjustment to divorce for children is complex. Although several studies show that children who are younger at the time of parental divorce exhibit more problems compared to children who are older at the time of parental divorce (Kalter & Rembar, 1981; Santrock, 1977; cited in Guttman, 1993), other studies did not exhibit such differences (Stolberg, Camplair, Currier, & Wells, 1987; Wallerstein, Corbin, & Lewis, 1988; cited in Hetherington et al. 1989).

In the meta-analysis of 92 studies of parental divorce, Amato and Keith (1991) found that the general adjustment of children of primary school and high school has been effected much more from parental divorce compared to other children from preschool years or young adults of college age. However, it is also found that the effect sizes for preschool children and college aged individuals were still significant enough in comparison with participants of intact families.

Hetherington et al. (1989) proposed that it is more correct to think that children from different developmental levels will exhibit different kinds of problems and acquire different coping skills. In line with this thinking, Wallerstein, Corbin, and Lewis (1988; cited in Hetherington et al., 1989) showed that preschoolers are prone to attribute blame for divorce on themselves due to their limited cognitive abilities, which is appropriate for this age group, whereas adolescents and young adults are found to attribute blame for divorce to one or both parents. There is also the possibility that adolescents get support from peers which may act against the emotional impact of the separation/divorce process, whereas younger children do not have this kind of resource to cope with the painful experience of parental break up (Hetherington, 1989).

Cognitive maturation alone, however, cannot explain the whole relationship between age at divorce and the psychological adjustment to it. There are also some studies that demonstrate that older children tend to do poorer in terms of adjustment to divorce than younger children (Chase-Lansdale, Cherlin, & Kiernan, 1995).

The reason for the negative impact of parental divorce during adolescence is explained by the developmental challenges that the adolescents face in that stage, such as mastering autonomy, the development of sex role identity and intimacy (Cooper, Grotevant, & Condon, 1983; Feldman & Elliott, 1990; Hauser, 1991; cited in Chase-Lansdale et al., 1995) and parents' tendency to ask the adolescents to provide support and take some roles of the absent parent at home put extra pressure on them (Weiss, 1979). As a result, those adolescents from divorced homes show a more rapid mastery of autonomy, and the normal de-idealization of parents (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980; cited in Kaslow & Schwartz, 1987).

In a study, Cooney (1988; cited in Richardson & McCabe, 2001) emphasized that since late adolescence and young adulthood is a time of transition, they may experience the loss of support that they get from parents and earlier peer groups. In addition, coming from a divorced family may temporarily add an extra tension to those challenges of late adolescence and young adulthood, which is more pronounced for females than for men. The reason for the poor well-being of female college aged subjects at the time of parental divorce might be because of the triangulation which is in accordance with the accepted view of females as the peacemakers (Hagestad, Smyer, Cooney, & Klock, 1984; cited in Kaslow & Schwartz, 1987).

Taken together, in general, these studies suggest that the perception of the impact of parental divorce and emotional difficulties experienced by the offspring of divorce seems to amplify from preschool to elementary school age, and remains high in early adolescence as well as in late adolescence. Thus, it is important to take into consideration the developmental issues that add to the stress of coping with divorce.

Interparental Conflict

Interparental conflict is examined as an occurrence between parents who did not break up their marriage despite having a high degree of disagreement (Emery, 1982; cited in Amato & Booth, 1991) or comparing levels of interparental conflict before and after divorce (Amato, 1996). Several researchers believe that one of the most important mediating variables related to children's immediate adjustment to divorce is interparental conflict (Long, Forehand, Fauber, & Brody, 1987; Block, Block, & Gjerde, 1986; cited in Long, Slater, Forehand, & Fauber, 1988).

Results of the studies are conflicting in trying to find the exact factors that affect the children's adjustment. Several views are available that indicate the relative

importance of family structure and family process for the children's psychological well-being. Some researchers (Emery & Forehand, in press; cited in Forehand & Neighbors, 1994) found that separation from parents through divorce mostly determines the difficulties of the children, whereas others found that interparental conflict regardless of family structure is more important in understanding the children's difficulties (Enos & Handal, 1986; Booth et al., 1984). Finally there are some perspectives that suggest that the combination of divorce and high interparental conflict have a great impact on the children's well being (Jekielek, 1998; cited in Morrison & Coiro, 1999) and the adolescent's functioning (Forehand & Neighbors, 1994), an impact that persists into adulthood (Sanders, Halford, & Behrens, 1999).

Interparental Conflict in Intact Families

Prolonged exposure to interparental conflict between parents, who remain married, increases the risk of a variety of problems for children (Grych & Fincham, 1990). The relation between interparental conflict and child behavior problems are reviewed in Grych and Fincham's (1990) paper. It is argued that children are being put at the continual risk of parental violence (Cummings, Pelligrini, Notarious, & Cummings, 1989; cited in Grych & Fincham, 1990). Parental conflict may also result in children being drawn into conflict between parents that lead in turn to the weakening in parent-child relations (Buchanan et al., 1991).

In an attempt to investigate the relation between children's behavior problems and parental conflict, Emery and O'Leary (1982; cited in Grych & Fincham, 1990) conducted a study with children ranging in age from 8 to 17. Results indicated the association between boys' perception of the frequency of interparental discord and the mothers' reports of conduct disorder, immaturity and delinquency on the Behavior Problem Checklist. But, no correlations were obtained between the girls'

reports of the frequency of interparental conflict and the mothers' ratings. In another study, Johnson and O' Leary (1987; cited in Grych & Fincham, 1990) conducted a study with 25 girls (9 to 11 year-old) and found that girls' perceptions of the frequency of interparental discord was related to their parents' ratings of conduct disorder on the subscale of the Child Behavior Checklist.

In another study, Whittaker and Bry (1991) conducted an observational study with 16 adolescents (with an average age of 15 years) along with their 16 intact families to examine the relations between adolescents' (56 % of the adolescents were female) problems and interparental conflict during problems solving discussions of parents. Results showed the association between adolescents' problem behaviors (such as substance abuse, delinquency, difficulties with school and family functioning) and the ratings of marital conflict. Explicit high levels of disagreements between the parents and more covert forms of interparental conflict (prolonged silences) were coded in dealing with the problems of adolescents. It was concluded that both types of interparental interactions might result in ineffective parental guidance for the adolescents who are in trouble.

Interparental Conflict in Divorced Families versus in Intact Families

There are findings which indicate that since the level of interparental conflict can be the same both in intact and divorced families (Forehand & Neighbors, 1994), the increased problems of the adolescents from broken homes can be explained by the pressure of two stressors such as current parental discord and parental break up at the same time. However, it is necessary to explain that the cause of the distress of the adolescents, especially adolescent girls, in the case of interparental conflict is increased if they come from divorced homes rather than intact homes. This is

explained by the adolescent girls' ability to empathize with both parents and the parent's triangulating of her in divorced homes (Buchanan, et al., 1991).

Evidence suggests there are contrasting findings in the extent of negative influences of pre- and post-divorce conflict on the adjustment of children. Long et al., (1988) point out that adolescents from divorced families with higher levels of pre- and post divorce interparental conflict have displayed more difficulties such as academic problems, internalizing problems and externalizing problems than adolescents from both divorced families with only post-divorce conflict and intact families with or without conflict.

Morrison and Coiro (1999) utilized mother-child data (with a mean age of 6) from a large longitudinal data to determine whether the influence of parental divorce on child adjustment varies for children who were removed from high conflictual families or low conflictual families. Another question that was asked was whether children functioned well when their parents did not seek divorce despite having high conflict. Results revealed that separation/divorce alone was related to increase in externalizing behaviors of children regardless of how often the parents had conflicts in pre-divorce life. However, children whose parents continued to be married despite having high levels of conflict demonstrated the largest increase in problem behavior among children of divorced families and children of low conflict and medium conflict families. Clearly, children from low conflict intact families had the highest levels of psychological well being in this study. It was suggested that since subjects of this study were younger children or since relatively shorter time had passed over parental separation/divorce, the results did not show the advantage of leaving a high conflict family that might be noticeable only several years later.

Similarly, in another study Long (1986) conducted a study with 199

college-aged females (with a mean-age of 17.7). Of these, 150 daughters were from intact homes and 49 daughters were from separated homes. Long (1986) examined the influence of parental marital status and parental discord on the self-esteem of college aged women. Self-esteem of females was found to be associated with parental marital status when parental discord was controlled. In that study, the participants' reports of their parents' level of happiness were categorized in three groups as happily together families, unhappily together families and separated families. It was found that daughters of unhappily together families demonstrated lower levels of self esteem scores than did daughters of happy together families and daughters of separated families but these differences were not statistically significant.

Consistently, Amato and Booth (1991), using a representative national sample, compared adults of divorced families with adults of high levels and low levels conflictual families. Results showed that individuals from divorced homes were in a worse state (poor psychological well being, poor marital quality, and low levels of contact with parents) compared to individuals from intact homes. However, the differences between adults from divorced homes and adults from intact homes were small in magnitude. It was also found that subjects from unhappy intact families have experienced more emotional and marital problems in their own lives than did other adults of happy intact families. Finally, results showed that both adults from divorced homes with high stress in the post-divorce life (low levels of contact with parents and multiple divorces) and adults from unhappily married intact homes had relatively lower levels of well being than adults from happily married intact homes.

In another study, Amato et al., (1995) analyzed a 12-year longitudinal study that was conducted between 1980 and 1992. The researchers found that young adults

(with a mean age of 23.5 years) from intact families with high conflict had a worse state of well-being than those from divorced families. Results indicate that if interparental conflict is high, young adults have better functioning in early adulthood if their parents choose to breakup than continue to be married. More specifically, it was revealed that interparental conflict was significantly related to young adults' psychological distress, and overall happiness. In addition, results revealed that the psychological well being of young adults after parental break up was highest among those who were exposed to severe parental conflict before divorce and lowest among those who experienced less conflict before divorce. It was suggested that if the young subjects were not aware of the parental conflict, divorce tended to be a shock for them. Those findings give support to Anthony's (1974; cited in Kaslow & Schwartz, 1987) view that point out that unexpressed conflict and emotional withdrawal may be as damaging for children as overt conflict if such covert parental conflict results in sudden separation or divorce.

In sum, it appears that in some cases parental divorce alone predicts the difficulties of children, whereas in others, it is the conflict between parents that predicts the difficulties. However, it becomes even clearer that the combination of divorce and high parental conflict predicts more adjustment problems for children especially when conflict continues in the post-divorce life.

Interparental Conflict and Child Adjustment

Grych and Fincham (1990) suggested that both interparental conflict and child adjustment are multidimensional. In order to assess the child's perception of dimensions of marital conflict such as frequency, intensity, resolution, content, triangulation, stability and children's appraisals of threat, self-blame and coping efficacy, Grych, Seid and Fincham (1992) developed The Children's Perception of

Interparental Conflict Scale (CPIC), which was used in this study. In the initial use of CPIC, Grych et al. (1992) conducted a study with 222 children aged from 9 to 12 years old. In that study, factor analysis was conducted on CPIC, which revealed 3 independent factors that emerged from the CPIC scale. The first factor was named “Conflict Properties”, which had items, related to interparental conflict variables such as frequency, intensity and resolution of conflict. The second factor was named “Threat”, and captured subscales of triangulation and coping efficacy. The third factor was named “Self-Blame” and captured subscales of the content of conflict and self-blame.

Grych et al. (1992) reported that children’s evaluations of frequency, intensity and resolution of interparental conflict predicted their internalizing and externalizing problems more consistently than parents’ reports of marital conflict. Although examinations of general pattern of results did not give evidence for any sex differences in terms of association between parental conflict and child adjustment, there was only one apparent difference between boys and girls. It was noted that a greater experience of more frequent, intense and poorly resolved interparental conflict was related with boys’ reports of increased levels of internalizing problems and teachers’/peers’ and parents’ reports of increased levels of such problems in boys. However, girls’ ratings of higher levels of frequent, intense and poorly resolved parental conflict were related to girls’ reports of greater externalizing problems and teachers’/peers’ and parents’ reports of greater internalizing problems in girls.

While children’s descriptions of the dimensions of conflict (frequency, intensity, and resolution) were found to be related to child adjustment, the same strong relations did not become apparent for the other two factors (Threat and Self

Blame) and child adjustment. The single exception became evident for positive correlations with children's reports of threat and self-blame, and with children's reports of internalizing problems. More specifically, it was demonstrated that there was a significant relationship between children's reports of internalizing problems and children's scores on Threat and Self Blame factors when children's scores of Conflict Properties were controlled in the analysis. It was suggested that this may be resulting from the similarity of the content of the perceived threat, and from the self-blame questions and content of the questions in depression and anxiety scales. Children who perceive a greater threat and self-blame resulting from marital conflict may also choose items that give evidence of higher degrees of depression and anxiety. In another study, with 60 children aging from 7 to 12-year old, Grych (1998) found that if the child perceived the content of the parental conflict was related to him/herself then the child blames him/herself, but becomes more optimistic about his/her capability to resolve the marital conflict due to a feeling of being in charge of the content of the conflict. When children appraise the conflict as more threatening, they have a tendency to be more pessimistic about their coping capacities to interfere in conflict along with worries about the well-being of self and the family (Grych, 1998).

In the examination of the influences of conflict properties on children's interpretations of conflict, Grych (1998) found that the levels of intensity of aggression expressed in parental conflict have a strong impact on the appraisals of children. But, it was shown that these effects differed for boys and girls. Results demonstrated that since girls are more inclined to continue the interpersonal relationships and be more receptive to the expressions of anger (and more conscious of its meanings for the family) than boys are, girls seem to be more affected than

boys by overt expressions of disagreement in parental relations, but girls did not differ from boys in feelings of impotency in helping parents solve their disagreements. In the examination of contextual factors that have an impact on children's interpretations of conflict, Grych (1998) indicated that children's experiencing of intense interparental and child-father aggression consisting of higher degrees of verbal and physical aggression led them to perceive parental conflict as more threatening, and that these children had more pessimistic expectations about their coping efficacy. It was suggested that in such a situation the child may even experience-increased levels of stress due to having two kinds of needs. On the one hand, those children from high conflict families may perceive a heightened threat to themselves and their parents. On the other hand, they may want to intervene in the conflict to protect the victimized parent or themselves. It was concluded that since children's development of schemas concerning interpersonal relationships are based partially on their perceptions of the parental relationship, higher levels of conflict at home may result in children becoming involved in abusive relationships, or acquiring ineffective coping skills in their own romantic relations in later life.

Following the same line of thinking, Bickham and Fiese (1997) conducted a study to investigate the attributes of interparental conflict and the psychological adjustment in late adolescents by using CPIC (Grych et al., 1992). In comparison to Grych et al. (1992)'s study with younger children, older adolescents were found not to attribute self-blame for interparental conflict, but are most affected when they view the conflict as threatening. This finding gives support to Grych and Fincham's (1990) suggestion of the importance of the children's level of development in the interpretation of the conflict. Grych and Fincham (1990) suggested that younger children blame themselves as the cause of parental conflict due to their egocentric

thought processes and were found to be more fearful and pessimistic about their coping efficacy in the face of conflict, whereas older children tend to exhibit a more realistic appraisal of parental discord, acquiring problem-focused strategies and becoming aware of threats caused by interparental conflict. Bickham and Fiese (1997) found that since adolescents are more capable of understanding the threats that occur due to interparental conflict and possible outcomes of interparental conflict, the adolescent is most affected by its perception of threat in marital conflict. In addition, although Grych et al. (1992) found that the frequency, intensity and resolution of interparental conflict were most closely related to school-aged children's adjustment, these dimensions of conflict were found to be only moderately related to late adolescent adjustment. What is more, the certain properties of conflict, triangulation and stability were found to be loading on the objective properties of interparental conflict in a study with late adolescents (Bickam & Fiese, 1997). Grych et al. (1992) had failed to show that those dimensions of the conflict consistently loaded on a single factor. Bickam and Fiese (1997) also found that adolescents coming from divorced/separated homes reported more of the conflict properties in addition to a greater threat compared with adolescents from intact homes. As an interesting note, adolescents from intact homes reported greater self-blame for interparental conflict compared with those from divorced/separated homes. Since there is a decrease in conflict after a divorce, Bickam and Fiese (1997) hypothesized that adolescents from divorced/separated homes tend to attribute the reasons for the conflict to external factors, rather than themselves. However, they also added that this issue needed to be explored further in future studies.

Although there are numerous studies examining the association between interparental conflict and the adjustment of elementary school-aged children and

early adolescents, the consequences of that variable for late adolescents and young adults have not been substantially examined. Taking into account the developmental challenges of this transition period, the impact of interparental conflict would seem important for this population (Hetherington & Anderson, 1987; cited in Bickman & Fiese, 1997), as the impact may be more clearly manifested in their opposite sex relations (Long, 1987). The relevant literature regarding the impact of interparental conflict and divorce on adolescents' heterosexual trust, marital attitudes and dating behavior will be discussed thoroughly in the section that examines the effects of divorce on the heterosexual functioning of adolescent females.

In sum, although children from divorced families may have worse functioning when compared with children from intact families, both in the short and long-run, interparental conflict may still be the key factor in understanding the psychological functioning of children and adolescents when intact group is further divided into low and high levels of interparental conflict. (Enos & Handal, 1986; Booth et al., 1984). Thus, the significant negative impact of high levels of interparental conflict emerges when the intact group is not taken monolithically.

Post-Divorce Parent-Child Relations

Researchers agree that parental break up changes parent-child relations. The changes in the parent-child relations continue over time and determine the children's adjustment that persists into adulthood.

The Custodial Mother-Child Relations

Wallerstein and Corbin (1989) reported that at the 10-year mark, many of daughters were able to keep their close relationship with their custodial mothers. Many of those girls reported appreciation for her emotional and economic difficulties. However, the disruption of the parenting functions of the mothers due to

economical and psychological pressures after divorce coincided with the adolescence of their daughters. Wallerstein and Corbin (1989) argued that adolescent daughters may perceive their mothers' preoccupation with their own issues as abandonment and thus experience sadness in the transition period of their lives. It was concluded that, by the 10-year mark, the features of the mother-daughter dyad (e.g. degree of mutual affection, control and limit setting, support and description of generational limitations) were related to the daughter's well being. Young adult daughters (19-23 years) of divorced families who had conflicted relations with mothers had poorer psychological functioning.

With respect to relations with the mother after divorce, in a study with mixed gender college aged subjects (with a mean age of 19.6 years) after about 10 years of parental divorce, Fine et al. (1983) found that, both sons and daughters perceive their relationships with their mothers less positively than those of intact families, contrary to some evidence that the mother's well being and the parent-child relations are better in 2 years time (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1982; cited in Amato, 1993; Wallerstein & Corbin, 1989). It was suggested that the reason for these differences might be based on the findings that single mothers face many stressors such as financial pressure, the possible need for full time work, limit setting and communication difficulties with their children and social pressures due to being a single woman in society. After taking closer look at the findings, it was revealed that daughters of divorced families consistently perceive their relationship with their mothers more positively than did boys. Some daughters reported that they felt more at ease in their communications with their mothers than boys did. Daughters reported higher levels of identification with her as the same sex parent. This finding gives support to the notion that children who live with the same sex custodial parent

have a better state of well being than children who live with the opposite sex parent (Sandrock & Warshak, 1979; cited in Levitin, 1979). Fine et al. (1983) also suggested that the reasons daughters may feel more close to their mothers could be that they spend more time with their mothers and empathize with her regarding the stress of their mothers are fairly high. Thus, mothers could become a role model for her daughter which may not be the case for the sons

The Noncustodial Father-Child Relations

Wallerstein and Corbin (1989) also indicated the importance of the associations between the father-child relations and the children's functioning. Poor father-daughter relationships were consistently reported at the ten-year mark. Two-thirds of daughters reported good relationships with their mothers whereas only one-quarter of daughters reported good relationships with fathers at the 10-year mark. This discrepancy indicates the decline in the father-daughter relationships as compared to the time of separation. Wallerstein and Corbin's (1989) findings are supported by the "father absence" perspective which suggested that the quantity and quality of contact between offspring of divorce and the noncustodial parents- especially fathers are likely to deteriorate over time (Seltzer, 1991; Amato & Booth, 1996) and the absence of the noncustodial parent as a model and provider of support and supervision may result in the children's adjustment problems in divorced families.

Wallerstein and Corbin (1989) reported that the quality of relationship between the fathers and daughters was more predictive of daughters' well being rather than simple contact at the 10-year mark. More than half of daughters, aged 16 to 23 expressed their sadness and disappointment at their fathers, as well as a sense

of rejection by him. That outcome was true even for the fathers who continued to visit their daughters regularly over the post-divorce years.

The age of children may have an impact on the coping strategies that they acquire in dealing with the pain of father absence. By the 10-year mark, Wallerstein and Corbin (1989) reported that in the face of their disappointments related to their fathers, young girls are able to sustain the “good father” fantasy, whereas older girls are not able to soothe themselves with that fantasy.

Wallerstein and Corbin (1989) reported that many daughters whose parents divorced when they were very young expressed a heightened need to contact their fathers when they became adolescents. Although some of the custody mothers were irritated by the father-daughter contact, the daughter’s contact with the father did not disrupt the mother-daughter relationship with those younger girls. On the other hand, older adolescent girls’ need to contact with their fathers did disturb the mother-daughter relationship because the mother felt rejected by the daughter’s attempt and took it as a second blow after divorce. So, the detrimental impact of paternal absence might become even clearer when daughters enter into late adolescence and have to cope with developmental challenges such as separation and individuation from the mother as well as seeking intimacy with the opposite sex. Wallerstein and Corbin (1989) also found that daughters of divorce who kept close relations with both parents had very good functioning over ten years. Similarly, Amato (1993) pointed out that when children keep contact with the noncustodial parents, they tend to have better levels of adjustment.

Southworth and Schwarz (1987) conducting a study with college-aged (ranging from 17 to 20 years) females found that daughters of divorce who had contact with fathers in the post-divorce process perceived more love and acceptance

from their fathers compared to those who had less contact with their fathers after divorce. It was also shown that the pre-divorce father-daughter relationship was less important than the relationship in the post-divorce process in predicting the degree of love perceived by daughters.

In the examination of the father child relations after about 10 years of parental divorce, Fine et al. (1983) found that both boys and girls of divorced families did not convey a very positive sense of perception of their fathers compared to those from intact families. Fine et al. (1983) suggested that the reason for these differences might be related with the continuation of conflicts between parents over the custodial arrangements that, in turn, make it hard for the father to remain involved in the children's life and to be eager to see their children during the visitation periods (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1976; cited in Fine et al., 1983; Baydar, 1988). However, Fine et al. (1983) reported that the findings of the long-term consequences of poor quality of perceived father- and college aged child relations are not uniform. It was indicated that there are some variables that seemed to reduce the potentially detrimental influences of parental divorce on the children-father dyad such as the perception of positive relations in pre-divorce family, good relations with the father in pre-divorce, good relations between parents and their coming from a higher socioeconomic status.

As a summary, the literature gives support to the significance of perceived closeness with both the fathers and the mothers for the good adjustment of children of divorce, especially for young adults who are in the transition from adolescence to adulthood.

Studies of Parental Divorce in Turkey

There are only a few studies that are conducted with the children of divorced parents in Turkey. All of these studies have examined the impact of divorce on the children's psychological adjustment in the short run (Tokoğlu, 1979; Kaynaroğlu, 1984; Erkan, 1986; Atakan, Erol, & Alacaci, 1989; cited in Korkut, 1990). In terms of investigating the impact of interparental conflict, there is only one single study that investigated the association between interparental conflict and children adjustment in intact families (Öz, 1999).

Erkan (1986) compared the children of divorced families with the children of intact families in terms of their self-concepts. The sample included 135 adolescents from divorced families and 159 adolescents from intact families between the ages of 13 and 20 coming from eight State High Schools in Ankara. Baymur's Self Concept Inventory was used to assess the levels of self-concept. Accordingly, children from intact families had higher levels of self-concept than children under the custody of fathers and the stepmothers. On the other hand, the study failed to find differences on self-concept levels between children living with their single mothers, single fathers, mother and stepfathers and natural families (cited in Korkut, 1990).

Korkut (1990) compared adolescents coming from divorced families with those from intact families in terms of their self-concepts, depression levels and their understanding of family environment. In addition, Korkut (1990) examined some variables that are associated with the psychological adjustment of adolescents of divorced families. The sample consisted of 184 adolescents from divorced homes and 184 adolescents from intact homes (105 girls and 79 boys) aging between 10 and 18 year-old and coming from 7 private high schools in Istanbul. Findings showed that there were no significant differences between adolescents from divorced and

intact families in terms of self-concept and depression. It was suggested that since all the students are nonclinical and coming from higher SES groups, the possible differences between two groups might have disappeared (Korkut, 1990). Gender differences were not found for adolescents of divorced families on levels of self-concept and depression. On the other hand, adolescents from intact homes were found to perceive their family environment as being more cohesive than adolescents from divorced homes. In addition, it was found that the self-concepts of adolescents from divorced homes were positively correlated and depression levels were negatively correlated with high control in the family environment. It was also found that adolescents from divorced families have greater depression levels when their attributions about divorce were negative. The decreased contact with the noncustodial parent was also found to be positively correlated with the depression levels of children. In divorced families, boys were also found to need more control than girls after divorce. Mother's education level was also found to be a more significant predictor for the psychological adjustment of female adolescents than for males. More specifically, it was shown that the higher the education levels of the mother, the lower the depression levels of adolescent girls. It was also found that adolescents who had difficulties in post-divorce life and who were asked to take sides in their parents' problems had greater depression levels and lower self-concepts than adolescents who did not have difficulties in post-divorce life and were not asked to take sides in their parents' problems. Additionally, the quality of the relationship between parents in the post-divorce life was also found to have an impact on adolescents' depression and self-concept level. Adolescents who reported good relationships with custodial parents were also found to have higher levels of self-concept and lower levels of depression. Adolescents who reported their relationships

with noncustodial parents as being relatively bad were more likely to have higher levels of depression. Finally, Korkut (1990) failed to find the impact of remarriage of the custodial parents on the adolescent's psychological adjustment. It was suggested that the reason for that finding might be due to small percentage of remarriage in mothers.

There has been little investigation of the influence of interparental conflict on the children's adjustment in Turkey. Öz (1999) examined the relationship between children's understanding of interparental conflict and children's internalizing and externalizing problems. The other aim of the study was to translate the Children's Perception of Interparental Scale (Grych et al., 1992) into Turkish and to conduct its validity and reliability studies in the service of measuring the children's perception of interparental conflict. In addition, this study made an attempt to investigate the gender and age differences in children's understanding of interparental conflict and the kinds of problems children displayed. In addition, Öz (1999) aimed to determine if there were any differences between parent reported and teacher reported internalizing and externalizing problems of children. The sample included 232 nonclinical children who were between the ages of 9 and 12, coming from intact families, of which one parent filled out The Child Behavior Checklist. The Teacher Report Form of The Child Behavior Checklist was administered to the teachers. Lastly, children filled out the Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict Scale (CPIC) and the Children's Depression Inventory. The results indicated the good reliability and validity of the Turkish version of the CPIC. It was found that children's evaluations of frequency, intensity and resolution of marital conflict were related with parent/teacher reported internalizing problems and child reported depression. Öz (1999) suggested that Turkish children might become fearful and tend

to be withdrawn socially and emotionally when they encounter marital conflict. It was also suggested that this type of reaction may keep the children from getting involved in the marital conflict; however, it may also result in internalizing the negative feelings related with being exposed to interparental conflict. In addition to the children's perception of threat of the conflict and self-blame was associated with self-reported depression levels of the children. It was also found that children's perceptions of self-blame were related with child reported depression levels, parent reported internalizing and externalizing problems and teacher reported externalizing problems. Gender differences were also found as an important factor in children's appraisals of the parental conflict. Boys were found to attribute greater self-blame for marital conflict to themselves than girls. It was suggested that the impact of different socialization experiences of boys might lead them to feel more responsible for marital disagreements and tend to blame themselves due to marital conflicts. Moreover, girls were found to have more internalizing problems than boys as reported by teacher and parents whereas boys were exhibiting more externalizing problems than girls as reported by teachers. It was suggested that this finding might give support to the hypothesis that in the Turkish sample, as well as in other western cultures, boys tend to display more externalizing problems whereas girls engage in more help seeking behaviors when dealing with feelings of discomfort (Güney, 1992; cited in Öz, 1999). Age differences were also found to be important in children's appraisals of marital conflict. Teachers reported higher levels of internalizing and externalizing problems for 9-year-old children than 12-year-old children. In addition, parents reported more externalizing problems for 9-year-old boys than 12-year-old boys. It was also revealed that parents reported greater child internalizing and externalizing problems for children compared to teachers.

Altogether, all the studies that were conducted in Turkey showed the negative impact of parental divorce and interparental conflict in intact parents on the psychological adjustment of children. The present study is the first one in Turkey, which was conducted to compare the heterosexual functioning of daughters of divorce with daughters of intact families divided into low and high levels of interparental conflict in accordance with daughters' perception of frequency of parental conflict.

Effects of Divorce on Daughters' Heterosexual Functioning

Several studies that were conducted with children of divorce explored the nature of heterosexual functioning and the characteristics most likely to be affected by parental divorce, namely, levels of satisfaction in dating relationships, levels of heterosexual trust in the partner, levels of conflict in current relationship and attitudes toward marriage. However, the available studies on the effects of divorce on females' heterosexual functioning have primarily focused on the differential impact of family structure. The literature relatively overlooks the fact that high levels of parental conflict are not limited to separated/divorced parents and many children of intact families also experience long term effects of distress, related to parental conflict, in their romantic relations.

Dating Behavior

There are many research findings in favor of the notion that parental divorce leads to problems in dating and sexual behavior of daughters. For instance, Hetherington (1972) conducted a study with adolescent daughters from low SES families and found significant differences in the domain of heterosexual behavior among daughters from divorced, intact and widowed homes. It was found that the impact of the loss of a male parent through divorce before age 5 becomes manifest in

adolescence in daughters' inability to interact appropriately with males. It was observed that these girls displayed more attention seeking behavior from males and engaged in more frequent heterosexual activities as compared to daughters from intact families and daughters whose father were deceased. Hetherington (1972) explained these differences as the lack of opportunity of daughters of divorce to interact with a loving adult male early in life. Coming with a different explanation, Wallerstein and Kelly (1980), in their work with latency aged daughters of divorce, at the 5-year mark, proposed that those females who had involved in increased sexual activity and promiscuity were still angry at their parents about divorce (cited in Wallerstein, 1985).

Supporting the view of early sexualization of daughters from disrupted families, Newcomer and Udry (1987) investigated the impact of parental marital status (intact, blended and single) on the initiation of the first heterosexual relations by the adolescents. The data was collected from white adolescents from junior high schools 2 years apart. It was found that there is a greater impact of living with single mothers on the early sexual initiation and other acting out behavior (smoking, drinking) of girls. Newcomer and Udry (1987) pointed out that single mothers' being sexually active and the absence of control of the father at home over the adolescent girls may make adolescent girls to take their mother as a model and get involved in early sexual behavior.

Similarly, Booth et al., (1984) conducted a study with 365 college aged students and found that college students from divorced families display greater courtship activities compared to students from intact or the widowed homes and tend to get involved in more premarital sexual activities. In support of the findings of Newcomer and Udry (1987), Booth et al. (1994) suggested that children of divorce

might be modeling the behavior of their divorced families who engage in greater levels of nonmarital sex (Glick & Norton, 1977; cited in Booth et al., 1984). Booth et al. (1984) did not find any gender differences for courtship activities in college aged students from divorced homes. In addition, results demonstrated that courtship activities of young adults of divorced families increase even more if there were higher levels of interparental conflict in the pre- and post-divorce period along with the presence of factors such as the deterioration of parent-child relations and living with a single parent. Consistently, Jacquet and Surra (2001) also found support for the findings of the negative influence of parental divorce on romantic relationships of young adults an influence which is more pronounced for females who are casually dating, which is defined as the partners did not view each other as a couple and may or may not date with others, compared to females from intact homes.

On a similar vein, Long (1987) tested 134 college aged females at the beginning in the 1st year of the university and again 18 months later to examine the impact of parental discord and parental disruption on the number of boyfriends dated, levels of seriousness about current dating relationships and the capability to have a steady boy friend. Results demonstrated that 18 months later college aged daughters of unhappy, disrupted families had a higher decline in frequency of dating and the number of boyfriend dated then did daughters of happy, intact families. In addition, those daughters of unhappy, disrupted families had failed to have a more serious view about their current boyfriend over 18 months compared to daughters of happy, intact families. Such differences might serve as another indicator for troubled opposite sex relations in daughters of divorced homes.

In support of the earlier findings that pointed out the differential impact of parental marital status on the sexual and dating experiences of children, Kinnaird and Gerrard (1986) conducted a study with college-aged women from nondivorced (N=30), divorced (N = 30) and reconstituted (N = 30) families. Family atmosphere was investigated in order to examine its impact on college-aged daughters' sexual and dating experiences. Women from non-divorced families demonstrated more harmony, less conflict and less family disruption compared to others from divorced and reconstituted families. Results exhibited that college-aged daughters coming from homes with high levels of disruption and conflict tended to postpone beginning dating. However, the findings did not show any significant group differences in the amount of dating of females. It was also reported that daughters from disrupted and conflicted homes were becoming sexually active at an earlier age than daughters of intact homes. Results also indicated that there is a negative correlation between the amount of contact with the noncustodial father and the length of the current relationship. Kinnaird and Gerrard (1986) suggested that daughters who have lower levels of contact with their fathers may attempt to get involved in long-term relationships with other males which might be premature, in order to compensate for their feelings of rejection by their father as proposed by Sorosky (1977; cited in Kinnaird & Gerrard, 1986).

On the other hand, there are some research findings that failed to show significant impact of parental marital status on the heterosexual behavior of daughters of divorce. For example, Hainline and Feig (1978) conducted a study with 17 to 23 year-old female college students who experienced early and late parental divorce (before age 5 and ages 5-11 respectively) and with daughters from intact and widowed homes. They found no differences in the heterosexual behavior of

daughters coming from the father-absent and the father-present homes. So, Hainline and Feig (1978) could not replicate the findings of Hetherington's (1972) study. Hainline and Feig (1978) noted that Hetherington's (1972) subjects were of a lower SES while their sample was drawn from a college sample, Hainline and Feig (1978) suggested that mothers of divorced homes, especially if they come from low SES, are under many stressors such as economical and emotional that may have an impact on the developing children. There is also evidence that parents' attitudes toward sexual activities and the actual degree of such heterosexual activities may differ in accordance with their SES (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974; McNeil, 1969; cited in Hainline & Feig, 1978). Hainline and Feig (1978) indicated that such daughters of divorce from homes in which father are absent through divorce might not be very possible to be detected in a sample drawn from college. However, even if one controls for SES, there is evidence that women from divorced families tend to get less education and get married earlier with the less socially and emotionally mature men who experience economic difficulty and receive less social support than are those who marry later and come from intact families (Mueller & Pope, 1977).

Richardson and McCabe (2001) investigated the effects of parental divorce during adolescence, parental conflict and intimacy with parents on young adults' relations with opposite sex. Of 167 college-aged students (with a mean age of 20), 91 students were from intact and 76 students were from divorced families. Findings showed that there were no significant differences between young adults of intact and young adults of divorced families in terms of opposite sex relations. In the examination of the impact of family atmosphere, results also indicated that there were no significant differences between high conflict and low conflict intact groups in terms of their opposite sex relations. In sum, findings demonstrated that the

participants' opposite sex relations were not significantly predicted by parental marital status, interparental conflict and closeness with parents.

In a similar vein, another study carried out by Jones (1993) with one hundred and seventy eight college age females, aging from 18 to 25. Jones (1993) found that parental marital status does not have an impact on the age of first dating experiences or the number of different men dated.

Overall, it appears that there are mixed findings regarding the impact of divorce and high levels of interparental conflict on the dating behavior of adolescents and young adults. Research provides evidence that impact of family disruption and conflict can show themselves in either earlier dating or delayed dating, both of which imply that there are problems in this domain.

Level of Satisfaction with Heterosexual Relations

There is some evidence that one's level of satisfaction with heterosexual relations is related to processes that take place in the family of origin as well as parental marital status. For example, Booth et al. (1984) found that the negative evaluation of the steady dating relationship increases more for those college aged students of divorced families with high interparental conflict following divorce and intact families with high conflict than did those of divorced families who experienced conflict only during divorce or intact families with low conflict. In addition, it was found that those subjects whose relations with their noncustodial father deteriorates in the post-divorce life have more negative evaluations of their steady partners than do those who continued to feel close to their fathers following divorce. It suggested that those subjects who are not satisfied with their dating relationships might be trying to be more cautious in their own relationships in order not to make the same mistakes as their parents.

A similar finding arose in a study by, Amato and Booth (1991) who found that adults from divorced homes have reported low levels of marital happiness compared to adults from intact homes. Results also demonstrated that adults coming from happily married two parent families have higher levels of marital happiness compared to those adults coming from unhappily-married two parent families. In addition, those subjects coming from unhappily-married two parent families and those from divorced homes have reported more problems with their marriages compared to adults coming from happily-married two parent families. Amato and Booth (1991) also suggested that those adults of divorce who have experienced high conflict in the post-divorce life might have more problems in their own marriages. In accordance with this, it was suggested that those subjects of divorced families with low conflict in the post-divorce life might have better adjustment to their own marriages compared to adults with unhappy, intact families. In accordance with this, Amato and Booth (1991) concluded that children who are removed from the dysfunctional environments of their families through divorce may experience few long term effects of parental divorce in their own marriages.

Similarly, investigating the same variables with young adults (aging from 19 to 40) participating in a 12-year long term study, Amato et al. (1995) found that young adults of divorced families with high conflict in pre-divorce life have good feelings about their own marriages and specific aspects of relationships (i.e. affection received, sexual relationship) compared to those who came from intact families with high conflict.

On the other hand, there are some studies that pointed out that how family structure differences on the evaluations of heterosexual relations are not important for females. For example, in a study with engaged couples, Sanders, Halford and

Behrens (1999) examined the amount of satisfaction early in committed relationships. Findings indicated that there were no significant differences between females of divorced families and females of intact families on their reported levels of satisfaction in the current relationship. A similar finding arose in a study by Jones (1993) who could not find the impact of parental divorce on relationship satisfaction for college-aged daughters of divorce. However, it was noted that the assessment of satisfaction with dating relationships was done with single question, and may fail to reveal the differing tones in experiences of romantic relationships of young women from divorced homes.

In summarizing, although there is a general trend in the studies indicating that divorce does not have an additive negative influence on young adults' satisfaction with the romantic relationships, interparental conflict and parent child relations appear as two important factors that have a real impact on those evaluations of young adults.

Management of Conflicts in Heterosexual Relations

Researchers who examined the relationships between interparental conflict and parental divorce and the adjustment of children in the long run are profoundly focused on the heterosexual functioning by using socialization theory. According to socialization theory, children acquire many skills through observing adults. So, children of martially distressed families are not providing necessary skills to help their children maintain long-term satisfying intimate relations. So, children of divorce, compared to children of intact families, may have been repeatedly exposed to models of maladaptive conflict management behavior before and after parental divorce, which are adversely affecting their skills in forming long standing intimate relations in adulthood (Amato & DeBoer, 2001). It can also be reasonable to state

that witnessing parental conflict makes children develop schemas for forming interpersonal relations and management of conflicts in interpersonal relations that persist into young adulthood and become active when they have conflicts in their romantic relationships (Grych, 1998).

Similarly, Booth et al. (1984) showed that both young adults from intact families with high conflict and young adults from divorced families with post-divorce conflict have the same tendency to threaten to break up with their partners when they are dissatisfied with their relationships.

Jacquet and Surra (2001) also reported that females from divorced homes had higher degrees of conflict and negativity in their relationships when compared to men. It was suggested that since females from divorced homes witnessed high levels of interparental conflict, they might be more ready to expect that conflict and negativity are parts of a relationship than those from intact homes. Similarly, other studies that examined the long term influences of interparental conflict and young adults' intimate relations have shown that early in committed relationships such as in engagements, especially if young women come from divorced families, they use higher levels of negativity in communication behavior and engaged in higher levels of conflict with partners despite the fact that they did not differ in their levels of self reported satisfaction in their current steady relationship when compared to females from intact families (Sanders et al., 1999). Sanders et al. (1999) suggested that the degree of negativity of communication in engaged couples in which females come from divorced families might not necessarily result from female's negative communication patterns. Women from divorced families might be choosing partners who are inclined to have more negative communication patterns. Moreover, women of divorced families who are exposed to a high degree of negative communication

patterns in their family of origin may have the tendency to view negative communication patterns as normal in their relations, which may lead them to be attracted to such men.

Heterosexual Trust

There are some studies that indicated heterosexual trust as mediating the effects of parental divorce on daughters' relationships. In a study that investigated the impact of parental divorce on the heterosexual trust of daughters, Jones (1993) found a significant difference in dyadic trust between females of divorced homes and females of intact homes which is assessed by the Dyadic Trust Scale in the expected direction (Larzelere & Huston, 1980). Findings showed that the effect of parental marital status on heterosexual trust of daughters only approached significance when measured by the Heterosexual Trust Scale (Gurtman, 1979; cited in Jones, 1993). Jones (1993) suggested that since subjects reported their feelings of trust or distrust in a current or imagined relationship with partners in the Dyadic Trust Scale, it might be a more direct assessment of female's feelings toward men than is measured by the Heterosexual Trust Scale. In order to test the similar variables, Southworth and Schwartz (1987) also employed the Heterosexual Trust Scale (Gurtman, 1979; cited in Southworth & Schwartz, 1987) and failed to show a significant difference between young women of divorced families and intact families. However, closer look at the data revealed that young adult women of divorce who do not perceive love and acceptance from their fathers have less trust in men than those from daughters of divorced homes who perceived love and acceptance from their fathers. This kind of association was not found for young adult women of intact families.

In a study with college students, Franklin et al. (1990) also found that subjects of divorced families did not differ from subjects of intact families in the

degree of their trust in their current dating partners and their beliefs about the success of their possible future romantic relationships.

To support the view of differential impact of family structure on the heterosexual trust of females, Jacquet and Surra (2001) conducted a study with never married young couples aging from 19 to 35 years old, and found significantly lower levels of feelings of love and trust for men reported by females of divorced homes compared to those females of intact homes. It was suggested that different socialization practices of females and males with respect to the relationships may sensitize women to the fragility of relations. So, those women of divorced homes do not have blind trust to their romantic relationships, but trust hesitantly.

Similarly, Wallerstein and Corbin (1989) reported that as daughter of divorce observes the mother with whom she identified break up with father; daughter internalizes a sense of distrust in heterosexual partners and in romantic relationships.

In sum, literature suggests that despite some researchers found no difference in heterosexual trust between daughters of divorced and non-divorced families; some researchers indicated that young women's sense of heterosexual trust is influenced by their interactions with both parents after divorce.

Marital Attitudes

Several researchers have attempted to identify other factors that indicate adjustment to parental divorce, such as marital attitudes that may only become apparent when children of divorce reach early adulthood (Amato, 1988).

Wallerstein and Corbin (1989) reported that, by the 10-year mark, older adolescent daughters of divorce, who were between 19 and 29 years of age, were found to be influenced by and identified with the difficulties of their mothers after divorce. So, although they had the desire to get married and have their own child,

they were also anxious of marriage due to their fear of repeating their mothers' unhappiness and being abandoned by their husbands. Similarly, Kaslow and Schwartz (1984, 1985; cited in Kaslow & Schwartz, 1987) reported that adolescents and young adult subjects whose parents were divorced when they were preadolescent or older expressed that they no longer have a very romantic view of marriage but view it seriously and report having difficulties in making commitments to marriage due to their fears of going through a divorce of their own. Yet, because those studies did not include subjects from intact families as a comparison group, they did not provide any information whether those fears of intimacy and anxiety of abandonment are the outcome of parental divorce and not common anxiety provoking themes for most adolescents (Franklin et al., 1990).

In Amato's (1988) study few significant differences were detected among subjects from intact and divorced families in marital attitudes. The data of a national survey of subjects from Australia between the ages of 18 to 34 who come from divorced, widowed or intact homes was examined. The examination of items on the measurements revealed that adult children of divorce have less optimistic views of marriage than did other participants. The results indicated that although many of adult children of divorce value marriage, they are also aware of its failures due to their coming from a divorced family. However, Amato (1988) concluded that it is not possible to be very clear about the link between subjects' early attitudes and later behavior.

There are some available studies that address the question of the relation between parental conflict and parental marital status and subjects' attitudes toward marriage. In one of those studies, Franklin et al. (1990) concluded that college-aged subjects of divorced families differed from subjects from intact families on several

measures of interpersonal trust which are specifically related to marriage and prospective spouses. Franklin et al. (1990) suggested that by not having a generalized negative belief about the world and people, but narrowing the detrimental influence of parental divorce to the most relevant life event - marriage, those college aged subjects of divorce might have found an adaptive way to deal with that negative life experience. It was also explained that subjects from divorced homes seemed to be aware of the vulnerability of the marriages regardless of their view of themselves as good persons. Findings also revealed that children of divorce who experienced high levels of pre- and post-divorce interparental conflict have less optimism about their future marriages. Consistently, Long (1987) tested 134 college aged females and found that college-aged daughters of unhappy, divorced families have greater negative attitudes toward marriage compared with daughters of happy, intact families.

In an earlier study, Wallin (1954; cited in Jennings et al., (1991) examined the relations between family structure, parental conflict and gender on subjects' attitudes toward marriage. Subjects from intact homes were divided into groups in accordance with the perception of their parents' marital happiness as the following: very happy, happy, and average to unhappy. Subjects of divorced homes were assumed to perceive their parents' marriage as unhappy. It was found that the mean of the males from divorced parents had the lowest and the mean of the males from "very happy" intact families had the highest among the attitudes toward marriage scores. On the other hand, for females, there were not any significant differences on means of attitudes toward marriage scores between females of divorced families and females of "very happy" or "happy" intact families. The mean of females from "average to very unhappy" intact homes was the lowest on the attitudes toward

marriage scores. Similarly, Long (1983; cited in Jennings et al., 1991) did not make grouping for unmarried women from divorced families based on the assumption that if their families were happy they would not be divorced. But, women from intact families divided into two as coming from “unhappy” families and coming from “happy” families. Results again indicated that women whose families are “unhappily” married had viewed marriage more negatively than did women from “happily” married or divorced families. In another study, Landis (1960; cited in Jennings et al., 1991) investigated the effects of parental happiness before divorce on premarital attitudes toward marriage. The sample of 183 college-aged subjects coming from divorced homes was asked to rate their perception of their families’ happiness before divorce. Although there were no significant differences between the groups, individuals from “unhappy” group were found to have the tendency to have more negative attitudes toward marriage than did those from “happy” group.

Similarly, Jennings et al., (1991) examined the association between family structure, interparental conflict, and gender on college-aged subjects’ premarital attitudes toward marriage. The sample was 340 college students, 18 to 22 years old, consisted of 149 males and 191 females, 272 from intact and 67 from divorced families. Students in intact and separated groups were given different instruments to assess perceived parental conflict based on the expectation that students of separated families would have different perceptions about the parental conflict pre- and post-divorce as well as during divorce. Findings revealed that college aged subjects of high conflictual families did have less favorable attitudes toward marriage than college aged subjects of low conflictual families, regardless of parental marital status. Subjects of divorced homes also reported less favorable attitudes toward marriage than those from intact homes. Results indicated no significant differences in

attitudes toward marriage between young adults from post-divorce interparental conflict group, pre-divorce interparental conflict group and and/or conflict during the separation group. In terms of gender, results demonstrated that boys did have less favorable attitudes toward marriage compared with females.

There are some findings that have been inconsistent with regard to impact of parental marital status on the attitudes of young adults of toward marriage. In a study with mixed gender college age students, Greenberg and Nay (1982) found no significant differences in the attitudes and/or behaviors toward marriage between college students who come from divorced families, intact and widowed homes.

In an attempt to integrate the attitudes toward marriage, it seems that since daughters of divorced families are exposed to the bad image of marriage, they held more negative views of marriage than did daughters of intact families. However, high interparental conflict regardless of family structure is also significant in producing negative attitudes towards marriage (Long, 1987; Jennings et al., 1991).

Statement of the Problem

The studies described in the review of the literature provide evidence that parents' marital status as well as the level of interparental conflict are factors that have an impact on the heterosexual functioning of females. More specifically, females' perception of interparental conflict is a critical factor that influences their romantic relations. Since there are many studies that confirmed that late adolescence/young adulthood is the developmental period during which major decisions about heterosexual trust, dating and marriage are usually made, college aged females are important to study. The present study is the first attempt for investigating the heterosexual functioning of young women coming from

divorced/separated and the intact families as well as from divorced/separated, high conflictual intact and low conflictual intact families in the Turkish culture.

Based on the review of literature on the impact of parental divorce, hypotheses of the present study were as follows:

- 1- Young women from divorced/separated families were expected to have lower levels of heterosexual trust and higher levels of negative marital attitudes than women from intact families.
- 2- Daughters from intact families were separated into two groups based on the frequency of interparental conflict; as high levels of interparental conflict and low levels of interparental conflict. Daughters from divorced/separated families and intact families with high levels of interparental conflict were expected to report significantly lower levels of heterosexual trust and higher levels of negative marital attitudes compared to daughters from intact families with low levels of interparental conflict.

In addition to the above stated hypotheses, exploratory analyses were conducted to examine trends among

- a) Family functioning (level of interparental conflict and family structure) and dating experiences.
- b) Dating experiences and post-divorce variable.

METHOD

Subjects

The sample for the study consisted of students who were taking introductory psychology courses at Boğaziçi University who volunteered to participate in exchange of one credit for the courses. Three hundred and thirty one women participated in the study with a mean age of 20.13 (SD = 1.54, range = 17- 32).

During the period in which the questionnaires were given, 88.5 % of subjects (N = 293) reported as coming from intact families and 11.5 % of subjects (N = 38) reported as coming from divorced/separated families. Of the 331 subjects 10 % (N = 33) reported that their parents separated and 8.5 % (N = 28) reported that their parents had divorced. Of divorced/separated group, 4 participants' parents were divorced but then remarried each other again. One participant's parents separated but got back together again. Another participant's parents separated but continued to live in the same house, and lastly one participant's parents were reported as divorced but continued to live in the same house. The above-mentioned 7 subjects were included in divorced/separated group because they had lived through the experience of parental divorce/separation. In addition, since there are a very limited number of subjects in divorced and separated group, subjects from divorced and separated families were combined in order to obtain a large enough sample size that can be used in the analyses.

Two individuals from intact group who reported being attracted to both males and females were eliminated from the sample since only the heterosexual functioning of young women was examined in the present study. Also, the small number of individuals who lost their parents by death (N = 19 from intact group), and those who experienced both parental death and divorce/separation (N = 1 from

divorce/separation group) were eliminated from divorced/separated group. It was decided that parental loss experience may significantly change the experience of living in and intact or divorced/separated family, thus it was decided to eliminate those students from the analyses. There was one more student in divorce group who experienced both parental death and divorce. But since the student had lost his father at the age of 22 and experienced divorce as an infant, the scores of this student were included in the analysis with the idea of seeing the pure effect of divorce on the student's adjustment to heterosexual functioning. The final sample comprised 309 females with a mean age of 20.12, a standard deviation of 1.541 and a range of 17 to 32. Of the 309 subjects, 88.02 % (N = 272) reported to be coming from intact and 11.98 % (N = 37) reported to be coming from divorced/separated families. Secondly, since 4 of these subjects who were in divorced/separated group were included both in the pilot study and the original study, the scores of Children's Perception of the Interparental Conflict Scale (CPIC) for these subjects were excluded from the analyses as a slightly modified version of the CPIC had been administered to students in the pilot study. However, the rest of the information obtained from these 4 students was used in the remaining analyses.

The frequency subscale score of CPIC was used to group the 272 participants from intact families as coming from "high conflict intact family" and "low conflict intact family". The upper and lower quartiles were used to identify whether subjects come from high or low conflict intact families. Young women scoring 20 or above in the CPIC frequency subscale were grouped as coming from "high conflict intact family" (N = 39) and others who scored 7 or below were grouped as "low conflict intact family" (N = 34).

Since the main aim of the study was to compare the heterosexual functioning of daughters coming from divorced/separated and highly conflictual families with those from low levels of interparental conflict, some of the analyses were conducted on only 110 young women who were classified as follows: 14.3 % (N = 39) high conflictual intact group, 12.5% (N=34) low conflictual intact group and 12 % (N = 37) divorced/separated group.

Instruments

Heterosexual Trust Scale (HETTRUST)

Heterosexual trust is measured using the Heterosexual Trust Scale developed by Gurtman (1979; cited in Jones, 1993). The HETTRUST consist of 18 items rated on a 5-point scale in the original form. For clarity, subjects were asked to rate the items on a 4-point scale (1 = *Disagree*, 2 = *Somewhat Agree*, 3 = *Almost Agree*, 4 = *Strongly Agree*) in the present study. Participants who received high scores on the HETTRUST are presumed to have more heterosexual mistrust. The questions are designed to assess subjects' ratings of the general trustworthiness of men in heterosexual relations. The internal consistency was indicated as .88 by Gurtman (1979; cited in Southworth & Schwartz, 1987). Southworth and Schwartz (1987) found internal consistency to be .90 with a group of college-aged daughters of divorced families. In the examination of validity, Gurtman (1979; cited in Southworth & Schwartz, 1987) found that the scores on the HETTRUST have positive correlations with Rotter's (1971) Interpersonal Trust Scale and negative correlations with Schwartz and Zuroff's (1979) Love Inconsistency Scale and with ratings of father's preference for male or female siblings.

For this study, 3 psychologists fluent in both languages translated the HETTRUST from English into Turkish independently. In order to ensure translation

equivalence, the three translations were compared and the researcher and her supervisor identified similarities and discrepancies. It was seen that there were not many discrepant items. With this procedure, the translated items best representing the original items were selected. Additionally, a Turkish language teacher reviewed the final form. Then, 3 different psychologists translated HETTRUST back from Turkish into English independently. Finally, in order to determine the applicability of the Turkish version of the HETTRUST, a pilot study on its reliability was conducted. The Turkish version of the HETTRUST was administered to 48 females, 4 participants from divorced/separated families and 44 participants from intact families, at Boğaziçi University. Results demonstrated that the total scale had an alpha coefficient of .88 for those 48 participants. When the instrument was delivered to the full sample of 309 subjects of this present study, 303 subjects responded and the total scale had an alpha coefficient of .86. This finding demonstrated that the Turkish version of the HETTRUST appears to be a reliable measure. The HETTRUST is presented in Appendix A.

Marital Attitudes Scale (MAS)

The MAS was constructed by Braaten and Rosén (1998). It is a self-report instrument with 23 items. As in the original form, subjects are asked to rate each item on a 4-point scale (1 = *Disagree*, 2 = *Somewhat Agree*, 3 = *Almost Agree*, 4 = *Strongly Agree*). Since the rating of choices for each item was reversed in the original form (Braaten & Rosén, 1998), while participants who have high scores are presumed to have more positive attitudes toward marriage in the original form, in the present study, participants who received high scores on the MAS are presumed to have more negative attitudes toward marriage. In responding to the items, subjects indicated the extent to which they agree or disagree with each statement about

marriage. Each item describes the many different ways that people can perceive marriage. Subjects are asked to rate their feelings in relation to their current or future marriages in six of the items, while rating the remaining items by considering general concepts about marriage. Braaten and Rosén (1998) found that the internal consistency coefficient of the MAS was .82. Scores on the scale were significantly correlated with the Relationship Beliefs Inventory (RBI) and the Attitudes toward Marriage Scale (ATM). In addition, in the examination of the construct validity of the scale, correlations among MAS, RBI, and the ATM and the Marlowe-Crown Social Desirability Scale were observed. So, it was discovered that the MAS has a high degree of internal consistency. Bassett, Braaten and Rosén (1999) also reported the test-retest reliability as .85 over a 6-week period that was conducted by college aged student (with a mean age 19.85). When another analysis was run to investigate the test-retest reliability separately with those young men and young women, it appeared as .87 for girls and .81 for boys

For the purpose of the pilot study, the same procedures that were carried out for other instruments of the present study were repeated for the MAS with 48 participants. Results demonstrated that the total scale had an alpha coefficient of .82. When the instrument was delivered to the full sample of 309 subjects, 301 subjects responded to the questions and the total scale had an alpha coefficient of .87. The MAS is presented in Appendix B.

Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict Scale (CPCI)

The scale was originally developed by Grych, Seid, and Fincham (1992) to assess the school-aged children's perception of the 10 dimensions of the interparental conflict. These dimensions were frequency, intensity, resolution, threat, coping

efficacy, content (child related, vs. non-child related), triangulation, stability, and self-blame.

The original form consists of 49 items to be completed by children. Grych et al. (1992) conducted factor analysis on the CPIC with two independent groups of 222 fourth and fifth grade children. A three-factor solution was found. The first factor was named "Conflict Properties" (frequency, intensity, and resolution subscales), and the second factor was named "Perceived Threat" (threat and coping efficacy subscales), and lastly the third factor was named as "Self-Blame" (content and self-blame). Grych et al. (1992) reported good internal consistency across samples for each scale ranging between .78 and .90. The CPIC was also found to have good test-retest reliability over a 2-week period with Pearson correlations of .70 for the Conflict Properties, .68 for the Threat, and .76 for the Self-Blame scale. The validity of the Conflict Properties scale was found by significant associations with parent reported measures of interparental conflict (O'Leary-Porter Scale, 1980; Conflict Tactics scale; cited in Grych et al., 1992). On the other hand, strong associations with child reported conflict vignettes assessed 2 months later verified the validity of the threat and self-blame subscales. The CPIC was found to have good concurrent and criterion validity by Grych et al. (1992). In the present study, upon the authors' recommendations (personal communication) latest version of CPIC with 48 items was used. In the recent version of the CPIC, the items of the stability subscale, that is, items 13, 23, 32 and 49 were omitted, and three rewritten items were added to the triangulation subscale. Grych et al. (1992) reported that these two dimensions, stability and triangulation, were not found to be loaded consistently on a particular factor. In addition, the stability subscale was found to have the lowest reliability and thus was dropped from the latest version of the scale.

A reliability and validity study with 232 children from among students of 9 to 12 years was conducted by Öz (1999). Consistent with the results of Grych et al. (1992), Öz (1999) found the presence of three factors labeled as Conflict Properties, Threat and Self- Blame. The alpha coefficient for the total scale was .85. It is reported as having good internal consistency for each scale and the coefficients for Conflict Properties, Threat and Self- Blame were .84, .78 and .77, respectively. The Turkish version of the CPIC was also found to have good test-retest reliability over a 2-week period with $r = .88$ for the Conflict Properties, $r = .75$ for the Threat, and $r = .77$ for the Self-Blame scale.

Bickham and Fiese (1997) conducted a study with 215 students from undergraduate students aging from 17 to 21 years to see if the CPIC was also applicable with those age groups. Consistent with the results of Grych et al. (1992), as the outcome of the factor analysis, Bickham and Fiese (1997) also found the presence of the three-factor structure labeled as Conflict Properties, Threat and Self-Blame. Differing from the findings of Grych et al. (1992), the triangulation and stability subscales of CPIC were found loading on the Conflict Properties factor by Bickham and Fiese (1997). The CPIC was found to have good internal consistency computed according to Cronbach Alpha values ranging from .85 to .95 across the three-factors. Bickham and Fiese (1997) also reported good test-retest reliability over a 2-week period ranging from .81 to .95 across three factors for the CPIC.

For the purpose of the pilot study, the same procedures that were carried out for the other instruments of the present study were repeated for the CPIC. Since Öz (1999) utilized CPIC to conduct a study with children aged between 9 and 12 years, most of the words of the original form were changed or items were omitted because the language of the questions was found to be difficult to understand for Turkish

children of this age group. The final form that was employed in Öz's (1999) study was reduced to 10 items. Since the present study was conducted with late adolescents/young adults, the original form of CPIC with the latest changes that were chosen to be used and factor analysis was repeated as it is presented in the results section. The first version of CPIC was used in the pilot study since the authors made the latest version of the CPIC available to the researcher after the completion of the pilot study. For the original form of CPIC used in the pilot study (N= 48), results demonstrated that the alpha coefficients were .83 for frequency subscale, .84 for intensity subscale, .88 for resolution subscale, .51 for content subscale, .61 for perceived Threat subscale, .62 for coping efficacy subscale, .60 for self-blame subscale, .46 for triangulation subscale, and .37 for stability subscale. When the latest version of CPIC was distributed to the full sample of 309 of the present study, only 289 subjects responded to the questions and the alpha coefficients were .89 for frequency subscale, .87 for intensity subscale, .88 for resolution subscale, .63 for content subscale, .79 for perceived threat subscale, .52 for coping efficacy subscale, .38 for self-blame subscale and .81 for triangulation subscale. It is important to note that since most of young women gave more or less the same answers for the items of the self-blame scale, the decline in the variance resulted in a very low alpha coefficient for this subscale. These findings demonstrated that the Turkish version of the CPIC appears to be a reliable measure. In the present study, the latest version of the CPIC with 48 items was used as it is presented in Appendix C.

Personal History Questionnaire

Demographic information is collected from subjects via a questionnaire developed for this study. The questionnaire included information on subjects' age, marital status, current living situation, birthplace, parental educational levels, and

experience of parental loss, parental marital status, and age at the time of parental divorce/separation, custody arrangements, and relations with parents, sexual orientation, dating history, age at first date, current dating status, level of satisfaction in current dating relationship, general length of dating relationships, number of dating relationships lasting longer than two months. The questionnaire is presented in Appendix D.

Procedure

The study was announced to the students who were attending an Introductory Psychology course at Boğaziçi University. Volunteer subjects were informed that they would get extra one credit if they took part in the study. The booklet that the respondents were asked to fill out consisted of the Heterosexual Trust Scale, the Marital Attitudes Scale and the Personal History Questionnaire, respectively. The presentation of the questionnaires was randomized in order to eliminate the sequence effect. Given that the Personal History Questionnaire had to come last in the sequence of the scales, the other two scales (the Marital Attitudes and the Heterosexual Trust) were placed in alternate positions in the presentation of the booklet.

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics of the Study Variables

In the first section of this chapter, the frequency and percentage distributions, the means and standard deviations of demographic variables (age, marital status, living arrangements, origin, parents' level of education, parental loss and age at loss) for the two major groups; Group-1 (divorced/ separated group N = 37 vs. intact group N = 272) and Group-2 (divorced/separated group N = 37 vs. high conflict

intact group N = 39 vs. low conflict intact group N = 34) are presented below in Table 1.

Given that most of the analyses were run for Group 2, group differences on the reported demographic variables were analyzed for Group 2 only.

The mean age of the groups were as follows: in Group 2; high conflictual intact group mean = 19.8 (SD = 1.19), low conflictual intact group mean = 20.3 (SD = 1.92) and separated/divorced group mean = 20.7 (SD = 1.52). ANOVA was run to see if there were group differences in terms of age of participants in these three groups. The overall ANOVA was significant $F(2,107) = 3.27, p < .05$. The Tukey post hoc test revealed that subjects in high conflictual intact group (M = 19.82) were significantly younger than subjects in divorced/separated group (M = 20.73).

In order to test whether there were significant differences between subjects from three groups in terms of their place of origin; subjects were coded for being from İstanbul /other metropolitan cities, non-metropolitan cities and town/village. A 3x3 chi-square analysis showed that three groups were different from each other with respect to their place of origin, $X^2(4) = 11.48, p < .05$. More specifically, the distribution among three groups was as follows: 78.4 % of subjects from divorced/separated group and 69.2 % of subjects from high conflictual intact group reported İstanbul /other metropolitan cities as the place of origin while only 44.1 % of subjects from low conflictual intact group reported İstanbul/ other metropolitan cities as their place of origin. Interestingly, 35.3 % of subjects from low conflictual intact group reported non-metropolitan cities as the place of origin while only 25.6 % of subjects from high conflictual intact group and 16.2 % of subjects of divorced/separated group reported coming from a non-metropolitan city of Turkey. It

is also interesting to report that 20.6 % of subjects from low conflict intact group reported their place of origin as either a town/ a village in Turkey. Only 5.4 % of subjects from divorced/separated group and 5.1 % of subjects of high conflictual intact group reported coming from a town/ village.



Table 1.

Descriptive Statistics of Demographic Variables

		Divorced / separated (n=37)	Intact (n=272)	Divorced / separated (n=37)	High conflict Intact (n=38)	Low conflict Intact (n=34)
Age of subjects	Mean	20,70	20,04	20,73	19,82	20,32
	Std. Dev.	1,52	1,53	1,52	1,19	1,92
Marital Status	Single	36 - 97,3%	264 - 97,1%	36 - 97,3%	39 - 100%	32 - 94,1%
	Engaged	1 - 2,7%	4 - 1,5 %	1 - 2,7%	0	1 - 2,9%
	Married	0	4 - 1,5%	0	0	1 - 2,9%
Living arrangement	With Family	3 - 8,1%	83 - 30,5%	3 - 8,1%	12 - 30,8%	9 - 26,5%
	With mother	13 - 36,1%	2 - 7%	13 - 35,1%	1 - 2,6%	0
	With father	2 - 5,4%	2 - 7%	2 - 5,4%	1 - 2,6%	0
	Dormitory	10 - 27%	129 - 47,4%	10 - 27%	19 - 48,7%	18 - 52,9%
	Alone	2 - 5,4%	4 - 1,5%	2 - 5,4%	0	1 - 2,9%
	With friends	6 - 16,2%	45 - 16,5%	6 - 16,2%	6 - 15,4%	4 - 11,8%
	With sibling	1 - 2,7%	3 - 1,1%	1 - 2,7%	0	1 - 2,9%
	With husband	0	4 - 1,5%	0	0	1 - 2,9%
Origin	Metropolitan	14 - 37,8%	61 - 22,4%	14 - 37,8%	11 - 28,2%	5 - 14,7%
	City	6 - 16,2%	92 - 33,8%	6 - 16,2%	10 - 25,6%	12 - 35,3%
	Town	1 - 2,7%	26 - 9,6%	1 - 2,7%	2 - 5,1%	7 - 20,6%
	Village	1 - 2,7%	1 - 0,4%	1 - 2,7%	0	0
	Foreign country	0	1 - 0,4%	0	0	0
	Istanbul	15 - 40,5%	91 - 33,5%	15 - 40,5%	18 - 41,0%	10 - 29,4%
Maternal educ	Illiterate	0	2 - 0,7%	0	1 - 2,6%	0
	Only literate	0	5 - 1,8%	0	0	0
	Element. grad.	5 - 13,5%	66 - 24,3%	5 - 13,5%	14 - 35,9%	9 - 26,5%
	Second. grad.	0	21 - 7,7%	0	4 - 10,3%	1 - 2,9%
	High sch. grad.	13 - 35,1%	89 - 32,7%	13 - 35,1%	11 - 28,2%	11 - 32,4%
	Univ graduate	16 - 43,2%	78 - 27,9%	16 - 43,2%	7 - 17,9%	11 - 32,4%
	MA or Ph.D.	3 - 8,1%	13 - 4,8%	3 - 8,1%	2 - 5,1%	2 - 5,9%
Paternal educ	Illiterate	0	0	0	0	0
	Only literate	0	3 - 1,1%	0	0	0
	Element. grad.	3 - 8,1%	44 - 16,2%	3 - 8,1%	7 - 17,9%	6 - 17,6%
	Second. grad.	3 - 8,1%	17 - 6,3%	3 - 8,1%	3 - 7,7%	1 - 2,9%
	High sch. grad.	10 - 27,0%	58 - 21,3%	10 - 27,0%	12 - 30,8%	9 - 26,5%
	Univ graduate	20 - 54,1%	125 - 46,0%	20 - 54,1%	14 - 35,9%	16 - 47,1%
	MA or Ph.D.	1 - 2,7%	25 - 9,2%	1 - 2,7%	3 - 7,7%	2 - 5,9%
Parental loss	No, both alive	36 - 97,3%	272 - 100%	36 - 97,3%	38 - 100%	34 - 100%
	Yes, maternal	0	0	0	0	0
	Yes, paternal	1 - 2,7%	0	1 - 2,7%	0	0
	Yes, both	0	0	0	0	0
Age at loss	Maternal (mean)	0	0	0	0	0
	Maternal (SD)	0	0	0	0	0
	Paternal (mean)	22	0	22	0	0
	Paternal (SD)	0	0	0	0	0

The distribution of maternal and paternal education variables is listed in Table 1. Both variables were converted into completed years of education and analyzed for the group differences among subjects from divorced/separated, high conflict intact and low conflict intact groups.

The mean of years of education completed by mothers of subjects within three groups were as follows: The mean of years of education completed by mothers in high conflict intact group were 9.28 (SD = 4.38), in low conflict intact group was 10.97 (SD = 4.20) and lastly in divorced/separated group were 12.40 (SD = 3.62). The ANOVA revealed a significant difference among three groups with respect to the mean of years of education completed by mothers, $F(2,107) = 5.58, p = .005$. The Tukey post hoc test revealed that the mean of years of completed education for mothers of high conflict intact group ($M = 9.28$) was significantly lower than those in divorced/separated group ($M = 12.40$)

Whereas the mean of maternal years of completed education showed significant differences for three groups, the mean of paternal years of completed education did not show significant differences among three groups.

The mean of years of paternal years of education completed were as follows: the mean of paternal years of education completed within high conflict intact group was 11.69 (SD = 4.16), the mean of paternal years of education competed in low conflict intact group was 12.09 (SD = 3.94), the mean of years of paternal education completed for divorced/separated group was 12.59 (SD = 3.32).

Table 1 presents the detailed distribution of the participants' living arrangements. In order to see whether there were significant differences between the groups, a (3x3) chi-square analysis was conducted. In order to reduce the number of cells in the chi-square analysis, further grouping among the living arrangement

variable was done. The first group included those subjects living with intact family or custodial parent. The second group consisted of those subjects living in dormitories and lastly the third group included subjects living alone, with friends, with older sibling or with husband. While the 3x3 chi-square analysis did not reveal significant differences among three groups in terms of their current living arrangement, $X^2(4) = 6.43, p > .05$, the distribution reflected some variance that may be of importance to consider such as while 48.6 % of subjects in divorced/separated group reported living with their custodial parent, only 26.5 % of subjects in low conflict intact group reported living with their families. Subjects in high conflict intact group came between these two groups in reporting 35.9 % of them living with their families. In terms of living in dormitories, again some differences were detected. While only 27 % of subjects in divorced/separated group reported living in dormitories, the percentages for those subjects in high conflict group and low conflict group respectively were 48.7 % and 52.9 %. Lastly, 24.3 % of subjects in divorced/separated group reported living either alone, with friends, with older sibling or with husband while the percentages were lower for high conflict intact group, low conflict intact group and were 15.4 %, and 20.6 % respectively

As can be seen in Table 1, the marital status of subjects of the Group 1 and Group 2 did not vary widely. And, 3x3 chi-square analysis did not reveal any significant differences among three groups in terms of their marital status, $X^2(4) = 3.40, p > .05$.

The same descriptive statistics were also calculated for subjects' romantic relationship experiences (sexual orientation, dating history, current dating status, age at first date, length of current dating relationship, level of satisfaction about current date, general length of dating relationships, and the number of romantic relations

lasting longer than 2 months) and were presented below in Table 2. More detailed analysis about the examination of the group differences for dating experiences will be reported in the *Further Analyses* subsection. Thus, only broad differences are brought to attention at this time, mainly the distribution of having had a romantic relationship among three groups. It is evident that while age at first date did not differ among groups, starting to date or delaying dating seems to differ among groups. 94.6 % of subjects in divorced/separated, 79.5 % of subjects in high conflict and low conflict intact group reported having had romantic relationships. Also of significance, the reported mean of age at first date appears to be around 16 for three groups.

It is of significance to note that no subject endorsed dissatisfaction and indecisiveness choice regarding their current dating relationship item in low conflict intact group. However, subjects in divorced/separated and high conflictual intact group did report indecisiveness and dissatisfaction regarding their current dating relationships.

Table 2.

Descriptive Statistics of Dating Experiences

		Divorced / separated (n = 37)	Intact (n = 272)	Divorced / separated (n = 37)	High conflict Intact (n = 39)	Low conflict Intact (n = 34)
Sexual orientation	Attracted to Opp. Sex	36 - 97,3%	270 - 99,3%	36 - 97,3%	38 - 97,4%	34 - 100%
	Unsure of Sex. Orient.	1 - 2,7%	2 - 0,7%	1 - 2,7%	1 - 2,6%	0
Dating history	Yes	35 - 94,8%	205 - 76,4%	35 - 94,6%	31 - 79,5%	27 - 79,5
	No	2 - 5,4%	67 - 24,6%	2 - 5,4%	8 - 20,5%	7 - 20,6%
Age at first date	Mean	16,3	16,21	16,3	16	16,52
	Std. Dev.	1,96	2,01	1,96	2,30	2,14
Current dating status	Yes	23 - 62,2%	132 - 48,9%	23 - 62,2%	21 - 53,8%	17 - 51,5%
	No	14 - 37,8%	138 - 51,1%	14 - 37,8%	18 - 46,2%	18 - 48,5%
How long have you been dating	Less than a month	2 - 8,7%	11 - 8,3%	2 - 8,7%	1 - 4,8%	3 - 17,6%
	1 - 3 months	2 - 8,7%	18 - 13,8%	2 - 8,7%	6 - 28,8%	1 - 6,9%
	3 - 6 months	5 - 21,7%	21 - 15,9%	5 - 21,7%	1 - 4,8%	2 - 11,8%
	9 - 12 months	4 - 17,4%	11 - 8,3%	4 - 17,4%	1 - 4,8%	3 - 17,6%
	Longer than a year	5 - 21,7%	32 - 24,2%	5 - 21,7%	7 - 33,3%	3 - 17,6%
	Longer than 2 years	5 - 21,7%	39 - 29,5%	5 - 21,7%	5 - 23,8%	5 - 29,4%
	Not satisfied	2 - 8,7%	2 - 1,6%	2 - 8,7%	1 - 4,8%	
Level of satisfaction in a current dating relation	Indecisiveness	6 - 26,1%	28 - 21,2%	6 - 26,1%	7 - 33,3%	
	Quite a lot	9 - 39,1%	53 - 40,2%	9 - 39,1%	5 - 23,8%	4 - 23,5%
	Extreme satisfaction	6 - 26,1%	49 - 37,1%	5 - 26,1%	8 - 38,1%	13 - 76,5%
General length of romantic relations	Lasts a year or longer	19 - 52,8%	130 - 47,8%	19 - 52,8%	19 - 48,7%	19 - 55,9%
	Lasts b/w 3 - 6 months	10 - 27,8%	48 - 18,9%	10 - 27,8%	7 - 17,9%	5 - 14,7%
	Lasts less than 2 months	6 - 16,7%	31 - 11,4%	6 - 16,7%	6 - 15,4%	3 - 8,8%
	Never had a Romantic Rel.	1 - 2,8%	65 - 23,9%	1 - 2,8%	7 - 17,9%	7 - 20,6%
Number of dating relations lasting longer than 2 months	Mean	2,33	1,84	2,33	1,94	1,93
	Std. Dev.	1,79	1,38	1,79	1,83	0,92

Lastly, the same descriptive statistics were also calculated for divorce/separation variables (age at parental divorce/separation, relations with the custodial parent within two years after disruption, relations with the custodial parent now, frequency of the current contact with the non-custodial parent, quality of the current relations with the noncustodial parent, age at the parental remarriage, divorced/separated parents' post-divorce relations) summarized below in Table 3.

As the detailed analyses about the examination of the differences for divorce variables will be reported in the *Further Analyses* subsection, only the summaries of the data about divorce variables are brought to attention below.

Subjects were coded for being in preschool years (aged from 0 to 6), middle childhood (aged from 7 to 14) or late adolescence group (aged from 15 to 20) during the time of parental divorce/separation. More specifically, 27 % of daughters (N = 10) were in the preschool group, 32.4 % of daughters (N = 12) were in the middle childhood and 40.5 % of daughters (N = 15) were in the late adolescent group at the time of parental divorce/separation.

Regarding the remarriage of parents, the mean of age of daughters (N = 7) at the time of their mothers' remarriage was 15.6 (SD = 7.74) whereas the mean of age of daughters (N = 12) at the time of their fathers' remarriage was 12.4 (SD = 6.73).

As can be seen in Table 3, in post-divorce period, in terms of parental custody after divorce/separation, 75.7 % of subjects (N = 28) reported living with their mothers whereas only 2.7 % of subjects (N = 1) were living with their fathers. It is also of importance that a high percentage of subjects reported "good and close" relationships with their mothers (custodial parent) within the first 2-years (70.6 %) and 67.6 % reported currently having "good and close" relationships with their mothers. The reports of having "bad relations" at these two time frames were restricted to 2.94 % (N = 1).

In terms of relations with noncustodial parent, which was ordinarily the fathers, showed an interesting picture-while 31.3 % of daughters reported having "weekly contact" with their fathers and another 18.8 % having "once a month contact" while nearly 50 % of subjects reported having "very little" or "no contact" with their fathers.

When the quality of the relations with the noncustodial fathers was asked, 68.6 % reported good relations (N = 24) and 17.2 % of subjects (N = 6) reported bad relations with their noncustodial fathers. Lastly, the quality of relations between divorced/separated families in the post divorce life was asked. 62.5 % of daughters (N = 20) reported that their parents have bad relationships. Only 28.2 % of subjects (N =9) reported good relationships between their parents.



Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of Parental Divorce/Separation Variables

Age of subjects at parental divorce/separation		Divorce/separation (N= 37)
	Mean	11,38
	Std. Dev.	6,80
	Range	0 - 20
	0 - 6	10 - 27%
	7-14	12 - 32,4%
	15-20	15-40,6%

Age of subject at parental remarriage		Mother (N=7)	Father (N=12)
	Mean	15,6	12,4
	Std. Dev.	7,74	6,73
	Range	3 - 25	3 - 21
	0 - 5	1 - 14,3%	2 - 16,7%
	6 - 10	1 - 14,3%	4 - 33,4%
	11 - 15	1 - 14,3%	1 - 8,3%
	16 - 20	2 - 28,6%	3 - 25,0%
	21 - 25	2 - 28,6%	2 - 16,7%

		DN / SEP. (n= 37)
Custody	With Mother	28 - 76,7%
	With Father	1 - 2,7%
	Relatives	0
	With Both But mainly mother	4 - 10,8%
	Equal time with both	0
	With both b/mainly father	1 - 2,7%
	Septr. b/ live in the same house	1 - 2,7
	Septr. b/ then remained e/o	2 - 5,4%
Two years after divorce relations w/ custodial parent	Very Bad	1 - 2,8%
	Not very Bad	5 - 14,7%
	Conflicts but close relation	4 - 11,8%
	Good and close	24 - 70,8%
Relation w/ Cust. now	Very Bad	1 - 2,8%
	Not very Bad	3 - 8,8%
	Conflicts b/close relation	7 - 20,6%
	Good and close	23 - 67,6%
Freq of contact w/ non-custodial	Once in a week	10 - 31,3%
	Once in a month	6 - 18,8%
	Once in a few months	7 - 21,8%
	Once in a year or less	3 - 9,4%
	Doesn't see each other	5 - 15,6%
	See each other daily	1 - 3,1%
Rel. w/non-custodial parent	Don't see e/o - broken	4 - 11,4%
	Very bad / in conflict	1 - 2,9%
	I don't want to see	1 - 2,9%
	Rare and not deep relation	9 - 25,7%
	Rare but mild relation	7 - 20,0%
	Very Good and intact	8 - 22,9%
	Parents together	3 - 8,6%
	Sep./ same house	2 - 5,7%
Relations of Divorced/separated Parents now	Very Bad / Don't see e/other	17 - 53,1%
	See e/o rarely	3 - 9,4%
	See e/o rarely / get on well	3 - 9,4%
	Good and Close relation	1 - 3,1%
	See e/o for kids purposes	3 - 9,4%
	Sep. / same house / good rel.	2 - 5,9%
	Remained e/o again - good relation	3 - 9,4%

Descriptive Statistics about the Instruments

Table 4 presents means, standard deviations, range, minimum and maximum scores for the Heterosexual Trust Scale, the Marital Attitudes Scale, and the factor scores for the Children’s Perception of Interparental Conflict Scale for the total sample.

Table 4.

Descriptive Statistics about the Instruments

		N	Range	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Heterosexual Trust Scale		309	39	31	70	51.33	7.75
Marital Attitudes Scale		309	57	31	88	53.64	10.75
Interparental Conflict Scale	Factor 1 Conflict properties	289	5.05	-2.15	2.90	.002	.99
	Factor 2 Threat	289	5.08	-1.94	3.13	.007	1.00
	Factor 3 Self-Blame	289	7.03	-1.54	5.49	.000	1.01

Factor Structure of The Children’s Perception of Interparental Conflict Scale (CPIC)

A factor analysis of The Children’s Perception of Interparental Conflict Scale (CPIC) was conducted for the 329 subjects. A principal –components analysis with a varimax rotation was carried out. A three-factor solution was obtained. In the initial analysis, 11 factors emerged with an eigenvalue greater than 1.0. Upon studying the scree-plot, a three-factor solution seemed adequate. Then a three-factor solution was carried out with varimax rotation. The three factors explained 42 % of the total variance. As shown in Table 5, given that the original factor analysis reported by Grych et al. (1992) was replicated for the present study for CPIC scale, the original names of the factors were maintained. Thus, factor analysis resulted in three factors

named Conflict Properties, Threat, and Self-Blame. The factors had eigenvalues of 13.689, 3.359, and 3.018, respectively. All items of frequency, intensity and resolution subscales loaded on Factor 1 labeled Conflict Properties and all items of triangulation and perceived threat subscales loaded on Factor 2 labeled Threat. Only one item of self-blame subscale loaded on Factor 2 and all the remaining items of the self-blame and content subscales were loaded on Factor 3 labeled Self-blame.



Table 5.

Factor Analysis for Subscales of the Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict Scale (CPIC).

Factor name	Factor loadings			
Conflict properties	Item No	Conflict Properties	Threat	Self-blame
Frequency subscale	1	.66	.20	-.13
	10	.74	.19	.17
	15	.72	.30	.16
	19	.80	.22	.15
	27	.77	.18	-.001
	35	.65	.24	.24
Intensity subscale	5	.68	.41	-.06
	13	.65	.27	-.1
	22	.75	.40	.12
	31	.74	.35	.15
	36	.70	.25	-.05
	38	.54	.17	.18
	43	.50	.25	.11
Resolution subscale	2	.77	.066	.042
	11	.72	.27	.063
	20	.78	.071	.074
	28	.71	.073	-.04
	39	.66	-.04	.037
	46	.63	.26	.15
Threat				
Perceived Threat subscale	7	.20	.63	.051
	16	.11	.59	.23
	24	.21	.73	.13
	33	.14	.60	.07
	40	.11	.33	.33
	45	.21	.37	.081
Triangulation subscale	4	.43	.60	-.104
	8	.13	.69	-.05
	12	.21	.72	-.30
	17	.21	.41	.13
	25	.40	.42	-.01
	30	.22	.43	-.26
	34	.22	.59	.20
	42	.23	.48	.039
Coping Efficacy subscale	6	-0.05	0.025	0.051
	14	.25	.47	.19
	23	.22	-.43	.36
	32	.18	-.22	.40
	44	.15	.36	.13
	48	.35	.20	.29
Self-Blame				
Self-blame subscale	9	-.03	-.30	.23
	18	-.06	-.04	.66
	26	-.05	-.03	.56
	41	.17	.012	.48
	47	.011	.11	.25
Content subscale	3	.17	.21	.34
	21	.062	.043	.60
	29	-.05	.032	.70
	37	.36	.14	.45

Eigevalue	13.689	3.359	3.018
Pct.of Variance	28.519	6.999	6.288
Total Variance	42%		

Test of the Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

To test hypothesis 1, which stated that “young women from divorced/separated families were expected to have lower levels of heterosexual trust and higher levels of negative marital attitudes than women from intact families”, a one-way analysis of variance was conducted. The results revealed that there was a significant difference between young women from divorced/separated families and young women from intact families in their negative marital attitudes scores $F(1,327) = 6.007, p < .05$. The mean of divorced/separated group (57.68) was statistically higher than the mean of intact group (53.1) in their negative marital attitudes scores, meaning that subjects in divorced/separated group reported significantly higher levels of negative marital attitudes. However, a one-way analysis of variance on the scores of heterosexual trust did not reveal any significant differences between subjects from divorced/separated and intact families $F(1,327) = .254, p > .05$ (see Table 6).

Table 6.

Analysis of Variance for Heterosexual Trust and Marital Attitudes by Family Structure

		n	mean	sd	F	df	Sig.
Trust	divorce/separated	37	50,73	9,03	0,254	1,327	,614
	intact families	272	51,42	7,58			
Attitude	divorce/separated	37	57,68	9,78	6,007	1,327	,015
	intact families	272	53,1	10,78			

Education levels of Mothers and Daughters' Heterosexual Trust and Marital Attitudes by Family Structure

Given that maternal education was found to have significantly different among divorced/separated and intact families in that maternal education was higher in divorced/separated group, analysis of covariance was carried out to control for the impact of maternal education on daughters' heterosexual trust and marital attitude scores. When maternal education was statistically controlled, the other results were upheld, albeit the strength of the group differences on marital attitude scores become weaker $F(1,306) = 4.213, p = .041$ (see Table 7).

Table 7.

Analysis of Covariance for years of Maternal Education and Heterosexual Trust and Marital Attitudes by Family Structure

Source	Dependent variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sign.	Partial Eta Squared
Years of mother edu.	Trust Attitude	400.251765.112	1 1	400.251 765.112	6.769 6.855	.010 .009	.022 .022
Divorce/ intact	Trust Attitude	.744 470.238	1 1	.744 470.238	.013 4.213	.911 .041	.000 .014
Error	Trust Attitude	18093.10 34154.511	306 306	59.128 111.62			

Hypothesis 2

In order to test hypothesis 2, which stated that “daughters from divorced/separated families and intact families with high levels of interparental conflict were expected to report significantly lower levels of heterosexual trust and higher levels of negative marital attitudes compared to daughters from intact families with lower levels of interparental conflict”, participants from intact families

were divided into two sub-groups (low levels and high levels of interparental conflict) as described in the *Method* section of the present study.

Heterosexual Trust, Marital Attitudes

A one-way ANOVA was performed to see the difference among three groups (total N =110). While group differences did not reach statistical difference, the heterosexual trust score showed a tendency toward significant difference in heterosexual trust scores among three groups $F(2,107) = 2.32, p = .1$. However, it is interesting to note that the mean of high conflict intact group (54.46) was the highest and the mean of divorced/separated group (50.73) was the lowest among the heterosexual trust scores (higher scores indicating more mistrust). On the other hand, a one-way ANOVA yielded near significant results for the attitude scores among three parental groups, $F(2,107) = 2.87, p = .06$. The Tukey post hoc test showed that young women from divorced/separated group ($M = 57.68$) had significantly higher levels of negative marital attitudes than those in low conflict intact group ($M = 50.85$). The scores of young women from high conflict intact families fell between these two groups (see Table 8).

Table 8.

Analyses of Variance for Heterosexual Trust and Marital Attitudes by Parental Groups and Interparental Conflict

		n	mean	sd	F value	df	Sig.
Trust	high conflict intact	39	54,46	7,33	2,317	2,107	,1
	low conflict intact	34	51,38	7,77			
	divorce/separated	37	50,73	9,03			
Attitude	high conflict intact	39	54,38	11,04	2,874	2,107	,06
	low conflict intact	34	50,85	14,86			
	divorce/separated	37	57,68	9,77			

Education levels of Mothers and Daughters' Heterosexual Trust and Marital Attitudes by Parental Groups

To contrast for the effects of maternal education on the heterosexual trust and marital attitudes score differences by three groups, ANCOVA was run with maternal education as the covariate. The findings were parallel to the above results. However, the trend that was seen for heterosexual trust scores were last and marital attitude score difference become weaker $F(2,106) = 2.50, p = .09$ (see Table 9). Thus, the most findings were mostly confirmed by the ANCOVA tests.

Table 9.

Analysis of Covariance for years of Maternal Education and Heterosexual Trust and Marital Attitudes by Parental Groups

Source	Dependent variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sign.	Partial Eta Squared
Years of mother edu.	Trust Attitude	726.364	1	726.364	12.33	.001	.104
		746.740	1	746.740	5.42	.022	.05
Divorced/separ. High conf. intact Low conf. intact	Trust Attitude	82.79	2	41.40	.70	.50	.01
		674.72	2	337.36	2.45	.09	.04
Error	Trust Attitude	6242.655	106	58.893			
		14608.86	106	137.82			

Further Analyses

Dating Experiences

Exploratory analyses were performed to examine young women's dating experiences based on three types of parental marital status: (high conflict intact group, low conflict intact group and divorced/separated group).

Dating History

The frequencies and the percentages of parental groups by dating history were examined. It can be stated that more subjects in divorced/separated group (94.6 %) had started dating than subjects in high conflictual intact (79.5 %) and low conflictual intact group (79.4 %) (see Table 10).

Table 10.

Distribution of Parental Groups by Dating History

Parental groups	Dating history			
	Yes		No	
	n	%	n	%
High conflict intact	31	79.5	8	20.5
Low conflict intact	27	79.4	7	20.6
Divorced/separated	35	94.6	2	5.4

Age at First Date

One way analysis of variance was performed to test if there were significant differences among high conflict intact group, low conflict intact group and divorced/ separated group on young women' reports of age at first date. The analysis of the ANOVA test showed that there were no significant differences with respect to the age at first date among the three parental groups $F(2,87) = .49, p>.05$.

The Current Dating Status

The frequencies and the percentages of parental status by current dating status were examined. It can be stated that more subjects in divorced/separated group (62.2 %) reported the presence of dating relationship than subjects in high conflictual intact group (53.8 %) and low conflictual intact group (51.5 %) (see Table 11).

Table 11.

Distribution of the Current Dating Status by Parental Groups

Parental groups	Current dating status			
	Yes		No	
	n	%	n	%
High conflict intact	21	53.8	18	46.2
Low conflict intact	17	51.5	16	48.5
Divorced/separated	23	62.2	14	37.8

The Levels of Satisfaction in Current Romantic Relationship

The frequencies and the percentages of young women's parental groups by the levels of satisfaction in their current relationship were examined. More subjects in divorced/separated group (34.8 %) and high conflict group (38.1 %) reported dissatisfaction and indecisiveness about the current dating relationship whereas no subject reported indecisiveness and dissatisfaction in low conflict group (see Table 12).

Table 12.

Distribution of Levels of Satisfaction in Current Relation by Parental Groups

Parental groups	Level of satisfaction in current dating relationship							
	Not satisfied		Indecisiveness		Quite a lot		Extremely satisfied	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
High conflict intact	1	4,8	7	33,3	5	23,8	8	38,1
Low conflict intact	0	0	0	0	4	23,5	13	76,5
Divorced/separated	2	8,7	6	26,1	8	39,1	6	26,1

In order to examine the level of satisfaction among young women from three groups (high conflictual intact, low conflictual intact and divorced/separated) who

reported their current dating relationship lasting longer than 9 months, the frequencies and the percentages were investigated. It can be stated that more subjects in divorced/separated group (35.7 %) and high conflict group (30.7 %) reported dissatisfaction and indecisiveness about the current dating relationship whereas no subject reported indecisiveness and dissatisfaction in the low conflict group (see Table 13).

Table 13.

Distribution of the Levels of Satisfaction in Current Dating Relationship Lasting Longer than 9 Months by Parental Groups

Parental groups	Levels of satisfaction in current dating relationship that lasted longer than 9 months							
	Not satisfied		Indecision		Quite a lot		Extremely satisfied	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
High conflict intact	0	0	4	30,7	3	23,1	6	46,2
Low conflict intact	0	0	0	0	2	18,2	9	81,8
Divorced/separated	1	7,1	4	28,6	5	35,7	4	28,6

The Number of Romantic Relations Lasting Longer than 2 Months

One way analysis of variance was performed to test if there were significant differences among high conflict intact group, low conflict intact group and divorced/separated group on young women' reports of the number of romantic relations lasting longer than 2 months. The results of the ANOVA test showed that there were no significant differences in terms of number of romantic relations lasting longer than 2 months among the three parental groups $F(2,92) = .696, p > .05$.

The General Length of Dating Relationships

The frequencies and the percentages of the of young women's parental status by the general length of dating relationships was examined. More subjects in low

conflict intact group (70.4 %) reported long lasting dating relationships than those coming from high conflict intact group (59.4 %) and divorced/separated group (54.3 %).

Table 14.

Distribution of the General Length of Dating Relationships by Parental Groups

Parental groups	General length of dating relationships					
	Short		Medium		Long	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
High conflict intact	6	18.8	7	21.9	19	59.4
Low conflict intact	3	11.1	5	18.5	19	70.4
Divorced/separated	6	17.1	10	28.6	19	54.3

Romantic Relation Variables and Divorce/Separation Variables

Given that we had only limited number of subjects in divorced/separated group, only exploratory analyses were carried out to see if there were trends in romantic relation variables based on divorce/separation variables.

Heterosexual Trust, Marital Attitudes

In order to see if there were significant differences on the heterosexual trust and the marital attitudes by a) age at parental divorce/separation b) remarriage of parents c) frequency of contact with noncustodial parent d) quality of relations with noncustodial parent e) quality of relations between divorced/separated families, ANOVA was conducted.

Age at Parental Divorce/Separation

Three different age groups at the time of parental divorce/separation, preschool (0-6), middle childhood (7-14), and late adolescence (15-20) were selected

for the analyses. The results did not reveal significant differences with respect to the heterosexual trust $F(2, 34) = .031, p > .05$ and the marital attitudes scores $F(2,34) = 1.034, p > .05$ among daughters who were in the preschool, middle childhood or late adolescence group at parental divorce/separation

Remarriage of Divorced/Separated Parents

Three groups were formed based on the parents' marital status at the time of the study: Only one of the parents remarried ($N = 9$), both of the parents remarried ($N = 5$), and none of the parents remarried ($N = 23$). ANOVA showed that the difference among three parental remarriage groups were approached a significant level with respect to the heterosexual trust $F(2,34) = 2.43, p = .1$ (see Table 15), with those subjects whose both parents remarried reporting lowest levels of heterosexual mistrust ($M = 47.80$), and those subjects whose one parent remarried reporting highest levels of heterosexual mistrust ($M = 56.22$). Furthermore, ANOVA showed that the difference among three parental remarriage groups in terms of the scores of the marital attitudes were not significant $F(2,34) = .12, p = .89$.

Table 15.

Analysis of Variance for Heterosexual Trust and Marital Attitudes by Remarriage of Parents

		n	mean	sd	F	df	Sig.
Trust	Only with one remarried parent	9	56.22	9.20	2.43	2,34	.1
	Both of the parents are remarried	5	47.80	4.44			
	None of the parents are remarried	23	49.22	9.08			
Marital Attitudes	Only with one remarried parent	9	59.00	10.91	.12	2,34	.89
	Both of the parents are remarried	5	58.00	10.77			
	None of the parents are remarried	23	57.08	9.53			

Frequency of Contact with Noncustodial Parent

Two groups were formed based on the answers subjects gave regarding their frequency of contact with their fathers. First group included those subjects who reported frequent contact with their fathers (N = 17), while the second group included those who reported almost no contact with their fathers (N = 15). One way analysis of variance did not reveal any significant difference between subjects who reported frequent contact and almost no contact with their fathers with respect to their scores on the heterosexual trust $F(1,30) = .07, p > .05$ and the marital attitudes $F(1,30) = 1.45, p > .05$.

Quality of Relations with the Noncustodial Father

ANOVA was performed to see if there were significant differences among subjects who had differing levels of closeness to their fathers. The results of the ANOVA showed that the difference in the heterosexual trust scores between the young women who had bad relations with their noncustodial fathers (M = 57.67) and good relations with their noncustodial fathers (M = 50.17) was approaching significance $F(1, 28) = 3.44, p = .074$. Subjects who reported good relationships with their fathers reported lower levels of heterosexual mistrust than those who reported bad relationships with their fathers. However, ANOVA test failed to yield significant results for marital attitudes between daughters who reported bad relations with their fathers and good relations with their fathers $F(1, 28) = .04, p > .05$ (see Table 16).

Table 16 .

Analysis of Variance for Heterosexual Trust and Marital Attitudes for the Quality of Relations with the Noncustodial Parents

		n	mean	sd	F	df	Sig.
Trust	Bad relations with the noncustodial	6	57.67	9.46	3.44	1,28	.074
	Good relations with the noncustodial	24	50.17	8.73			
Attitude	Bad relations with the noncustodial	6	57,17	12.12	.040	1,28	.84
	Good relations with the noncustodial	24	58.08	9.55			

Quality of Relations between Divorced/Separated Parents

Two groups were formed between subjects regarding the quality of relations between their parents. First group included those subjects whose divorced/separated parents maintained relatively good relationships (N = 9), the second group included those subjects whose parents had bad relationships (N = 20). One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) did not reveal any significant differences between subjects whose parents had bad relations in post-divorce life and good relations in post-divorce life with respect to the heterosexual trust $F(1,27) = .38, p > .05$ and the marital attitudes $F(1,27) = .46, p > .05$.

Dating History

Chi-Square analysis regarding whether subjects were ever involved in a romantic relationship or not by divorce variables a) age at parental divorce/separation b) remarriage of parents c) frequency of contact with the noncustodial parent d) quality of relations with the noncustodial parent e) quality of relations between divorced/separated parents in the post-divorce life) were conducted. None of the analyses were significant or approached significance.

Age at First Date

When subjects' age at first date was examined for divorce/separation variables, ANOVA results revealed a nearly significant difference between subjects whose parents have had good relations and bad relations in the post-divorce life with respect to the age at first date $F(1,24) = 3.66, p = .07$ (see Table 17). The mean of age at first date of young women with divorced/separated families who had bad relations in the post-divorce life (16.61) was higher than the mean of age of young women with divorced/separated families who had good relations in the post-divorce life (15.00). None of the other varieties revealed a significant group difference on age at first date.

Table 17.

Analysis of Variance for Age at First Date and Quality of Relations between Divorced/Separated Families

		n	mean	sd	F	df	Sig.
Age at first date	Bad relations between divorced parents	18	16.61	1.88	3.66	1	.07
	Good relations between divorced parents	8	15	2.204			

Current Dating Status

Chi-square analyses were conducted to investigate whether the presence of current romantic relationship differ that were based on divorce variables (age at parental divorce/separation, remarriage of the parents, frequency of contact with the noncustodial parent, quality of the relations with the noncustodial parent, the quality of relations between divorced/separated families in the post-divorce life). The only

significant chi-square value revealed three parental remarriage groups were significantly different from each other with respect to the current dating status $X^2(2) = 5,99, p < .05$ (see Table 18). While all of subjects whose both parents were remarried were currently in a romantic relationship, nearly half of subjects with none of their parents being remarried were not currently involved in a relation.

Table 18.

Distribution of Young Women's Current Dating Status with Respect to Parental Remarriage Groups

Parental remarriage groups	Current dating status			
	Yes		No	
	n	%	n	%
Only one of the parents remarried	7	77,8	2	22,2
Both of the parents remarried	5	100	0	0
None of the parents remarried	11	47,8	12	52,2

The Levels of Satisfaction with the Current Dating Relationship

Chi-square analyses were conducted to investigate whether the levels of satisfaction subjects reported about their current dating relationships differed among divorce variables. The only near significant chi-square value showed that three age groups at parental divorce/separation groups were different from each other with respect to the levels of satisfaction with the current dating relationship $X^2(6) = 10.41, p = .109$ (see Table 19). 75 % of subjects whose parents divorced/separated before the age of 6 or after 15 reported having high levels of satisfaction in their current relationship, while only 42.9 % of subjects in the 7-14 group reported high levels of satisfaction in their current relationship.

Table 19.

Distribution of Young Women with Respect to Levels of Satisfaction in the Current Dating Relationship among Three Age groups at Parental Divorce/Separation

Age at parental divorce/separation groups	Level of satisfaction in current relation							
	Not satisfied		Indecision		Quite a lot		Extremely satisfied	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Age 0-6	1	12,5	1	12,5	2	25,0	4	50,0
Age 7-14	1	14,3	3	42,9	1	14,3	2	28,6
Age 15-20	0	0	2	25,0	6	75,0	0	0

Number of Relations Lasting Longer than 2 Months

One way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to see if there were significant differences among divorce/separation variables for the number of relations lasting longer than 2 months. The only near significant finding came between subjects whose parents had good relations and bad relations in the post-divorce life with respect to the number of relations lasting longer than 2 months, $F(1,26) = 3.92, p = .06$ (see Table 20). Daughters whose parents maintained good relations after divorce/separation reported having been involved in more relations lasting longer than 2 months than those whose parents had poor post-divorce relations.

Table 20.

Analysis of Variance for Number of Relations Lasting Longer than 2 months and Quality of Relations between Divorced/Separated Parents

		n	mean	sd	F	df	Slg.
Number of relations lasting longer than two months	Bad relations between divorced/separated parents	19	1,74	1,24	3,92	1,26	.06
	Good relations between divorced/separated parents	9	3,11	2,47			

General Length of Dating Relationships

Chi square analyses were conducted to investigate whether there were significant differences among divorce/separation variables for length of romantic relationships. Two of the analyses approached significance. The first chi-square analysis showed that the difference among three parental remarriage groups approached significance with respect to the general length of dating relationships $X^2(4) = 8.22, p = .084$ (see Table 21).

Table 21.

Distribution of Young Women for the General Length of Romantic Relationships among Groups of Remarriage of Parents

Remarriage of parents	General length of romantic relationships					
	Short		Medium		Long	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Only one of them remarried	3	33,3	4	44,4	2	22,2
Both of them remarried	0	0	0	0	5	100,0
None of them remarried	3	14,3	6	28,6	12	57,1

The second chi-square analysis showed near significance was between subjects whose parents have had good relations and bad relations in the post-divorce life in terms of the general length of dating relationships $X^2(2) = 4.5, p = .105$ (see Table 22). Subjects whose parents had good relationships after divorce/separation reported longer lasting romantic relationships (77.8 %) than those whose parents who did not get along well after divorce/separation (38.9 %).

Table 22.

Distribution of Young Women for the General Length of Romantic Relationships among Groups of Quality of Relations between Divorced/Separated Parents

The quality of relations between parents	General length of romantic relationships					
	Short		Medium		Long	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Bad	5	27.8	6	33.3	7	38.9
Good	0	0	2	22.2	7	77.8

Threat and Self-Blame Factors of the CPIC

As the scores of the Frequency Subscale of the CPIC scale were used to divide intact group into two groups, a one way analysis of variance was applied to test whether there are differences among high conflict intact group, low conflict intact group and divorced/separated group in young women's reports of threat and self blame that appeared as the other two factors of the CPIC. One way analysis of variance yielded significant results for Threat subscale scores

$F(2,93) = 7.08, p < .05$ and Self-Blame subscale scores $F(2,93) = 3.17, p < .05$. The Tukey post hoc test revealed that young women from high conflict intact group

($M = .416$) had perceived significantly higher levels of Threat in the family than young women from low conflict intact group ($M = -.479$). In addition, the Tukey post hoc test showed that young women from high conflict intact group ($M = .521$) had significantly attributed higher levels of Self-Blame about the conflict in the family than young women from divorced/separated group ($M = -.017$) (see Table 23).

Table 23.

Analysis of Variance for Threat and Self Blame Subscales of CPIC by Parental Groups

		n	mean	sd	F	df	Sig.
Threat	high conflict intact	38	.416	1.205	7.08	2,93	.001
	low conflict intact	34	-.479	.70			
	divorce/separated	24	-.194	1.120			
Self - Blame	high conflict intact	38	.521	1.307	3.17	2,93	.047
	low conflict intact	34	.074	.593			
	divorce/separated	24	-.017	.521			

DISCUSSION

The main goal of the present study was to explore the heterosexual functioning of young Turkish women coming from divorced/separated and the intact families as well as divorced/separated, high conflictual intact and low conflictual intact families.

Overall, one of the major findings of the present study was that young women from divorced/separated families had more negative marital attitudes than those from intact families (regardless of levels of the interparental conflict). However,

heterosexual trust was not found to be significantly related to the family structure. When the interparental conflict was taken into account, the adverse effect of parental divorce/separation was again apparent in young women's higher negative marital attitudes compared to those young women from low conflict intact group. The scores of young women from the families of high conflict fell between these two groups. However, the differences on the heterosexual trust score were approaching near significance among three groups. Young women of high conflictual families had the highest levels of heterosexual mistrust and young women of divorced/separated families had the lowest levels of heterosexual mistrust. It was found that years of completed maternal education impacted on the marital attitudes of subjects coming from divorced/separated families and intact families. However, the finding regarding group differences for heterosexual trust and marital attitudes were mostly supported when maternal education was statistically controlled. In terms of dating experiences, more subjects from divorced/separated families had started dating than subjects from high conflict and the low conflict families. With respect to the current dating status, it can be stated that more subjects in divorced/separated group reported the presence of dating relationship than subjects in high conflict and low conflictual intact group. In terms of level of satisfaction, young Turkish women from low conflict intact groups reported more satisfaction in their current relationship whereas those from high conflict and divorced/separated families reported more dissatisfaction and indecisiveness. Specifically, more subjects in low conflict group had reported extreme satisfaction in their current relationship that lasted longer than 9 months than those subjects from divorced/separated and high conflictual group. In terms of general length of dating relationships, more subjects in low conflict intact group reported long lasting relationships than subjects in high conflict group and

divorced/separated group. On the other hand, there were no significant differences among three groups on young women' reports of age at first date, and the number of romantic relations lasting longer than 2 months.

It is important to indicate that since there were only a small number of subjects in divorced/separated group, the exploratory analyses were run and some tendencies regarding significant differences for divorce/separation variables were found. The only significant finding emerged for current dating status by remarriage of families. While all of subjects whose both parents were remarried were currently in a romantic relationship, nearly half of subjects with none of their parents being remarried were not currently involved in a relation. The remarriage of parents and quality of relations with the noncustodial father were found to be related to heterosexual trust with approaching significances. Young women with both parents remarried have the lowest levels of mistrust and young women with only one parent remarried have the highest levels of mistrust. And, young women who have good relations with the noncustodial fathers have lower levels of mistrust than those who have bad relations with their fathers. Again, the differences were approaching significance among the groups based on age at first date, the number of relations lasting longer than 2 months, and the general length of romantic relationships by the quality of relations between parents in the post-divorce life. That is, young women whose parents have had good relations in the post-divorce life were able to start dating earlier, have more relations lasting longer than 2 months, and report more long lasting relations. The differences among the groups based on the length of romantic relationships by parental remarriage were also found to be approaching significance. While all of young women whose both parents were remarried reported long lasting dating relationships, more than half of young women with none of the parents

remarried reported long lasting dating relationships. And, the results about the levels of satisfaction with current dating relationship in terms of age at parental divorce/separation were also found to be approaching statistical significance. Most of subjects whose parents divorced/separated when they were in preschool or in late adolescence, reported higher levels of satisfaction in their current relationships compared to others. Heterosexual trust was not found to be significantly related to the age at parental divorce/separation, frequency of contact with the noncustodial father, and quality of relations between divorced/separated families in post-divorce life. None of the analyses were found to be significant for marital attitudes and dating history by divorce/separation variables. With respect to the relations with the Threat and Self-Blame factors of the CPIC, young women from high conflict intact group had perceived significantly higher levels of Threat in the family than young women from low conflict intact group. And, young women from high conflict intact group were found to be significantly attributing higher levels of Self-Blame about the conflict in the family than young women from divorced/separated group.

The major findings of the present study were in line with western culture findings. Although the impact of parental marital status and family processes on romantic relationships were investigated, closer examination of the demographic variables demonstrated significant differences between the levels of modernization evident in three groups. In terms of living arrangements, most of subjects from divorced/separated and high conflictual intact group reported Istanbul or other metropolitan cities (Ankara and Izmir) as the place of origin, whereas most subjects from low conflict intact group reported non-metropolitan cities and towns/villages as their place of origin. This significant finding became even more meaningful when the

level of maternal education was considered. With respect to the education levels of parents, the mean of years of completed education for mothers of divorced/separated group was highest and the mean of years of completed education for mothers of high conflict intact group was lowest among three groups. However, the mean of paternal years of completed education did not show significant group differences among three groups. These findings are line with the findings of Korkut (1990). This finding may also be understood in light of the findings that higher SES women refuse to support the spousal and marital roles more forcefully than those middle SES women (Le Compte, et al., 1978; cited in Fişek, 1982) and the increase in financial opportunities rather than marital discord may end up with the choice of divorce for women (Fişek, 1993). The current demographic findings suggest that the socio-cultural environments of the families among three groups are potentially significantly different. Although this study did not focus on the parental factors beyond the level of discord, the importance of family environment in terms of socialization factors is evident and needs to be studied in more detail. The interpretation of the findings will be put forth taking into consideration the significant cultural and sociological differences in those three groups. Given that divorced/separated group consisted of more metropolitan families and had mothers who had attained the highest level of education, it can be argued that this group represented the most urban and modernized group among the compared groups. Low conflict intact group evidently comes from less urban/modernized section of Turkey, while no detailed information about the families make upon other SES/socio-cultural factors were available. High conflict intact group, however, represent a more mixed portrait. While the families within this group are more from urban/modern metropolitan cities, they have more exposure to modernized Turkey; the educational attainment of the mothers in this

group was the lowest. Thus, the socio-cultural make up these families are potentially different from divorced/separated families. Hence, the sociological differences among three groups are extremely important.

The negative marital attitudes of daughters of divorced/separated families compared to those of continuously intact families are in agreement with many of the earlier findings (Kaslow & Schwartz, 1984; 1985; cited in Kaslow & Schwartz, 1987; Amato, 1988; Wallerstein & Corbin, 1989; Franklin et al., 1990; Long, 1987; Jennings et al., 1991). This finding is in line with the theoretical and clinical indications of Wallerstein and Corbin (1989) about daughters' of divorced homes awareness of the fragility of the marriage and lead to having negative attitudes toward marriage. When the interparental conflict was taken into account, in line with the literature (Kinnaird & Gerrard, 1986; Long, 1987) young women of divorced/separated group were found to have significantly higher negative marital attitudes than those in low conflict intact group whereas the scores of young women from high conflict intact group fell between these two groups. Since the mean years of education completed by mothers of the young Turkish women found to have a significant effect on marital attitudes for family structure (divorced/separated and intact families) and nearly significant effect on marital attitudes for parental groups (divorced/separated, the low conflict intact and high conflict intact families), it can be stated that the importance of marital education for daughters may be found as an unique feature of this study or it may convey information about the Turkish population. In this study, since most of daughters are in the custody of mothers with high levels of education, single mothers may not endorse traditional values as strongly, transmitting to their daughters the value of attaining higher education and nontraditional career and directly or indirectly advice their daughters to delay

marrying (Eccles, 1987; cited in Barber & Eccles, 1992). Future studies have to investigate the influence of the mother education on young Turkish women's development to get a clearer picture about the Turkish culture.

In accordance with the findings from the earlier studies of adolescent/young adult females (Southworth & Schwartz, 1987; Franklin et al., 1990), heterosexual trust was not found to be significantly related to family structure (whether or not the parents had separated). In one of the earlier available studies, scores on the Heterosexual Trust Scale also only approached significance (Jones, 1993). When the levels of interparental conflict were also measured, the differences among three groups were found to approach significance for the heterosexual trust scores. However, contrary to expectations, it was seen that young women coming from the highly conflictual families had the highest levels of heterosexual mistrust and young women from divorced/separated families had the lowest levels of mistrust among the groups. One possible underlying factor for this may be that individuals from divorced/separated families have disillusioned attitudes toward marriage as an institution, but are not necessarily mistrustful of the opposite sex, while those who come from highly conflictual families who experience ongoing conflict may have had their trust in the opposite sex eroded.

With regard to dating experiences, the results were surprising at the beginning when daughters of divorce/separation did not seem to be very different than especially those from low conflict intact families on many of the romantic relationship variables (age at first date, number of relations that lasting longer than 2 months). However, closer examination of the data gave clearer information. That is, More subjects from divorced/separated families (94.6 %) to start dating than subjects from high conflictual intact (79.5 %) and low conflictual intact families

(79.4 %). Close examination of the percentages and the frequencies of the dating history are in line with the literature that report earlier heterosexual relationships of daughters of divorced/separated families (Wallerstein & Kelly, 1980; cited in Wallerstein, 1985; Hetherington, 1972; Newcomer & Udry, 1987). The age of first date was around 16 for the dating young women coming from all three groups which were inconsistent with the literature that reported the delay of dating for young women of disrupted and the conflicted homes (Kinnaird & Gerrard, 1986).

Regarding the evaluation of relationships, consistent with previous research (Booth et al., 1984; Amato & Booth, 1991; Amato et al., 1995), it is possible to detect a tendency that those from low conflictual intact families seem more satisfied in the current romantic relationships whereas those from divorced/separated and high conflictual families seem to have higher levels of dissatisfaction and indecisiveness in romantic relations. The results were sustained when only those whose current relations lasted longer than 9 months were examined. More subjects in low conflict group had reported extreme satisfaction in their current relationship that lasted longer than 9 months than those subjects from divorced/separated and high conflictual group. The reason of the higher degrees of negative evaluations of the dating relationships of daughters of divorced/separated and high conflictual families might be resulting from those daughters' attempts to be more cautious in romantic relationships in order to escape the mistakes that their parents had done in their own marriages (Booth et al., 1984).

However, contrary to earlier findings (Booth et al., 1984; Long, 1987), the number of romantic relationships that lasting longer than 2 months did not significantly differ among three groups. Supporting the literature, subjects from low conflict families reported more long lasting relationships than subjects in high

conflict and divorced/separated families. Although the assessment of relationship duration and satisfaction in the present study was being done on single questions, the significant impact of parental divorce/separation or the interparental conflict could be detected in the results. However, further assessment with more questions on dating experiences may give a clearer picture.

Because there were a limited number of subjects in divorced/separated group, the exploratory analyses showed only the tendency of most divorce/separation variables to approach statistical significance. In this study, most of daughters of divorced/separated families were in late adolescence at the time of parental divorce/separation. Interestingly, the results demonstrated that age at parental divorce/separation variable had no effect on most of the romantic relationship variables. However, the difference in the level of satisfaction in the current dating relationship by the age at parental divorce/separation variable approached significance. Close examination of the data revealed that most of subjects whose parents divorced/separated when they were in preschool years or in late adolescence reported having high levels of satisfaction in their current dating relationships. This finding can be understood in the light of the findings of Hetherington (1989) that children who experienced parental divorce at preschool age were able to overcome the negative effects of parental divorce and children who experienced parental divorce in their late adolescence were able to escape the severe short term effects of parental divorce due to being able to get outside support. Further research is also needed with larger sample in order to explore the long-term effects of the age of child at the time of parental divorce/separation.

With respect to the relations of remarriage of parents and romantic relationship variables, the results reported here provide evidence that while all of

subjects whose both parents were remarried were currently in a romantic relationship, nearly half of subjects with none of their parents being remarried were not currently involved in a relation. Although the relations between heterosexual trust and remarriage of parents only approached significance, young women with both parents remarried have the lowest levels of mistrust and those young women who only have one parent remarried have the highest levels of mistrust. One of the explanations for the highest levels of mistrust of subjects with one remarried parent (usually the father) might be the mothers' adopting an interfering stance in the father daughter relationship after divorce might result in sense of heterosexual mistrust for daughters. Further research is needed in the area of the qualities of stepfamily home environment, the impact of custodial father's post divorce relationships and the long-term adjustment of daughters.

In line with the findings of Southworth and Schwarz's (1987), the frequency of contact with the noncustodial father was not significantly related with heterosexual trust. In contrast to the literature (Wallerstein & Corbin, 1989; Seltzer, 1991; Amato & Booth, 1996), most of young women reported good relations with their noncustodial fathers. Since the quality of relationship between the noncustodial father and daughter was more predictive of daughters' well being rather than simple contact (Wallerstein & Corbin, 1989), although the differences approached near significance level, it is not surprising to find that daughters who have good relations with their noncustodial fathers have lower levels of mistrust than those who have bad relations with their fathers. Contrary to the previous findings (Kinnaird & Gerrard, 1986; Booth et al., 1984), the quality of relations and frequency of contact between daughter and the noncustodial father did not seem to significantly relate with any other romantic relation variables. These findings partially provide evidence for

Korkut's (1990) earlier findings about Turkish family dynamics that adolescents' quality of relations was negatively correlated with their depression levels, but again the frequency of contact was not found as the significant predictor of adolescent adjustment. Research is needed to identify the causal mechanisms between the noncustodial father and the daughter relationships and long-term effects of these relationships.

As was reported in the literature (Franklin et al, 1990; Long, Slater, Forehand, & Fauber, 1988; Amato & Booth, 1991; Booth et al., 1984), the quality of relations between the parents after divorce/separation was found to have an impact on many of daughters' romantic relationship variables. The data of the present study revealed that the nearly significant findings were as follows: As divorced/separated families have relatively good or good relationships in the post-divorce life, daughters would begin dating earlier, to have more relationships lasted longer than 2 months, and report more long lasting dating relationships. These results might indicate that when the daughter is able witness good relationships between divorced/separated families over time, this may have impact on their attaining relatively long lasting romantic relationships.

Turning to other findings of the present study, with regard to the women's appraisals of interparental conflict, in line with earlier findings (Bickham & Fiese, 1997), young women from high conflictual families felt more threatened in the face of interparental conflict than those from the low conflictual families. This result is consistent with Bickham and Fiese's (1997) conclusion that older children tend to have a sense of realistic appraisal of marital disagreement, acquiring problem focused strategies and becoming aware of threats caused by interparental conflict. Again, the information reported here, consistent with the literature (Bickam & Fiese,

1997), provided evidence that young women from high conflictual intact families were more likely to blame themselves for causing the interparental conflict compared to those from divorced/separated families. Bickam and Fiese (1997) suggested that adolescents from divorced/separated homes might be more likely to attribute the reasons of conflict to external factors rather than themselves due to the exposing lesser degrees of post divorce conflicts. However, this issue was suggested as a point for further investigation.

In addition to the limitations due to limited sample size, there are other shortcomings that should be considered. First, in generalizing the results of this study, it is necessary to recognize that it was based on a sample of non-clinical young women who were attending a state university at a metropolitan city, and thus is restricted in terms of socioeconomic status and other sociological factors. The results pertaining to heterosexual functioning might differ in a more heterogeneous sample.

Secondly, the issue of use of self-reports as the only source of information may have been a limitation because of the possibility of social desirability bias.

Thirdly, the measure of interparental conflict was based on retrospective recall- that is, the levels of interparental conflict reported may not be as accurate as that obtained using a longitudinal design. The current level of interparental functioning may influence reports of retrospective recall.

Implications of the Study

Implications for Future Research

Since divorce is a complex phenomenon that shows increasing rates in the Turkish culture, and involves a number of changing circumstances for family members, there is a need for longitudinal studies of children of divorce during early and middle childhood. Secondly, since the overall implication of the present study

was that unhappiness of parents also leads to distress in their children, research is also needed to investigate why some parents choose to break up whereas others choose to remain married despite the presence of high levels of marital disagreements. This issue is extremely important to understand in the context of the cultural and social values in Turkey. Thirdly, subjects from divorced/separated families were assumed to come from highly conflictual families and were not grouped. Based on the literature, grouping divorced/separated families in accordance with their levels of conflict in post divorce life might give a more accurate picture. Fourthly, since this study focused upon these young women's plans for the future, it remains to be seen how these attitudes will be translated into behavior. In future studies, other factors pertaining to the family process and dynamics may need to be investigated in addition to parental attitudes towards marriage and relations with opposite sex that might have influences on daughters' heterosexual functioning.

Clinical Implications

Findings of the present study indicate that the increase in the proportion of adults who come from divorced/separated and highly conflictual families in the new few decades will lead, in the absence of countervailing influences, to a steady decline in the overall levels of the well being of the population. Since daughters benefit from the contact with both parents following divorce, to maintain adequate cooperation and relatively low conflict between parents, individual and group therapy may provide an opportunity for increased adaptation and adjustment to both parents and children. Mothers need to be warned that adopting an interfering stance in their daughters' relationships with their noncustodial fathers might have a negative influence on their daughters' sense of trust in the opposite sex and marital attitudes.

The noncustodial fathers also need to be counseled about the importance of their continuous contact and quality of relations with their daughters for their future intimate relationships.



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APPENDICES



APPENDIX A

Yönerge: Karşı cinsle ilgili aşağıda yazılmış cümlelere ne derece katılıp katılmadığınızı belirtin. Cümlelere kendi inançlarınızı ve tutumlarınızı en doğru şekilde yansıtan cevabı veriniz. Doğru ya da yanlış cevap yoktur.

Seçenekler :

1
2
3
4
 Hiç Katılmıyorum Biraz Katılıyorum Oldukça Katılıyorum Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

1- Karşı cinsin içtenliğine emin olana kadar güvenmemek daha iyidir.	1	2	3	4
2- Pekçok erkek, kızlara aslında hissetmediği şeyler söylerler.	1	2	3	4
3- Çok iyi tanımadığın bir erkeğe güvenmek tehlikelidir.	1	2	3	4
4- Erkekler hisleri konusunda dürüst olduklarına güvenebilirsin.	1	2	3	4
5- Pekçok erkek kızlarla ilişkilerinde güvenilirlerdir.	1	2	3	4
6- Pekçok erkek yakalanmayacaklarını bilselerdi kız arkadaşlarını aldatırlardı.	1	2	3	4
7- Pekçok erkek kızlarla ilişkilerinde içtendirler.	1	2	3	4
8- Eğer bir erkek arayacağını söylüyorsa arayacağına dair ona güvenebilirsin.	1	2	3	4
9- Pekçok erkek kızları yatağa atmak için her tür numarayı ve yolu dener.	1	2	3	4
10- Pekçok erkek gerçekten kız arkadaşlarının iyiliğini düşünürler	1	2	3	4
11- Bir erkeğin verdiği sözleri tutacağına güvenebilirsin.	1	2	3	4
12- Eğer bir kız dikkatli olmazsa erkeklerce kullanılır.	1	2	3	4
13- Pekçok erkek sadece seksle ilgilenir.	1	2	3	4
14- İstediklerini elde etmek için erkeklerin seni incitmesi az rastlanır bir durumdur.	1	2	3	4
15- Pekçok erkek bir kız için çok gerekli olmadıkça para harcamaz.	1	2	3	4
16- Bir erkeğin sadece seks için bir kızla çıkması çok az rastlanan bir durumdur.	1	2	3	4
17- Pekçok erkek istediklerini elde etmek için seni o yöne iterler.	1	2	3	4
18- Pekçok erkek istemedikleri bir randevudan kaçmak için yalan söyler.	1	2	3	4



APPENDIX B

Yönergeler: Evlilikle ilgili olarak aşağıda yazılmış olan cümlelere katılıp katılmama derecenizi belirtiniz.

Seçenekler:

1 Hiç Katılmıyorum 2 Biraz Katılıyorum 3 Oldukça Katılıyorum 4 Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

1- İnsanlar evlenmelidir.	1	2	3	4
2- Evliliğimin başarılı olacağına dair inancım çok zayıf.	1	2	3	4
3- İnsanlar hayatlarının sonuna kadar eşleriyle evli kalmalıdır.	1	2	3	4
4- Çiftlerin çoğu evliliklerinde ya mutsuzlar ya da boşanıyorlar.	1	2	3	4
5- Evlendiğimde hoşnut olacağım.	1	2	3	4
6- Evlilikten korkuyorum.	1	2	3	4
7- Evlilikle ilgili kuşkularım var.	1	2	3	4
8- İnsanlar sadece evliliğin daima süreceğinden emin oldukları zaman evlenmelidir.	1	2	3	4
9- İnsanlar evlilik kurumuna girme kararı alırken bunun üzerinde uzun süre düşünmelidir.	1	2	3	4
10- Evliliklerin çoğu mutsuz müesseselerdir.	1	2	3	4
11- Evlilik sadece resmi bir kontrattır.	1	2	3	4
12- Evlilik kutsal bir davranıştır.	1	2	3	4
13- Evliliklerin çoğu eşit birliktelikler değildir.	1	2	3	4
14- İnsanların çoğu evliliklerinde çok fazla ödün vermek zorunda kalırlar.	1	2	3	4
15- Tüm evliliklerin yarısı boşanmayla sonuçlandıği için evlilik boşuna gibi görünüyor.	1	2	3	4
16- Eğer boşanırsam büyük bir olasılıkla tekrar evlenirim.	1	2	3	4
17- Benim inancuma göre evli çiftler birbirleriyle geçinmiyorlarsa boşanmalıdırlar.	1	2	3	4
18- Benim inancuma göre evlilik seromonisi olmadan da bir ilişki sağlam olabilir.	1	2	3	4
19- Hayatımla ilgili hayallerimde mutlu bir evlilikte var.	1	2	3	4
20- Mutlu evlilik diye birşey yoktur.	1	2	3	4
21- Evlilik insanların hedeflerine ulaşmalarını engeller.	1	2	3	4
22- İnsanlar ömürleri boyunca tek bir ilişki içinde kalmayı istememişlerdir.	1	2	3	4
23- Evlilik diğer ilişki tiplerinde olmayan bir beraberliğe imkan tanımaktadır.	1	2	3	4



APPENDIX C

Yönerge: Aşağıdaki soruları anne ve babanızın ilişkisini düşünerek cevaplayınız. Eğer anne ve/veya babanızı kaybetmişseniz ya da anne ve babanız şu anda ayrı yaşıyor/boşanmış ise, soruları onlar beraber iken var olan ilişkilerini düşünerek cevaplayınız. Eğer anne babanızın ilişkisini yeterince hatırlamıyorsanız (çok erken boşanma veya ebeveyn kaybı) bu soruları cevaplamayınız.

Seçenekler:

	1	2	3	4
	Hiç Doğru Değil	Biraz Doğru	Oldukça Doğru	Kesinlikle Doğru
1- Annem ve babamı hiçbir zaman tartışırken veya uyuşmazlık içinde görmem.	1	2	3	4
2- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları zaman genelde bunu hallederler.	1	2	3	4
3- Annem ve babam genelde okulda yaptığım şeyler hakkında tartışmaya başlarlar.	1	2	3	4
4- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları zaman birşekilde sonunda tartışmaya ben de katılmak zorunda kalıyorum.	1	2	3	4
5- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları zaman gerçekten çok sinirlerlenirler.	1	2	3	4
6- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları zaman kendimi daha iyi hissetmek için birşeyler yapabilirim.	1	2	3	4
7- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları zaman korkarım.	1	2	3	4
8- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları zaman kendimi ortada kalmış hissederim.	1	2	3	4
9- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları zaman suçlanacak olan ben değilim.	1	2	3	4
10- Onlar bildiğimi düşünmeyebilirler fakat annem ve babam çok fazla tartışır ve uyuşmazlık içindeler.	1	2	3	4
11- Annem ve babam tartışmaları bittikten sonra bile birbirlerine hala kızgın olurlar.	1	2	3	4
12- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları zaman onları durdurmak için birşeyler yaparım.	1	2	3	4
13- Annem ve babam bir anlaşmazlık olduğu zaman, bunu sessizce tartışır.	1	2	3	4
14- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları zaman ne yapacağımı bilemiyorum.	1	2	3	4
15- Annem ve babam, etrafta ben olsam da birbirlerine kötü davranırlar.	1	2	3	4
16- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları zaman bana ne olacağı hakkında endişelenirim.	1	2	3	4
17- Annem ve babam bir anlaşmazlık yaşadığı sırada kendimi taraf tutmak zorunda hissetmem.	1	2	3	4
18- Annem ve babamın tartışması genelde hep benim suçumdur.	1	2	3	4
19- Sıklıkla annem ve babamı tartışırken görürüm.	1	2	3	4
20- Annem ve babam herhangi birşey hakkında anlaşmazlığa düştükleri zaman genelde bir çözüm bulurlar.	1	2	3	4
21- Annem ve babamın tartışmaları genellikle benimle ilgilidir.	1	2	3	4
22- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları zaman birbirlerine kötü şeyler söylerler.	1	2	3	4

23- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları veya uyuşamadıkları zaman genelde işlerin iyiye gitmesine yardımcı olabilirim.	1	2	3	4
24- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları zaman kötü birşey olmasından korkarım.	1	2	3	4
25- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları zaman annem onun tarafında olmamı ister .	1	2	3	4
26- Her ne kadar bana öyle söylemeseler de, annem ve babamın tartışmasının benim suçum olduğunu biliyorum.	1	2	3	4
27- Annem ve babam çok nadiren tartışır.	1	2	3	4
28- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları zaman genelde hemen barışırlar.	1	2	3	4
29- Annem ve babam genelde benim yaptığım şeyler nedeniyle tartışır.	1	2	3	4
30- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları zaman tartışmanın içine girmem.	1	2	3	4
31- Annem ve babam tartışırken birbirlerine çok fazla bağırlar.	1	2	3	4
32- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları zaman onları durdurmak için yapabileceğim hiçbirşey yok.	1	2	3	4
33- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları zaman ikisinden birinin incineceğinden endişe duyarım.	1	2	3	4
34- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları zaman kendimi taraf tutmak zorunda hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4
35- Annem ve babam sıklıkla evde birbirlerinin başının etini yiyip dırdır ederler ve birbirlerinden şikayet ederler.	1	2	3	4
36- Annem ve babam bir anlaşmazlık olduğunda birbirlerine çok nadiren bağırlar.	1	2	3	4
37- Yanlış birşey yaptığım zaman annem ve babam sıklıkla tartışmaya başlarlar.	1	2	3	4
38- Annem ve babam tartışma esnasında eşyaları fırlatır ve kırarlar.	1	2	3	4
39- Annem ve babam tartışmayı bitirdikten sonra birbirlerine yakın davranırlar.	1	2	3	4
40- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları zaman bana da bağırcaklar diye korkarım.	1	2	3	4
41- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları zaman beni suçlarlar.	1	2	3	4
42- Tartıştıkları zaman, babam onun tarafında olmamı ister.	1	2	3	4
43- Annem ve babam tartışma esnasında birbirlerini itekleyip dürtürler.	1	2	3	4
44- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları veya uyuşamadıkları zaman kendimi daha iyi hissetmek için yapabileceğim hiçbirşey yoktur.	1	2	3	4
45- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları zaman boşanabilirler diye endişe duyarım.	1	2	3	4
46- Annem ve babam tartıştıktan sonra birbirlerine hala kötü davranırlar	1	2	3	4
47- Annem ve babamın tartışması genelde benim suçum değildir.	1	2	3	4
48- Annem ve babam tartıştıkları zaman benim söylediğim hiçbirşeyi dinlemezler.	1	2	3	4



APPENDIX D

Yönerge: Verilen tüm bilgiler gizli tutulacaktır. Bütün cevaplarınızı boşluk bırakılan yerlere doldurunuz. Soruyla ilgili olarak aklınıza gelen herşeyi yazmaktan çekinmeyin.

1- Cinsiyetiniz : () Kadın () Erkek

2- Yaşınız : _____

3- Medeni Durumunuz : () Bekar () Nişanlı () Evli () Diğer

4- Nerede kalıyorsunuz?

() Ailemle () Annemle () Babamla
() Yurtta () Yalnız () Arkadaşlarımla ev paylaşıyorum.

5- Üniversiteye İstanbul dışından geldiyse lütfen geldiğiniz yeri betimleyen seçeneği işaretleyiniz:

() Metropol (Ankara, İzmir..) () Kent () Kasaba () Köy

6-7 – Ebeveynlerinizin eğitim durumu: (lütfen uygun yeri işaretleyin)

	Annemiz	Babanız
Okur yazar değil		
Okur yazar		
İlkokul mezunu		
Ortaokul mezunu		
Lise mezunu		
Üniversite mezunu		
Lisans-üstü mezunu		
Diğer, belirtiniz		

8- Kaybettiğiniz ebeveyn/ler oldu mu?

() Annem () Babam

9- Cevabınız **EVET** ise, öldüğünde/öldüklerinde kaç yaşındaydınız?

() Annem öldüğünde ____ () Babam öldüğünde ____

10- Anne-babanız ayrılma/boşanma sürecinden geçtiler mi?

() Evet () Hayır (**Cevabınız HAYIR ise 21 no'lu soruya geçiniz.**)

11- Ebeveynleriniz ayrı yaşamaya başladıklarında kaç yaşındaydınız? _____

12- Ebeveynleriniz boşandıklarında kaç yaşındaydınız? _____

13- Siz kiminle yaşadınız?

- Annemle
 Babamla
 Ebeveynlerim dışında başka bir yetişkinle (aile içi, aile dışı belirtiniz.)
 Her ikisiyle de fakat çoğunlukla annemle
 İkiisiyle de eşit zaman geçiriyordum.

14- Boşanma/Ayrılık döneminden sonraki ilk 2 yıl içinde birlikte yaşadığınız ebeveyninizle ilişkiniz nasıldı?

- Çok kötü, anlaşıyorlardık.
 Çok fena değildi, yüzeysel bir ilişkimiz vardı.
 Anlaşamadığımız konulara rağmen yine de yakın bir ilişkimiz var sayılırdı.
 Genelde iyi anlaşıyorduk, yakın bir ilişkimiz vardı.

15- Birlikte yaşadığınız ebeveyninizle ilişkiniz şu anda nasıl?

- Çok kötü, anlaşıyoruz .
 Çok fena değil, yüzeysel bir ilişkimiz var.
 Anlaşamadığımız konular var ama yine de yakın ilişkimiz var sayılır.
 Genelde iyi anlaşıyoruz, yakın bir ilişkimiz var.

16- Ayrı yaşadığınız ebeveyninizle ne sıklıkla görüşüyorsunuz?

- Haftada bir Ayda bir Birkaç ayda bir Yılda bir ya da daha az
 Hiç görüşmüyoruz

17- Ayrı yaşadığınız ebeveyninizle ilişkiniz şu anda nasıl?

- Hiç görüşmüyoruz, kopuk / kötü.
 Çok kötü, anlaşıyoruz.
 Ben görüşmek istemiyorum.
 O görüşmek istemiyor.
 Arada sırada görüşüyoruz ancak yüzeysel bir ilişkimiz var.
 Çok sık görüşmesekte iyi anlaşıyoruz sayılabilir.
 Son derece iyi anlaşıyoruz ve çok yakın bir ilişkimiz var.
 Diğer: _____

18- Anneniz tekrar evlendiyse, anneniz yeniden evlendiğinde siz kaç yaşındaydınız? _____

19- Babanız tekrar evlendiyse, babanız yeniden evlendiğinde siz kaç yaşındaydınız? _____

20- Ebeveynlerinizin ayrılma/boşanmadan sonraki ilişkisini şu anda değerlendirseniz aşağıdaki ifadelerden hangisini onların durumunu anlatmaya uygun düşer?

- () Çok kötü, hiç görüşmüyorlar.
() Arada sırada görüşüyorlar.
() Çok sık görüşmelerde iyi anlaşılıyorlar sayılabilir.
() Son derece iyi anlaşılıyorlar ve çok yakın bir ilişkileri var.
() Diğer: _____

21- Cinsel tercihiniz nedir?

- () Karşı cinsten kişilere ilgi duyuyorum. () Kendi cinsimden kişilere duyuyorum.
() Hem kadınlara hem erkeklere ilgi duyuyorum. () Cinsel tercihimden emin değilim.

22- Hiç romantik ilişkiniz oldu mu?

- () EVET () HAYIR

Cevabınız EVET ise, ilk ilişkiniz başladığında kaç yaşındaydınız? _____

23- Şu anda bir ilişkiniz var mı?

- () EVET () HAYIR (*Cevabınız HAYIR ise, 26 no'lu soruya geçiniz*)

24- Ne kadar süredir devam ediyor?

- () 1 aydan az () 1-3 ay () 3-9 ay () 9-12 ay () 1-2 senedir () 2 seneden fazla

25- Bu ilişkinizden ne kadar memnunsunuz?

- () Hiç memnun değilim. () Kararsızım.
() Oldukça memnunum. () Son derece memnunum.

26- Aşağıdaki hangi cümle genelde romantik ilişki(leri)nizi tanımlıyor?

- () Romantik ilişkilerim uzun sürer (1 yıl ya da daha fazla süre).
() Romantik ilişkilerim genelde 3-6 ayda biter.
() Romantik ilişkilerim çok kısa sürer (2 aydan az).
() Hiç romantik ilişkim olmadı.

27- Şimdiye kadar 2 aydan daha uzun süren kaç tane romantik ilişkiniz oldu? _____