

**Understanding Attachment Behaviors and Relationship
Satisfaction among Turkish Newly Married Adults: The Roles of
Intrinsic Interpersonal Emotion Regulation and Difficulties in Emotion
Regulation**

by

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A Thesis Submitted to the
Graduate School of Social Sciences and Humanities
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree of

Master of Arts

in

Psychology



**KOÇ
ÜNİVERSİTESİ**

Fall 2023

Understanding Attachment Behaviors and Relationship Satisfaction among Turkish Newly Married Adults: The Roles of Intrinsic Interpersonal Emotion Regulation and Difficulties in Emotion Regulation

Koç University

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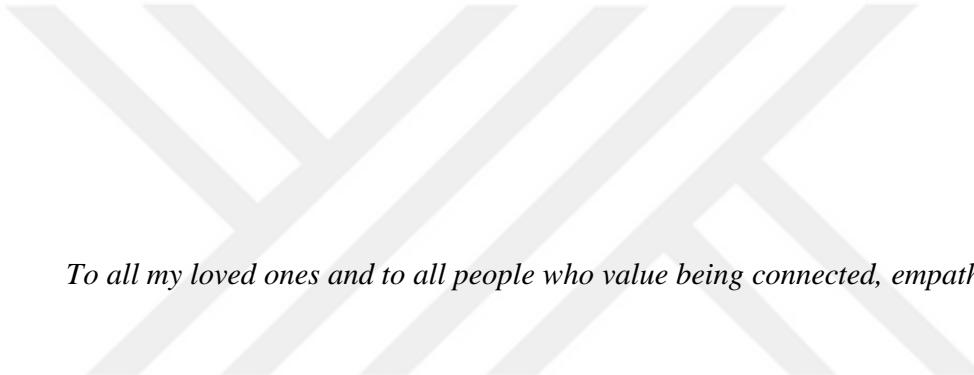
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To all my loved ones and to all people who value being connected, empathic, and kind.

ABSTRACT

**Understanding Attachment Behaviors and Relationship Satisfaction among
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The transition to marriage is an important life event and a stressor for romantic couples. During the first years of marriage, it is crucial that spouses can regulate their own difficult emotions and those of their partner and be able to approach their partner in times of need for relationship satisfaction and maintenance. This emotional dynamic is closely linked to individuals' attachment orientations, mainly attachment anxiety and avoidance. The current study investigated the relationship between attachment, intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation (ER), difficulties in ER, and relationship outcomes (relationship satisfaction and attachment behaviors). A cross-sectional design was used with a sample of 376 Turkish newlyweds who were married for one to five years (68.6 % female; $Age_{mean} = 30$, $Age_{SD} = 3.59$). Structural Equation Modeling analysis showed that attachment anxiety was positively associated with difficulties in ER (.42, $p < .001$) and intrinsic interpersonal ER (.33, $p < .001$), and negatively associated with relationship satisfaction (-.13, $p < .01$), but not attachment behaviors. In addition, attachment avoidance was negatively associated with relationship satisfaction (-.73, $p < .001$), attachment behaviors (-.75, $p < .001$), and positively associated with difficulties in ER (.18, $p = .001$). Neither type of ER mediated the relationship between attachment orientations and relationship outcomes. The findings illustrate that high levels of attachment anxiety and avoidance are linked to difficulties in emotion regulation and lower relationship satisfaction. However, their associations differ for intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation and attachment behaviors. There is a need for further research on intrinsic interpersonal emotional regulation and attachment behaviors in the Turkish context.

Keywords: Attachment behaviors, attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance, difficulties in emotion regulation, interpersonal emotion regulation, newly married couples, relationship satisfaction

ÖZETÇE

Yeni Evli Türk Yetişkenlerde Bağlanma Davranışlarını ve İlişki Doyumunu Anlamak: İçsel Kişilerarası Duygu Düzenlemenin ve Duygu Düzenleme

Güçlüğünün Rolleri

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Psikoloji, Yüksek Lisans

Güz 2023

Romantik çiftler için evliliğe geçiş, önemli bir yaşam olayı ve stresördür. Evliliğin ilk yıllarda eşlerin hem kendilerinin hem de partnerlerinin zor duygularını düzenleyemeleri ve ihtiyaç duyulan zamanlarda partnerlerine yaklaşabilmeleri ilişki doyumu ve devamlılığı için kritiktir. Bu duygusal dinamik bireylerin bağlanma yönelikleriyle, başlıca bağlanma kaygısı ve bağlanma kaçınmasıyla yakından ilişkilidir. Bu çalışma bağlanma, içsel kişilerarası duygu düzenleme, duygu düzenlemeye güçlüklər ve ilişki değişkenleri (ilişki doyumu ve bağlanma davranışları) arasındaki ilişkileri incelemiştir. Çalışmada Türkiye'de bir yıldan beş yıla kadar evli olan, 376 yeni evli kişiden oluşan bir örneklemle kesitsel bir araştırma deseni kullanılmıştır (%68.6 kadın; Yaş_{ort} = 30, Yaş_{ss} = 3.59). Yapısal Eşitlik Modeli analizleri, bağlanma kaygısının duygu düzenleme güçlükləri (.42, $p < .001$) ve içsel kişilerarası duygu düzenlemeyle (.33, $p < .001$) pozitif yönde ilişkilenirken ilişki doyumuyla negatif yönde ilişkilendiğini (-.13, $p < .01$), bağlanma davranışlarıyla ise anlamlı bir ilişkide olmadığını göstermiştir. Ayrıca, bağlanma kaçınması ilişki doyumu (-.73, $p < .001$) ve bağlanma davranışlarıyla negatif yönde ilişkiliyken (-.75, $p < .001$) duygu düzenleme güçlükləriyle pozitif yönde ilişkilenmiştir (.18, $p = .001$). Hiçbir duygu düzenleme türü bağlanma yönelikleriyle ilişki değişkenleri arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık etmemiştir. Çalışmanın bulguları, yüksek düzeyde bağlanma kaygısı ve kaçınmasının duygu düzenleme güçlükləriyle ve düşük düzeyde ilişki doyumuyla ilişkili olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Bununla birlikte, bağlanma yöneliklerinin içsel kişilerarası duygu düzenleme ve bağlanma davranışlarıyla nasıl ilişkilendiği birbirinden farklılık göstermiştir. Türkiye'deki çiftler bağlamında içsel kişilerarası duygu düzenleme ve bağlanma davranışları üzerine daha fazla araştırma yapılmasına ihtiyaç vardır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Bağlanma davranışları, bağlanma kaygısı, bağlanma kaçınması, duygu düzenlemeye güçlüklər, kişilerarası duygu düzenleme, yeni evli çiftler, ilişki doyumu

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my advisor, Dr. Gizem Erdem, for her guidance, support, and feedback throughout my master's studies and for providing an environment where we can discuss our research ideas, expand our perspectives, and learn from each other in the research lab, 3R. I am lucky to know such a competent researcher in relationship science.

I am also grateful to my thesis committee members, Dr. Mehmet Eskin and Dr. Ayşe Altan Atalay, for their valuable feedback and suggestions. Dr. Altan Atalay introduced me to the topic of emotion regulation, and her work inspired me very much.

My mother, father, and brother always believe I can accomplish what I want. Even though I made mistakes or failed sometimes, they have always supported me, tried their best to help me, and given their unconditional love. I could only pursue my goals with them.

With my friends Aylin and Bilhan, we have come so far since our undergraduate years and overcome important life events together—I am thankful for their true friendship. I am deeply grateful to my friend Mehmet. He influenced me with his point of view on many things and helped me think about social sciences in general. I have also met my clever, funny, and lovely friends Çağla, Hande, Dilara, Yaren, İlayda, Özlem, Ebru, and Ezgi in my graduate studies, who made this period joyful to remember.

I also want to thank my oldest friends, Helin, Eda, Renan, and Ece, for believing in me and giving me a safe place to be myself for many years.

Last, I appreciate having the presence of Alp. He brought much peace, joy, and intellect to my life with great music.

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ABBREVIATIONS

ER	Emotion Regulation
IER	Interpersonal Emotion Regulation
IIER	Intrinsic Interpersonal Emotion Regulation
EPA	Enhancing Positive Affect
PT	Perspective Taking
S	Soothing
SM	Social Modeling
SES	Socioeconomic Status
LGBT	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, and Transgender
ECR-R	Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised
DERS-16	Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale-Brief Form
IERQ	Interpersonal Emotion Regulation Questionnaire
BARE	Brief Accessibility, Responsiveness, and Engagement Scale
RAS	Relationship Assessment Scale
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
RMSEA	Root Mean Squares Error of Approximation
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
CI	Confidence Interval

Chapter 1: **INTRODUCTION**

The transition to marriage is an important attachment-related life event and a stressor for romantic couples (Quinn & Odell, 1998; Cobb et al., 2001; Crowell et al., 2002). Bowlby (1969) stated that getting married is a “big change in environment or organism” (p. 82). The transition to marriage implies a stressful period where newly married couples form relationships with the in-laws, make decisions about their marital relationship (i.e., having a child or not), and establish their ‘coupledom’ (Finn, 2012; Hall & Adams, 2011; Schramm et al., 2005; Tso, 2012). In addition, marriage brings risks and new arrangements that need to be taken care of, such as work-life balance and managing debts or economic instability (Quinn & Odell, 1998; Schramm et al., 2005). Within the marriage literature, newlywed couples generally have been characterized as couples who have just got married and by those who have been married for one to two years, and sometimes up to five years (e.g., Kurdek, 1991; Schneewind & Gerhard, 2002). Longitudinal studies on marriage literature indicate that, on average, the initial levels of relationship satisfaction of newlywed couples decrease over time (McNulty et al., 2014; Lavner et al., 2014). Kurdek (1998) named this phenomenon as the *honeymoon-is-over effect*. Several individual, relational, and external factors can explain these declines in marital satisfaction. As intrapersonal factors, neuroticism and self-esteem have been considered as the two personality traits that are noticeably negatively associated with relationship satisfaction (Karney & Bradbury, 1995; Orth et al., 2010). The neuroticism level of both wives and husbands has negative associations with marital satisfaction among newlyweds (Karney & Bradbury, 1995; 1997).

Moreover, newlywed spouses’ trait anxiety predicted negative marital outcomes 13 years later, such that one’s trait anxiety was positively associated with the negativity of oneself, especially wives’ negativity also evoked negativity in their spouse. Consequently, negativity was negatively associated with marital satisfaction. (Cauglin et al., 2000). In another study that used a couple-centered approach with newlyweds, spouses’ attachment style similarity was positively associated with marital satisfaction (Luo & Klohnen, 2005). As a couple-level factor, spouses’ perception of each others’ attachment security was found to be a predictor of relationship satisfaction among newlyweds one year after (Cobb et al., 2001). Other interpersonal factors in marital

interactions, such as conflict resolution and social support, have been strongly associated with marital satisfaction (e.g., Gottman & Notarius, 2000; Kiecolt-Glaser et al., 2003; Sullivan et al., 2010). Compared to satisfied couples, dissatisfied couples at the 10-year follow-up were found to demonstrate higher levels of negative behaviors during a conflict in the first year of marriage (Kiecolt-Glaser et al., 2003).

In addition, the frequency of positive affect and conflict management skills have been associated with marital stability and satisfaction (Karney & Bradbury, 1995; Sullivan et al., 2010). Consistent with this finding, Williamson (2021) found that in a diverse sample of newlyweds ($N = 431$), the best communicators (high levels of positive affect and effective problem-solving, low levels of negative affect) had more adaptive relationship characteristics. Among wives, the best communicators had the lowest divorce rate (9%), while the worst had the highest divorce rate (22%). In their longitudinal study, Sullivan and colleagues (2010) observed and coded the behaviors of spouses during interpersonal tasks (while discussing a conflictual situation and while asking for and giving support) shortly after marriage and one year later. The behaviors demonstrated by newlywed spouses in the social support task predicted decreases in the affective quality of problem-solving within the relationship, lower levels of marital satisfaction, and a higher risk of divorce. The authors also indicated that couples with poor support skills in early marriage were less happy and had a higher likelihood of divorce over the first ten years of their marriage (Sullivan et al., 2010). Besides a between-spouses or within-spouses variable, other external factors (e.g., work stress, finances) can influence the marital relationship. According to Karney and Bradbury's (1995) vulnerability-stress-adaptation (VSA) model of marital development, couples exposed to stressful events may become more vulnerable to experiencing negative outcomes in their marriage (e.g., Woszidlo & Segrin, 2013).

Due to many factors' possible inclusion in marital processes, their combination may lead to different marital outcomes. In their exchange typology of marital relationships, Lewis and Spanier (1979, 1982) proposed marital satisfaction and stability as the orthogonal dimensions of marital outcomes. While marital satisfaction is about a spouse's subjective evaluation of what a good marriage is, marital stability refers to whether the marriage is continuing or the couple is separated or divorced. Marital satisfaction and stability are considered to be two distinct but related constructs. During the course of a marriage, declining levels of marital satisfaction could be one of

the predictors of marital instability and might increase the risk of relationship dissolution, hence leading to separation or divorce.

Lawrence and colleagues (2008) longitudinally studied couples married for less than six months and in their first marriage over the first three years of this marriage at four-time points. The researchers investigated the quality of couples' behaviors or skills in different relationship domains dyadically, which altogether refers to couple relationship functioning. Relationship functioning domains included (1) emotional closeness and intimacy, (2) spousal support, (3) sensuality and quality of the sexual relationship, (4) decision-making and relational control, and (5) communication and conflict management. For every domain, Lawrence and colleagues (2008) found that dyadic interactional behaviors at the time of marriage predicted initial marriage satisfaction for both husbands and wives. Higher levels of couple functioning were associated with higher levels of marriage satisfaction at the initial times of marriage. It was also shown that there is a sex difference in the changes in marital satisfaction among husbands and wives. For husbands, dyadic functioning in decision-making and control, communication/conflict management, and sexuality domains uniquely predicted the changes in marital satisfaction. For wives, the changes in marriage satisfaction were only uniquely predicted by the communication/conflict management domain. The conflict management domain was the strongest predictor among other domains for wives. This finding that dyadic communication/conflict skills specifically influenced wives' marital satisfaction trajectory was also supported by other studies (e.g., Karney & Bradbury, 1997). Marriage literature highlighted the longitudinal link between conflict behavior and changes in marital satisfaction (for a review, see Bradbury & Karney, 1993). Research suggests that when couples experience intense distress or disagreements, they may engage in maladaptive patterns of interactions such as criticizing one another harshly and condescendingly (Gottman, 1994), forming overgeneralizing, negative attributions (Bradbury & Fincham, 1990), and getting stuck in a demand-withdraw pattern (Bloch et al., 2014).

According to Reis and Shaver's intimacy process model (1988), responding to a partner's emotional disclosure during daily interactions is beneficial in advancing and preserving closeness and intimacy. In these interactions, each partner conveys their needs and worries about the relationship through their emotional responses as the other partner's responses give feedback regarding the quality of the relationship, then shape

the future of the following interactions and relationship outcomes (Schoebi & Randall, 2015). Schoebi and Randall (2015) exemplified this situation by when one partner expresses or reveals their feelings, worries, or needs, which should motivate the other partner to give an empathic and supportive response. Then, if the receiver partner sufficiently perceives these vulnerable moments, they can respond in an understanding, caring, and validating way.

Sharing positive emotions is another emotional dynamic that has great potential to improve relationship experiences. When positive emotional episodes are shared with one another, this effect expands to the relationship and its quality (e.g., intimacy, longevity, daily marital satisfaction; Gable & Reis, 2010, as cited in Rimé et al., 2020). Gable and Reis (2010) named this process of social sharing of positive events with others “capitalization” (p.4). That is, positive emotions shared with relatively close others show the effect of capitalization not only in intrapersonal processes but also in interpersonal processes. The capitalization theory also adopts the significance of responsiveness to positive experiences and emotions (Gable et al., 2004). It is helpful to share positive experiences with one’s partner if they respond positively (active/constructive). However, if they respond negatively (passive/destructive), this might be harmful (Schoebi & Randall, 2015). When couples experience intense emotions over the course of the marriage, there may be several different consequences. On the one hand, effective emotion regulation strategies of partners (e.g., putting into perspective, positive refocusing, positive reappraisal, and planning refocusing) might support the other partner and promote relationship satisfaction (Rusu et al., 2019). On the other hand, maladaptive emotion regulation may be an additional stressor for the relationship (e.g., Horn et al., 2021; Leone et al., 2022). Therefore, preserving emotional connectedness and navigating emotional responses in challenging situations is crucial for relationship functioning in the marital context (Velotti et al., 2016). Considering the findings mentioned above, newlyweds’ engaging in adaptive emotion regulation and positive behaviors that support relationship maintenance might be crucial in diminishing the adverse effects of possible stressors at the early times of marriage.

1.1 Emotion Regulation

In general, emotion regulation (ER) refers to both extrinsic and intrinsic processes that are used to monitor, evaluate, and modify emotional reactions

(Thompson, 1994). According to the *process model* of ER (Gross, 1998; Gross, 2015; McRae & Gross, 2020), emotions are physiological, experiential, and/or behavioral responses generated through several consecutive stages. In the first level of the process model, emotion generation begins when one is in a specific situation (situation). Then, the person attends to what features this situation includes (attention). Followingly, the person evaluates the situation with respect to one's current goals (appraisal). Finally, the person responds to the situation (response). The response can produce a novel feature in the situation, and then these stages can repeat themselves in a cycle.

The second level of the model involves the ER strategies that are determined by in which stage of emotion generation they interfere. These strategies are situation selection, situation modification, attentional deployment, cognitive change, and response modulation, respectively, corresponding to emotion generation stages. The person can employ these different strategies to change the duration, intensity, or nature of their emotions.

The third level of the model concerns the procedure that the person experiences through using ER strategies. First, according to McRae and Gross (2020), after the person identifies that there is a discrepancy between one's goal state (i.e., the emotional state they would like to be in) and their current (or projected) state, the ER cycle starts (Gross, 2015). Second, the person chooses ER strategies, among others. Third, the person uses these strategies through certain methods. Fourth, the person keeps track of the cycle altogether with regard to being successful in the ER process (McRae & Gross, 2020).

Gratz and Roemer (2004) approached emotion regulation as a multidimensional competence that includes awareness, understanding, and acceptance of emotions; not behaving impulsively but strategically while trying to achieve the desired goals; and having the flexibility to use different strategies to change the emotional responses by the demands of contextual factors and individual's goals. To some degree, the lack of these abilities could indicate emotion dysregulation. Gratz and Roemer (2004) conceptualized difficulties in ER through *awareness* (deficiency in emotional awareness), *clarity* (deficiency in emotional clarity), *non-acceptance* (having a nonaccepting attitude toward emotional responses), *strategies* (difficulties in accessing the emotion strategies), *impulse* (difficulties in controlling impulsive behaviors), and *goals* (not

behaving in accordance with goals when upset). Gratz and Roemer (2004) emphasized the two distinct aspects of their model: ER includes both comprehending and accepting one's emotions, along with strategies for altering and handling these emotions.

While developing a measure to access difficulties in ER (Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale; DERS, Gratz & Roemer, 2004), it was found that there were significantly negative relationships between the difficulties in ER construct (and its subdimensions) and expectancy of negative mood regulation (i.e., one's level of belief in their efforts for changing their negative mood is possible) and emotional expressivity. In contrast, overall difficulties in ER and its subdimensions were significantly positively associated with emotional avoidance. Moreover, the subscales of DERS were significantly related to clinical outcomes. For women, especially the awareness and clarity subscales were associated with self-harm behavior, while for men, it was the nonacceptance subscale. According to Gratz and Roemer (2004), difficulties in ER have been studied in the development and maintenance of psychological disorders in the clinical realm, which involve substance abuse (e.g., Hayes et al., 1996), generalized anxiety disorder (e.g., Mennin et al., 2002), complex posttraumatic stress disorder (e.g., Cloitre, 1998) and borderline personality disorder (e.g., Linehan, 1993). So, difficulties in ER might be an influential construct to understand emotion dysregulation both for clinical and nonclinical populations.

1.2 Interpersonal Emotion Regulation

According to Barthel and colleagues (2018), initial conceptualizations of ER have focused on intrapersonal or individual aspects, including one's impact on one's own emotions at hand, their timing, and the way of experiencing and expressing those emotions (e.g., Gross, 1998). However, emotion regulation efforts mostly happen in the presence of significant others, particularly friends, romantic interests, roommates, and family members (Gross et al., 2006). Hofmann and colleagues (2016) have proposed interpersonal emotion regulation (IER) as another process to understand the experience, expression, and regulation of emotions. IER includes relational processes that occur in a social context in which emotions are evoked, experienced, and regulated mostly in the presence of other people, starting from the caregiver-infant relationship and continuing with peer relations and adult attachments (Hofmann et al., 2016). Hofmann (2014) argued that the process model of intrapersonal emotion regulation assumes a rather

simplistic way of an input-output relationship between the triggers and responses and overemphasizes internal processes. Barthel and colleagues (2018) also indicated that Gross' model (1998) did not give credit for the potential effect of environmental features and the situation regarding changing the person's state and not going beyond only stimuli to which the person will respond. This was considered a significant difference between intrapersonal ER and IER. In IER, both emotion generation and emotion regulation can take place in the social context. Moreover, since the emotion regulation process arises in a social context and grants the maintenance of relationships, interpersonal factors play essential roles in emotion regulation (Hofmann et al., 2016).

Zaki and Williams (2013) proposed *intrinsic* versus *extrinsic IER* and *response-independent* versus *response-dependent IER strategies* in their conceptual framework of IER. Intrinsic IER (IIER) is related to one person's regulating emotions by employing the help of another person. In comparison, extrinsic regulation occurs when one person regulates other people's emotions. Both types of IER can be either response-dependent or response-independent. If response-dependent, the process necessitates a specific response from other individuals. On the other hand, if response-independent, it is unnecessary or not possible for another individual to respond in the interaction.

Other noteworthy models include Niven and colleagues' (2009, 2011) model on *interpersonal affect regulation* (a process of deliberately changing others' affective states via extrinsic affect improving and extrinsic affect worsening) and Williams and colleagues' (2018) model with behaviors and beliefs about IIER (the frequency of individuals' IIER use and the perceived IIER efficacy in how IIER use helps with their emotions). In addition, Hofmann and colleagues (2016) constructed a new model for the IER with four categories of strategies: (1) enhancing positive affect (EPA), (2) perspective taking (PT), (3) soothing (S), and (4) social modeling (SM). EPA is related to the tendency to reach other people when one is experiencing positive emotions. In PT, the individual gets confirmation from others about the perceived negative situation they are in to be reminded that the situation is not actually that bad. In S, the individual searches for others for comfort and sympathy. Finally, SM is about looking at other people's coping strategies to adapt for their own use in stressful situations. Taking the different perspectives on IER above into account, the current study adopted Hofmann and colleagues' (2016) model of IER. However, it is noteworthy that we decided not to include the EPA strategy in our conceptualization of IIER. Since the EPA can be

considered an IER strategy in which the regulator aims to influence another person's affective state along with oneself, eliminating extrinsic IER components seems more appropriate conceptually.

1.3 Attachment and Emotion Regulation

1.3.1 Attachment and Intrapersonal Emotion Regulation

Bowlby's attachment theory (1969, 1973, 1982) asserts that infants fulfill their psychological needs for love, trust, and a sense of security by building an emotional bond with their primary caregivers. According to Mikulincer and Shaver (2005), Bowlby's attachment theory explains how emotion regulation and attachment processes are related to one another. Infants seek proximity as the primary strategy for regulating their emotions in times of distress. If the infant's needs are met, it creates "a sense of attachment security" (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2007, p. 447). When attachment figures do not respond to the infant's needs, a negative internal working model (as Bowlby named it) develops.

The attachment bond between caregiver and infant forms the basis of one's attachment style (mental representations of self and others), which guides their experiences throughout life, including romantic relationships (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). If the primary caregiver provides a secure environment and meets the needs of the child consistently, responsively, and attentively, the child will feel loved, confident, and safe. This leads to the development of an *internal working model* that includes a positive representation of oneself and others. Having this kind of representation makes the individual more resilient in general (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016; Karreman & Vingerhoets, 2012). Securely attached individuals use functional emotion regulation strategies (e.g., problem-solving and reappraisal) and believe they can help others in stressful situations, and they can rely on others and seek their support if they experience difficulties (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2002). Thus, they have a high emotion regulation capacity in adulthood.

On the other hand, Shaver and Mikulincer (2007) described hyperactivating and deactivating strategies as secondary attachment strategies that individuals with insecure attachment use. During infancy, one may adapt hyperactivating strategies to get as close

as possible to the attachment figure or deactivating strategies to avoid the caregiver (Dozier & Kobak, 1992).

According to Mikulincer and Shaver (2005), hyperactivating strategies originate from established patterns of behaviors that, when inattentive, self-preoccupied, or anxious attachment figures responded unpredictably to infant's demands, the infant had the perception of *protest* behavior (calling, crying, contacting, and clinging; Bowlby, 1969, 1982) increased the likelihood of getting a response. After the ongoing use and effects of hyperactivating strategies, patterns of attachment styles "anxious," "anxious-ambivalent," or "anxious-resistant" occur (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Cassidy & Berlin, 1994). Deactivating strategies stem from former interactions with an emotionally distant, rejecting, or hostile attachment figure who responded negatively (e.g., withdrawing, disapproving, showing anger) when needing help and support. Responding this way frequently, as a result, would heighten the tendency of the infant to inhibit, suppress, or deactivate the usual attachment behavior associated with avoidant attachment (Ainsworth et al., 1978). According to Mikulincer and Shaver (2005), Bowlby (1969, 1982) identified this as "compulsive self-reliance."

Shaver & Mikulincer (2002; 2007) argue that hyperactivating and deactivating strategies continue through adult romantic relationships and occur via two dimensions of the attachment system: attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance. The attachment avoidance dimension indicates the extent to which a person mistrusts their partner, seeks independence, and refrains from getting emotionally close. Those high in attachment avoidance are more likely to use deactivation strategies, where a person denies or undervalues the potential threats; suppresses or denies the worries, needs, and vulnerabilities; and refuses the need for an attachment figure such as a romantic relationship partner. This makes the person reluctant to rely on their partner for support and to feel discomfort with closeness (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

The attachment anxiety dimension is related to the degree of a person's worries about rejection and abandonment and the tendency to worry about their partner's responsiveness in times of need (Brennan et al., 1998). Attachment anxiety is linked to hyperactivation strategies: one is sensitive to threats from the environment and expressive about fears, needs, and doubts. Thus, the person tends to display dependent behavior, intense and frequent proximity seeking and contact maintenance, and

clinginess (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Fraley & Shaver, 1998). The person concentrates on their own emotion but overemphasizes their own feelings regarding vulnerability and helplessness (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2019).

The relationship between attachment orientations and emotion regulation has been studied conceptually and empirically for the last couple of decades (e.g., Mikulincer & Shaver, 2019; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2003). Accordingly, Hazan and Shaver (1987) argue that attachment orientations are directly linked to one's emotional experiences and beliefs about the relationship as well as relationship outcomes. Securely attached adults feel comfortable when they relate to and rely on romantic partners and have a positive attitude about the future of their relationships (Collins & Read, 1990). When exposed to relational distress, individuals with high attachment security are likely to regulate their emotions effectively using a variety of problem-solving and reappraisal strategies. They use security-based attachment strategies, which help them engage in functional displays of anger when a relationship partner behaves negatively and handle possible relational difficulties in a constructive and transformative way to preserve intimate relationships (e.g., Feeney et al. 1994; Mikulincer, 1998). The relationship between emotion regulation (ER) and attachment orientations has also been studied using an experimental research design. In one study (Ben-Naim et al., 2013), couples were instructed to use either cognitive reappraisal (i.e., thinking about the positive aspects of the relationship) or affective suppression. It was found that ER manipulations influenced both partners' physiology, emotional behavior, and emotional experience. These effects were aggregated for individuals high on attachment anxiety but were lower for those high on attachment avoidance. Moreover, intrapersonal emotional abilities mediated the relationship between attachment style and relationship functioning, especially for the engagement and communication aspects (Constant et al., 2021).

Individuals with secure attachment have a wider range of emotional experiences with more flexibility (for a review, see Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016). They adopt a calmer perspective on possible threats and dangers, and since they can also overcome them when difficulties arise, they are welcoming towards experiencing their emotions and expressing their feelings without censoring themselves (Mikulincer, 2019). They tend to give emotional reactions to preserve and improve their close relationship partner's relationship quality and well-being. On the other hand, both the deactivating

strategies of avoidantly attached individuals and the hyperactivating strategies of anxiously attached individuals lead to dysfunctional displays of anger when responding to the relationship partner's negative behavior (Rholes et al., 1999). Compared to securely attached individuals, their emotional demonstrations are narrower. People with higher attachment avoidance tend to have defensive self-enhancement in their emotional lives, and independent of the relational context, they tend to possess negative feelings towards others (e.g., hostility, resentment, pity, gloating, contempt, hostile envy; Florian et al., 1999; Mikulincer, 1998). They use cognitive distancing and emotional disengagement to deal with negative emotions (e.g., Birnbaum et al., 1997; Mikulincer & Florian, 1995; Mikulincer, 1998). During emotion regulation, individuals with high levels of attachment avoidance tend to hinder and suppress their emotions because feeling those emotions is against their goal of deactivating the attachment system. Emotions such as fear, anxiety, anger, sadness, shame, guilt, and distress are the targets of inhibitory efforts because they connote being under threat and vulnerable for the individual with high avoidance tendencies (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016, 2019). As Mikulincer and Shaver (2019) explained, anger indicates emotional involvement or investment in a relationship for the highly avoidant individual within a relational context. Yet, this would not align with their deactivated attachment system prioritizing independence and self-reliance, so they engage in inhibitory efforts (Cassidy, 1994). However, people with higher attachment anxiety are inclined to feel overwhelmed due to the negative feelings evoked by a stressful relational situation (e.g., Pietromonaco & Barrett, 1997). For a positive relational incident, inconsistent with what would be expected, they tend to express a mixture of positive and negative emotions. They do not take credit for being the source of their partners' happiness (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005). They engage in mental rumination and over-focusing to manage emotions evoked by hyperactivation (Gökdağ, 2021).

Overall, attachment insecurity has been linked to emotion dysregulation (e.g., Shaver & Mikulincer, 2007; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2019; Cheche Hoover & Jackson, 2021). Specifically, both attachment anxiety and avoidance were found to be associated with emotional non-acceptance and a deficit in emotional clarity (Velotti et al., 2016). Attachment anxiety was also associated with difficulties in resisting impulsive behaviors and enabling the use of effective emotion regulation strategies. Meanwhile, attachment avoidance was correlated with insufficient emotional awareness (Velotti et

al., 2016). Furthermore, Goodall (2015) found that attachment avoidance predicted the dampening of positive emotions (i.e., decreasing the intensity of positive emotions), while high attachment anxiety with low self-esteem predicted the dampening of positive emotions.

1.3.2 Attachment and Interpersonal Emotion Regulation

A few studies have directly examined the link between attachment and Hofmann's framework of IER (e.g., Soleimani et al., 2018; Gökdağ, 2021). So far, studies have documented that attachment anxiety is significantly positively related to IER (Hofmann et al., 2016; Koç et al., 2019; Gökdağ et al., 2019; Gökdağ, 2021). However, it is worth mentioning that the significant association between soothing and attachment anxiety seems to be the most robust one (e.g., Gökdağ et al., 2019; Altan-Atalay, 2019; Koç et al., 2019; Gökdağ, 2021). It has been suggested that individuals with high attachment anxiety tend to put the burden of their upsetting emotions on others, so they engage in soothing (Altan-Atalay, 2019). There are slight variations among other IER strategies regarding the link between those and attachment anxiety. Social modeling was found to be significantly positively correlated with attachment anxiety in some studies (e.g., Gökdağ et al., 2019; Koç et al., 2019; Gökdağ, 2021; Altan-Atalay, 2019). For the perspective taking strategy, most of the studies reported a significant positive relationship (e.g., Gökdağ et al., 2019; Koç et al., 2019; Gökdağ, 2021), except one study found a nonsignificant relationship (Altan-Atalay, 2019). Furthermore, enhancing positive affect was not significantly associated with attachment anxiety in some studies (e.g., Koç et al., 2019; Altan-Atalay, 2019). This might be attributable to the nonlinear relationship between attachment anxiety and expression of positive emotions because individuals who have higher levels of attachment anxiety may not show their positive emotions (e.g., love and intimacy) towards another person due to being uncertain about whether their positive emotions will be reciprocated from that person (Feeney, 1999). Individuals with high attachment anxiety struggle with regulating their negative emotions. Therefore, they seek the compassion and sympathy of others for soothing (Gökdağ, 2021).

The relationship between attachment avoidance and IER strategies in Hofmann's model has been investigated as well, and this relationship might be considered more ambiguous (Hofmann et al., 2016; Gökdağ et al., 2019; Gökdağ, 2021; Koç et al., 2019;

Altan-Atalay, 2019). For instance, while some studies found a significant negative association between attachment avoidance and enhancing positive affect (Gökdağ et al., 2019; Gökdağ, 2021; Koç et al., 2019), some studies found a significant positive association (e.g., Altan-Atalay, 2019). In a romantic relationship context, individuals who score higher levels on attachment avoidance tend not to ask for support from their spouses, not communicate their distress, and not let their partners know about the negative situations they experience (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2007). So, it is likely that individuals with high attachment avoidance will be less eager to approach their romantic partner to gain help to regulate their negative emotions. Moreover, Feeney (1999) noted that avoidant individuals are less likely to express positive emotions to their partners since they do not want to get too close to them. Niven and colleagues (2012) aimed to investigate whether attachment styles impact IER strategies used across different relationship contexts. They found that high attachment anxiety is positively associated with high variability in the use of IER strategies ('spin') across various relationships. Spin can be maladaptive for individual well-being and interpersonal behavior in social contexts (Moskowitz & Zuroff, 2004) because relationship partners in different contexts might perceive the regulator as inconsistent. High levels of spin were associated with lower levels of empathic concern and perspective taking. In this study, there was not a significant relationship between attachment avoidance and interpersonal spin. This finding could be explained by the characteristic of highly avoidant individuals, that is, their effort for lack of emotional connection in all their relationships (Niven et al., 2012).

1.4 ER, IER, and Relationship Satisfaction

Both intrapersonal and interpersonal ER take part in the context of social interactions and close relationships, including romantic relationships. Partners might affect each others' emotional state, and this provides an exchange of ER in romantic relationships (Butler & Randall, 2013). Levenson and colleagues (2014) explained that couples struggling in their relationship mostly have challenges in the downregulation of negative emotions. Some possible reasons for the generation of those negative emotions can be jealousy-related problems, sharing of household duties, childcare, and relatives. For couples having difficulties in their relationship, the upregulation of positive emotions might be at an insufficient level as well. Opportunities for upregulation might

be missed due to poor and limited communication, spending little time together, decrease in sexual interest and intimacy, and deficiency in warmth and empathy. (Levenson et al., 2014).

For the two of the highly used emotion regulation strategies, studies document that while reappraisal tends to result in more favorable consequences both in intrapersonal (Gross & John, 2003) and interpersonal domains with better relational outcomes, including relationship satisfaction (Ben-Naim et al., 2013; Butler et al., 2003; Velotti et al., 2016; Kardum et al., 2021). Additionally, suppression has a higher likelihood of being associated with negative interpersonal behavior, poorer relationship quality, and lower relationship satisfaction (Ben-Naim et al., 2013; Vater & Schröder-Abé, 2015; Chervonsky & Hunt, 2017). Butler and colleagues (2003) indicated that expressive suppression resembles *stonewalling*, a term used in marriage literature (Gottman & Levenson, 1988; Levenson, 1994) to indicate avoidance behavior during conflicts. Stonewalling is associated with lower levels of marital satisfaction for both partners. On the other hand, during a relationship conflict interaction, a partner employing cognitive reappraisal through thinking about the positive features of that relationship led to the experience of lower levels of negative affect for both partners (Ben-Naim et al., 2013). Similarly, brief reappraisal interventions for relational conflicts prevented the declines in marital quality at the two-year follow-up (Finkel et al., 2013).

Falconier and colleagues (2023) investigated each dimension of difficulties in ER (awareness, clarity, acceptance, goal orientation, strategies, and impulse control) concerning stress communication and dyadic coping responses among couples. They found that only women's emotional awareness (but not other ER dimensions) was indirectly linked to men's supportive dyadic coping in stressful situations. Moreover, common dyadic coping of couples increases as a result of women's communication about their stress escalate. In contrast, there was no significant relationship between men's ER dimensions and their stress communication. The authors suggested that for women, having emotional awareness could be enough to discuss their stress with their partners, while labeling their emotions or accepting their emotional state might not significantly impact their stress communication. The authors argued that women might tend to pay attention to their own feelings, and this may allow them to their partners for support in difficult situations. Women may not require a precise understanding of their emotions or their causes to seek help.

There are relatively few studies that investigate the role of IER in romantic relationships. Using Niven and colleagues' (2009) model of IER (affect-improving and affect-worsening strategies), Jitaru (2020) found that the use of IER improvement strategies was positively associated with couple satisfaction for both men and women. Likewise, there was a significant positive relationship between enhancing positive affect and relationship satisfaction (Florea & Păsărelu, 2019). When couples down-regulate the negative emotions (an affect-improving IER strategy) of their romantic partner, the stress level experienced by the partner can decrease, thanks to the outside perspective of the regulator partner (Levy-Gigi & Shamay-Tsoory, 2017). Since stressful experiences might lead to marital dissatisfaction (e.g., Gana & Jakubowska, 2016; Story & Repetti, 2006; Randall & Bodenmann, 2009), employing affect-improving IER might have a buffering role. On the other hand, adopting IER affect-worsening strategies can result in lower relationship satisfaction. Jitaru (2020) found that using affect-worsening strategies was negatively associated with couple satisfaction for both genders. The author evaluated withdrawal behaviors and punitive intent (Prager et al., 2019), hostile criticism (Klein et al., 2016), and ridicule (Brauer & Proyer, 2018) as affect-worsening IER that can have a negative influence on relationship satisfaction.

Moreover, some studies showed that individuals experiencing psychological difficulties (e.g., depression, Horn & Maercker, 2016; stress, Levy-Gigi & Shamay-Tsoory, 2017) could benefit from IER strategies within their romantic relationships. For instance, Schodt and Mickelson (2023) investigated the associations among relationship-specific emotion expressivity, IER, and relationship health among individuals who had been in a romantic relationship for at least three months. The results showed that independent of social anxiety symptoms, IER mediated the positive relationship between emotion expressivity and relationship health.

1.5 Attachment Behaviors and Relationship Satisfaction among Romantic and Married Couples

Attachment behaviors in romantic relationships are comprised of “accessibility,” “responsiveness,” and “engagement” (Feeney, 2002; Rholes et al., 2001). Accessibility refers to situations where one partner is distressed, and the other partner can be emotionally available to them (Bowlby, 1973; Mikulincer & Goodman, 2006). Responsiveness is related to one partner’s ability to respond in a soothing and

comforting way to the other partner who experiences an emotionally challenging situation. Holman, Carroll, Busby, and Klein (2007) emphasized the importance of accessibility and responsiveness in an attachment relationship and stated that accessibility by itself is not sufficient without responsiveness because the partner's ability or willingness to respond in nurturing and gentle manners is lacking (Novak et al., 2017). Lastly, engagement is the attachment behavior characterized by one partner's demand for closeness is responded to in a comforting and soothing way by the other partner, and these behaviors are associated with the emergence of bonding moments (Johnson, 2004).

Accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement are attachment behaviors that are highly associated with relationship outcomes and communication processes in both clinical and community samples of couples (Sandberg et al., 2012; Sandberg et al., 2016). Those findings suggest a link between global attachment styles and desirable relationship outcomes through attachment behaviors. For example, Sandberg, Bradford, and Brown (2017) examined the differential effect of attachment styles and attachment behavior on married couples' relationship quality. They noted that attachment styles and behaviors are distinguished from each other: The predecessor is related to feelings or beliefs (i.e., the working model) of the person towards their romantic relationship. In contrast, the posterior is about one partner's specific actions that affect attachment security in a relationship. Therefore, attachment styles and behaviors are two different but highly correlated constructs that are helpful in understanding romantic attachment in adulthood.

Sandberg, Bradford, and Brown (2017) found that compared to attachment styles, attachment behaviors have higher correlations with relationship satisfaction. Alder et al. (2018) also emphasized the role of attachment behaviors by finding a significant positive association between attachment behaviors and higher marital satisfaction for both spouses. In other words, even when the spouses perceive their parents' marriage negatively, but their attachment behaviors are high in their own marriage, their marital satisfaction heightens. So, attachment behaviors had a moderator role in the association between the perception of parental marriage satisfaction and spouses' current marital satisfaction.

1.6 Emotion Regulation, Relationship Satisfaction, and Attachment: Research from Turkey

Studies related to emotion regulation among couples seem relatively scarce in the Turkish context. For instance, Kızıldağ and Vatan (2016) examined the associations among attachment, emotion regulation, and couple burnout. They found that marriage duration, attachment ambivalence, attachment avoidance, and difficulties in emotion regulation predicted the degrees of physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion in a marital relationship. Erkan and colleagues (2021) found that regular mindfulness practice might benefit relationship-related constructs (e.g., open emotional expression, presence, compassion) and intrapersonal constructs such as meta-awareness of emotional experiences and the use of effective emotion regulation strategies. Karataş (2019) investigated the associations among relationship satisfaction, emotion regulation difficulties, and interpersonal styles with individuals who are currently involved in a romantic relationship and found that higher levels of emotion regulation difficulties and negative interpersonal styles were associated with lower levels of relationship satisfaction. Moreover, difficulties in emotion regulation were negatively associated with marital satisfaction (Tekin & Karakuş, 2019).

Furthermore, the role of cultural differences has been emphasized within emotion and attachment research (e.g., Grossmann & Grossmann, 1990; Rothbaum et al., 2000; Butler et al., 2007; Zhu et al., 2016; Matsumoto et al., 2008). For example, Sümer and Güngör (1999) noted that since Turkey has been considered to have an emotionally interdependent culture with a focus on high autonomy and high relatedness (İmamoğlu, 1998; Kağıtçıbaşı, 1998), adult attachment styles require further explorations to understand its cross-cultural validity. In Sümer and Güngör's study (1999), it was found that there were cultural differences in attachment styles between Turkish and American student samples. Students in Turkey had higher levels of preoccupied attachment style and lower levels of fearful and dismissing attachment styles compared to students in the US. It is explained that the difference in the results of attachment styles between the two samples might be attributable to a cultural difference such that in accordance with the nature of collectivistic cultures, a tendency for overly prioritizing relationships and self-concept's reliance on being relational and dependent on others (İmamoğlu, 1998; Kağıtçıbaşı, 1998) could make individuals prone to have a preoccupied attachment style. Similarly, Zeytinoglu-Saydam, Söylemez, and Erdem

(2021) indicated that culturally specific attachment behaviors in Turkey need more investigation of adult attachment-related processes. Therefore, cross-cultural investigations of these processes might be valuable since the patterns observed in the Turkish context for ER and attachment-related processes in romantic relationships might differ from those in Western contexts. Studying these processes in early marriages can be informative for understanding newlywed Turkish adults' marital quality and satisfaction.

1.7 *The current study*

The current study takes its premises and design from the framework of the adult attachment theory (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Brennan et al., 1998). It examines attachment orientations as an individual difference-level factor that leads to differing levels of relationship satisfaction through difficulties in emotion regulation and intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation processes. In other words, it is argued that emotion regulation processes might be one of the mechanisms explaining the relationship between romantic attachment (anxiety and avoidance) and relationship satisfaction and attachment behaviors among newlyweds living in Turkey. Given the prior research on attachment and emotional dynamics of married couples (e.g., Velotti et al., 2016), the present study investigates the associations among ER and intrinsic IER, romantic attachment dimensions (attachment anxiety and avoidance), attachment behaviors (accessibility, responsiveness, engagement), and relationship satisfaction. The hypotheses of the study are as follows:

H1: Attachment anxiety and avoidance will be positively associated with difficulties in emotion regulation.

H2: Attachment anxiety and avoidance will be negatively associated with relationship satisfaction.

H3: Attachment anxiety will be positively associated with attachment behaviors.

H4: Attachment avoidance will be negatively associated with attachment behaviors.

H5: Attachment anxiety will be positively associated with intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation.

H6: Attachment avoidance will be negatively associated with intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation.

H7: Difficulties in emotion regulation will mediate the relationship between attachment anxiety and relationship satisfaction.

H8: Difficulties in emotion regulation will mediate the relationship between attachment avoidance and relationship satisfaction.

H9: Difficulties in emotion regulation will mediate the relationship between attachment anxiety and attachment behaviors.

H10: Difficulties in emotion regulation will mediate the relationship between attachment avoidance and attachment behaviors.

H11: Intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation will mediate the relationship between attachment avoidance and relationship satisfaction.

H12: Intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation will mediate the relationship between attachment anxiety and relationship satisfaction.

H13: Intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation will mediate the relationship between attachment anxiety and attachment behaviors.

H14: Intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation will mediate the relationship between attachment avoidance and attachment behaviors.

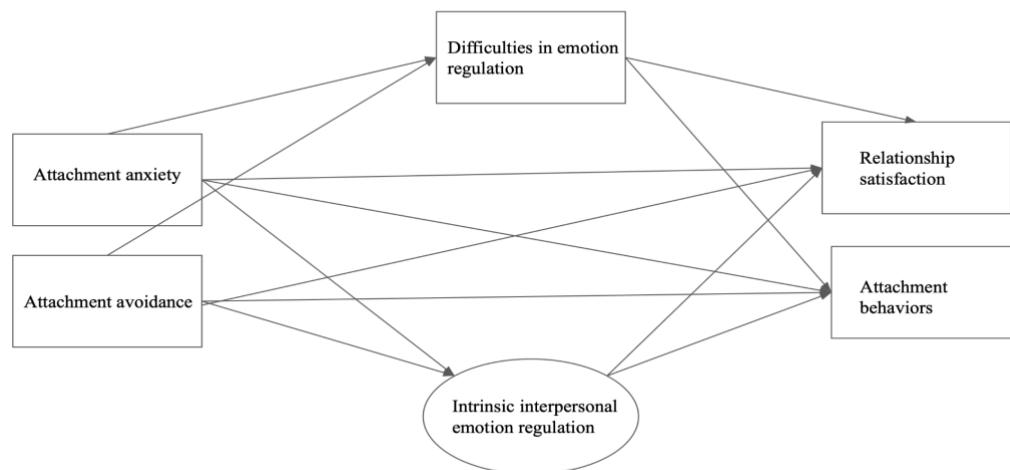


Figure 1: Hypothesized model.

Chapter 2:
METHOD

2.1 Participants and Procedure

Participants were recruited through social media platforms (i.e., Facebook, Twitter, Instagram), Koç University's daily e-mail system, and word of mouth. Eligibility criteria included being fluent in Turkish, being between the ages of 18-40 years, and being married for a minimum of 1 year and up to 5 years. Age and years of marriage were determined considering the statistics that most people in Turkey marry around the age range of 23-28, and divorce rates peak around the first 5 years of marriage and decelerate afterwards (TURKSTAT, 2020). Participants who were divorced and remarried were excluded from the study. Eligible participants signed the consent form electronically and continued with the online survey through Qualtrics. The survey took approximately 20 minutes to complete. Of the full sample, 181 participants were compensated with gift cards (worth 50 Turkish Liras). These procedures were all approved by the Institutional Review Board of Koç University (Protocol no: 2021.278.IRB3.125).

The projected sample size was calculated using GPower 3.1. The estimated sample size for a small to medium effect size ($d = .30$) and an alpha of .05 to achieve a power of .80 (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Fritz & MacKinnon, 2007) was 300. The final sample included 376 newlywed adults who were 30 years old ($SD = 3.59$) on average. The sample consisted predominantly of females (68.6 %, $n = 258$), and participants mostly identified as heterosexual (84.8%, $n = 312$). The majority of the sample was middle-income (72.6%, $n = 273$) and had higher education (95.2%, $n = 358$). Most of the participants were employed (77.7%, $n = 289$). The average relationship duration before marriage was 34.98 months ($SD = 28.82$). The sample characteristics are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Demographics (N = 376).

Age (years)	<i>Mean (SD)</i>	30 (3.59)
Sex		
Male	<i>n (%)</i>	117 (31.1%)
Female	<i>n (%)</i>	258 (68.6%)
Other	<i>n (%)</i>	1 (0.3%)
Sexual orientation		
Heterosexual	<i>n (%)</i>	312 (84.8%)
LGBT	<i>n (%)</i>	19 (5.2%)
Other	<i>n (%)</i>	37 (10%)
Children		
No children	<i>n (%)</i>	231 (61.6%)
One	<i>n (%)</i>	123 (32.8%)
Two	<i>n (%)</i>	21 (5.6%)
Relationship duration before marriage (months)	<i>Mean (SD)</i>	34.98 (28.82)
Perceived SES		
Very low	<i>n (%)</i>	7 (1.9%)
Low	<i>n (%)</i>	24 (6.4%)
Middle	<i>n (%)</i>	273 (72.6%)
High	<i>n (%)</i>	67 (17.8%)
Very high	<i>n (%)</i>	5 (1.3%)
Education level		
Primary	<i>n (%)</i>	1 (0.3%)
High school	<i>n (%)</i>	17 (4.5%)
University	<i>n (%)</i>	216 (57.4%)
Master's or PhD	<i>n (%)</i>	142 (37.8%)
Employment status		
Student	<i>n (%)</i>	36 (9.7%)
Employed	<i>n (%)</i>	289 (77.7%)
Unemployed/Searching for a job	<i>n (%)</i>	47 (12.6%)
Primary caregiver		
Mother	<i>n (%)</i>	330 (88.3%)

Father	<i>n</i> (%)	25 (6.7%)
Grandmother/Grandfather	<i>n</i> (%)	14 (3.7%)
Other (Aunt, uncle...)	<i>n</i> (%)	5 (1.3%)

2.2 *Measures*

The survey included a demographics form and measures of attachment behaviors, attachment orientations, relationship satisfaction, interpersonal emotion regulation, and intrapersonal emotion regulation. All the scales and questionnaires used in this study were originally developed and validated in English. We used validated Turkish versions in the current study.

2.2.1 *Independent variables*

2.2.1.1 *Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R)*

The scale was developed by Fraley, Waller, and Brennan (2000) to evaluate adult attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance. These dimensions are represented in the 18-item Anxiety subscale and 18-item Avoidance subscale. The Anxiety subscale indicates the degree of individuals' tendencies to worry about attachment-related concerns (e.g., availability and responsiveness of the attachment figure), whereas the Avoidance subscale demonstrates the degree of individuals' tendencies to reveal themselves to and trust others. Responses are given on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 7 (totally agree). Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses indicated that ECR-R is a reliable and replicable self-report measure of adult attachment with two factors (Sibley & Riu, 2004). The internal reliabilities for the anxiety subscale and avoidance subscales were $\alpha = .93$ and $\alpha = .91$, respectively (Sibley & Riu, 2004). The scale was adapted to Turkish (YİYE-II) by Selçuk, Günaydin, Sümer, and Uysal (2005) using a college student sample. With this sample, the Anxiety and Avoidance subscales had high internal reliability with Cronbach's alphas of .86 and .90, respectively. A sample item for the anxiety subscale is "I'm afraid that I will lose my partner's love," and a sample item for the avoidance subscale is "I prefer not to be too close to romantic partners." In the current sample, the attachment anxiety subscale

has a Cronbach's alpha of .81, while the Cronbach's alpha for the attachment avoidance subscale was .92.

2.2.2 *Mediators*

2.2.2.1 *Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale-Brief Form (DERS-16)*

This 16-item scale was developed by Bjureberg et al. (2016) to assess emotion regulation difficulties, and it has five subdimensions, which are Clarity (lack of emotional clarity), Goals (difficulties engaging in goal-directed behavior), Impulse (impulse control difficulties), Strategies (limited access to effective emotion regulation strategies), and non-acceptance (nonacceptance of emotional responses). Respondents' answers range from 1 (almost never) to 5 (almost always). Example items for the subscales include "I have difficulty making sense out of my feelings." (clarity), "When I am upset, I have difficulty getting work done" (goals), "When I am upset, I become out of control" (impulse), "When I am upset, I feel ashamed with myself for feeling that way" (nonacceptance), and "When I am upset, I believe that there is nothing I can do to make myself feel better" (strategies). Higher scores imply having more difficulty in emotion regulation. In the present study, a total score of the difficulties in emotion regulation was used as an observed variable to maintain the parsimony of the structural model. In the original study (Bjureberg et al., 2016), DERS-16 had good internal reliability ($\alpha = .92$) and good test-retest reliability ($r = .85$). The internal consistencies ranged from 0.92 to 0.95. The questionnaire's adaptation into Turkish was made by Yiğit and Güzey-Yiğit (2017). The internal consistency for overall DERS-16 was .92 in the Turkish adaptation (Yiğit & Güzey-Yiğit, 2017). In the current study, the internal consistency coefficients were .84 for clarity, .84 for goals, .87 for impulse, .87 for strategies, and .78 for non-acceptance. The current study had a Cronbach's alpha of .93 for the overall DERS-16 scale.

2.2.2.2 *Interpersonal Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (IERQ)*

The Interpersonal Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (IERQ) was developed by Hofmann et al. (2016) and included four factors: Enhancing positive affect (EPA; 5 items), perspective taking (PT; 5 items), soothing (S; 5 items), and social modeling (SM; 5 items). In total, the scale included 20 items, rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always). Higher scores in each dimension reflect higher use of those types of interpersonal emotion regulation (IER) strategies. In the original study

(Hofmann et al., 2016), the IERQ had good reliability with Cronbach's alphas of subscales ranging between .89 and .94. The questionnaire was adapted to Turkish by several studies (e.g., Sarisoy, 2017; Gökdağ et al., 2019; Saruhan et al., 2019). The current study used Gökdağ and colleagues' (2019) version where the subscales' Cronbach alphas ranged from .81 to .89. Some example items for the subscales include "It makes me feel better to learn how others dealt with their emotions," "Because happiness is contagious, I seek out other people when I'm happy," "When I am upset, others make me feel better by making me realize that things could be a lot worse," and "I look for other people to offer me compassion when I'm upset." In the current study, we were interested in intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation. Therefore, we used the SM, S, and PT subscales, and their Cronbach's alphas were .91, .88, and .81, respectively.

2.2.3 *Dependent variables*

2.2.3.1 *Brief Accessibility, Responsiveness, and Engagement Scale (BARE)*

This 12-item self-report measure was developed by Sandberg and colleagues (2012) to measure the attachment behaviors of individuals and their partners in relationships. The scale has a structure of 2-item by six-subscale. The subscales are structured into three factors, which are accessibility (related to the person's availability to the partner), responsiveness (related to responding to the partner in a calming and reassuring way), and engagement (related to the possibility of experiencing bonding moments). Some example items for the subscales are as the following, respectively: "I am rarely available to my partner," "I listen when my partner shares her/his deepest feelings," and "I struggle to feel close and engaged in our relationship." Respondents give their answers on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The items' internal consistency was within the range of .66 and .85. The test-retest scores extended from .60 to .75 in the original psychometric study (Sandberg et al., 2012). The scale was adapted to Turkish by Zeytinoğlu-Saydam, Erdem, and Söylemez (2021). The Turkish adaptation of the BARE scale had sufficient test-retest reliability, ranging from .79 to .86. The internal consistency of subscales was adequate as well, within the range of .86 to .91. In the current study, we used the grand scale for self (a sum score of accessibility, engagement, and responsivity items), which had Cronbach's alpha of .82.

2.2.3.2 Relationship Assessment Scale (RAS)

The 7-item scale was developed by Hendrick (1988) to determine satisfaction in romantic relationships. The measure had an alpha reliability of .86. The scale was translated into Turkish by Curun (2001) with college students. The internal consistency was .86. Respondents rate their answers from 1 to 7. “In general, how satisfied are you with your relationship?” and “To what extent has your relationship met your original expectations?” can be given as example items. The measure showed high reliability in the current study (alpha = .92).

2.3 Data analysis

First, preliminary analyses were conducted to examine the means, frequencies, skewness, kurtosis, and standard deviations of the variables. Bivariate correlation analyses and independent samples t-tests were run to see how control variables, independent and dependent variables were related. Measures for the indicators of attachment (attachment anxiety, attachment avoidance) comprised the independent variables, while measures for the relationship outcome variables (relationship satisfaction and attachment behaviors) constituted the dependent variables. The descriptive statistics and associations among the variables for preliminary analyses were conducted with IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, version 28.

Following the descriptive analysis, a measurement model was run. The measurement model examined soothing, perspective taking, and social modeling as the indicators of intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation latent variable. The enhancing positive affect dimension of Hofmann’s (2016) interpersonal emotion regulation model was not included in the current study’s measurement model. Since there has been a discussion of whether enhancing positive affect is an extrinsic or intrinsic (or both) interpersonal emotion regulation strategy (e.g., Zaki & Williams, 2013; Ray-Yol & Altan-Atalay, 2022), whereas all soothing, perspective taking, and social modeling are intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation strategies, we decided not to add enhancing positive affect to the measurement model. All interpersonal emotion regulation strategies except enhancing positive affect deal more with the individual’s own affective state (Ray-Yol & Altan-Atalay, 2022).

After the measurement model showed a good fit to the data [Comparative Fit Index (CFI) > .90, Root Mean Squares Error of Approximation (RMSEA) <.08,

Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (*SRMR*) $< .08$ (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2009)] and high associations of observed variables with the latent variable at $p < .001$, a full mediation model was run using a Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) paradigm. JASP Statistical Software, version 0.16.4.0, was used to test the measurement and full mediation models.

The full SEM model involved attachment anxiety and avoidance as exogenous variables. Attachment behaviors and relationship satisfaction were endogenous variables. In addition, difficulties in emotion regulation (ER) and intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation (IIER) were endogenous and mediating variables. In the initial model, we tested for auxiliary variables including sex (Female = 1, Male and Other = 0), sexual orientation (Heterosexual = 1, Sexual minorities = 0), perceived SES (Low and Very Low = 0, Middle, High, and Very High = 1), and education (University and lower = 1, Masters and Ph.D. = 2) levels, employment status (1 = Employed, 0 = Student/Unemployed/Searching for a job), and primary caregiver (Mother = 1, Other relatives = 0), and having any children (0 = no children, 1 = one or more children).

In the final model, we used a more parsimonious model that included age and having children variables as control variables. For the mediation analysis, a bootstrapping analysis with a 95% confidence interval (CI) and 5,000 random samples was run to estimate the indirect and direct associations of attachment anxiety and avoidance with relationship satisfaction and attachment behaviors.

Chapter 3:

RESULTS

3.1 Preliminary Analysis

Bivariate correlations between the dependent and independent variables in the model are demonstrated in Table 2. Results showed that attachment anxiety was significantly negatively correlated with relationship satisfaction ($r = -.57, p < .001$) and attachment behaviors ($r = -.44, p < .001$). Attachment avoidance was strongly negatively associated with relationship satisfaction ($r = -.81, p < .001$) and attachment behaviors ($r = -.75, p < .001$). Both attachment anxiety ($r = .53$) and attachment avoidance ($r = .42$) had significant positive associations with difficulties in ER (p

<.001). Difficulties in ER were significantly negatively associated with relationship satisfaction ($r = -.38, p < .001$) and attachment behaviors ($r = -.33, p < .001$). All indicators of IIER (social modeling, perspective taking, and soothing) were positively and significantly associated with attachment anxiety at $p < .001$, and the correlations varied from .22 to .26. The correlations between attachment avoidance and IIER subscales, excluding the social modeling subscale ($p > .05$), ranged from .07 to .16 with small magnitudes at $p < .01$ and $p < .05$ levels.

Table 2: Bivariate correlations between independent and dependent variables.

	Mean (SD)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Attachment Anxiety	2.85 (0.84)	1							
2. Attachment Avoidance	1.90 (0.90)	.59***	1						
3. Relationship Satisfaction	5.95 (1.04)	-.57***	-.81***	1					
4. IIER-Social Modeling	3.28 (0.96)	.22***	.07	-.04	1				
5. IIER-Soothing	2.98 (1.04)	.26***	.12*	-.16**	.57***	1			
6. IIER-Perspective Taking	2.36 (0.98)	.22***	.16**	-.10	.50***	.49***	1		
7. Difficulties in ER	2.36 (0.79)	.53***	.42***	-.38***	.28***	.39***	.27***	1	
8. Attachment Behaviors	4.39 (0.54)	-.44***	-.75***	.75***	-.06	-.11*	-.15**	-.33***	1

The differences between males and females regarding the variables used in the study were also investigated. Males and females did not significantly differ in education level [$\chi^2 (6) = 3.53, p > .05$], attachment anxiety [$t (373) = 1.08, p > .05$], and attachment avoidance [$t (373) = -1.46, p > .05$]. Similarly, relationship satisfaction [$t (373) = -.34, p > .05$], attachment behaviors [$t (372) = 1.71, p > .05$], and difficulties in

ER [$t(344) = 1.47, p > .05$] did not differ significantly by sex. Regarding IIER, there were several sex differences. Females reported higher use of social modeling ($t(356) = 2.98, p < .01$) and soothing ($t(355) = 2.80, p < .01$), but groups did not differ in perspective taking; ($M = 2.35, SD = .99$ for females and $M = 2.38, SD = .96$ for males) [$t(356) = -.28, (p > .05)$].

We tested for the association between several other demographic variables (age, sex, sexual orientation, having children, perceived income, relationship duration before marriage, education level, employment status, and primary caregiver) and dependent variables (relationship satisfaction and attachment behaviors). Analysis revealed that participant age and having children were significantly associated with dependent variables. Specifically, there was a significant negative association between age and attachment behaviors ($r = -.13, p < .05$). On the other hand, having children was significantly and negatively associated with relationship satisfaction ($r = -.15, p < .01$). Given those findings, we used participant age, sex, and having children as control variables in the main analysis.

3.2 Main Analysis: Structural Equation Models

3.2.1 The Measurement Model

Prior to testing the full SEM, we investigated the measurement model of the IIER latent variable with three latent indicators (Social modeling, perspective taking, and soothing) and their observed items. Thus, we ran a second order Confirmatory Factor Analysis. As demonstrated in Figure 2, the perspective taking latent variable was represented by Item 7, Item 10, Item 14, and Item 17, and the social modeling latent variable was described by Item 1, Item 2, Item 5, Item 11, Item 15, and Item 20, and finally the soothing latent variable was defined by Item 4, Item 9, Item 12, Item 16, and Item 19. All items were significantly associated with the hypothesized latent variables at $p < .001$. Standardized coefficients ranged from .62 to .71 for perspective taking, from .67 to .89 for social modeling, and from .73 to .82 for soothing latent variables. In addition, soothing, perspective taking, and social modeling latent variables were significantly associated with the latent variable IIER at $p < .001$ level, with standardized coefficients ranging from .77 to .81 (Figure 2). All the loadings in the measurement model for the IIER construct were at and above .40, which is the cutoff for adequate fit

(Williams et al., 2010). The measurement model showed a satisfactory fit to the data [$\chi^2(85) = 230.65, p < .001; CFI = .95; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .04$].

3.2.2 The Structural Equation Model (SEM) and Mediation Analysis

The SEM revealed that the hypothesized model had an adequate fit to the data [$\chi^2(197) = 411.27, p < .001; CFI = .95; RMSEA = .05; SRMR = .05$]. As shown in Table 3, both attachment anxiety [$\beta = -.12, p = .002$] and avoidance [$\beta = -.73, p < .001$] were significantly and negatively associated with relationship satisfaction. While attachment anxiety was not significantly associated with attachment behaviors [$\beta = .03, p = .54$], a higher level of attachment avoidance was significantly negatively associated with attachment behaviors [$\beta = -.75, p < .001$].

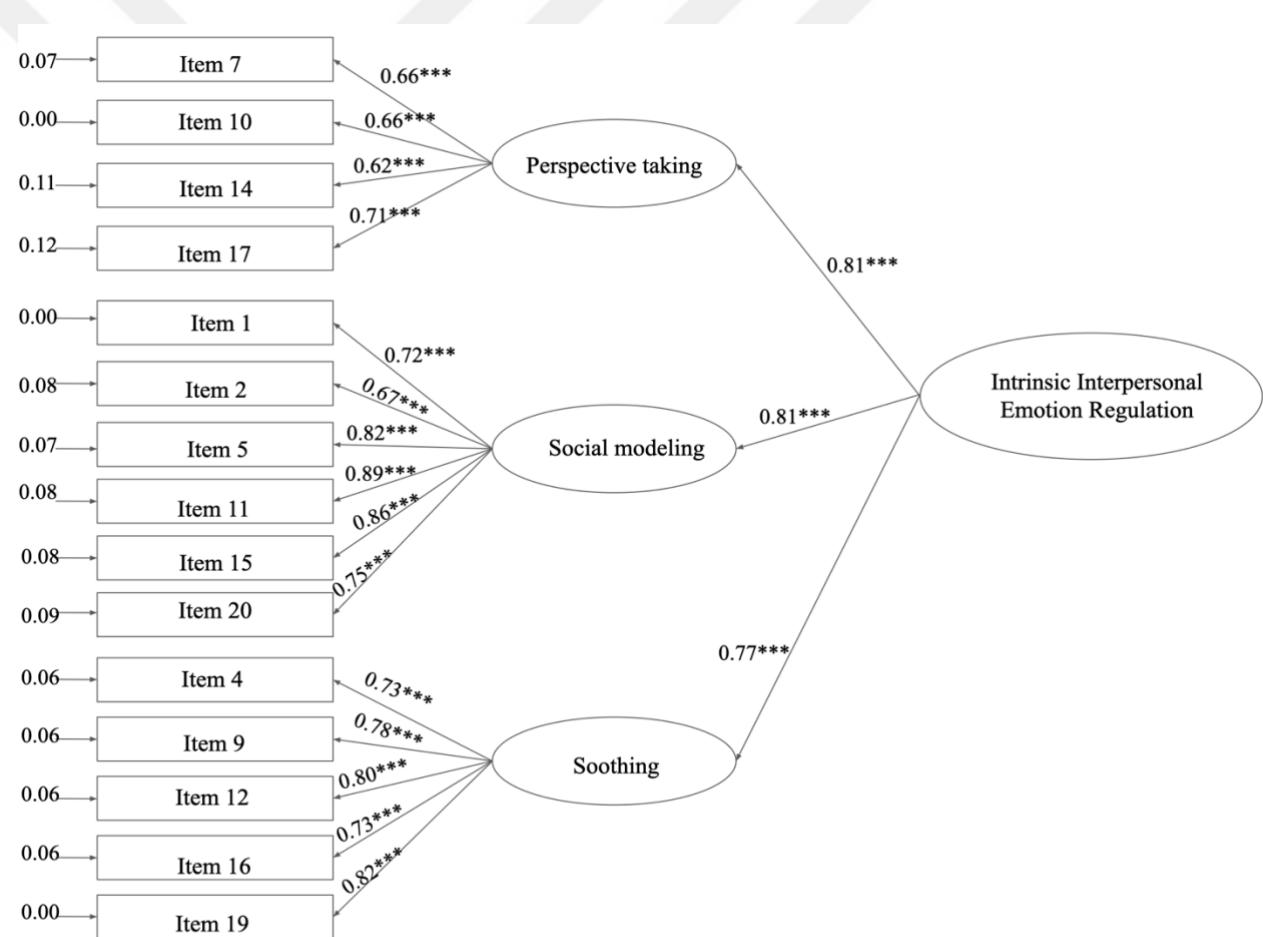


Figure 2: Measurement model.

Model fit indices: $\chi^2(85) = 230.65, p < .001$; $CFI = .95$; $RMSEA = .07$; $SRMR = .04$ Note: The figure represents the standardized coefficients and the latent structure of intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation. *** $p < .001$.

There was a significant and positive association between attachment anxiety and IIER [$\beta = .33, p < .001$] and difficulties in ER [$\beta = .42, p < .001$]. Attachment avoidance was significantly and positively linked to difficulties in ER [$\beta = .18, p = .001$], but not IIER [$\beta = -.03, p = .66$]. Finally, neither difficulties in ER [$\beta = -.01, p = .79$] nor IIER [$\beta = .03, p = .40$] were significantly associated with relationship satisfaction. Similarly, IIER [$\beta = -.03, p = .58$] and difficulties in ER [$\beta = -.03, p = .52$] were not significantly associated with attachment behaviors.

The demographic variable age was added as a control variable to the model. Age was significantly negatively associated with difficulties in ER [$\beta = -.12, p = .012$] and attachment behaviors [$\beta = -.08, p = .02$], but was unrelated to IIER [$\beta = -.07, p = .29$] and relationship satisfaction [$\beta = .01, p = .87$]. On the other hand, having children was significantly and negatively associated with relationship satisfaction [$\beta = -.09, p = .002$], but was not linked to any other variables in the model.

In order to measure the indirect effects, we ran a bootstrapping with 5000 samples. Mediation analysis showed that neither difficulties in emotion regulation nor intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation mediated the relationship between attachment dimensions and relationship outcomes (attachment behavior and relationship satisfaction) [$\chi^2(197) = 411.27, p < .001$; $CFI = .95$; $RMSEA = .05$; $SRMR = .05$]. The standardized coefficients of the full model are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Standardized coefficients for the full model.

Variables	Standardized coefficient	p value
Intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation by:		
Perspective taking	0.81	$p < .001$
Soothing	0.77	$p < .001$
Social modeling	0.81	$p < .001$
Relationship satisfaction on:		
Attachment anxiety	-.12	$p = .002$

Attachment avoidance	-.73	<i>p</i> < .001
Intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation	0.03	<i>p</i> = .40
Difficulties in emotion regulation	-.01	<i>p</i> = .79
Age	.01	<i>p</i> = .87
Sex	-.07	<i>p</i> = .02
Having children	-.09	<i>p</i> = .002
Attachment behaviors on:		
Attachment anxiety	.03	<i>p</i> = .54
Attachment avoidance	-.75	<i>p</i> < .001
Intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation	-.03	<i>p</i> = .58
Difficulties in emotion regulation	-.03	<i>p</i> = .52
Age	-.08	<i>p</i> = .02
Sex	.01	<i>p</i> = .79
Having children	-.03	<i>p</i> = .33
Intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation on:		
Attachment anxiety	.33	<i>p</i> < .001
Attachment avoidance	-.03	<i>p</i> = .66
Age	-.07	<i>p</i> = .29
Sex	.11	<i>p</i> = .06
Having children	.01	<i>p</i> = .86
Difficulties in emotion regulation on:		
Attachment anxiety	.42	<i>p</i> < .001
Attachment avoidance	.18	<i>p</i> = .001
Age	-.12	<i>p</i> = .012
Sex	.05	<i>p</i> = .34

Having children	.00	$p = .96$
Effects from attachment anxiety to relationship satisfaction:		
Total	-.12	$p = .002$
Direct	-.12	$p = .002$
Effects from attachment avoidance to relationship satisfaction:		
Total	-.74	$p < .001$
Direct	-.73	$p < .001$
Effects from attachment anxiety to attachment behaviors:		
Total	.01	$p = .85$
Direct	.03	$p = .54$
Effects from attachment avoidance to attachment behaviors:		
Total	-.75	$p < .001$
Direct	-.75	$p < .001$
Indirect effects:		
Attachment anxiety → Intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation → Relationship satisfaction	.01	$p = .41$
Attachment avoidance → Intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation → Relationship satisfaction	.00	$p = .73$
Attachment anxiety → Difficulties in emotion regulation → Relationship satisfaction	.00	$p = .79$

Attachment avoidance → Difficulties in emotion regulation → Relationship satisfaction	.00	<i>p</i> = .79
Attachment anxiety → Intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation → Attachment behaviors	-.01	<i>p</i> = .58
Attachment avoidance → Intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation → Attachment behaviors	.00	<i>p</i> = .73
Attachment anxiety → Difficulties in emotion regulation → Attachment behaviors	-.01	<i>p</i> = .52
Attachment avoidance → Difficulties in emotion regulation → Attachment behaviors	-.01	<i>p</i> = .53

Note. The statistics shown in the table above are estimates at 95% intervals and 5000 random samples.

Chapter 4: DISCUSSION

The current study investigated the way intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation and difficulties in emotion regulation relate to attachment orientations and relationship outcomes in a convenience sample of newly wed adults. In line with the existing literature (e.g., Collins & Read, 1990; Simpson, 1990; Li & Chan, 2012; Candel & Turliuc, 2019), the current study's results showed that attachment anxiety and avoidance were negatively associated with relationship satisfaction. Notably, attachment avoidance was a much stronger predictor of relationship satisfaction compared to attachment anxiety. Previously, Sümer and Yetkili (2018) highlighted that attachment avoidance predicts relationship satisfaction in the Turkish couples' relationship context instead of attachment anxiety. Supporting Zeytinoğlu-Saydam and colleagues (2021), a significant negative association between attachment avoidance and attachment behaviors was also found. This finding is not surprising since attachment

avoidance is marked by less support seeking (e.g., Mikulincer & Florian, 1995) and less responsiveness to a partner's emotional needs (e.g., Gunaydin et al., 2021).

However, contrary to previous literature (Sandberg et al., 2012; Zeytinoğlu-Saydam et al., 2021), we did not find a significant relationship between attachment anxiety and attachment behaviors. This finding might be open to different interpretations. One potential explanation is that individuals with high attachment anxiety may be too preoccupied with their own needs in the relationship, which may lead to dismissal of the needs of the partner (rather than low responsiveness or engagement).

As expected, both attachment anxiety and avoidance were significantly positively linked to difficulties in emotion regulation, which was identified with the lack of emotional clarity, not accepting emotional responses, having a hard time controlling impulses, employing goal-directed behaviors, and being challenged with having access to effective ER strategies. This finding is in line with the previous literature (e.g., Stevens, 2014; Li, 2012). Since individuals with high attachment anxiety employ hyperactivating strategies, they amplify their negative affect and cognitions, and they move away from the distressing situation. On the other hand, individuals with high attachment avoidance are characterized by deactivating strategies that suppress their negative emotions and thoughts and are distant from the attachment figures as much as possible (Cassidy & Kobak, 1988). As for the findings concerning the relationship between IIER and attachment dimensions, it was not surprising that attachment anxiety was significantly positively associated with IIER. While individuals with high attachment anxiety respond to stress with hyperactivating strategies (e.g., cognitive biases, rumination), using those strategies may result in searching for others (Gökdağ, 2021). However, contrary to our expectations, there was no significant negative relationship between attachment avoidance and IIER. This nonsignificant association is reasonable because individuals with higher avoidance levels have difficulties trusting others and getting intimate in the first place (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). They might tend not to turn towards others to regulate their emotions, which is also valid in the relationship with their romantic partner (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2007).

Our hypotheses regarding the mediating role of difficulties in emotion regulation and intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation in the relationship between attachment

orientations and relationship outcomes were not supported. There can be several reasons for explaining the lack of significant mediations. First, it can be due to the study sample's characteristics: For newly married individuals, the marriage is relatively new, and relationship quality factors such as commitment, perceived spousal support, communication skills, and conflict management may take a long time to develop in accordance with attachment orientations and difficulties in ER. In other words, there can be other mediating variables that were not assessed in our study that explain the relationship between attachment dimensions and relationship outcomes. Second, since cultural norms and values can influence the way emotions are expressed and how emotions are regulated at intrapersonal and interpersonal levels, emotion regulation skills may not be as strong predictors of relationship outcomes as they are in more individualistic contexts.

4.1 *Limitations and Strengths*

Nonetheless, some limitations of the study are better taken into consideration. First, the findings depended on self-reported, cross-sectional data, possibly having a tendency for biases, holding the risk of social desirability. Due to the use of self-report measures, the contextual factors of emotion regulation (e.g., the frequency of the use of ER strategies, their spontaneity and effectiveness, the use of multiple strategies at the same time, and the duration for ER) may not be fully reflected. This situation might result in a lack of information regarding the evaluation of intrapersonal and interpersonal ER use habits (Bintaş-Zörer & Yorulmaz, 2022). Moreover, the current study could only represent the trait-like measurement of ER processes in a self-reported way. Yet, if a state-like measurement of ER processes would be integrated, this could also provide the evaluation of the contextual factors. It is also not known how spouses take a role in regulating their partners' negative and positive emotions because the study relies on individual-level data and lacks the perspectives of the partners. In addition, due to the sampling procedure, it is possible that the convenience sample had relatively functioning marriages so that they were motivated enough to participate in the study, which can lead to selection bias. So, the results may not be representative of the true effects on the population. Moreover, the results are correlational, so the direction of causality is not definite. In addition, the high correlation between attachment anxiety and avoidance and, consequently, the strong association between attachment avoidance

and relationship outcomes pose a multicollinearity problem, another limitation of our study. However, in the Turkish context, the measurement of attachment avoidance has been considered problematic in previous studies (Sümer & Güngör, 1999). Therefore, developing more culturally adapted measures of attachment may be prioritized. Last, since data was not collected dyadically, the other spouse's perspective on their relationship experiences was unknown. Finally, we modeled for IIER as a composite measure of different strategies. Therefore, the current study does not capture the specific role and interaction of IIER with attachment dimensions and relationship outcomes.

Despite the limitations and challenges mentioned above, the current study has strong aspects. First, the study followed the premises of a highly empirically validated theory (attachment theory), so its design, sampling, and analysis held a theoretical rationale. Second, to the best of our knowledge, the current study is one of the first studies looking at the role of difficulties in ER and IIER in the marital relationship context in Turkey. Another strength of the study is that it highlighted the interpersonal nature of emotion regulation. Moreover, as Dixon-Gordon and colleagues (2015) emphasized, there has been an inconsistent way of using terminologies in IER literature. The current study contributed to the conceptualization of IER and intrinsic IER and the knowledge of the early stages of marriage in Turkey. Furthermore, the current study provided empirical evidence regarding how constructs like intrinsic IER and attachment behaviors might operate in a non-Western culture with concurrent individualistic and collectivistic components. Hofmann (2016) noted that cultural context might shape IER processes because the use of IER strategies is closely tied to social norms and expectations. Cultural differences in the adult attachment literature need to be investigated further (Sümer & Güngör, 1999).

4.2 *Implications for Future Research and Practice*

The current study investigated the associations among attachment dimensions, intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation, and difficulties in emotion regulation through the lens of attachment theory. Taking the results into account, future research should focus on how cross-cultural differences influence emotion regulation and attachment-related processes in marital and romantic relationships.

One important limitation of studies investigating the association between emotion regulation and relationship outcomes (e.g., relationship satisfaction and attachment behaviors) longitudinally is that whether emotion regulation leads to relationship outcomes or vice versa cannot be concluded. Thus, future research has better employ ecological momentary assessments with a longitudinal design to explore these relationships in more detail, with behavioral observations and physiological data. Moreover, different adult attachment assessment techniques, such as the Adult Attachment Interview (George et al., 1985) and Behavior Q-Set (Wampler et al., 2004), can be implemented for future studies.

Future research may employ a more dyadic way of data collection and include both partners. It would be interesting to examine intrinsic IER, extrinsic IER, and intrapersonal ER altogether, with the shifting roles of partners as the regulators and targets of the ER processes. This would allow researchers to understand the emotional dynamics in couples in more detail.

We did not test for moderation models in the current study. However, exploring the interaction between difficulties in ER and IIER in relation to attachment may be informative since a previous study found that difficulties in ER were positively associated with soothing and social modeling (Gökdağ et al., 2019). Other studies suggested that difficulties in ER may be helpful in investigating interpersonal emotion regulation mechanisms (e.g., Tepeli-Temiz & Elsharnovby, 2022). Hofmann et al. (2016) also emphasized that difficulties in regulating negative emotions intrapersonally might lead to seeking others within an interpersonal context. The authors noted that self-reported difficulties with regulating emotions, especially negative emotions, were found to be associated with higher use of IER strategies.

This study's findings might be relevant for practitioners working with couples and ER researchers. The results of this study suggest that there could be implications for attachment-based interventions regarding the improvement of newlyweds' relationship satisfaction, as practiced in emotionally focused couples therapy.

4.3 *Conclusions*

In conclusion, the current study's findings showed that attachment orientations might differ in association with intra and interpersonal emotion regulation processes and

attachment behaviors within newly married Turkish adults' context. The findings highlighted the strong negative association between attachment avoidance and relationship outcomes for a relatively collectivistic culture. Future research may investigate how attachment influences individuals' tendency to approach their spouse dyadically and culture's impact on attachment processes. The complex interplays between attachment orientations, intrapersonal emotion regulation difficulties, and intrinsic interpersonal emotion regulation might be clarified more in future studies by combining different methods.



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APPENDIX A: DEMOGRAPHICS FORM

1. Medeni haliniz nedir?

- Evli
- Bekar
- Boşanmış
- Dul

2. Ne kadar zamandır evlisiniz?

- 1 seneden az
- 1-5 sene arası
- 5 seneden fazla

3. Daha önce evlendiniz mi?

- Evet
- Hayır

4. Kaç yaşındasınız?

5. Cinsiyetiniz nedir?

- Kadın
- Erkek
- Diğer

6. Cinsel yöneliminiz nedir?

- Homoseksüel
- Heteroseksüel
- Diğer

7. Gelir düzeyiniz nedir?

- Çok düşük
- Düşük
- Orta
- Yüksek
- Çok yüksek

8. Eğitim düzeyiniz nedir?

- İlköğretim
- Lise
- Üniversite
- Yüksek lisans/Doktora

9. Eşinizle evlenmeden önce flört döneminiz (nişan ve söz dahil) ne kadar sürdü?
(ay olarak belirtiniz)

10. Kaç çocuğunuz var? (yoksa 0 olarak belirtiniz)

11. İş durumunuzu tanımlayan seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

- Öğrenciyim
- Çalışıyorum
- İşsizim/İş arıyorum

12. Sizi 18 yaşınıza dek öncelikli olarak kim büyütü? (Sizin temel ihtiyaçlarınızı, fiziksel bakımınızı karşılayan ve bakım veren kişi kastedilmektedir. Lütfen tek seçenek işaretleyiniz.)

- Anne
- Baba
- Büyükanne
- Büyükbaba
- Diğer (Teyze, hala, amca...)

**APPENDIX B: EXPERIENCES IN CLOSE RELATIONSHIPS-
REVISED**

Aşağıdaki maddeler eşinizle olan ilişkinizde hissettiğiniz duygularla ilgilidir. Bu araştırmada sizin ilişkinizde yalnızca şu anda değil, genel olarak neler olduğuyla ilgilenmektedir. Her bir maddenin ilişkinizdeki duyu ve düşüncelerinizi ne oranda yansittığını 7 aralıklı ölçek altında, ilgili rakamı işaretleyerek gösteriniz.

	1-Hiç katılmıyorum	2	3	4- Kararsızım/fikrim yok	5	6	7
1. Eşimin sevgisini kaybetsmekten korkarım							
2. Gerçekte ne hissettiğimi eşime göstermemeyi tercih ederim.							
3. Sıklıkla, eşimin artık benimle olmak istemeyeceği korkusuna kapılırım.							
4. Özel duyu ve düşüncelerimi eşimle paylaşmak konusunda kendimi rahat hissederim.							
5. Sıklıkla, eşimin beni gerçekten sevmediği duygusuna kapılırım.							
6. Eşime güvenip inanmak bana zor gelir.							

7. Eşimin beni, benim onu önemsedigim kadar önemsemeyeceğinden endişe duyarım.						
8. Eşime yakın olma konusunda çok rahatımdır.						
9. Sıklıkla, eşimin bana duyduğu hislerin benim ona duyduğum hisler kadar güçlü olmasını isterim.						
10. Eşime açılma konusunda kendimi rahat hissetmem.						
11. İlişkimi kafama çok takarım.						
12. Eşime fazla yakın olmamayı tercih ederim.						
13. Benden uzakta olduğunda, eşimin başka birine ilgi duyabileceği korkusuna kapılırlım.						
14. Eşim benimle çok yakın olmak istediginde rahatsızlık duyarım.						
15. Eşime duygularımı						

gösterdiğimde, onun benim için aynı şeyleri hissetmeyeceğinden korkarım.						
16. Eşimle kolayca yakınlaşıbilirim.						
17. Eşimin beni terk edecekinden pek endişe duymam.						
18. Eşimle yakınlaşmak bana zor gelmez.						
19. Eşim kendime olan güvenimi sarsar.						
20. Genellikle, eşimle sorunlarımı ve kaygılarımı paylaşırıım.						
21. Terk edilmekten pek korkmam.						
22. Zor zamanlarımda, eşimden yardım istemek bana iyi gelir.						
23. Eşimin, bana istediğim kadar yakın olmadığını düşünürüm.						
24. Eşime hemen hemen her şeyi anlatırıım.						

25. Eşim bazen bana olan duygularını sebepsiz yere değiştirir.							
26. Başından geçenleri eşimle konuşurum.							
27. Çok yakın olma arzum bazen eşimi korkutup uzaklaştırır.							
28. Eşim benimle çok yakınlığında gergin hissederim.							
29. Eşim beni yakından tanıdıkça, benden hoşlanmayacağından korkarım.							
30. Eşime güvenip inanma konusunda rahatımdır.							
31. Eşimden ihtiyaç duyduğum şefkat ve desteği görememek beni öfkelendirir.							
32. Eşime güvenip inanmak benim için kolaydır.							
33. Başka insanlara denk olamamaktan endişe duyarım.							

34. Eşime şefkat göstermek benim için kolaydır.							
35. Eşim beni sadece kızgın olduğumda fark eder.							
36. Eşim beni ve ihtiyaçlarımı gerçekten anlar.							



APPENDIX C: BRIEF ACCESSIBILITY, RESPONSIVENESS, AND ENGAGEMENT SCALE

Lütfen şu anki ilişkinizde eşiniz ile yaşadıklarınızı ifade edeni ilgili rakamı işaretleyerek gösteriniz.

	1-Hiçbir zaman	2-Nadiren	3-Bazen	4-Genellikle	5-Her zaman
1. Eşime vakit ayırmam.					
2. Eşimin ilgimi çekmesi kolaydır.					
3. Eşim benimle duygularını paylaştığında onu dinlerim.					
4. Eşimle iyi iletişim kurabildiğime inanıyorum.					
5. Eşime sırlarımı anlatırmam.					
6. Eşime kendimi yakın ve bağlı hissediyorum.					

7. Eşim bana vakit ayırrır.					
8. Eşimin ilgisini çekebilirim.					
9. Duygularımı paylaştığım zamanlarda eşim beni dinler.					
10. Eşimin benimle iyi iletişim kurabildiğine inanıyorum.					
11. Eşim bana sırlarını anlatır.					
12. Eşim bana kendini yakın ve bağlı hisseder.					

APPENDIX D: RELATIONSHIP ASSESSMENT SCALE

Lütfen her bir ifadenin size uygunluğunu 7 aralıklı ölçek altında, ilgili rakamı işaretleyerek gösteriniz.

1. Eşiniz ihtiyaçlarınızı ne kadar iyi karşılıyor?

- 1-Hiç karşılamıyor
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6
- 7-Çok iyi karşılıyor

2. Genel olarak ilişkinizden ne kadar memnunsunuz?

- 1-Hiç memnun değilim
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6
- 7-Çok memnunum

3. Diğerleri ile karşılaştırıldığında ilişkiniz ne kadar iyi?

- 1-Çok daha kötü
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6
- 7-Çok daha iyi

4. Ne sıklıkla ilişkinize hiç başlamamış olmayı diliyorsunuz?

- 1-Hiçbir zaman
- 2
- 3
- 4

- 5
- 6
- 7-Her zaman

5. İlişkiniz ne dereceye kadar sizin başlangıçtaki bekłentilerinizi karşılıyor?

- 1-Hiç karşılamıyor
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6
- 7-Tamamen karşılıyor

6. Eşinizi ne kadar seviyorsunuz?

- 1-Hiç sevmiyorum
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6
- 7-Çok seviyorum

7. İlişkinizde ne kadar problem var?

- 1-Hiç yok
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6
- 7-Çok fazla problem var

**APPENDIX E: INTERPERSONAL EMOTION REGULATION
QUESTIONNAIRE**

Aşağıda bireylerin duygularını düzenlemek için diğer kişilerden nasıl faydalandıklarını belirten ifadeler listesi yer almaktadır. Lütfen her ifadeyi okuyunuz ve sizin için ne kadar uygun olduğunu belirtiniz.

	1-Benim için hiç uygun değil	2-Biraz uygun	3-Orta derecede uygun	4-Oldukça uygun	5-Tamamen uygun
1. Başka insanların duygularıyla nasıl baş ettiklerini öğrenmek, bana daha iyi hissettirir.					
2. Başka insanların, olayların göründüğü kadar kötü olmadığını göstermeleri üzüntümü hafifletir.					
3. Sevincimi paylaşmak için heyecanlandığımda başka insanların çevremde olması hoşuma gider.					
4. Mutsuz olduğumda, bana şefkat gösterecek insanlar ararım.					

5. Bir sorun nedeniyle endişeye kapıldığında, diğer insanların o sorunla nasıl başa çıktıklarını duymak bana yardımcı olur.					
6. Mutluyken, belli insanların yanımada olması bana iyi gelir.					
7. Üzgün olduğumda, daha kötü durumda kileri hatırlatan birilerinin olması bana iyi gelir.					
8. İyi hissettiğimde başka insanlarla birlikte olmayı severim; çünkü birlikte olmak olumlu duyguları artırır.					
9. Üzgün hissetmek, genellikle bana anlayış gösterecek birilerini aramama neden olur.					
10. Mutsuz olduğumda, başka					

insanlar, daha kötülerinin olabileceğini fark ettirerek, bana daha iyi hissettirir.					
11. Hayal kırıklığına uğradığında, başka insanların aynı durumla nasıl başa çıktığını görmek bana yardımcı olur.					
12. Moralim bozulduğunda, rahatlamak için başka insanlara ihtiyaç duyarım.					
13. Mutlu olduğumda başka insanların yanımada olmasını isterim, çünkü mutluluk bulaşıcıdır.					
14. Sinirlendiğimde, başka insanlar "dert etme" diyerek beni sakinleştirebilir.					
15. Üzgün olduğumda, başka insanların benzer					

duygularla nasıl baş ettiğini duymak bana yardımcı olur.					
16. Kendimi üzgün hissettiğimde, sır sevilen biri olduğumu bilmek için başkalarına ihtiyaç duyarım.					
17. Kaygılandığında, insanların, endişelenenecek bir şey olmadığını söylemeleri beni rahatlatabilir.					
18. Sevinçli olduğumda, başkalarıyla birlikte olarak, onları da mutlu etmek isterim.					
19. Üzgün hissettiğimde teselli için başka insanları ararım.					
20. Keyifsizsem, diğer insanlar benim durumumda olsa ne yaparlardı, bilmek isterim.					

APPENDIX F: DIFFICULTIES IN EMOTION REGULATION
SCALE-BRIEF FORM

Aşağıdaki ifadelerin size ne sıklıkla uyduğunu, her ifadenin yanında yer alan 5 dereceli ölçek üzerinden değerlendiriniz. Lütfen her bir ifadenin altındaki 5 numaralı ölçekten, size uygunluk yüzdesini de dikkate alarak, yalnızca bir tek rakamı işaretleyiniz. Doğru ya da yanlış cevap yoktur.

	1-Hemen hemen hiç (%0-%10)	2-Bazen (%11-%35)	3-Yaklaşık yarı yarıya (%36-%65)	4-Çoğu zaman (%66-%90)	5-Hemen hemen her zaman (%91-%100)
1. Duygularıma bir anlam vermekte zorlanırmı.					
2. Ne hissettiğim konusunda karmaşa yaşarım.					
3. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde işlerimi bitirmekte zorlanırmı.					
4. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde kontrolden çıkarım.					
5. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde uzun süre böyle					

kalacağına inanırıım.				
6. Kendimi kötü hissetmenin yoğun depresif duyguyla sonuçlanacağına inanırıım.				
7. Kendimi kötü hissederken başka şeylere odaklanmakta zorlanırıım.				
8. Kendimi kötü hissederken kontrolden çıktığım korkusu yaşarım.				
9. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde bu duygumdan dolayı kendimden utanırıım.				
10. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde zayıf biri olduğum duygusuna kapılırıım.				

11. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde davranışlarımı kontrol etmekte zorlanırıım.					
12. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde daha iyi hissetmem için yapabileceğim hiçbir şey olmadığına inanırıım.					
13. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde böyle hissettiğim için kendimden rahatsız olurum.					
14. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde kendimle ilgili olarak çok fazla endişelenmeye başlarım.					
15. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde başka bir şey					

düşünmekte zorlanırım.					
16. Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde duygularım dayanılmaz olur.					

