

**THE PREDICTION OF DIVORCED PARENTS'
EMOTIONAL/SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT AND PSYCHOLOGICAL
DISTRESS FROM PERCEIVED POWER/CONTROL OVER
CHILD-RELATED CONCERNS, PERCEIVED SOCIAL SUPPORT, AND
DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS**

723047

**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
OF**

MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

123047

BY

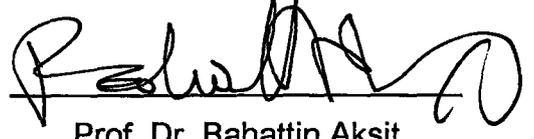
A. ESİN YILMAZ

**TC. YÜKSEKÖĞRETİM KURULU
DOKÜMANTASYON MERKEZİ**

**IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
DEGREE OF
MASTER OF SCIENCE
IN
THE DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY**

JANUARY 2002

Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences



Prof. Dr. Bahattin Akşit

Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science

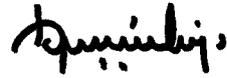


Prof. Dr. A. Nuray Karancı

Chairperson of the
Department

**T.C. YÜKSEKÖĞRETİM KURULU
DOKÜMANTASYON MERKEZİ**

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

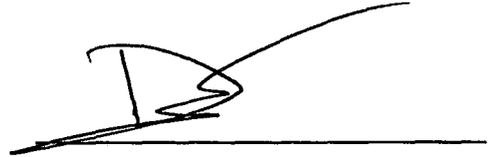


Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hürol Fışiloğlu

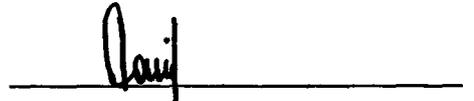
Supervisor

Examining Committee Members

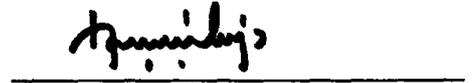
Assoc. Prof. Dr. İhsan Dağ



Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ayhan Demir



Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hürol Fışiloğlu



ABSTRACT

**THE PREDICTION OF DIVORCED PARENTS'
EMOTIONAL/SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT AND PSYCHOLOGICAL
DISTRESS FROM PERCEIVED POWER/CONTROL OVER
CHILD-RELATED CONCERNS, PERCEIVED SOCIAL SUPPORT, AND
DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS**

Yılmaz, A. Esin

M.S., Department of Psychology

Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hürol Fıfılođlu

January 2002, 136 pages

The main purpose of the present study was to investigate whether perceived power/control over child-related concerns was a predictor of emotional/social adjustment and general psychological distress levels after divorce. Perceived power/control over child-related concerns was conceptualized and measured in terms of satisfaction with custody, visitation, alimony, and parenting and the degree of financial strain. It was also aimed to examine the relationships of perceived social support and some relevant demographic characteristics with the levels of postdivorce emotional/social adjustment and psychological distress. The sample of the present study

consisted of 135 divorced parents recruited both through divorce records kept in Ankara courts and snowball sampling procedure. Multiple hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to test the hypotheses of the study. According to the results of the study, higher levels of perceived power/control over parenting and financial matters and higher levels of perceived social support predicted higher levels of emotional/social adjustment and lower levels of psychological distress after divorce. In addition, demographic characteristics of older age, higher education, being the person raised the idea of divorce first, not taking professional help at the time of measurement, and presence of a romantic relationship after divorce were proved as the predictors of Turkish parents' higher levels of emotional/social adjustment to divorce and lower levels of psychological distress after divorce. On the other hand, it was found that gender, length of marriage, number of children, initiator status, and duration of divorce were not associated with emotional/social divorce adjustment and psychological distress. The findings of the study were discussed in the light of the relevant literature.

Keywords: Divorced Parents, Emotional/Social Divorce Adjustment, Psychological Distress, Perceived Power/Control over Child-Related Concerns, Perceived Social Support, Demographic Characteristics

ÖZ

**BOŞANMIŞ EBEVEYNLERİN DUYGUSAL/SOSYAL UYUMU VE
PSİKOLOJİK SIKINTILARININ ÇOCUKLA İLGİLİ KONULARDA
ALGILANAN GÜÇ/KONTROL, ALGILANAN SOSYAL DESTEK VE
DEMOGRAFİK ÖZELLİKLERDEN YORDANMASI**

Yılmaz, A. Esin

Yüksek Lisans, Psikoloji Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi: Doç. Dr. Hürol Fışiloğlu

Ocak 2002, 136 sayfa

Bu araştırmanın temel amacı çocukla ilgili konularda algılanan güç/kontrolün, boşanma sonrası duygusal/sosyal uyum ve genel psikolojik sıkıntı düzeylerini yordayıcı olup olmadığını incelemektir. Çocukla ilgili konularda algılanan güç/kontrol; velayet, ziyaret, nafaka ve ebeveynlik konularından duyulan memnuniyet ve ekonomik sıkıntı düzeyi açısından kavramsallaştırılmış ve ölçülmüştür. Bu çalışmada ayrıca, algılanan sosyal destek ve bazı ilgili demografik özelliklerin boşanma sonrası duygusal/sosyal uyum ve psikolojik sıkıntı düzeyleri ile ilişkilerinin incelenmesi de amaçlanmıştır. Araştırmanın örneklemini Ankara mahkeme kayıtları ve kartopu örnekleme yöntemi aracılığıyla ulaşılmış 135 boşanmış ebeveyn

oluşturmaktadır. Çalışmanın hipotezlerini test etmek için çoklu hiyerarşik regresyon analizleri kullanılmıştır. Araştırmadan elde edilen sonuçlara göre, ebeveynlik ve ekonomik konular üzerinde algılanan güç/kontrolün ve algılanan sosyal desteğin yüksekliği, boşanma sonrası duygusal/sosyal uyum düzeyinin yüksekliğini ve psikolojik sıkıntı düzeyinin düşüklüğünü yordamaktadır. Ayrıca demografik özelliklerden yaşın ve eğitim düzeyinin yüksekliği, boşanma fikrini ilk ortaya atan kişi olma, profesyonel yardım almıyor olma ve boşanma sonrasında yeni biriyle duygusal ilişki kurmuş olmanın da Türk anne-babalarının boşanmaya daha yüksek düzeyde duygusal/sosyal uyum sağlamalarını ve boşanma sonrası psikolojik sıkıntı düzeylerinin düşük olmasını yordayıcı değişkenler oldukları bulunmuştur. Öte yandan cinsiyet, evli kalma süresi, çocuk sayısı, boşanma davasını kimin açtığı ve boşanmanın üzerinden geçen süre duygusal/sosyal uyum ve psikolojik sıkıntı düzeyleri ile ilişkili bulunmamıştır. Araştırma bulguları ilgili literatür ışığında tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Boşanmış Ebeveynler, Boşanmaya Duygusal/Sosyal Uyum, Psikolojik Sıkıntı, Çocukla İlgili Konularda Algılanan Güç/Kontrol, Algılanan Sosyal Destek, Demografik Özellikler

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This thesis would not have been completed without Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hürol Fıfılođlu who supported me with his valuable supervision in the every stage of this project. I would like to express my deep gratefulness for his continuous availability for consultation of the chapters and for his patience with my endless questions, phones, and appointment requests. Besides, I must state that I gained from him not only proficiency about how to prepare a thesis but also many things that belong to life.

I would like to express my special appreciation to also Assoc. Prof. Dr. İhsan Dađ. During all of my university life, he encouraged and believed in me without any deduction. He provided his expertise and guidance also in this project, from the very beginning to the end. I wish to thank also my thesis committee member Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ayhan Demir for his contributory suggestions.

I must express my thankfulness to also members of the judge group of the Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale. Prof. Dr. Güneş Müftüođlu, Assoc. Prof. Dr. İhsan Dađ, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hürol Fıfılođlu, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Melike Sayıl, Assist. Prof. Dr. Adnan Erkuş, Assist. Prof. Dr. Dilek Őirvanlı Őzen, and Dr. Ayşen Yılmaz were the people who gave their precious time and energy in order to investigate and modify the translated items of the scale.

Finally, my appreciation goes to my family. Without invaluable encouragements of them, such a thesis would not have been possible. They unconditionally supported and trusted me throughout this project as well as along my life.

This study is dedicated to all divorced parents. Specifically, I wish to state my thanks to the divorced parents who were participants in the study.



TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	iii
ÖZ.....	v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	ix
LIST OF TABLES.....	xii
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Hypotheses of the Study	13
1.2 Importance and Implications of the Study	14
2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.....	18
2.1 Power/Control: Definition and Dimensions	18
2.1.1 Power/Control Dynamics after Divorce	22
2.2 Divorce: Definition.....	25
2.2.1 Consequences of Divorce.....	30
2.3 Postdivorce Adjustment: Definition and Measurement	35
2.3.1 Factors Related to Postdivorce Adjustment.....	38
2.3.1.1 Child-Related Concerns.....	39
2.3.1.1.1 Custody status	40
2.3.1.1.2 Visitation	42
2.3.1.1.3 Child support and alimony	43
2.3.1.1.4 Parenting	45
2.3.1.1.5 Financial strain	45

2.3.1.2 Social Support.....	47 ^x
2.3.1.3 Demographic Characteristics.....	50
2.4 Connection Between the Literature Review and Hypotheses of the Study.....	56
3. METHOD.....	59
3.1 Subjects.....	59
3.2 Instruments.....	61
3.2.1 Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale (FDAS).....	61
3.2.2 Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI).....	64
3.2.3 Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support..	65
3.2.4 Demographic Information Form	67
3.3 Procedure.....	68
3.4 Analysis of Data	69
4. RESULTS.....	70
4.1 Validity and Reliability Study of the Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale (FDAS).....	71
4.2 Descriptive Analysis of the Study Variables.....	74
4.3 Correlation Matrix of the Study Variables.....	76
4.4 Results of the Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analyses	78
4.4.1 Predictors of Emotional/Social Postdivorce Adjustment	79
4.4.2 Predictors of Psychological Distress.....	82
5. DISCUSSION	85
5.1 General Evaluation of the Results.....	85
5.2 Implications of the Study	99

	xi
5.3 Limitations of the Study and Future Suggestions.....	102
5.4 Conclusions of the Study	104
REFERENCES.....	106
APPENDICES	
A. FISHER DIVORCE ADJUSTMENT SCALE.....	123
B. BRIEF SYMPTOM INVENTORY.....	127
C. MULTIDIMENSIONAL SCALE OF PERCEIVED SOCIAL SUPPORT.....	129
D. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM	131
E. INFORMATION FORM FOR THE COURT SAMPLE.....	133
F. INFORMATION FORM FOR THE SNOWBALL SAMPLE	135
G. THE PERMISSION TO USE THE FISHER DIVORCE ADJUSTMENT SCALE	136

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE

1. Demographic Characteristics of the Sample.....	60
2. The Corrected Item-Total Correlations for the Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale (FDAS)	71
3. Correlations of Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale (FDAS) with the Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI), the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS), and the General Life Satisfaction (GLS).....	73
4. Means and Standard Deviations of the Variables.....	75
5. Correlation Matrix for Predictor and Criterion Variables	77
6. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Results: Emotional/Social Postdivorce Adjustment as Criterion Variable.....	82
7. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Results: Psychological Distress as Criterion Variable	84

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

People naturally seek to have power to be able to control the events of their lives (Gray & Silver, 1990). Thus, power/control is a necessary part of human interaction even when individuals are not consciously aware of it (Knudson-Martin & Mahoney, 1999). All relationship forms involve complex and multifaceted power/control dynamics (Bugental & Happaney, 2000). However, influence must be balanced with limitation since unbounded power in a system is destructive (Magistad & Rettig, 1999; Knudson-Martin & Mahoney, 1999). A growing body of family literature suggests that equal power/control is a requisite to any form of relationship to be healthy (Bugental & Happaney, 2000; Freeman, 1999; Galliher, Rostosky, Welsh, & Kawaguchi, 1999; Knudson-Martin & Mahoney, 1999; Lindahl & Malik, 1999; Sagrestano, Heavey, & Christensen, 1999; Sprencer & Felmlee, 1997; Tichenor, 1999; Zielinski, 1999).

Maddock (1993; cited in Magistad & Rettig, 1999) suggests that it may be useful to think power and control as a single construct because one cannot occur without the other. In family literature, many definitions of power that usually contains the concept of "control" exist. These definitions might be divided into two main categories: Power directed towards another person and towards oneself. Power in the classic sense, which falls into the first category, is the ability to impose one's will even against resistance

(Knudson-Martin & Mahoney, 1999). Similarly, according to Cromwell and Olson (1975; cited in Sprencer & Felmlee, 1997), power can be defined as the ability to control another person's attitudes or behavior. Sagrestano et al. (1999) also defined power as perceptions of potential control over another person, including expectations for success and influence over outcomes.

As for the second category of power/control as directed towards oneself, Satir (1987; cited in Freeman, 1999) defined power as a source of energy in families that can facilitate rather than dominate. She transformed power from a hierarchical concept to the concept of empowerment by which individuals are in positions to choose for themselves and to take responsibility and control of their own lives (Freeman, 1999). Such a definition of power has a quite different meaning than power as a force that a dominant person exerts over a subordinate (Freeman, 1999). Similarly, according to Emery (1994; cited in Madden-Derdich & Arditti, 1999), power refers to the control that individuals perceive themselves to have over their lives, which is the accepted meaning of the power/control in the study presented here.

Based on the literature, it is also possible to mention multiple domains of power. Olson and Cromwell (1975; cited in Galliher et al., 1999; Sagrestano et al., 1999; Shehan & Lee, 1990; Sprencer & Felmlee, 1997) have identified three conceptual aspects of power as resources, process, and outcome. In this context, the relative allocation of resources has been described as a reflection of the power structure of the relationship since

resources increase one's ability to exercise control over a particular situation (Olson & Cromwell, 1975; cited in Galliher et al., 1999; Sagrestano et al., 1999; Shehan & Lee, 1990; Sprenger & Felmlee, 1997). Process aspect of power is observed in influencing tactics used by parties in the relationship in order to enhance the impact of resources in the attempts to take control of the situation (Olson & Cromwell, 1975; cited in Galliher et al., 1999; Sagrestano et al., 1999; Shehan & Lee, 1990; Sprenger & Felmlee, 1997). It is important to note that people are likely to engage in such influential tactics after the evaluation of the resources. As a result of this evaluation, if people see themselves as lacking power or control over a particular situation, thereby, over their lives, they can enter a power/control struggle (Bugental & Happaney, 2000). As for outcome aspect of power, it is defined as control over decision-making (Olson & Cromwell, 1975; cited in Galliher et al., 1999; Sagrestano et al., 1999; Shehan & Lee, 1990; Sprenger & Felmlee, 1997).

A review of the family literature shows that power/control structure of the relationships is the subject of research for all possible relationship forms between couples. One of the analysis units that has been focus of investigation in terms of power/control dynamics is divorced couples. Because the relationship between divorced people inevitably continues if they are also parents (Emery & Dillon, 1994), the issues related to power/control dynamics are particularly relevant for them. Magistad and Rettig (1999) emphasizes that power/control balances previously achieved in the nuclear family system are no longer adaptive so divorced parties are

challenged to negotiate a new balance for their binuclear family system in order to control the events of their lives emerged afterward of the divorce. In general, since perceived power/control over one's own life has been identified as an important determinant of one's response to distressful events (Bay & Braver, 1990; Gray & Silver, 1990), it may be particularly important for parents experienced divorce which is one of the most distress provoking events (Bay & Braver, 1990; Cohen, Luxenburg, Dattner, & Matz, 1999; Gray & Silver, 1990; Magistad & Rettig, 1999).

In early research, divorce has been characterized as only a crisis or stressful life event just like the other commonly occurring events such as birth, death, job loss, promotion, moving, and marriage (Plummer & Koch-Hattem, 1986; Tschann, Johnston, & Wallerstein, 1989). One the other hand, rather than conceptualization of divorce as a life event or crisis that occurred at a certain point, more recently researchers have begun to address the importance of conceptualizing divorce as a prolonged process starting with distress and dissatisfaction in the marriage and ending in acceptance of and adjustment to the separation (Cohen, Finzi, & Avi-Yonah, 1999; Emery & Dillon, 1994; Madden-Derdich, Leonard, & Christopher, 1999; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Robinson, 1993; Stewart, Copeland, Chester, Malley, & Barenbaum, 1997; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987).

In this vein, divorce is accepted as a complex psychosocial life transition (Kitson & Holmes, 1992). Few other commonly occurring events have an impact in so many domains of an individual's life: psychological,

social, emotional, economic, and parental (Bohannon, 1970; cited in Berman, 1988; Cohen, Finzi, & Avi-Yonah, 1999; Feldman, 1989; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Weiss, 1975). Each of these areas is separately related with its own challenges to the postdivorce distress of the individuals (Feldman, 1989). Psychologically, notwithstanding some positive effects, in a vast number of studies divorce is generally assumed to be a highly disruptive life transformation process which has considerable negative effects for the individual who must experience it (e.g., Júlíusdóttir, 1997; Doherty, Su, & Needle, 1989; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kitson & Morgan, 1990; Kitson, Babri, Roach, & Placidi, 1989; Mastekaasa, 1994). Compared not only to the currently married but also to almost all other marital-status groups (never married, widowed, and remarried), the divorced people have been generally found as having more psychological problems even after a prolonged period of recovery and adaptation (e.g., Júlíusdóttir, 1997; Doherty et al., 1989; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kitson et al., 1989; Katz, 1991; Lorenz & Simons, 1997; Shapiro, 1996). Socially, divorce generally leads to a decrease in the social network size (Cheung & Liu, 1997; Feldman, 1989; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Robinson, 1993; Weiss, 1975; Wang & Amato, 2000) and to a dramatic change in the social status (Diedrick, 1991). Emotionally, along with feelings of anger, guilt, failure, confusion, fear, and depression, the divorced partners may feel the absence of each other, be preoccupied with thoughts of one another, and experience emptiness, rejection, worthlessness, and loneliness (Diedrick, 1991; Feldman, 1989; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Song, 1991; Weiss, 1975), which are generally accepted as strong and contradictory emotions

(Cohen, Finzi, & Avi-Yonah, 1999). Economically, again in a vast number of studies it has been demonstrated that both parties but especially custodial parents experience a decrease in their ordinary standard of living (e.g., Christensen & Rettig, 1991; Feldman, 1989; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kurz, 1995; Lawson & Thompson, 1996). Divorce has additional implications when divorced people have also children (Furstenberg & Nord, 1985). Parentally, divorce alters former partners' parental roles, parenting skills, and relationship patterns with their children (e.g., Beilin & Izen, 1991; Dudley, 1991b; Emery & Dillon, 1994; Feldman, 1989; Holloway & Machida, 1991; Júlíusdóttir, 1997).

Being in a nature of such a multidimensional, thereby, distressful experience does not necessarily result in a decrease in the frequency of divorce. It is among the most common major life transitions experienced by nearly half of the individuals in today's Western societies (Bevino, 2000; Goldstein, 1999; Lambert, 2000; Rosenbaum, 2000). In recent years, however, it has become an increasing part of the social landscape not only in the Western societies but also in developing countries (Cohen & Savaya, 1997; Goldstein, 1999) due to the modern way of life resulting from urbanization and the level of development (Lester, 1997). Turkey is such a case. Although divorce rate in Turkey is still low in comparison with Western countries, it increases gradually as the new law facilitating the divorce has been introduced in 1988 and owing to the effects of fast changing sociocultural circumstances (Arıkan, 1996; Doğan, 1998; Uyar, 1999). Divorce statistics of 1997 reveals that there was an increase in the

crude divorce rates from 0.42 to 0.52 between 1988 and 1997 (Divorce Statistics, 1999). Moreover, more than half of these divorced people (53.76%) have children.

Both the increase in the rates and the adverse reactions experienced by divorced persons have prompted clinicians to understand the constituents of divorce adjustment. Although the issue has been interpreted in numerous studies, no consensus has been reached about how to define divorce adjustment (Bursik, 1991; Diedrick, 1991; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kitson & Morgan, 1990; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987). Obviously, this inconsistency results from the complex nature of the divorce process requiring adaptation to the changes in nearly every domain of a human's life. Taking into account the multidimensional nature of the divorce adjustment, it might be defined as a dual process involving adjustment not only to loss of love, status, and lifestyle, but also to gain of a new identity, lifestyle and the skills required to be mastered as a result of the change (Diedrick, 1991; Bursik, 1991; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987; Weiss, 1975). In view of divorced parents, adjustment to the postdivorce family also implies "an acceptance by each formerly married partner that each of them needs to develop a new social network in which their children may also become involved" (Robinson, 1993, p.103).

The inconsistency in the definition of adjustment to divorce inevitably reflects to the measurement of the concept. The complex nature of the postdivorce adjustment warrants the multidimensional assessment of it when studying adaptation to divorce. However, not considering the

complex nature of the divorce adjustment, most studies have used only broad indicators of general adjustment, such as general life satisfaction (DeGarmo & Kitson, 1996), psychological well-being (Holloway & Machida, 1991; Shapiro, 1996), substance use (Doherty et al., 1989) or measures of depression (Berman, 1988; Emery & Wyer, 1987; Lorenz & Simons, 1997; Katz, 1991). In addition, some measures of divorce adjustment have involved general life stress that evolves from the areas such as relationships with former spouse, parenting, and financial concerns (Sansom & Farnill, 1997; Tschann et al., 1989). Reports of stress, however, do not necessarily relate to divorce adjustment (Diedrick, 1991). On the other hand, in order to provide as comprehensive and accurate information as possible regarding the complex effects of divorce, some other studies assessed postdivorce adjustment using some of these various indicators of adjustment together (Bevino, 2000; Bursik, 1991; Cheung & Liu, 1997; Lambert, 2000; Mastekaasa, 1997; Tschann et al., 1989). Interestingly, considerably few studies have focused on adjustment scales specifically developed for divorced people (Plummer & Koch-Hattem, 1986; Wang & Amato, 2000).

Adopting a multidimensional approach, in the present study adjustment to divorce was measured using two scales one of which taps feelings and experiences directly relevant to divorced people and the other assesses the levels of general psychological distress. The first scale, which specifically evaluates divorced people's levels of emotional/social adjustment, was employed after it was adapted into Turkish culture. These

two indicators of adjustment, namely emotional/social divorce adjustment and psychological distress, were chosen in order to provide comprehensive information about divorced parents' adjustment that is a process affected by multifaceted factors.

In the literature, a number of factors associated with parents' post-divorce adjustment have been identified. The issue of divorce adjustment is much more complicated for parents since they are exposed to additional distress because of the matters related to children. As many researchers emphasized, child-related matters including custody status, visitation schedules, child support payments or alimony, and parenting are central factors associated with parents' postdivorce adjustment (Emery & Dillon, 1994; Júlíusdóttir, 1997; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Madden-Derdich et al., 1999; Robinson, 1993; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987; Stewart et al, 1997; Tschann et al, 1989; Weiss, 1975; Wright & Price, 1986). Furthermore, it has been repeatedly demonstrated that when there is a strain in the economic issues, there is also conflict regarding the children, i.e., custody arrangements, visiting habits, and support payments, which consequently leads to poor divorce adjustment (Júlíusdóttir, 1997; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kurz, 1995; Stewart et al, 1997). Thus, financial strain is also accepted as a postdivorce issue related to the children. All of these child-related matters have an obvious influence on postdivorce adjustment, as they directly affect the extent of parental involvement and the amount of interaction between divorced parents (Dudley, 1991a; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kurz, 1995).

Furthermore, it is worth paying attention that in divorced family systems also power/control dynamics between former spouses appear in matters related to children (Bay & Braver, 1990; Cohen, Luxenburg, et al., 1999; Gray & Silver, 1990; Magistad & Rettig, 1999). Former spouses struggle over the matters related to children such as custody, visitation schedules, child support payments or alimony, and parenting making these legal necessities a continuing area for contesting not only in the divorce process but also afterward of the divorce (Bay & Braver, 1990; Cohen, Luxenburg, et al., 1999; Gray & Silver, 1990; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Magistad & Rettig, 1999). To illustrate, one parent may fail to make timely support payments, leading the other parent to obstruct visitation, thereupon, the first parent may respond by initiating a custody fight, escalating the power/control struggle (Magistad & Rettig, 1999). Based on the power literature mentioned earlier, while such a power/control struggle might be evaluated as the process aspect of power resulting from the evaluation of the resources, child-related concerns might be considered as the resources. Supportingly, it has been emphasized that custodial partners use their power over time resources to control their former spouse while noncustodial partners use their power over financial resources to control their former spouse's parenting behaviors (Magistad & Retting, 1999; Stewart et al., 1997). Thus, the degree of power/control that individuals perceive themselves to have in the areas of parenting, custody, visitation schedules, child support payments or alimony, and financial matters may be particularly important for parents experienced divorce.

On the other hand, a review of the family literature demonstrates that although child-related matters have been separately investigated in terms of their effects on the postdivorce adjustment in numerous studies, these variables have not been considered together in a power/control context with regard to their associations to postdivorce adjustment. Few studies have addressed power issues after postdivorce period, yet either in a theoretical way (Bay & Braver, 1990; Emery & Dillon, 1994; Magistad & Rettig, 1999) or in a boundary ambiguity and coparental conflict context (Gray & Silver, 1990; Madden-Derdich et al., 1999). In the light of these, the main aim of the present study was to investigate the relationship between perceived power/control over child-related concerns and postdivorce adjustment. When power/control is seen as directed towards oneself, previous research indicates that the degree of power/control that individuals perceive themselves to have in the areas of custody, visitation schedules, child support payments, and parenting is positively related to their levels of satisfaction in these areas (Arditti, 1992; Arditti & Allen, 1993; Arditti & Madden-Derdich, 1995; cited in Madden-Derdich et al., 1999; Sheets & Braver, 1996). Moreover, individuals who report higher levels of financial strain are expected to perceive less power/control in this area (Madden-Derdich et al., 1999). Thus, perceived power/control over child-related concerns was measured in terms of satisfaction with these child-related issues. It was hypothesized in the present study that higher levels of perceived power/control over child-related concerns would predict the higher levels of emotional/ social postdivorce adjustment and lower levels of psychological distress.

In the family literature, another factor that has received increasing attention in relation to divorce adjustment is social support. It has been repeatedly demonstrated that social support decreases the distress to be encountered after divorce (e.g., Cheung & Liu, 1997; Diedrick, 1991; Holloway & Machida, 1991, Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Sansom & Farnill, 1997; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1992; Song, 1991; Tschann, et al., 1989; Wang & Amato, 2000). With regard to divorce experience, social support is defined as “help that people receive in performing the activities required or permitted by their new social roles” (Kitson & Holmes, 1992, p. 222). Moreover, the social support gained from interactions with especially family, friends, and other significant members of social network are seen as crucial predictors of adjustment to divorce (Bursik, 1991). In divorce, support brings assurance that although some dimensions of an individual’s life have been modified, much of it remains the same and supportive persons may reduce the feeling of being in a strange, ambiguous, or unexpected situation (Kitson & Holmes, 1992). Also, the divorced people have often been found to need support in the areas of child care, finances, affect release, social activities, divorce-related concerns, unemployment, housework and home-making, and legal matters (Sansom & Farnill, 1997). On the other hand, Bursik’s longitudinal study (1991) has demonstrated that rather than the real availability of social support, perception that it is available would be more effective in enhancing postdivorce adjustment. Perceived support is defined as the extent to which an individual believes that his/her need for support are satisfied (Sussman & Steinmetz, 1992). In the current study, social support, as another predictor of postdivorce

adjustment, was examined in terms of perceived social support. In the light of the relevant literature, it was hypothesized that higher levels of perceived social support would predict the higher levels of emotional/social postdivorce adjustment and lower levels of psychological distress.

Since accumulating evidence suggests that adjustment to divorce is associated with a pileup of demographic variables, it was also aimed to collect information some divorce-related demographic characteristics. These variables included gender, age, education, length of marriage, number of children, idea of divorce, initiator status, duration of divorce, taking professional help, and presence of a romantic relationship after divorce. These demographic characteristics were chosen considering that they might be related to the hypotheses of the study. To illustrate, as well as child-related concerns, education level is another example of personal resource that may help people adjust divorce-related distress, giving a stronger sense of power/control. Since it is not clear from previous studies whether such a contextual variables have consistent implications for divorce adjustment, though it was hypothesized that these variables would be associated with the levels of emotional/social divorce adjustment and psychological distress, no direction of relationship was predicted for them.

1.1 Hypotheses of the Study

In the light of the family literature, three hypotheses were suggested in the current study.

1. Higher levels of perceived power/control over child-related concerns would predict the higher levels of emotional/social postdivorce adjustment and lower levels of psychological distress.
2. Higher levels of perceived social support would predict the higher levels of emotional/social postdivorce adjustment and lower levels of psychological distress.
3. Demographic characteristics of gender, age, education, length of marriage, number of children, idea of divorce, initiator status, duration of divorce, taking professional help, and presence of a romantic relationship after divorce would be associated with the levels of emotional/social divorce adjustment and psychological distress but no direction of relationship was predicted for them.

1.2 Importance and Implications of the Study

It is clear that adjustment difficulties after divorce prevent divorced individuals from developing a new worldview that allows them to start a relatively autonomous life style (Robinson, 1993). Especially parents' poor postdivorce adjustment would result in destructive outcomes not only for the divorced individual but also for all members of the binuclear family system. Supportingly, a number of studies (Barnes, 1999; Furstenberg & Nord, 1985; Gardner, 1999; King & Heard, 1999; Madden-Derdich et al., 1999; McKenry, Clark, & Stone, 1999; Robinson, 1993; Roizblatt, Rivera, Fuchs, Toso, Ossandón, & Guelfand, 1997; Shifflett & Cummings, 1999) have shown that parent's difficulty in adjusting divorce has also detrimental effects on children's adjustment to divorce, which results in emotional,

behavioural, and academic problems. Without a clearer understanding of the factors that are associated with parents' postdivorce adjustment, it is difficult to develop treatment strategies that identify appropriate points of prevention, assessment, and intervention for divorced parents (Madden-Derdich & Arditto, 1999), which would be beneficial not only for divorced individual but also for all family members (Bay & Braver, 1990).

On the other hand, a review of the family literature demonstrated that there was no such a study investigating the relationship between perceived power/control, indicated by the higher levels of satisfaction with custody, visitation, child support payment or alimony, parenting, and lower levels of financial strain together, and postdivorce adjustment. In this context, a study covering that issue was needed. Since perceiving oneself as having power/control over child-related concerns might serve as a means of adjustment, investigation of the topic would be beneficial in clinical settings so as to focus on enhancing perceived power/control over these issues by helping divorced parents recognize the normative aspects of power/control alterations in the divorced family system. In addition, assessment of maladaptive expectations, distorted perceptions, dysfunctional beliefs and assumptions in the perceived power/control mechanisms and reframing work on the determined troubles can also improve divorced parents' maladjustment after divorce.

Let alone undiscovered relationships associated with postdivorce adjustment, there were so limited number of empirical studies in Turkey (Arıkan, 1990; Demir, 1988; Doğan, 1998; Fıçıloğlu, 2000a; Fıçıloğlu,

2000b; Uyar, 1999) that they are inadequate to give knowledge about the whole portrait of cultural norms and psychological features concerning Turkish people's postdivorce experience. In this context, although the family literature has concretely demonstrated that social support and the demographic factors included in the present study are associated with postdivorce adjustment, the current study still sought to clarify the importance of these variables as predictors of Turkish people's adjustment to divorce since the constituents of postdivorce adjustment are likely to be affected by the surrounding culture and society (Cohen & Savaya, 1997). On the other hand, the divorce literature also indicates that studies including demographic characteristics have yielded conflicting results in terms of the direction of their relationships with divorce adjustment (Bursik, 1991) so they can only be viewed as potential predictors of adjustment to divorce. Investigating the direction of these relationships, if they exist, in a Turkish population was the other reason for including these demographic variables in the present study.

With regard to perceived social support and demographic characteristics, trying to determine whether their demonstrated relationships with postdivorce adjustment in the other cultures are valid or exist in also Turkish population could be helpful for Turkish clinical psychologists in their theoretical and practical studies. Specifically, given the potential importance of perceived social support in divorce adjustment, focusing on effective usage and accurate evaluation of social support by divorced parent could be a crucial component of the intervention process. Moreover,

having empirical information about Turkish divorced parents demographic characteristics might be beneficial in clinical settings in order to outline a baseline impression as potential explanatory structural factors for the levels of postdivorce adjustment.

To conclude, a review of available relevant literature demonstrated that the present study was the first attempt to investigate custody, visitation, alimony, parenting, and financial matters together in a power/control context in regard to their associations with postdivorce adjustment. Moreover, it can be stated that because perceived social support and all of the studied demographic characteristics were included in order to identify the nature of the relationships between these variables and postdivorce adjustment in a Turkish sample, the study filled the research gap exists in divorce field in Turkey where the divorce rates tend to be increase continuously. Given that the new draft in law bringing fairness in the division of economic sources between parties and some other arrangements concerning unfair conditions in the divorce process was expected to become valid in the subsequent days, it might be reasonable to predict that divorce rates would even further evolve in the near future. Also these increasing trends indicated that since the postdivorce adjustment is so multifaceted that it is difficult to be clarified through a few studies, divorce should be a significant issue for mental health clinicians interested in family life in Turkey.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

2.1 Power/Control: Definition and Dimensions

As people influence each other, power/control is a necessary part of human interaction even when individuals are not consciously aware of it (Knudson-Martin & Mahoney, 1999). People naturally seek to have power to be able to control the events of their lives (Gray & Silver, 1990). Indeed, the concepts of power and control might be accepted as a single construct because one cannot occur without the other (Maddock, 1993; cited in Magistad & Rettig, 1999). In this way, the need to distinguish power from control might be removed (Magistad & Rettig, 1999).

A review of family literature points to the presence of a long lasting conceptual chaos about how to define power. It is important to note that the concept of control is generally used in the definitions of power. In addition, these definitions might be divided into two main categories: Power directed towards another person and towards oneself. Power in the classic sense, which falls into the first category, is the ability to enforce one's will even against resistance (Knudson-Martin & Mahoney, 1999). Correspondingly, according to Cromwell and Olson (1975; cited in Sprenger & Felmler, 1997), power can be defined as the ability to control another person's attitudes or behavior. Sagrestano, Heavey, and Christensen (1999) defined

power as perceptions of potential influence on another person, including expectations for success and control over outcomes. Galliher, Rostosky, Welsh, and Kawaguchi (1999) also state that power is a mean by which a person obtains what is desired, in spite of opposition.

According to Satir (1987; cited in Freeman, 1999), power, which falls into the second category, is a source of energy in families that can facilitate rather than dominate. She transformed power from a hierarchical concept to the concept of empowerment by which individuals are in positions to choose for themselves and to take responsibility and control of their own lives, quite a different meaning than power as a force that a dominant person exerts over a subordinate (Freeman, 1999). Similarly, according to Emery (1994; cited in Madden-Derdich & Arditto, 1999), power refers to the control that individuals perceive themselves to have over their lives.

Remarkably reducing the confusion over the explanation of family power and containing both of the two main categories of power definitions, Olson and Cromwell (1975; cited in Galliher et al., 1999; Sagrestano et al., 1999; Shehan & Lee, 1990; Sprenger & Felmler, 1997) have identified three conceptual facets of family power in their longitudinal synthesis of the existing literature. These domains are defined as resources, process, and outcome, which give opportunity to understand family power in a much broader context. In other words, these three domains make the definition of power so broad that perceived power/control not only over a particular situation and person but also over one's own life are contained and explained by these three aspects of power.

The first aspect of power, namely resources, based on the principles of equity theory, emphasizes the social exchange of resources. According to one of the basic principles of equity theory, individuals in relationships try to increase their own rewards or benefits in their interactions (Galliher et al., 1999) and the most powerful members in relationships are those with the greatest access to valued resources (Steil, 1994; cited in Galliher et al., 1999). The relative allocation of resources, in other words, individual possesses, has been described as a reflection of the power structure of the relationship since resources increase one's power and ability to exercise control over a particular situation, as well as over personal life (Olson & Cromwell 1975; cited in Galliher et al., 1999; Sagrestano et al., 1999; Shehan & Lee, 1990; Sprenger & Felmlee, 1997). In this context, power might be defined as possessing special privileges that are rarely challenged by others (Emery & Dillon, 1994). People with many unchallenged privileges accepted having more power than those with fewer privileges (Emery & Dillon, 1994). Moreover, these bases of power are clearly related to the general resources such as education and occupational status. Research on access to resources in relationships (Rodman, 1967; Safilios-Rothschild, 1976; Vanfossen, 1977; cited in Galliher et al., 1999) has repeatedly found that people with greater educational and economic resources are more likely to dominate. However, Sprey (1972; cited in Shehan & Lee, 1990) argued that each person's inventory of resources changes over the course of family life and that his or her bargaining power also changes as a result.

The second facet, the process aspect of power, is often examined by using observation technique (Galliher et al., 1999). That domain of power is observed in influencing tactics used by parties in the relationship in order to enhance the impact of resources in the attempts to take control of the situation (Olson & Cromwell 1975; cited in Galliher et al., 1999; Sagrestano et al., 1999; Shehan & Lee, 1990; Sprencer & Felmlee, 1997). As a result of the evaluation of resources, if people see themselves as lacking power or control over a particular situation, thereby, over their lives, they are likely to enter a power/control struggle (Bugental & Happaney, 2000). Similarly, Bay and Braver (1990) emphasized that the prediction that the person will experience a lack of control which will result in enhanced motivation to obtain outcome results in power/control struggle and aggressive behaviors. Gender differences in this aspect of power are seen across the lifespan and in various types of relationships (Galliher et al., 1999). Generally, women are expected to use less direct, less aggressive influence strategies than men (Galliher et al., 1999; Knudson-Martin & Mahoney, 1999).

The third aspect, the outcome of power, is defined as control over final decision-making (Olson & Cromwell 1975; cited in Galliher et al., 1999; Sagrestano et al., 1999; Shehan & Lee, 1990; Sprencer & Felmlee, 1997). Due to practical reasons, this domain has received more research attention than the other two in spite of the fact that outcomes are only one state of the power process rather than its entirety. Again, the research describes a developmental phenomenon in which females increasingly

submit to control in decision-making and adopt a passive role in their relationships with males. According to Galliher et al. (1999), the outcome dimension of power in adult couples is that males are more likely to dominate in decision-making matters.

A review of the family literature (Bay & Braver, 1990; Bugental & Happaney, 2000; Galliher et al., 1999; Knudson-Martin & Mahoney, 1999; Magistad & Rettig, 1999; Sagrestano et al., 1999; Sprencer & Felmlee, 1997) demonstrates that power/control structure of the relationships is the subject of research for all possible relationship forms between couples such as dating couples, married couples, divorcing and divorced couples. The power dynamics of dating relationships are significant because these couples set the foundation for those established in subsequent marital relationships (Galliher et al., 1999; Sprencer & Felmlee, 1997). In addition, the balance of power may have some consequences for married couples, including satisfaction and stability (Sagrestano et al., 1999). As for divorcing couples, they inevitably must struggle to balance power/control within their emerging binuclear family system because family members often have competing values, goals, needs, wants, and standards when trying to decide how resources will be distributed (Magistad & Rettig, 1999).

2.1.1 Power/Control Dynamics after Divorce

One of the analysis units that has been focus of investigation in terms of power/control dynamics is divorced parents. Power balances

previously achieved in the nuclear family system are no longer adaptive so divorced parties are challenged to negotiate a new balance for their binuclear family system in order to control the events of their lives emerged afterward of the divorce (Magistad & Rettig, 1999). The most obvious power/control topics after divorce involve the issues appearing in relation to children such as custody status, visitation rights, child support payments or alimony, parenting, and financial concerns (Bay & Braver, 1990; Cohen, Luxenburg, Dattner, & Matz, 1999; Gray & Silver, 1990; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Madden-Derdich, Leonard, & Christopher, 1999; Magistad & Rettig, 1999). Sheets and Braver (1996) emphasize that most of the decisions about especially custody, visitation, and child support or alimony are reached through informal negotiation between former partners. On the other hand, Dudley (1991b) points out that the agreements between former partners often not important, since divorce procedures often set a norm for how the parents will continue to work out their issues over time so they can inevitably enter a power/control struggle. Furthermore, since one might have received outcomes that s/he does not prefer in the divorce settlement process, for example, a low child support award or restricted access to the children, balancing of the power dynamics often does not end after the legal process of the divorce has been completed (Bay & Braver, 1990; Koel, Clark, Straus, Whitney, & Hauser, 1994; Kurz, 1995; Lonsdorf, 1991; Rowe, 1991; Seltzer & Garfinkel, 1990). To sum up, afterward of the divorce potentially involves and affects the issues of power/control.

Acceptance of such child-related matters as power/control issues in the divorced family system can be explained in the light of the power/control literature mentioned above. Accordingly, matters related to children after divorce might be evaluated in the context of the resource facet of power. In other words, child-related matters are individual resources for dealing with divorce related distress associated with the loss of influence over the other former spouse's parenting and of children, as well as over one's own life. Supportingly, it has been emphasized that custodial partners use their power over time resources to control their former spouse while noncustodial partners use their power over financial resources to control their former spouse's parenting behaviors (Magistad & Retting, 1999; Stewart, Copeland, Chester, Malley, & Barenbaum, 1997). Moreover, such a power struggle between former parents can be evaluated as the process aspect of power, which is observed in influencing tactics used by parties in order to enhance the impact of individual resources, thereby enhance the control over personal life. To illustrate, one parent may fail to make timely support payments, leading the other parent to obstruct visitation, thereupon, the first parent may respond by initiating a custody fight, escalating the power/control struggle (Magistad & Rettig, 1999). Thus, the degree of power/control that individuals perceive themselves to have in the areas of parenting, custody, visitation schedules, child support payments or alimony, and financial matters may be particularly important for parents experienced divorce.

As a related issue, previous research indicates that the degree of power/control that individuals perceive themselves to have in the areas of parenting, custody, visitation schedules and child support payments is positively related to their levels of satisfaction in these areas (Arditti, 1992; Arditti & Allen, 1993; Arditti & Madden-Derdich, 1995; cited in Madden-Derdich et al., 1999; Sheets & Braver, 1996). Specifically, findings of Sheets and Braver's longitudinal study have demonstrated that women were significantly more satisfied, thereby, perceived more control than men with the custody, visitation, child support payments, and financial matters. Moreover, these gender differences were not transient, but mostly remained stable for the following 2 years.

In conclusion, perceived power/control over one's life has been identified as an important determinant of one's response to distressful events (Bay & Braver, 1990; Gray & Silver, 1990). Since so many of the significant issues involved in divorce are related to control, perceived power/control may be particularly important for people experienced divorce which is one of the most distress provoking events (Bay & Braver, 1990; Cohen, Luxenburg, et al., 1999; Gray & Silver, 1990; Magistad & Rettig, 1999).

2.2 Divorce: Definition

Divorce has continuously attracted the clinicians' attention due to the fact that it is among the most common major life transitions experienced by nearly half of the individuals in today's Western societies

(Bevino, 2000; Goldstein, 1999; Lambert, 2000; Rosenbaum, 2000). In recent years, however, it has become an increasingly frequent occurrence not only in the Western societies but also in developing countries (Cohen & Savaya, 1997; Goldstein, 1999) due to the modern way of life resulting from urbanization and the level of development (Lester, 1997). The social changes of the last decades are not the least reflected in changes within the family structure (Júlíusdóttir, 1997). Turkey is such a case. Although divorce rate in Turkey is still low in comparison with Western countries, it increases gradually as the new law facilitating the divorce has been introduced in 1988 and owing to the effects of fast changing sociocultural circumstances (Arıkan, 1996; Doğan, 1998; Uyar, 1999). Divorce statistics of 1997 reveals that there was an increase in the crude divorce rates from 0.42 to 0.52 between 1988 and 1997 (Divorce Statistics, 1999). Moreover, more than half of these divorced people (53.76%) have children.

The state of marriage between couple ends with a divorce (Weiss, 1975) but it does not mean the termination of the family and family relationship if the former spouses are also parents (Emery & Dillon, 1994; Madden-Derdich et al., 1999; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Plummer & Koch-Hattem, 1986; Wright & Price, 1986). Rather than dissolving a family, divorce reorganizes it into a binuclear structure which is a family system emerges as a result of the structural changes following divorce (Ahrons, 1979; cited in Robinson, 1993). Considering divorce as the end of a family might result in ignoring the impact of the divorce on the family and the role

of the family in the former spouses' adjustment to the divorce (Plummer & Koch-Hattem, 1986).

In examining divorce and its aftermath, the point of view affect how the entire divorce process is understood and what recommendations are made for interventions (Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987). A review of the literature reveals that three major paradigms have been used in the divorce studies: divorce as a social selection, crisis, and loss experience (Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kitson & Morgan, 1990; Shapiro, 1996; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987). However, each of these paradigms does not seem to address the issues related to divorce completely (Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kitson & Morgan, 1990; Shapiro, 1996; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987).

The social selection explanation argues that persons who have chronic psychological distress may be more likely to divorce than those without chronic psychological distress (Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kitson & Morgan, 1990; Shapiro, 1996; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987). According to this view, persons with high levels of psychological distress are "selected out" of the pool of married persons through divorce (Shapiro, 1996). That is, divorced people are seen as psychologically inappropriate to maintain relationships (Kitson & Morgan, 1990). Thus, some question exists as to whether adjustment problems occur because of that experience or exist prior to divorce (Diedrick, 1991). On the other hand, it is difficult to attribute the causes of divorce and problems occur after divorce to preexisting pathology when so many people are divorcing all over the world (Kitson &

Morgan, 1990; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987). Moreover, longitudinal data have provided little support for social selection explanations (Doherty, Su, & Needle, 1989; Mastekaasa, 1997; Wallerstein, 1986).

The alternative approach receiving substantial research attention in 1980s considers divorce as a crisis or stressful life event just like the other commonly occurring events such as birth, death, job loss, promotion, moving, and marriage (Plummer & Koch-Hattem, 1986; Tschann, Johnston, & Wallerstein, 1989). In this approach, the divorce experience is a stressor event, which, under certain conditions, can lead to crises that may be manifested in physical or mental illnesses (Doherty et al., 1989; Mastekaasa, 1997). Though the explanation argues that divorce is also a stressful period in a person's life, it is thought as a crisis rather than a continuous event (Shapiro, 1996). In this scenario, there is often a dominance of psychological stressors that end within a few years after divorce (Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987). In other words, the crisis is resolved in a fairly short period of time, that is, with time individual is able to regain the level of functioning before divorce. However, longitudinal research suggests that more continuous difficulties are experienced in divorce (Wallerstein, 1986). Within this context, what the crisis approach often ignores is that divorce is not "an" event, but a series of life events (Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kitson & Morgan, 1990). To summarize, the length of time involved in coping with the divorce makes this approach a less useful descriptor (Kitson & Holmes, 1992).

Another common approach to divorce tries to link the crisis and pathological models by emphasizing the "loss" concept (Kitson & Morgan, 1990). According to this perspective, divorce actually requires a pileup of events, each of which may contribute to a distressing series of losses (Kitson & Holmes, 1992). The loss include not only a person and perhaps still loved partner but also loss of social status, friends, possibly loss of one's children, and financial sources (Beilin & Izen, 1991; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987). After divorce, both the woman and the man may no longer feel themselves as the same people when they were married (Kitson & Holmes, 1992). While individuals after divorce experience some loss of their former self-definitions, they have not yet gained new ones so they are between selves (Weiss, 1975). Loss of the marriage may be experienced as similar to loss of a partner by death or loss of a limb. Every person in the family is faced with the symbolic, physical, economic, emotional, and material losses as a result of the divorce (Beilin & Izen, 1991).

Not considering which approach is more appropriate to use when studying divorce, in general, it can be asserted that recognition of the progressive nature of divorce is one clear and crucial change in the literature as the research accumulated (Kitson & Morgan, 1990). Rather than conceptualization of divorce as a life event or crisis that occurred at a certain point, more recently researchers have begun to agree that, socially and psychologically, divorce is not a single event but a process of change that can extend over long periods of time (Cohen, Finzi, & Avi-Yonah,

1999; Emery & Dillon, 1994; Madden-Derdich et al., 1999; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Robinson, 1993; Stewart et al., 1997; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987). These accounts have addressed the importance of conceptualizing divorce as a prolonged process starting with distress and dissatisfaction in the marriage and ending in acceptance of and adjustment to the separation.

2.2.1 Consequences of Divorce

Some positive effects notwithstanding, divorce is generally assumed to cause highly disruptive consequences that have considerable negative effects for the individual who must experience it. In fact, divorce has been characterized as creating effects that range from devastation to relief (Diedrick, 1991). However, even after the worst marriage whose ending produces a sense of relief for one or both parties, former partners experience some level of divorce-related distress, especially if they are also parents and the relief may be mixed with separation distress (Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987; Weiss, 1975). Thus, it is often the case that divorce has continuing distressful consequences (Bursik, 1991; Lawson & Thompson, 1996; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kitson & Morgan, 1990). Consequences defined as various interacting processes that occur after the divorce (Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987). Also, it is important to note that the concept of "adjustment" is frequently used as an organizing theme in discussions of the consequences of divorce (Kitson & Morgan, 1990). For this reason, these consequences are actually what a divorced individual has to adjust to (Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987).

It is a fact that many people are to deal with multiple consequences of divorce, since few other commonly occurring events have an impact in so many domains of an individual's life: psychological, social, emotional, economic, and parental (Bohannon, 1970; cited in Berman, 1988; Cohen, Finzi, & Avi-Yonah, 1999; Feldman, 1989; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Weiss, 1975). Typically, the consequences of divorce have includes negative events, processes, and states of being and feeling that are related to the changes in these domains (Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987). Each of these areas is separately related with its own challenges to the postdivorce distress of the individuals (Feldman, 1989). Also, change in any one domain is likely to produce changes in other domains due to the interdependent relationships among them.

The legal divorce is only one component of the divorce process (Bohannon, 1970, cited in Berman, 1985). Almost all divorced people apparently struggle with the psychological separation from their spouse. Splitting occurs within family members throughout much of the "psychological divorce" and can last a great deal longer. Moreover, some positive effects notwithstanding, divorce is a process during which time persons may experience negative life events that may lead to psychological distress (Júlíusdóttir, 1997; Doherty et al., 1989; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kitson & Morgan, 1990; Kitson, Babri, Roach, & Placidi, 1989; Mastekaasa, 1994; Robinson, 1993; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987; Wallerstein, 1986; Weiss, 1975). Indeed, Hughes and Clark's (1994) findings suggest that about 30% of the divorced women would be classified

as in need of psychological treatment for depression at 2 years following divorce. In addition, compared not only to the currently married but also to almost all other marital-status groups (never married, widowed, and remarried), the divorced people are generally found to have more psychological and health problems even after a prolonged period of recovery and adaptation (Júlíusdóttir, 1997; Doherty et al., 1989; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kitson et al., 1989; Katz, 1991; Lorenz & Simons, 1997; Romanoff, Israel, Tremblay, O'Neill, & Roderick, 1999; Shapiro, 1996; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987; Tschann et al., 1989). This difference is not surprising because divorced individuals confront a variety of changes in the domains previously mentioned (Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Shapiro, 1996). In Turkey, rigorous research on the psychological consequences of divorced parents is missing. Contrary to the repeated findings in the divorce literature, in an only study comparing divorced and married Turkish people in terms of the levels of loneliness, depression, self-esteem, and locus of control, no difference was found between these two groups (Doğan, 1998).

Socially, divorce generally leads to a decrease in the social network size (Cheung & Liu, 1997; Feldman, 1989; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Robinson, 1993; Weiss, 1975; Wang & Amato, 2000) and the role of "wife" or "husband" becomes one of "former wife" or "former husband", thereby, one's social status also changes (Diedrick, 1991). Difficulty in the performance of these changing social roles including work, leisure activities, and time with children accounts for part of the distress experienced by the divorced, which suggests that adopting to that drafted

social roles is an important aspect of adjustment to divorce (Kitson & Morgan, 1990).

When marriages end in divorce, the former parents naturally experience emotional distress (Garvin, Kalter, & Hansell, 1993). Divorce is a difficult experience, which generally gives rise to strong, often contradictory emotions (Cohen, Finzi, & Avi-Yonah, 1999). Along with feelings of anger, guilt, confusion, fear, and depression, the separating partners may feel the absence of each other, be preoccupied with thoughts of one another, and experience sadness, emptiness, worthlessness, and loneliness (Diedrick, 1991; Feldman, 1989; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Song, 1991; Weiss, 1975). Furthermore, causing the loss of a partner and marriage, divorce may lead to feelings of failure and rejection especially for the part who is not the initiator of the divorce (Diedrick, 1991).

The detrimental economic consequences of divorce have been well documented in numerous research (Christensen & Rettig, 1991; Feldman, 1989; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kurz, 1995; Lawson & Thompson, 1996; Madden-Derdich et al., 1999; Magistad & Rettig, 1999; Mauldin, 1991; Rowe, 1991; Seiling & Harris, 1991; Sheets & Braver, 1996; Tschann et al., 1989) and the consistency in the findings despite the variance in the divorce laws is surprising (Christensen & Rettig, 1991). In case of divorced parents, women suffer financially to a greater extent than men since in spite of the fact that their income is usually low due to their low levels of education, women generally have the custody of their children (Holloway & Machida, 1991; Kurz, 1995; Mauldin, 1991; Rowe, 1991). In fact, also men

experience a decrease in their income but the demands on their income also diminish due to their noncustodial parent status in general, men's economic situation actually improves after divorce (Lawson & Thompson, 1996; Rowe, 1991).

Divorce has only minor implications when a couple childless (Furstenberg & Nord, 1985). Nevertheless, parents do not divorce their children and because of this they cannot fully divorce each other (Masheter, 1997). The couple will continue to be tied through the children in ways that maintain a symbolic presence of the absent member(s) in the lives of both parents and their children (Cole & Cole, 1999; Lawson & Thompson, 1996). Thus, former spouses must define their relationship on new terms (Emery & Dillon, 1994). Parentally, divorce alters former partners' parental roles, parenting skills, and relationship patterns with their children (Beilin & Izen, 1991; Dudley, 1991a; Emery & Dillon, 1994; Feldman, 1989; Furstenberg & Nord, 1985; Holloway & Machida, 1991; Júlíusdóttir, 1997; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kruk, 1992; Lawson & Thompson, 1996; Lorenz & Simons, 1997; Madden-Derdich et al., 1999; Robinson, 1993; Shapiro & Lambert, 1999; Tschann et al., 1989; Weiss, 1975). Custodial parents, usually the mother, often experience role strain and confusion resulting from adjustment to a single parenting role (Emery & Dillon, 1994; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Lorenz & Simons, 1997; Madden-Derdich et al., 1999; Robinson, 1993; Weiss, 1975). If the custodial parent is father, having primary responsibility for care of children is often a frightening task for many who have been socialized to expect a secondary

role in childrearing (Dudley, 1991a; Furstenberg & Nord, 1985; Lawson & Thompson, 1996; Madden-Derdich & Leonard, 2000). As for noncustodial parents, loss of control is a recurring theme for them who are denied a role in family decision-making (Dudley, 1991a; Magistad & Rettig, 1999; Shapiro & Lambert, 1999). They may sense a devaluation of the father role due to part-time parenthood (Kruk, 1992). Furthermore, following divorce, both custodial and noncustodial parents can feel themselves inadequate and lack the confidence in terms of their parenting skills (Beilin & Izen, 1991; Dudley, 1991a; Robinson, 1993; Tschann et al., 1989; Weiss, 1975). Moreover, divorce effectively destroys the ongoing relationship patterns between children and parent especially with regard to discipline (Emery & Dillon, 1994; Furstenberg & Nord, 1985). Parent's rules for appropriate behavior and the consequences of violating them often become unclear for a time after divorce (Emery & Dillon, 1994).

2.3 Postdivorce Adjustment: Definition and Measurement

As divorce rates and the adverse reactions experienced by divorced persons increase, adjustment to divorce has gained more importance in terms of family literature and postdivorce adjustment has become one of the main focuses of investigations. Although the issue has been interpreted in numerous studies, no consensus has been reached about how to define postdivorce adjustment (Bursik, 1991; Diedrick, 1991; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kitson & Morgan, 1990; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987). Obviously, this inconsistency results from the multidimensional nature of the divorce

process requiring adaptation to the changes in almost every domain of a human's life.

A review of family literature reveals that a great number of definitions of postdivorce adjustment exist. Overall, some of these conceptual definitions emphasized the importance of adaptation to the various losses involved in divorce such as loss of marriage, a spouse, a lover, a social status, and perhaps children (Weiss, 1975). Thus, adjustment to divorce has been characterized as a process of individuation from former partner involving grief and depression over the losses (Robinson, 1993). The other definitions of divorce adjustment focused on developing a separate identity for oneself that is not related to the status of being married, and functioning adequately in the new roles including areas of home, family, and work (Bursik, 1991; Diedrick, 1991; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kitson & Morgan, 1990; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987). This aspect of postdivorce adjustment is characterized as personal reorganization and reconstruction of self-concept (Bursik, 1991; Diedrick, 1991). Moreover, Kitson and Holmes (1992) emphasize the importance of being relatively free of symptoms of physical or psychological disturbance in order to accept a divorced person as adjusted to the experience of divorce. On the other hand, another growing body of literature emphasizes the systemic nature of the adjustment in the dyadic level. According to this perspective, postdivorce adjustment requires ongoing renegotiation of roles and relationships between former partners (Emery & Dillon, 1994; Steward et al., 1997; Madden-Derdich & Arditti,

1999; Madden-Derdich & Leonard, 2000; Madden-Derdich et al., 1999). Moreover, in view of divorced parents, adjustment to the postdivorce family implies "an acceptance by each formerly married partner that each of them needs to develop a new social network in which their children may also become involved" (Robinson, 1993, p.103).

Taking into account the multidimensional nature of the divorce experience, postdivorce adjustment might be seen as a dual process requiring adaptation not only to the loss of a spouse, status, and lifestyle, but also to the gain of a new identity, lifestyle and the skills required to be mastered as a result of the change (Diedrick, 1991; Bursik, 1991; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987; Weiss, 1975). It is important to note that these two processes of adjustment overlap and affect each other and they are also probable to be affected by interpersonal dynamics between former spouses (Diedrick, 1991; Madden-Derdich et al., 1999).

Multidimensional assessment of the adjustment is also an important factor in studying divorce. Not considering the complex nature of the divorce adjustment, some studies have used only broad indicators of general adjustment, such as general life satisfaction (DeGarmo & Kitson, 1996), psychological well-being (Holloway & Machida, 1991; Shapiro, 1996), substance use (Doherty et al., 1989) or measures of depression (Berman, 1988; Emery & Wyer, 1987; Lorenz & Simons, 1997; Katz, 1991). In addition, some measures of divorce adjustment have involved general life stress that evolves from areas such as former spouse relationships, parenting, and financial concerns (Sansom & Farnill, 1997; Tschann et al.,

1989). Reports of stress however do not necessarily relate to adjustment (Diedrick, 1991). For example, Sheets and Braver (1996) found that females are more satisfied than were male, despite females' lower economic status and stress involved with divorce related problems.

On the other hand, in order to provide as comprehensive and accurate information as possible regarding the complex effects of divorce, some other studies assessed adjustment from different perspectives, considering that each of these perspectives has probably some truth in it (Bevino, 2000; Bursik, 1991; Cheung & Liu, 1997; Lambert, 2000; Mastekaasa, 1997; Tschann et al., 1989). Interestingly, few studies have focused on adjustment scales specifically developed for divorced people (Plummer & Koch-Hattem, 1986; Wang & Amato, 2000).

It can be asserted that measurement of adjustment using a scale that taps feelings and experiences directly relevant to those who have divorced is a crucial point since the main intent of the measurement of postdivorce adjustment considers proper assessment of the levels of adjustment in the practice. In addition, such an approach serves appropriate and consistent determination of the factors associated with postdivorce adjustment in research, which consequently would be helpful again both in the practice and the further research.

2.3.1 Factors Related to Postdivorce Adjustment

Given the high prevalence of divorce and its potential negative consequences, over the last twenty years numerous studies have sought

to clarify the factors that are related to postdivorce adjustment (Diedrick, 1991). A variety of psychological, relational, and demographic variables have been determined as associated with the levels of adjustment to divorce. Such variables include child-related factors, social support, and a pileup of the demographic characteristics such as gender, age, education, length of marriage, number of children, initiator status, duration of divorce, taking professional help, and presence of a romantic relationship after divorce. As can be seen in the following review of the literature, these factors were investigated in the order of child-related factors, social support, and demographic characteristics.

2.3.1.1 Child-Related Concerns

The distress associated with postdivorce adjustment is complicated for parents since they are exposed to additional distress because of the matters related to children. Child-related concerns include custody status, visitation rights, child support or alimony payments, parenting, and financial matters. Generally, the first three are conceptualized as divorce settlement procedures. The other variables, namely parenting and financial matters, are among the child-related concerns since they are issues resulting from the divorce proceedings (Dudley, 1991a; Madden-Derdich et al., 1999). The extent of interparental conflict including custody matters, child support, visitation before, during and after divorce, and financial issues has been identified as a powerful predictor of negative outcomes for all family members, parents as well as children (Bay & Braver, 1990). Moreover, the areas of custody, visitation, and support that are determinants of

postdivorce rights and responsibilities can also serve as the foundation for identifying important issues of fairness between men and women (Buehler, 1989; Kurz, 1995; Lonsdorf, 1991; Rowe, 1991). To conclude, as can be seen more detailed in the following subtitles, both parents' and children's levels of postdivorce adjustment are greatly affected by these child-related concerns (Arditti, 1991; Buehler, 1989; Dudley, 1991a; Júlíusdóttir, 1997; King & Heard, 1999; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kruk, 1991; Kurz, 1995; Lowery, 1985; Lorenz & Simons, 1997; Madden-Derdich et al., 1999; Robinson, 1993; Seiling & Harris, 1991; Stewart et al., 1997).

2.3.1.1.1 Custody status

The custody decision defines parental rights and responsibilities after divorce (Buehler, 1989; Lowery, 1985). In the majority of cases, custody of children is awarded to the mother because women are believed to be primary caretakers or gatekeepers of the children (Arditti, 1991; Kurz, 1995; Lowery, 1985). This arrangement gives one parent total control over visitation, placing the custodial parent in a position of control and power so the other parent is in a position of powerlessness (Arditti, 1991). Among the most fear-inducing and painful realizations for divorced parents is that they no longer have control over the other parent (Beilin & Izen, 1991). Realistically, the other is likely to become even less controllable as time passes (Emery & Dillon, 1994; Madden-Derdich et al., 1999; Magistad & Rettig, 1999). Parents express their fears in arguments, sometimes threatening to take the child and hide him/her (Magistad & Rettig, 1999; Beilin & Izen, 1991). Threats are usually stated in conditional terms as

attempts to regain control over the threatening parent's self by gaining control of the other (Beilin & Izen, 1991).

Custody arrangements have an obvious influence on postdivorce adjustment, as they directly affect the extent of continued parental involvement and the amount of continued interaction between divorcing parents (Dudley, 1991a; Lawson & Thompson, 1996). The divorced fathers without custody expresses their unhappiness over the loss of responsibility and control of their children and suffers from emotional stress more than other parents, feeling constantly anxious, having depressive feelings and sleeping problems (Arditti, 1991; Emery & Dillon, 1994; Júlíusdóttir, 1997; Lawson & Thompson, 1996; Madden-Derdich et al, 1999). From the father's perspective, losing custody of children often represents one of the most stressful aspects of postdivorce life (Lawson & Thompson, 1996; Lowery, 1985). Also, mothers without custody suffer from lack of role clarification, problems with parenting at a distance and feelings of victimization (Kurz, 1995). Overall, both nonresident fathers and mothers report experiencing a great deal of emotional pain over living apart from their children, and feelings of inadequacy as parents (Stewart et al., 1997).

As for custodial parents, literature suggests that parents with custody, usually mothers, experience particular postdivorce distresses with regard to both economic and emotional aspects, as well as additional new tasks of becoming a single parent (Robinson, 1993; Kitson & Holmes 1992; Lorenz & Simons, 1997; Madden-Derdich et al., 1999). Divorced parents with custody can express more insecurity and attacks of anxiety and they

also get more often headache and sense of fatigue (Kurz, 1995). In contrast, another body of research suggests that the presence of children has positive effects on divorced parents' psychological well-being. Older children often provide social and material support to parents, especially single mothers (Wang & Amato, 2000; Weiss, 1975). In addition, children may help distressed single parents feel that they have a reason for living and may keep them from becoming absorbed in their own troubles (Kitson & Holmes; Plummer & Koch-Hattem, 1986; Stewart et al., 1997). To summarize, it is possible to discuss children as being both rewards and costs in helping to determine the intensity of a divorce distress and subsequent level of adjustment.

2.3.1.1.2 Visitation

When custody is awarded to one parent, the other usually receives visiting rights. Because mothers usually are awarded custody, the issue of visitation focuses primarily on fathers. It is through visitation that the noncustodial parent maintains the relationships with his/her children (Buehler, 1989). For many families, visitation also represents the only remaining linkage between the former spouses (Emery & Dillon, 1994; Stewart et al., 1997). Thus, it provides a critical arena for redefining power boundaries and separating former spouses' continuing roles as parents from their past roles as spouses (Emery & Dillon, 1994; Wolchik & Fenaughty, 1996). More frequent contact with children is also found to be associated with satisfaction of the custody status (Arditti, 1991). If custody battles exist, struggles over visitation tend to also appear (Weiss, 1975). In

addition, while some scholars and policy makers try to increase the access of fathers to their children, others fear that there are fathers who will use visitation as a way to exert control over mothers (Kurz, 1995).

It is relatively well known that fathers tend to decrease the frequency and duration of their visits over time (Dudley, 1991a; King & Heard, 1999; Kruk, 1991; Kurz, 1995). This tendency is sometimes attributed to the control and influence that the custodial mother has over the arrangement of the father's visits with his children (Dudley, 1991a). Kruk (1991) found significant evidences between contact and disengaged fathers' physical and mental health problems resulting from divorce. From the nonresidential parents' perspective, the most frequent problems involved the residential parent's unwillingness to change visitation, arguments about visitation, and the residential parent changing visitation plans on short notice, which this problems are moderately stable over time (King & Heard, 1999; Wolchik & Fenaughty, 1996). On the other hand, the most frequently reported problems from the residential parents' perspective are the concerns about the children being spoiled during visitation, difficulties in managing the children after visitation, and the nonresidential parent serving as a bad role model (King & Heard, 1999; Wolchik & Fenaughty, 1996).

2.3.1.1.3 Child support and alimony

Child support is a financial payment made by one parent to another parent to help provide for the children after divorce (Buehler, 1989). The symbolic meanings of alimony and support are different, since child

support continues only until the children are a certain age determined by the court, yet alimony continues indefinitely unless the recipient remarriages (Weiss, 1975). In Turkey support is given only until the children reach 18 years old but this kind of child support is named as alimony.

Child support or alimony is an emotional issue that involves a conflictual area in family functioning and often creates a concrete connection between divorced individuals (Buehler, 1989; Lawson & Thompson, 1996; Wright & Price, 1986). As mothers usually are awarded custody and men usually earn more money than women, fathers more often pay child support (Buehler, 1989; Kurz, 1995; Wright & Price, 1986). Alimony is an important factor in the financial and psychological well-being of divorced mothers who have dependent children (King & Heard, 1999; Kurz, 1995; Seiling & Harris, 1991).

Child support payments from fathers enable women to raise their income but child support awards are generally low and many mothers receive no child support at all from their ex-husbands (Arditti, 1991; Kurz, 1995; Madden-Derdich et al., 1999; Magistad & Rettig, 1999; Weiss, 1975; Wright & Price, 1986). This phenomenon is partly caused from some men's concern about no longer being able to control how the money will be spent once it is given to their wives (Kurz, 1995). On the other hand, noncompliance creates an insecure and unstable financial situation for many women following divorce and makes it very difficult to effectively manage resources and plan for family goals, which consequently might

lead to poor postdivorce adjustment (Arditti, 1991; Buehler, 1989; Dudley, 1991a; Rowe, 1991; Wright & Price, 1986).

2.3.1.1.4 Parenting

In general, parents tend to have lower well-being than those who are not parents, perhaps because of the difficulties in parenting, especially after divorce (Furstenberg & Nord, 1985; Holloway & Machida, 1991; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Shapiro & Lambert, 1999). To illustrate, Masheter (1997) points out that divorced women with children receives more disapproval from their relatives and they are less active in social activities than divorced women without children. When a married couple with children decides to separate, the parenting skills of each partner often deteriorate at least for a while (Dudley, 1991a; Emery & Dillon, 1994; Holloway & Machida, 1991; Robinson, 1993; Shapiro & Lambert, 1999; Weiss, 1975). They are more likely than parents from intact families to report feeling angry with their children and more likely to report having little tolerance of misbehavior (Holloway & Machida, 1991). Thus, one indicator of postdivorce adjustment is the level of satisfaction with parenting (Dudley, 1991a; Shapiro & Lambert, 1999). Moreover, difficult parent-child relationships after divorce can have negative effects on parents' psychological well-being (Shapiro & Lambert, 1999; Tschann et al., 1989).

2.3.1.1.5 Financial strain

The effect of economic problems among divorced people has been the most frequently studied practical issues (Christensen & Rettig, 1991;

Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kurz, 1995; Madden-Derdich et al., 1999; Magistad & Rettig, 1999; Mauldin, 1991; Plummer & Koch-Hattem, 1986; Rowe, 1991; Seiling & Harris, 1991; Sheets & Braver, 1996; Song, 1991; Tschann et al., 1989). Furthermore, Júlíusdóttir's study (1997) revealed that when there was a strain in economic issues there was also conflict regarding the children, i.e., custody arrangements, visiting habits, and support payments. In the literature, economic changes are repeatedly demonstrated as related to postdivorce adjustment even many years after divorce (Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kurz, 1995; Plummer & Koch-Hattem, 1986; Tschann et al., 1989). Financial strain or postdivorce decrease in income is related to mood disturbance, depression, and more difficulties in social adjustment (Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Plummer & Koch-Hattem, 1986; Robinson, 1993; Song, 1991; Tschann et al., 1989; Weiss, 1975). For women, the more economically independent they are, the better their adjustment; and related to this, the higher their sense of personal control, the better their adjustment (Song, 1991; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987). On the other hand, Júlíusdóttir (1997) found that the fathers were significantly more often discontent in terms of the economic outcome of the divorce than the mothers. Similarly, Plummer and Koch-Hattem (1986) found that income decreases were associated with poorer divorce adjustment in men but not in women, an interesting result in the light of the repeated finding that women suffer a greater decline in income after divorce than men (Holloway & Machida, 1991; Kurz, 1995; Mauldin, 1991; Rowe, 1991).

To summarize, all of these above mentioned child-related concerns including custody status, visitation rights, child support or alimony payments, parenting, and financial issues are main matters closely related to the levels of divorced parents' adjustment. Thus, they should be considered when studying with divorced parents. On the other hand, child-related factors that are specific to divorced parents could not be able to completely account for the individual postdivorce adjustment. The other factors that are associated with non-parent divorced peoples' postdivorce adjustment such as social support and demographic characteristics are also relevant to divorced parents.

2.3.1.2 Social Support

Social support protects individuals against the potentially harmful effects on mental health of a wide range of events (Gerstel, Riessman, & Rosenfield, 1985; Weiss, 1975). Thus, an important factor contributing to low distress among divorced appears to be social support which divorced people receive/perceive in their daily lives (Holloway & Machida, 1991; Song, 1991; Weiss, 1975). It has been repeatedly demonstrated that more social support after divorce is predictive of better postdivorce adjustment (Cheung & Liu, 1997; Diedrick, 1991; Gerstel et al., 1985; Garvin et al., 1993; Holloway & Machida, 1991, Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Sansom & Farnill, 1997; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1992; Song, 1991; Tschann et al., 1989; Wang & Amato, 2000).

Social support is defined as “interpersonal transactions that involve the expression of positive affect, the affirmation or endorsement of the person’s belief or values, and the provision of aid or assistance” (Cheung & Liu, 1997, p. 67). While there are many other definitions of it in the literature, it is worth paying attention that Eker and Arkar’s study (1995) showed that the definitions of social support might change across cultures. Notwithstanding the importance of the cultural context, in terms of divorce experience social support might be defined as “help that people receive in performing the activities required or permitted by their new social roles” (Kitson & Holmes, 1992, p. 222).

After divorce, the social life of most people is adversely affected (Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Robinson, 1993; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1992; Song, 1991; Tschann, et al., 1989; Wang & Amato, 2000; Weiss, 1975). Old friends are often lost, especially if they are married friends, and developing new friendship networks in the “world of the formerly married” is often difficult at first (Song, 1991; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987; Weiss, 1975). Many times divorced people are viewed as “threats” to ongoing marriages (Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Song, 1991; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987). Furthermore, a divorce can upset the pattern of relationships in the family and kin network, partly because family members may not approve of the decision of divorce (Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Robinson, 1993). On the other hand, although divorce often is followed by a decline in social network size, individuals who maintain their friendships or who form new

social ties are likely to receive valuable social support (Booth & Amato, 1991; Tschann et al., 1989; Robinson, 1993; Wang & Amato, 2000).

In divorce, supportive people might reduce the feeling of being in a strange, ambiguous, or unexpected situation, since a divorced person's assumptions need to be retested and habits need to be modified (Kitson & Holmes, 1992). For this reason, Kitson and Holmes point out that support brings assurance that although some dimensions of a person's life has been modified, much of it remains the same. In divorce, social support may aid in adjustment, providing therapeutic comfort (Diedrick, 1991). Moreover, the divorced people have often been found to need support in the areas of child care, finances, affect release, social activities, divorce-related concerns, unemployment, housework and homemaking, and legal matters (Sansom & Farnill, 1997), which are the issues some of them might be related to the areas of power/control in the divorced family system. Supportingly, Holloway and Machida (1991) have found evidence that social support affects divorced women's parenting.

The concept of social support needs to be analyzed in terms of perceptions of divorced people (Tschann et al., 1989; Holloway & Machida, 1991). Rather than just looking at the number of friends or presence of social support and assuming this is distressful, it may be necessary to obtain peoples' subjective judgments (Holloway & Machida, 1991). Supportingly, Kitson and Holmes (1992) also emphasized that social support is likely to be associated with heightened distress if it includes actions that restrict a person's options or advice that leads to anger and

frustration. At this point, rather than the real availability of social support, perception that it is available would be more effective in both enhancing and measuring postdivorce adjustment (Bursik, 1991). In this context, perceived support is defined as the extent to which an individual believes that his/her need for support are satisfied (Sussman & Steinmetz, 1992).

2.3.1.3 Demographic Characteristics

In general, demographic characteristics have been found as strongly related to overall postdivorce adjustment (Berman, 1985). In this vein, a pileup of demographic variables including gender, age, education, length of marriage, number of children, initiator status, duration of divorce, taking professional help, and presence of a romantic relationship after divorce all have also been repeatedly demonstrated as among the important predictors of postdivorce adjustment. However, divorce literature indicates that studies with regard to most of these demographic characteristics have also yielded an equivocal set of findings (Bursik, 1991). For this reason, variables examined in the literature can only be viewed as potential predictors of adjustment to divorce.

Gender is a crucial demographic characteristic in many elements of the divorce process. In the literature, it has generally concluded that there is sufficient evidence to demonstrate that gender differences in a variety of measures favor females as being better adjusted (Bay & Braver, 1990; Diedrick, 1991; Júlíusdóttir, 1997; Sheets & Braver, 1996; Wallerstein, 1986). Moreover, such differences have been found to exist for as long as

ten years after divorce (Wallerstein, 1986) since women are more likely to initiate divorce (Diedrick, 1991; Sheets & Braver, 1996; Wallerstein, 1986), have more confidants (Wallerstein, 1986), and usually have the custody of their children (Júlíusdóttir, 1997; Wallerstein, 1986). In contrast, other studies have showed more detrimental effects for women than for men (Doherty et al., 1989; Shapiro, 1996) and attributed this difference to financial strain, custody status, social activity, and early socialization patterns (Diedrick, 1991; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987). On the other hand, some researchers have reported no gender differences in adjustment to divorce (Doherty et al., 1989; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Tschann, et al., 1989; Weiss, 1975). It is important to note that in a study comparing divorced and married Turkish people in terms of the levels of loneliness, depression, self-esteem, and locus of control, no difference was found between divorced men and women (Doğan, 1998). Moreover, in an only study the aim of which was to investigate the actual capacities, which are the basic core of human development, of Turkish divorcee, Fışıloğlu (2000b) found that according to women, all actual capacities except sexuality were more important in comparison to men. On the other hand, punctuality, obedience, honesty, justice and time were more important for men than women (Fışıloğlu, 2000b). To conclude, a review of literature reveals that the research on the adjustment differences between divorced men and women is inconclusive. For this reason, Kitson and Morgan (1990) suggested that more research is required to determine whether such differences exist.

A vast amount of studies emphasize more positive outcomes for divorced people who have more education (Bevino, 2000; Buehler, 1989; Bursik, 1991; Diedrick, 1991; Doherty et al., 1989; Garvin et al., 1993; Júlíusdóttir, 1997; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kitson & Morgan, 1990; Kurz, 1995; Mauldin, 1991; Plummer & Koch-Hattem, 1986; Robinson, 1993; Rowe, 1991). Specifically, high education predicts less anxiety, and greater happiness in divorced women (Kurz, 1995; Song, 1991; Tschann et al., 1989). Moreover, it is crucial to note that education may influence psychological distress either directly or indirectly, by providing a heightened or lowered sense of control (Shapiro, 1996). In conclusion, since in the available literature there was only one study demonstrated that education did not predict any positive adjustment (Wang & Amato, 2000), studies on the relationship between education and postdivorce adjustment can be accepted as consistent in general.

In the literature, the results of age and length of marriage are generally reported together due to the correlation between them (Bursik, 1991; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987). Again, findings regarding the effects of age and length of marriage on divorce adjustment are inconsistent. Many studies have shown that the termination of longer marriages produces more traumatic effects and more problematic adjustment and that older women experience a more difficult period of adjustment than do younger women (Farnsworth, Pett, & Lund, 1989; Wallerstein, 1986; Wang & Amato; Weiss, 1975). However, in contradiction to these findings, some studies report that it is older people, especially women, and those who had

been married longer who show significantly higher levels of adjustment (Kitson, 1987; cited in Kitson et al., 1989). In addition, Bursik (1991) report that young people showed more postdivorce psychological well-being than older divorced. On the other hand, in Gray and Silver's study (1990), the length of marriage was not significantly related to the adjustment to divorce.

The number of children has also been indicated as among the important predictors of women's adaptation to divorce. In particular, divorced women with two or more children have been found to be at risk for maladjustment (Berman, 1985; Tschann et al., 1989). However, there are some other studies in which the number of children did not found as related to the postdivorce adjustment (Bursik, 1991; Plummer & Koch-Hattem, 1986). Supportingly, some authors suggest that having to be responsible for custodial children may indeed provide a drive to maintain the daily routine of the family (Weiss, 1975). Little is known, however, how this support may be a function of the number of children (Bursik, 1991).

Also, initiation of divorce is found as associated with better divorce adjustment and this effect appears to continue long after divorce (Gray & Silver, 1990; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Pettit & Bloom, 1984; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987; Wang & Amato, 2000). It is likely that the "leavers" did most of their adjustment prior to announcing the decision (Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987). In general, women are more likely to initiate divorce, which might be one of the reasons for women's better adjustment after divorce (Diedrick, 1991). On the other hand, this does not mean that the

initiator experiences little postdivorce distress, as both the initiators and noninitiators experience psychic pain but the timing of distress and recovery is different (Wang & Amato, 2000; Weiss, 1975). While those who have initiated the divorce typically tend to feel guilty, those on whom separation was imposed have been the recipients of traumatic rejection, fell themselves as inadequate both in terms of their social network and another intimate relationship (Weiss, 1975). Although the available literature was investigated considering that the concept of "idea of divorce" might be different from the concept of "initiator status", no study making a distinction between these two concepts has been found.

As for duration of divorce, some studies suggest that people's adjustment to divorce improves over time (Bursik, 1991; Booth & Amato, 1991; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Lorenz & Simons, 1997; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987). At the end of the first year, which is called transition period, there is usually a decrease in the distress, yet achievement of a firmly established new identity and new way of life take much longer (Weiss, 1975). Then, there comes a time when adjustment should be completed, usually between the second and the fourth year (Lorenz & Simons, 1997; Weiss, 1975). In contrast to these researches, other studies have failed to find improvements in functioning following divorce (Farnsworth et al., 1989; Gray & Silver, 1990; Plummer & Koch-Hattem, 1986; Tschann et al., 1989). Furthermore it is important to note that in research and theory, the "events" of physical separation and divorce in the

entire divorce process need to be kept conceptually and methodologically separate (Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987).

Finally, taking professional help and formulation of new intimate relationships also improve adjustment after divorce. Some studies show that taking professional help from psychologists, psychiatrists, counselors, and social workers contributes to better adjustment after divorce (Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Robinson, 1993). Furthermore, psychological well-being is higher among those who have a new romantic partner (Garvin et al., 1993; Tschann et al., 1989; Wang & Amato, 2000). Correspondingly, Kitson and Holmes (1992) argued that a new relationship weakens the divorced individual's preoccupation with the ex-spouse.

In the light of this literature review about the factors related to postdivorce adjustment, divorce might be accepted as a successful or unsuccessful transition process from the married to the single status (Bursik, 1991). People vary in the extent to which they adjust to divorce, with some individuals recovering quickly and others showing little improvement (Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Mastekaasa, 1997; Plummer & Koach-Hattem, 1986; Wang & Amato, 2000). Given the high prevalence of divorce and its potential negative consequences, research focusing on factors that accounts for these differences in postdivorce adjustment can have important implications for the identification of appropriate points of prevention, assessment, and intervention (Madden-Derdich & Arditti, 1999; Wolchik & Fenaughty, 1996).

2.4 Connection Between the Literature Review and Hypotheses of the Study

A review of the family literature demonstrates that one intersecting body of literature in terms of divorced family is power/control dynamics between divorced parties. The most obvious power/control topics after divorce involve the issues appearing in relation to children such as custody status, visitation rights, child support payments or alimony, parenting, and financial concerns. Moreover, each of these child-related concerns have been identified separately as contributing to the distress associated with postdivorce adjustment. However, if these concerns are evaluated together in a power/control context, the question of whether there is a link between perceived power/control over child-related concerns and postdivorce adjustment has remained largely unanswered in the family literature. Since power/control dynamics of divorced family are mainly around these child-related matters whose importance with regard to postdivorce adjustment have been repeatedly demonstrated, perceiving oneself as having control over these matters might be desirable and serve as a means of adjustment. In the study presented here, power refers to the control that individuals perceive themselves to have over their lives, especially with regard to child-related roles. In addition, the other main variable of the study, child-related concerns, includes satisfaction with custody status, visitation rights, child support payments, parenting, and financial strain. In this vein, it was hypothesized that higher levels perceived power/control over child-related concerns would predict the higher levels of emotional/

social postdivorce adjustment and lower levels of psychological distress. To the extent that support for this relationship could be found, empirical knowledge could be provided for researchers and practitioners.

Although the family literature has concretely demonstrated that social support are associated with postdivorce adjustment, the present study still aimed at verifying the contribution of the perceived social support to Turkish divorced parents' postdivorce adjustment in order to investigate the direction of the relationships, if it exists, in a Turkish population. It was hypothesized that higher levels of perceived social support would predict the higher levels of emotional/social postdivorce adjustment and lower levels of psychological distress. This hypothesis was derived from significant findings concerning the improving effect of social support on the divorced people's level of adjustment.

The other purpose of this study was to identify a vast range of demographic characteristics that are likely to be related to Turkish parents' divorce adjustment. These variables included gender, age, education, length of marriage, number of children, idea of divorce, initiator status, duration of divorce, taking professional help, and presence of a romantic relationship after divorce which are considered as might be related to the hypotheses of the study. Due to the inconsistent findings reviewed under the related subtitle of this chapter, although it was hypothesized that emotional/social divorce adjustment and psychological distress are associated with these variables, no direction of relationship was predicted for them.

Besides all of these, the study makes another contribution to the previous research in this area. Although most studies have used broad indicators of general adjustment, such as general life satisfaction, measures of depression, and so on, in the current study adjustment was measured using a scale that taps feelings and experiences directly relevant to divorced people. This scale, namely Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale (FDAS), was employed after it was adapted into Turkish culture. On the other hand, in order to provide as comprehensive and accurate information as possible regarding the effects of divorce, adjustment was also measured by a scale that assesses the psychological distress level.

The constituents of postdivorce adjustment are likely to be affected by the surrounding culture since the society in which the divorcing parties live may be expected to have an impact on the process (Cohen & Savaya, 1997). Therefore, in the absence of professional literature, one cannot really know how the society and culture affect people's divorce process from different cultures. However, a review of Turkish divorce literature revealed that the number of studies on the topic of divorced parties' postdivorce period was very limited (Arıkan, 1990; Demir, 1988; Doğan, 1998; Fışiloğlu, 2000a; Fışiloğlu, 2000b; Uyar, 1999). Within this context, there was a need to investigate the issue of postdivorce adjustment and the factors related to postdivorce adjustment in the context of Turkish culture. Given also the increasing divorce rates and adverse reactions experienced by divorced people, the topic of divorce should be subject to more empirical research in Turkey.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

3.1 Subjects

The participants of the present study were 135 divorced parents consisting of 100 females (74%) and 35 males (26%). Having at least one child younger than age 18 when the divorce degree was granted, being either custodial or noncustodial parent of all the children if there is more than one child, and not being remarried were the criteria that divorced individuals have to meet for inclusion in the study. All of the subjects participated in the study on a voluntary basis. The age of the total sample ranged from 22 to 51 with a mean of 36.83 years ($SD = 6.57$). While the average age for the females was 35.96 years ($SD = 6.02$, range = 22-50), it was 39.32 years for the males ($SD = 6.47$, range = 25-51). The average education year for the total sample was 12.49 years ($SD = 3.59$). The length of the participants' marriages varied from 1 to 27 years, with a mean of 9.33 years ($SD = 5.60$). The duration of divorce, which was including the time passing separate from the former spouse also before the date of divorce, ranged from 1 month to 16 years, with a mean of 4.2 years ($SD = 3.46$). Other sociodemographic characteristics of the sample in terms of education levels, number of children, idea of divorce, initiator status, taking professional help, and presence of a romantic relationship at the time of measurement were presented in the Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

Variables	N	Percent (%)
Education		
Literate	2	1.6
Primary School	6	4.7
Secondary School	15	11.8
High School	37	29.1
University (2 or 4 years)	55	43.3
Graduate	12	9.4
Number of children		
One child	92	71.3
Two children	31	24.0
Three children	5	3.9
Four children	1	.8
Idea of Divorce		
Participant	65	50.8
Former Spouse	30	23.4
Mutual	33	25.8
Initiator Status		
Participant	69	53.5
Former Spouse	34	26.4
Reciprocal	12	9.3
Arranged	14	10.9
Professional Help		
Before Measurement	48	37.2
At Measurement	12	9.3
Romantic Relationship		
At Measurement	34	26.4

3.2 Instruments

Four instruments were utilized in the current study. Participants were administered the Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale (FDAS; see Appendix A) to assess levels of emotional/social adjustment after divorce, the Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI; see Appendix B) to measure the general psychological distress levels of the divorced parents, the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS; see Appendix C) to evaluate the adequacy of social support perceived by divorced parents, and the Demographic Information Form (see Appendix D) to collect information related to various demographic characteristics. The Brief Symptom Inventory and Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support were also used in order to examine the criterion-related validity of the Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale. Perceived power/control over child-related concerns were assessed using single 5-point Likert type items attached to the Demographic Information Form. An additional single 5-point Likert type item measuring general life satisfaction was also attached to the Demographic Information Form so as to use it as one of the criterion measurements in evaluating the validity of the Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale.

3.2.1 Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale (FDAS)

The FDAS is a 5-point, 100-item Likert-type scale designed by Fisher (1976) to assess levels of emotional/social adjustment after divorce. The scale was developed as a part of Fisher's dissertation study (1976) the

aim of which was to determine if the emotional/social adjustment difficulties of the divorced people could be partially eliminated by attending a ten-week seminar. The scale built on a pragmatic basis since the items written in the scale were items that had been mentioned by the participants in the seminars as having been a problem after their divorce (Fisher, 1976). Response options of the scale range from *almost always* to *always never*. Higher scores indicate poor postdivorce adjustment, whereas lower scores indicate adjustment to divorce. In addition to a total score, six subscales were identified: (1) self-worth, (2) disentanglement, (3) anger, (4) grief, (5) trust and intimacy, and (6) social self-worth. The validity of the FDAS was supported by significant correlations with Tennessee Self Concept Scale (Fitts, 1965; cited in Fisher, 1976) and the Personality Orientation Inventory (Shostrom, 1966; cited in Fisher, 1976). Indicating high reliability, Cronbach's alpha of .98 for the total scale score was reported, and that alpha for subscales ranged from .87 to .95 (Plummer & Koch-Hattem, 1986). In general, the statistical analyses demonstrated that original version of the FDAS was a valid and reliable instrument to measure a person's emotional/social adjustment to divorce.

In order to determine the psychometric properties of the FDAS in a Turkish population, the permission to adapt the scale into Turkish culture was taken from the president of The Fisher Seminars, LLC. (See Appendix G). The translation of the scale into Turkish was made using a one-way translation qualitative method (Savaşır, 1994). Accordingly, the FDAS was first translated from English to Turkish by the researcher. This new form

including both English and translated items was investigated and modified by the seven judgments having at least a Ph.D. degree and being proficient in both languages. Two members of the judge group were also expert in the topic of divorce and some members of the group were familiar with both cultures. After this procedure, the seven forms were compared in terms of their similarities and discrepancies by the researcher and the advisor of the study. The items on which there was a very high consensus among the seven forms were chosen to the final form of the FDAS. The comprehensiveness and appropriateness of the statements with regard to Turkish language was also considered when selecting the final items.

To determine the cultural appropriateness of the usage of the Turkish version of the FDAS, the participants of the main study were also subjected to the validity and reliability study. Establishing the construct validity of the scale was in the form of criterion-related correlations. The correlation coefficients of the FDAS with Brief Symptom Inventory, Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support, and a Likert-type single item General Life Satisfaction measurement were .83, -.49, and -.62, respectively. In addition, the construct validity of the scale was also evaluated through the extreme groups method. Accordingly, the data were divided into two subgroups as clinical and non-clinical groups. Clinical group included participants receiving professional help at the time of the measurement ($N = 12$). Non-clinical group was randomly selected among the participants who had never received professional help at any time (before, during, or after divorce) in their life ($N = 12$). It was demonstrated

that the scale could significantly differentiate the non-clinical subgroup ($M = 132.69$, $SD = 9.81$) from the clinical group ($M = 273.88$, $SD = 61.44$) of the sample ($t = 7.86$, $df = 22$, $p < .001$). The reliability of the scale was determined using internal consistency procedure and the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for the whole scale was found to be .97, indicating high reliability for the total scale scores. In general, the findings of the validity and reliability study support the usage of the FDAS in a Turkish population on the basis of the total scores of the scale.

3.2.2 Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI)

The Brief Symptom Inventory (Derogatis, 1992; cited in Şahin & Durak, 1994) is a 53-item symptom checklist related to various aspects of psychological distress. As a shorter version of the SCL-R-90 (Derogatis, 1977; cited in Dağ, 1990), it yields the same nine specific symptom dimensions (somatization, obsessive-compulsive, interpersonal sensitivity, depression, anxiety, hostility, phobic anxiety, paranoid ideation, and psychoticism) and three global indices of functioning (the global severity index, the positive symptom total, and the positive symptom distress index). Subjects rate their level of distress in the past week on a 5-point scale ranges from *not at all* to *extremely*. Evidence for convergent validity with the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) is impressive (Derogatis & Spencer, 1982; cited in Garvin, Kalter, & Hansell, 1993). Test-retest reliability results show correlations ranging from .68 to .91 for the symptom dimensions and from .80 to .90 for the three global indices (Derogatis & Spencer, 1982; cited in Garvin et al., 1993).

The scale was adapted into Turkish culture by Şahin and Durak (1994). The factor analyses of the scale have revealed five factors, namely, anxiety, depression, negative self, somatization, and hostility in the Turkish population. The authors reported Cronbach's alpha for the total scale score as ranging from .95 to .96 and that alpha for subscales ranged from .55 to .86. The validity study of the scale was in the form of correlations with certain scales such as UCLA Loneliness Scale ($r = .36$) and Beck Depression Inventory ($r = .70$). To conclude, the results of the adaptation study were found in general to be satisfactory to use the BSI in Turkey (Şahin & Durak, 1994). In the current study, the total scores of the BSI were used to assess the general psychological distress levels of the divorced parents.

3.2.3 Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS)

Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS; Zimet et al., 1988; cited in Eker, Arkar, & Yaldiz, 2000; Eker & Arkar, 1995) is a 7-point 12-item Likert-type scale that measures the adequacy of social support from three sources as family, friends, and significant other. The response options of MSPSS range from *disagree very strongly* to *agree very strongly*. Higher scores indicate higher perceived support. In terms of validity, the MSPSS correlated positively with another social support scale and a self-concept measure (Kazarian & McCabe, 1991; cited in Eker & Arkar, 1995) and negatively with measures of depression (Kazarian & McCabe, 1991; Zimet et al., 1988; cited in Eker & Arkar, 1995). As for

reliability of the MSPSS, the internal consistencies of the total scale and the subscales are high, ranging from .79 to .98 in various samples and the test-retest reliability over a 2- to 3-month period produces correlations ranging from .72 to .85 (Kazarian & McCabe, 1991; Zimet et al, 1988; cited in Eker & Arkar, 1995). Overall, studies have shown that the original version of MSPSS was a valid and reliable instrument (Eker et al., 2000; Eker & Arkar, 1995).

The scale was first adapted into Turkish culture by Eker and Arkar (1995). The reliability and validity studies, which were carried out in psychiatry, surgery, and normal samples, have revealed that the psychometric properties of the scale were satisfactory to use the scale in Turkey. Even so, a second study was conducted to make the usage of the scale culturally more appropriate by strengthening the construct validity of "significant other" subscale (Eker et al., 2000). In the second study, Cronbach's alpha for the total scale score was reported as ranging .83 to .91 and that alpha for subscales ranged from .80 to .95, indicating high internal consistency for both the three subscales and the total scale. The validity study of the scale was in the form of correlations with certain scales such as UCLA Loneliness Scale ($r = .63$) and the Symptom Check List-90-R ($r = .58$). In brief, the results of the adaptation study support the usefulness of the MSPSS in Turkey (Eker et al., 2000). In consistent with the aims of the present study, only the total scores of the scale were used.

3.2.4 Demographic Information Form

The demographic data sheet was prepared to collect information about gender, age, education, length of marriage, number of children, idea of divorce, initiator status, duration of divorce, taking professional help, and presence of a romantic relationship after divorce. The duration of divorce was measured by adding the time since the legal date of divorce to the time since separation in order to determine the time in the divorce adjustment process exactly. While some of the questions in the form were in the form of "fill in the blanks", the others were "multiple choice" type questions.

The instrument also included 5-point Likert-type items in order to measure the satisfactions with custody status, visitation schedules, alimony payments, parenting, financial strain, and general life satisfaction. Participants were report their levels of satisfaction with the components of power-control by answering the questions, "How satisfied are you with your custody status?", "In general, how satisfied are you with the matter of visitation in terms of its frequency and regularity?", and "In general, how satisfied are you with the matter of alimony in terms of its amount, regularity, existence or nonexistence?". Response options ranged from *very satisfied* to *not at all satisfied*, higher numbers indicating more satisfaction. The question of satisfaction with parenting was "In comparison to the time when you are married, how satisfied with yourself as a parent?" and its response options ranged from *much more satisfied* to *much less satisfied*, higher numbers indicating more satisfaction. Respondents were

asked, "How much financial strain do you feel since your divorce?" and response options ranged from *a lot of strain* to *no strain at all*. Higher numbers indicate more strain. In addition, as another single Likert-type question "In general, how satisfied are you with your life?" was asked to measure the level of general life satisfaction and response options again ranged from *very satisfied* to *not at all satisfied*. Higher numbers indicate more satisfaction with life.

3.3 Procedure

The population of the study was recruited both through divorce records kept in Ankara courts and snowball sampling procedure by using networks (Kumar, 1996). Before the administration of the instruments, verbal instructions were given to the participants who were contacted face-to-face by the researcher. Besides, two separate information form, one for the participants reached via court records (See Appendix E), the other for the participants reached via snowball sampling (See Appendix F) were attached at the beginning of the instruments. These forms included necessary information about the aim of the study and important points in filling the scales. As well, each scale had its own instructions. The total administration time of the instruments was approximately 45 minutes. Because most of the participants completed the instruments at their home, envelopes with stamp for the participants recruited using divorce court records and without stamp for the participants recruited using snowball sampling were provided by the researcher.

3.4 Analysis of Data

At the beginning of the data analysis, descriptive statistics were used in order to find out general demographic characteristics of the sample. The proposed hypotheses were tested by conducting multiple hierarchical regression analyses so as to determine relationships among the power/control variables, perceived social support, and demographic variables as predictor variables and the emotional/social postdivorce adjustment and psychological distress variables as criterion variables. Prior to regression analyses, correlation matrix of the independent variables was examined to check that whether multicollinearity among them exists. Variables only having significant correlations were included in the further analyses. Demographic variables of the study were first entered into the regression equation as a block in order to control their effect on the social support and power/control variables. In accordance with the procedure given by Tabachnick and Fidell (1996), the discrete demographic variables, namely, divorce idea, initiator status, taking professional help, and presence of a romantic relationship at the time of measurement were first converted into a set of dichotomous variables by dummy variable coding and then entered into the equation. Perceived social support was entered in the regression model at the second order and power/control variables as a block was left to the last step so as to investigate whether the power/control variables would predict a significant portion of variance in the emotional/ social postdivorce adjustment and psychological distress above and beyond all of the other independent variables of the study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

In the present study, data from 135 divorced parents (100 females, 35 males) were investigated. Prior to analyses, all variables were examined through various SPSS programs for the assessment of accuracy of data entry, missing values, and whether the assumptions of multivariate analysis satisfactorily met. The original sample of 135 was reduced to 131 by excluding four participants with missing values over than ten percent on the emotional/social postdivorce adjustment variable. Except for the demographic variables, other missing values taking place on the different test variables were replaced by the mean of all cases. As the examination of skewness and kurtosis values of the variables revealed that length of marriage, duration of divorce, and psychological distress variables were moderately positively skewed, these variables were transformed by using square root transformation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). The skewness value of custody satisfaction was moderately negative so a logarithmic transformation procedure was employed for this variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). A single case with extremely high z score on psychological distress variable was identified as the univariate outlier and it was excluded, leaving 130 cases for the analyses. To find out multivariate outliers linear regression was used. By using mahalonobis distance with

$p < .001$, one case was identified as multivariate outlier and it was deleted, leaving 129 cases for the analyses.

4.1 Validity and Reliability Study of the Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale (FDAS)

Before starting the investigation of the main goals of the study, the validity and reliability study of the Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale (FDAS) was conducted with the data collected from the sample used in the main study. The aim of the validity and reliability study was to adapt the scale into Turkish culture. The corrected item-total correlations of the FDAS were displayed in the Table 2. Since four items (31, 43, 61, and 91) have the correlations with the total scale below .20, they were excluded from the scale and the total scores of the participants for both the validity and reliability study and the main study were computed using the remaining 96 items.

Table 2. The Corrected Item-Total Correlations for the Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale (FDAS)

Items	r	Items	r
FDAS01	.53	FDAS51	.57
FDAS02	.48	FDAS52	.55
FDAS03	.61	FDAS53	.36
FDAS04	.20	FDAS54	.56
FDAS05	.61	FDAS55	.63
FDAS06	.48	FDAS56	.69
FDAS07	.72	FDAS57	.44
FDAS08	.22	FDAS58	.58
FDAS09	.49	FDAS59	.76
FDAS10	.66	FDAS60	.74

Table 2. Continued		Items	
	r		r
FDAS11	.76	FDAS61	.00
FDAS12	.41	FDAS62	.55
FDAS13	.36	FDAS63	.40
FDAS14	.28	FDAS64	.55
FDAS15	.45	FDAS65	.66
FDAS16	.67	FDAS66	.49
FDAS17	.37	FDAS67	.61
FDAS18	.71	FDAS68	.40
FDAS19	.49	FDAS69	.66
FDAS20	.33	FDAS70	.57
FDAS21	.47	FDAS71	.70
FDAS22	.45	FDAS72	.60
FDAS23	.54	FDAS73	.34
FDAS24	.60	FDAS74	.60
FDAS25	.57	FDAS75	.60
FDAS26	.63	FDAS76	.53
FDAS27	.45	FDAS77	.71
FDAS28	.68	FDAS78	.66
FDAS29	.61	FDAS79	.50
FDAS30	.42	FDAS80	.61
FDAS31	.15	FDAS81	.71
FDAS32	.43	FDAS82	.65
FDAS33	.42	FDAS83	.44
FDAS34	.47	FDAS84	.45
FDAS35	.55	FDAS85	.50
FDAS36	.50	FDAS86	.63
FDAS37	.28	FDAS87	.63
FDAS38	.50	FDAS88	.54
FDAS39	.42	FDAS89	.66
FDAS40	.62	FDAS90	.28
FDAS41	.62	FDAS91	.09
FDAS42	.48	FDAS92	.47
FDAS43	.14	FDAS93	.26
FDAS44	.63	FDAS94	.73
FDAS45	.24	FDAS95	.48
FDAS46	.51	FDAS96	.55
FDAS47	.61	FDAS97	.37
FDAS48	.30	FDAS98	.57
FDAS49	.57	FDAS99	.66
FDAS50	.70	FDAS100	.22

In order to evaluate the criterion-related construct validity of the scale, the correlation coefficients between the FDAS and Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI), Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS), and General Life Satisfaction (GLS) were calculated. The reason for selecting these criteria as evidence of criterion-related construct validity of the scale is theoretical. It was thought that as the levels of poor emotional/social postdivorce adjustment increase, while the level of psychological distress would increase, the levels of perceived social support and general life satisfaction would decrease. As can be seen in the Table 3, the correlation with the BSI was significantly positive and with the MSPSS and GLS it was significantly negative. That is, an increase in the level of poor emotional/social postdivorce adjustment was associated with an increased psychological distress level and decreased perceived social support and life satisfaction.

Table 3. Correlations of the Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale (FDAS) with the Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI), the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS), and the General Life Satisfaction (GLS)

Scales	BSI	MSPSS	GLS
FDAS	.83**	-.49**	-.62**

** $p < .01$, two-tailed

In order to evaluate the construct validity of the FDAS with the help of also the extreme groups method, the data were divided into two subgroups as clinical and non-clinical groups. Clinical group included

participants receiving professional help at the time of the measurement ($N = 12$). Non-clinical group was randomly selected among the participants who had never received professional help at any time (before, during, or after divorce) in their life ($N = 12$). It was demonstrated that the scale could significantly differentiate the non-clinical subgroup ($M = 132.69$, $SD = 9.81$) from the clinical group ($M = 273.88$, $SD = 61.44$) of the sample ($t = 7.86$, $df = 22$, $p < .001$).

The reliability of the scale was determined using internal consistency procedure. After excluding the items having correlations with the total scale below .20, the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for the whole scale was found to be .97, indicating high reliability for the total scale scores. In general, the findings of the validity and reliability study support the usage of the FDAS in a Turkish population on the basis of the total scores of the scale.

4.2 Descriptive Analysis of the Study Variables

Based on the related literature, 22-candidate predictor variables were identified under three main categories. The first main category was power/control over child-related concerns and it included five variables, namely, satisfaction with custody (CS), satisfaction with visitation (VS), satisfaction with alimony (AS), satisfaction with parenting (PS), and financial strain (FS). The other main category of the potential predictors included only one variable as perceived social support (PSS). The last main category was demographic characteristics and it included 16

variables as gender, age, education (EDU), length of marriage (LOM), number of children (NOC), duration of divorce (DOD), idea of divorce consisting of three level dummy coded variables, namely, the participant raised the divorce idea (IDP), the former spouse raised the divorce idea (IDFS), and the divorce idea was mutual (IDM), initiator status consisting of four level dummy coded variables, namely, the participant was the initiator (INP), the former spouse was the initiator (INFS), initiation of divorce was reciprocal (INR), and initiation of divorce was arranged (INA), taking professional help consisting of two level dummy coded variables, namely, professional help before the time of measurement (PHBM), and professional help at the time of measurement (PHM), and presence of a romantic relationship at the time of measurement (RRM). Criterion variables of the study were emotional/social divorce adjustment (ESDA) and psychological distress (PD). Before the main analyses, the sample was characterized descriptively. The means and standard deviations of the study variables that were not dummy coded were presented in Table 4. The frequencies and percentages of the dummy coded study variables were shown in Table 1.

Table 4. Means and Standard Deviations of the Variables

Variables (N = 129)	M	SD
1. Power/Control Variables		
Satisfaction with Custody	4.08	1.10
Satisfaction with Visitation	3.18	1.25
Satisfaction with Alimony	2.50	1.18

Table 4. Continued

Variables (N = 129)	M	SD
Satisfaction with Parenting	3.56	1.08
Financial Strain	2.85	1.05
2. Perceived Social Support	60.41	15.30
3. Demographic Characteristics		
Age	36.83	6.57
Education (in years)	12.49	3.59
Length of marriage (in years)	9.33	5.60
Duration of divorce (in years)	4.20	3.46
4. Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale	208.05	60.66
5. Brief Symptom Inventory	45.70	39.92

4.3 Correlation Matrix of the Study Variables

Prior to conducting regression analyses, the Pearson Correlation Coefficients of the variables used in the study as potential predictors and criterion variables were computed (See Table 5). According to the rule of thumb given by Tabachnick and Fidell (1996), .90 and above correlations are evaluated as the multicollinearity problem in a correlation matrix. In view of that, the correlations among independent variables were not large enough to suggest that multicollinearity was a problem in the analyses.

As can be seen from the correlation matrix, among the demographic variables age, education, being the person who raised the idea of divorce first, the former spouse raised the idea of divorce first, psychological help before and at the time of measurement, and presence of a romantic

Table 5. Correlation Matrix for Predictor and Criterion Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24		
1. CS	1.00																									
2. VS	.17*	1.00																								
3. AS	-.04	.29**	1.00																							
4. PS	.39**	.33**	.13	1.00																						
5. FS	-.07	-.20*	-.21*	-.30**	1.00																					
6. PSS	.17	.13	.09	.33**	-.13	1.00																				
7. Gender	-.28**	.24**	.34**	.04	-.19*	-.10	1.00																			
8. Age	.08	.21*	.14	.06	-.11	.03	.27**	1.00																		
9. EDU	.14	.17	.22*	.38**	-.25**	.28**	.11	.03	1.00																	
10. LOM	-.14	-.09	.13	-.08	.05	-.03	.09	.50**	-.13	1.00																
11. NOC	-.12	-.08	.04	-.19*	.05	-.04	.01	.36**	-.23**	.65**	1.00															
12. DOD	.14	-.03	-.21*	-.04	.00	-.03	-.17	.34**	-.08	-.14	-.05	1.00														
13. IDP	.17	.10	-.08	.25**	.06	.21*	-.15	.02	-.01	-.03	.03	-.03	1.00													
14. IDFS	-.11	-.20*	-.08	-.18*	.14	-.17	.00	.00	-.16	.13	.03	-.03	-.56**	1.00												
15. IDM	-.09	.08	.17	-.10	-.20*	-.07	.17	-.03	.17	-.09	-.08	.09	-.60**	-.33**	1.00											
16. INP	.10	.19*	-.05	.13	.02	.14	-.18*	.12	-.04	.13	.13	.00	.63**	-.35**	-.35**	1.00										
17. INFS	-.06	-.21*	-.11	-.12	.14	-.13	.08	.02	-.07	-.03	-.04	.16	-.46**	.56**	-.64**	1.00										
18. INR	-.12	.08	.03	-.08	-.08	.03	.17	-.09	.04	-.10	-.09	-.08	-.33**	-.12	.48**	-.34**	1.00									
19. INA	.04	-.07	.21*	.02	-.14	-.06	.02	-.13	.12	-.08	-.07	-.15	-.06	-.08	.14	-.37**	-.21*	1.00								
20. PHBM	-.06	-.13	-.16	-.01	.14	.04	-.17	-.04	.07	.01	-.04	.02	.05	.03	-.09	.14	-.02	-.19*	1.00							
21. PHM	-.05	-.16	-.13	-.33**	-.25**	.02	-.10	.07	-.11	.23*	.16	.03	-.05	.07	-.01	-.05	-.01	-.19*	-.03	1.00						
22. RRM	-.03	.05	.15	.12	-.10	.14	.16	-.08	.03	.03	-.04	-.06	.06	-.21*	.13	.03	.00	-.03	-.01	-.10	1.00					
23. ESDA	-.25**	-.21*	-.13	-.52**	.35**	-.46**	-.09	-.20*	-.29**	.05	.05	-.16	-.33**	.31**	.08	-.16	.10	.04	.07	.22*	.33**	1.00				
24. PD	-.22*	-.22*	-.18*	-.53**	.29**	-.34**	-.12	-.26**	-.28**	.02	-.04	-.13	-.23**	.19*	.08	-.08	.02	.05	.05	.20*	.31**	-.31**	-.04	.83**	1.00	

**p < .01, two-tailed

*p < .05, two-tailed

Note. CS: Satisfaction with Custody, VS: Satisfaction with Visitation, AS: Satisfaction with Alimony, PS: Satisfaction with Parenting, FS: Financial Strain, PSS: Perceived Social Support (Higher points indicate greater perception of support), EDU: Education, LOM: Length of Marriage, NOC: Number of Children, DOD: Duration of Divorce, IDP: The Participant raised the Idea of Divorce, IDFS: The Former Spouse raised the Idea of Divorce, IDM: Idea of Divorce was Mutual, INP: The Participant was the Initiator, INFS: The Former Spouse was the Initiator, INR: Initiation was Reciprocal, INA: Initiation was Arranged, PHBM: Professional Help Before the Measurement, PHM: Professional Help at the time of Measurement, RRM: Presence of a Romantic Relationship at the time of Measurement, ESDA: Emotional/Social Divorce Adjustment (Higher points indicate poor adjustment), PD: Psychological Distress (Higher points indicate greater severity of psychological distress).

relationship had significant correlations with both emotional/social post divorce adjustment and psychological distress. On the other hand, the correlations of gender, length of marriage, number of children, duration of divorce, mutual idea of divorce, initiator statuses (the participant, the former spouse, reciprocal, and arranged) with the dependent variables were not significant. Perceived social support had significant correlations with both of the dependent variables. Except for satisfaction with alimony, the other four components of power/control over child-related concerns, namely, satisfaction with custody, satisfaction with visitation, satisfaction with parenting and financial strain, significantly correlated with emotional/social postdivorce adjustment. All components of power/control had significant correlations with psychological distress. The variables that had no significant correlations with the criterion variables were excluded from the regression equation for the related analysis.

4.4 Results of the Multiple Hierarchical Regression Analyses

Two separate hierarchical regression analyses were conducted for each of the two criterion variables in order to evaluate whether perceived power/control variables, perceived social support, and a set of demographic variables would predict the levels of emotional/social divorce adjustment and psychological distress of divorced parents. In all analyses, demographic variables of the study were first entered in the regression equations as a block in order to control their effect on the social support and power/control variables. Perceived social support was entered in the regression models at the second order and power/control variables as a

set was left to the last step. This model allowed testing the questions that how well the levels of emotional/social postdivorce adjustment and psychological distress of divorced parents would be predicted by the set of demographic variables, how well the perceived social support would predict the levels of emotional/social postdivorce adjustment and psychological distress above and beyond the set of demographic variables, and how well the perceived power/control over child-related concerns would predict the levels of emotional/social postdivorce adjustment and psychological distress above and beyond all of the other independent variables of the study.

4.4.1 Predictors of Emotional/Social Postdivorce Adjustment

The first hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to identify predictors of the divorced parents' emotional/social adjustment. Table 6 demonstrates the standardized regression coefficients (Beta), t , R^2_{change} , and F_{change} after each step of the hierarchical regression. At the first step, demographic variables showing significant correlations with the emotional/social postdivorce adjustment variable, namely, age, education, idea of divorce (participant and former spouse raised the idea of divorce first), professional help before and at the time of measurement, and presence of a romantic relationship at the time of measurement were entered as a set in the regression equation in order to control their effects on the criterion variable. At the following step, social support variable was entered to see how well emotional/social postdivorce adjustment would be predicted from it after controlling the effects of the demographic variables. At the last step

only four perceived power/control variables having significant correlations with the emotional/social postdivorce adjustment variable, namely, satisfaction with custody, satisfaction with visitation, satisfaction with parenting, and financial strain were entered into the equation so as to determine how well they would predict emotional/social postdivorce adjustment above and beyond the set of demographic variables and perceived social support. R was significantly different from zero at the end of each step. After all variables were entered into the regression equation, Multiple $R = .75$, $F(12, 113) = 12.44$, $p < .001$. In the overall model, this result indicated that the set of demographic variables, perceived social support and four components of the power/control variables together accounted for a significant proportion, approximately 57%, of the variance in divorced parents' emotional/social adjustment.

After step one, five of the seven demographic variables, namely, age, education, being the person raised the idea of divorce first, taking professional help at the time of measurement, and presence of a romantic relationship at the time of measurement emerged as significant in predicting the levels of parents' emotional/social postdivorce adjustment with $R^2 = .37$, $F(7, 118) = 10.06$, $p < .001$. Among them, the variables having the strongest relationships with emotional/social postdivorce adjustment were education ($B = -.27$, $p < .01$) and participant raised the idea of divorce first ($B = -.27$, $p < .01$), indicating that higher levels of education and being the person who raised the idea of divorce first were related to higher levels of emotional/social adjustment. Not taking

psychological help at the time of measurement ($\underline{B} = .26, p < .01$), older age ($\underline{B} = -.19, p < .01$), and presence of a romantic relationship ($\underline{B} = -.17, p < .05$) were also proved to be significant predictors of higher levels of emotional/social postdivorce adjustment. At step two, addition of perceived social support to the equation with demographic variables resulted in a significant increment in R^2 with $R^2_{\text{change}} = .13, F_{\text{change}}(1, 117) = 31.28, p < .001$. As hypothesized, higher levels of perceived social support was associated with higher levels of emotional/social adjustment to divorce. At the third step, only satisfaction with parenting and financial strain were accounted for a significant proportion of variance with $R^2_{\text{change}} = .06, F_{\text{change}}(4, 113) = 4.15, p < .01$, indicating that satisfaction with parenting and financial strain significantly increased the ability to predict emotional/social postdivorce adjustment beyond and above that afforded by the previous variables together. Satisfaction with parenting had the strongest relationship with emotional/social postdivorce adjustment ($\underline{B} = -.21, p < .05$), indicating that higher levels of satisfaction with parenting were related to higher levels of emotional/social adjustment after divorce. The degree of financial strain also proved to be significant predictor of emotional/social postdivorce adjustment ($\underline{B} = .16, p < .05$). As hypothesized, people who perceived more power/control over their parenting and financial situation reported higher levels of emotional/social postdivorce adjustment. Satisfaction with custody and visitation, however, did not emerge as predictors of emotional/social postdivorce adjustment.

Table 6. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Results: Emotional/Social Postdivorce Adjustment as Criterion Variable

Variables	Beta	t	R ² change	Fchange
Step 1				
AGE	-.19	-2.65**	.37	10.06***
EDU	-.27	-3.51**		
IDP	-.27	-3.05**		
PHM	.26	3.20**		
RRM	-.17	-2.22*		
Step 2				
PSS	-.39	-5.60***	.13	31.28***
Step 3				
CS	-.05	-.70	.06	4.15**
VS	.08	1.11		
PS	-.21	-2.53*		
FS	.16	2.25*		
Multiple R = .75**, R ² = .57				

Note. EDU: Education, IDP: The Participant raised the Idea of Divorce, PHM: Psychological Help at the time of Measurement, RRM: Presence of a Romantic Relationship at the time of Measurement, PSS: Perceived Social Support, CS: Satisfaction with Custody, VS: Satisfaction with Visitation, PS: Satisfaction with Parenting, FS: Financial Strain.

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

4.4.2 Predictors of Psychological Distress

In the second hierarchical regression, the criterion variable was divorced parents' psychological distress. Table 7 displays the standardized regression coefficients (Beta), t, R²change, and Fchange after each step of the hierarchical regression. Demographic variables showing significant correlations with the psychological distress, namely, age, education, idea of divorce (participant and former spouse raised the first divorce idea), and

professional help both before and at the time of measurement were entered into the equation as a block at the first step, following by perceived social support and all of the power/control variables. R was significantly different from zero at the end of each step. After all variables were entered into the regression equation, Multiple $R = .69$, $F(12, 113) = 8.31$, $p < .001$. In the overall model, the set of demographic variables, perceived social support, and power/control variables together accounted for a significant portion, approximately 47%, of the variance in postdivorce psychological distress.

After step one, four of the six demographic variables, namely, age, education, being the person raised the idea of divorce first, and taking professional help at the time of measurement predicted the levels of parents' psychological distress significantly, $R^2 = .33$, $F(6, 119) = 9.51$, $p < .001$. Among these variables, psychological help at the time of measurement had the strongest relationship with psychological distress ($B = .33$, $p < .001$), indicating that taking psychological help was related to higher levels of psychological distress. The higher levels of education ($B = -.27$, $p < .01$), older age ($B = -.25$, $p < .01$), and being the person who raised the idea of divorce first ($B = -.19$, $p < .05$) were also proved to be significant predictors of lower levels of psychological distress. At step two, perceived social support was also significant in predictivity with $R^2_{\text{change}} = .07$, $F_{\text{change}}(1, 118) = 12.88$, $p < .001$. As hypothesized, higher levels of perceived social support was associated with lower levels of psychological distress. At the last step, only satisfaction with parenting retained significant

relationship with psychological distress when the previous variables were controlled with $R^2_{\text{change}} = .08$, $F_{\text{change}}(5, 113) = 3.33$, $p < .01$, indicating that satisfaction with parenting significantly increased the ability to predict psychological distress beyond and above that afforded by the previous variables together. As hypothesized, people perceive themselves as having power/control over their parenting reported higher levels of psychological distress after divorce. Satisfaction with custody, visitation, alimony, and financial strain, however, did not emerge as predictors of psychological distress.

Table 7. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Results: Psychological Distress as Criterion Variable

Variables	Beta	t	R ² change	Fchange
Step 1				
AGE	-.25	-3.25**	.32	9.51***
EDU	-.27	-3.47**		
IDP	-.19	-2.07*		
PHM	.33	3.93***		
Step 2				
PSS	-.28	-3.59***	.07	12.88***
Step 3				
CS	-.01	-.16	.08	3.33**
VS	.06	.71		
AS	-.02	-.30		
PS	-.31	-3.37**		
FS	.09	1.20		

Multiple R = .69**, $R^2 = .47$

Note. EDU: Education, IDP: The Participant raised the Idea of Divorce, PHM: Psychological Help at the time of Measurement, PSS: Perceived Social Support, CS: Satisfaction with Custody, VS: Satisfaction with Visitation, AS: Satisfaction with Alimony, PS: Satisfaction with Parenting, FS: Financial Strain.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The main aim of the present study was to determine whether perceived power/control over child-related concerns was a predictor of emotional/social divorce adjustment and general psychological distress levels. Moreover, in order to determine the other factors to be useful in understanding of the whole portrait of the Turkish parents' postdivorce adjustment, it was also aimed to investigate the predictive effects of perceived social support and demographic characteristics. Before starting the examination of the main goals of the current research, the validity and reliability study of the Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale (FDAS) was conducted.

5.1 General Evaluation of the Results

In order to measure the levels of emotional/social adjustment after divorce, the Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale was translated into Turkish by using a one-way translation qualitative method (Savaşır, 1994) and the psychometric properties of the scale in a Turkish population was examined. The validity and reliability findings supported the usage of the Turkish version of the FDAS on the basis of the total scores. In the light of the adaptation study, it might be asserted that the emotional/social patterns and components of postdivorce adjustment were mostly similar, rather than

different, between the Western and Turkish cultures. On the other hand, it should be taken into account that the divorced people only being parents were included in the current study. For this reason, the FDAS can be accepted as a valid and reliable instrument in the conceptualization and measurement of the Turkish parents' postdivorce adjustment. Yet, attention should be given in using the scale for divorced people without children unless further adaptation studies employing a larger sample of both non-parent and parent divorced people are conducted.

After the determination of the psychometric properties of the Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale in a Turkish sample, the hypotheses of the study were tested. The main hypothesis was that the higher perception of power/control over child-related concerns indicated by the higher levels of satisfaction with custody, visitation, alimony, parenting and lower levels of financial strain would predict the higher levels of postdivorce adjustment. The hypothesis was investigated after controlling for the demographic characteristics and perceived social support. The results of the present study displayed partial support for this hypothesis. Among the components of power/control over child-related concerns, while satisfaction with parenting and financial strain appear to be useful in explaining variation in emotional/social postdivorce adjustment, only satisfaction with parenting was crucial to understanding the psychological distress of both men and women. It would be useful to evaluate the findings of these two significant power/control variables one-by-one. As expected, people who were more satisfied with their parenting reported higher levels of postdivorce

adjustment. This result was consistent with the literature. In many studies (Dudley, 1991a; Shapiro & Lambert, 1999; Tschann, Johnston, & Wallerstein, 1989) satisfaction with parenting was investigated in terms of its associations with the various indicators of postdivorce adjustment and it was demonstrated that this variable was a strong predictor of subsequent levels of adjustment. As for financial strain, it was also found as a crucial predictor of the emotional/social adjustment to divorce. Excluding the different perspectives in the measurement of postdivorce adjustment, this finding was also consistent with the literature demonstrating that divorced people who experience less financial strain exhibits higher levels of adjustment (Holloway & Machida, 1991; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kurz, 1995; Mauldin, 1991; Plummer & Koch-Hattem, 1986; Robinson, 1993; Rowe, 1991; Song, 1991; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987; Tschann et al., 1989; Weiss, 1975). On the other hand, financial strain was not a significant predictor of the psychological distress according to the findings of the present study. At this point, it is worthwhile to emphasize the fact that such a result warranted a number of interpretations stressing the usage of different perspectives in the measurement of divorce adjustment as an explanatory reason for reaching inconsistent findings with the literature. In addition, the result also justified the multidimensional approach to the divorce adjustment. Based on this view, one explanation of this finding could be that although financial strain is associated with the emotional/social dimensions of postdivorce experience, it is somewhat not related to the divorced mothers' and fathers' levels of psychological symptomatology, partly because internal factors such as satisfaction with

parenting might be more effective on psychological distress than external factors such as financial strain. Nevertheless, future research considering different dimensions of divorce experience is needed to explore the above mentioned issues more fully.

The other components, satisfaction with custody, satisfaction with visitation, and satisfaction with alimony were not found as predictors of the two indicators of divorce adjustment used in this study. There may be several reasons why these three components of power/control appeared unimportant to explain postdivorce adjustment levels of the participants. In order to explain this pattern of findings, it may be useful to recall an often reported finding in the divorce literature that these three components of power/control are determined by the legal system so they are perceived as relatively less controllable factors by the individual than one's parenting and financial situation which are potentially changeable factors through the individual effort and/or psychological-social intervention (Madden-Derdich, Leonard, & Christopher, 1999; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987). A second possible interpretation relates the design of the current research. Whereas all of these variables were investigated together in a power/control context in this study, each of these variables was taken into consideration separately in the majority of the literature (Holloway & Machida, 1991; Júlíusdóttir, 1997; King & Heard, 1999; Lowery, 1985; Madden-Derdich & Leonard, 2000; Mauldin, 1991; Rowe, 1991; Seiling & Harris, 1991; Shapiro & Lambert, 1999; Wolchik & Fenaughty, 1996; Wright & Price, 1986). For this reason, it would be possible that the

variables not found as significant predictors of the postdivorce adjustment in the analyses of the present study might appear as powerful predictors of adjustment when they are investigated separately. In other words, the predictive power of these variables might be loaded and blocked by the satisfaction with parenting and financial strain. At this point, these two components of power/control could be interpreted as broad concepts containing satisfaction with custody, visitation, and alimony. In view of that, while custody and visitation might be issues related to satisfaction with parenting, alimony might be a concept related to the financial situation of the divorced parents. Significant relationships among these five power/control variables could be demonstrated as a supportive evidence for this second interpretation. Another possible explanation of this pattern of finding might be based on the duration of divorce. The average length of time the respondents had been separated ($M = 4.2$ years, $SD = 3.46$) was rather high. As the matters of custody, visitation, and alimony were intensively relevant during the first year in which family roles are being gradually established after the divorce (Madden-Derdich et al., 1999), it might be asserted that these matters become stable or they were not any more in the same density for the current participants who were in relatively advanced stages of their adjustment process. Moreover, another reason for this finding might be the way used for the assessment of the satisfaction with custody, visitation, and alimony. While these variables were measured via single-item questions, multiple item scale(s) about these variables could be more appropriate in order to reach more expected and reliable findings.

In sum, perceived power/control over parenting and financial matters provides the means for individuals to adjust successfully to the changes that divorce brings in its wake. Nevertheless, the other components of the power/control which were determined on the basis of the related literature, namely, satisfaction with custody, visitation, and alimony did not appear as crucial factors to understanding the divorced mothers' and fathers' levels of emotional/social postdivorce adjustment and psychological distress according to the results of the present study.

As perceived power/control over child-related concerns would not be able to completely account for the individual postdivorce adjustment, also perceived social support was determined as one of the other potential factors accounting for variance in postdivorce adjustment. The hypothesis tested was that the higher levels of perceived social support would predict the higher levels of postdivorce adjustment. The hypothesis was examined after controlling for the demographic variables. This hypothesis received strong support from the data. As expected, higher levels of perceived social support was a significant predictor of both higher levels of adjustment to divorce and lower levels of psychological distress. Regardless of the different measurement strategies of divorce adjustment, the finding was consistent with the literature in which many studies have repeatedly demonstrated that more social support after divorce is predictive of better postdivorce adjustment (Cheung & Liu, 1997; Diedrick, 1991; Gerstel, Riessman, & Rosenfield, 1985; Garvin, Kalter, & Hansell, 1993; Holloway & Machida, 1991, Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Sansom &

Farnill, 1997; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1992; Song, 1991; Tschann, et al., 1989; Wang & Amato, 2000).

As for demographic factors, the results replicate some of the previous findings regarding demographic characteristics which have been recurrently found as significantly associated with adjustment to divorce. According to the findings of the present study, older age, higher education, being the person raised the idea of divorce first, not taking professional help, and presence of a romantic relationship at the time of measurement were proved to be significant predictors of higher levels of emotional/social postdivorce adjustment. Except for the presence of a romantic relationship at the time of measurement, the other same factors also alleviated levels of psychological distress for both mothers and fathers. It is important to note that the results obtained from a sample of Turkish culture were consistent with many studies in the literature finding that higher education (Bevino, 2000; Buehler, 1989; Bursik, 1991; Diedrick, 1991; Doherty, Su, & Needle, 1989; Garvin et al., 1993; Júlíusdóttir, 1997; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Kitson & Morgan, 1990; Kurz, 1995; Mauldin, 1991; Plummer & Koch-Hattem, 1986; Robinson, 1993; Rowe, 1991), being the person raised the idea of divorce first (Gray & Silver, 1990; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Pettit & Bloom, 1984; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987; Wang & Amato, 2000), and presence of a romantic relationship after divorce (Garvin et al., 1993; Tschann et al., 1989; Wang & Amato, 2000) enhances postdivorce adjustment for both men and women. Even though taking professional help is accepted in the literature as contributing to the better divorce adjustment (Kitson & Holmes,

1992; Robinson, 1993), this would be the case after the progress of clinical intervention is completed. At this point, the finding that taking professional help at the time of measurement was predictive of poor divorce adjustment or vice versa can be evaluated as a consistent finding with the literature. Also of interest was the finding that while the presence of a romantic relationship after divorce was a predictor of emotional/social adjustment, it did not appear useful to explain the variance in the psychological distress. One possible reason for this finding could be the quality of the relationship. That is, rather than the quality, the mere presence of a romantic relationship is likely to be a sufficient constitution for understanding emotional/social postdivorce adjustment since it may prevent the divorced individual from the preoccupation with thoughts about the divorce and the former spouse. The quality of this relationship, however, might be an actual explanatory factor effecting psychological distress levels of divorced individuals.

Although results of the present investigation indicate that age was crucial in understanding the adjustment of both men and women to divorce, it was also a variable that shown inconsistent effects with regard to most of the previous research demonstrating a different direction for this relationship. According to the results of the present study, younger divorced parents had more difficulty in adjusting to divorce while in most studies it was older people reporting poor postdivorce adjustment (Farnsworth, Pett, & Lund, 1989; Wallerstein, 1986; Wang & Amato; Weiss, 1975). In contradiction to these studies and supporting the result of the present

study, there are some other studies finding that older people show significantly higher levels of adjustment (Bursik, 1991; Kitson, 1987; cited in Kitson, Babri, Roach, & Placidi, 1989). Several reasons can be proposed in order to explain this finding of the current investigation. Given that the younger parents have younger children, the difficulties in the parenting and financial responsibilities of children might cause much more increased levels of distress for both custodial and noncustodial younger parents than older divorced parents. Another reason for this finding might be that divorce at younger age is a rather disruptive experience in terms of the plans and hopes for the future, since almost no one enters a marriage intending to divorce (Kitson et al., 1989). Another possible interpretation could be made considering the different expectation levels between younger and older people for the future intimate relationships. That is, younger people might have higher levels of expectations with regard to their further romantic relationships relative to the older people, leading to decreased levels of emotional/social adjustment and increased levels of psychological distress. Moreover, in terms of Turkish culture, older people's greater postdivorce adjustment is likely to be evaluated as a logical finding, since as people are getting older in Turkey, the cultural pressures on them generally decreases. In other words, feelings, thoughts, behaviors, that is to say, life styles of younger individuals as a divorced can be much more under the investigation and/or control by the society than older divorced people who are gradually accepted as "aunt/uncle", thereby, being relatively free in nearly every domain of the social interaction in the Turkish cultural structure.

In some cases, however, demographic characteristics found to be predictive of postdivorce adjustment in the literature were not associated with the indicators of adjustment used in this study. Gender was such a variable. The finding that gender was not a significant predictor of both emotional/social postdivorce adjustment and psychological distress was inconsistent with the findings that men and women undergo significantly different experiences after divorce (Bay & Braver, 1990; Júlíusdóttir, 1997; Sheets & Braver, 1996; Wallerstein, 1986). On the other hand, although gender differences in adjustment to divorce have been consistently noted, Kitson and Morgan (1990) emphasized that more research is required to determine whether such differences exist, since the research on the adjustment differences between men and women is actually inconclusive. To illustrate, some other researchers have reported no gender differences in divorce adjustment (Doherty et al., 1989; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Tschann, et al., 1989; Weiss, 1975). At this point, although it is important to remember that the sample size of the males in the present study was rather small, it can be concluded that the finding was supportive of the research not reporting gender differences in the divorce experience. Moreover, this finding was consistent with the result of Doğan's study (1998) reporting that there was no difference between Turkish divorced males and females in terms of their levels of loneliness, depression, self-esteem, and locus of control. It would be functional to interpret this finding in the context of the cultural structure of Turkey. Just due to the marital status of "divorced", both men and women might be exposed to high levels of cultural pressure resulting from the negative attitudes and biases of

family and/or friends, as well as the society towards divorced people. To illustrate, the status of "divorced" can prevent both genders from freely participating social activities, acquiring both new friends and romantic partners, carrying on the relationships with married people, etc., which can be evaluated as creating psychosocial circumstances difficult to endure for both men and women regardless of the gender. That is to say, actually the idea that both the woman and the man may no longer feel themselves as the same people when they were married (Kitson & Holmes, 1992) is a rather appropriate notion for Turkish culture.

Although it has generally been found that the length of marriage was significantly related to the adjustment to divorce (Farnsworth et al., 1989; Wallerstein, 1986; Wang & Amato; Weiss, 1975), this was not the case in the present study, consistent with only one research in the available literature (Gray & Silver, 1990). The finding that length of marriage was not associated with postdivorce adjustment might lead to the interpretation that actually "divorce" itself is a distinct fact on its own, independently from the duration of marriage. Since divorce has an impact in so many domains of an individual's life, it initiates a completely new process for all divorced people whose marriages lasted either long or short period of time.

Another variable that was not significantly associated with emotional/social adjustment and/or psychological distress was the number of children. Nonetheless, in most studies divorced women with two or more children have been found to be at risk for maladjustment (Berman, 1985; Tschann et al., 1989). Such inconsistency with the literature can be

attributed to the representative power of the sample. Since a large percent (71.3%) of the sample had only one child, the participants of the present study were not representative of all groups in terms of the number of children. On the other hand, it is valuable to remember that there are some other studies in which the number of children did not found as related to the divorce adjustment (Bursik, 1991; Plummer & Koch-Hattem, 1986). To conclude, while it is possible that the number of children was actually unimportant in adults' adjustment after divorce, this issue needs to be evaluated in future research with more heterogeneous samples in terms of the number of children.

It is interesting to note that also the relationship between the initiator status and postdivorce adjustment was not significant according to the results of the present study. Instead, the idea of divorce was a predictor of both emotional/social adjustment and psychological distress levels. As mentioned earlier, if the participant raised the idea of divorce first, the subsequent level of adjustment to divorce was found to be higher. This result was evaluated as consistent with the literature since no study in the available literature has made a distinction between concepts of idea of divorce and initiator status. In the light of these findings, it might be stated that the idea of divorce was a more appropriate indicator of adjustment than initiator status. Importance of the "idea" rather than the "action" can be accepted as a logical finding since there might be different and complex processes from the idea to the action. For example, one individual may want to divorce cognitively but due to the some other psychosocial

conditions such as unpreparedness to the divorce, financial ties and so on, he/she cannot make any move about it. Otherwise, one individual may not want to divorce but due to the demand of his/her spouse, he/she might initiate the divorce because of several psychosocial reasons such as to be able to regain the control of the relationship, repair his/her pride, etc. If such an interpretation has some truth in it, it would be appropriate to conceptually separate the idea and initiation of divorce in the future studies.

The last demographic characteristic not producing a consistent pattern of result with the other studies was the duration of divorce. In contrast to most of the literature (Bursik, 1991; Booth & Amato, 1991; Kitson & Holmes, 1992; Lorenz & Simons, 1997; Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987), time since divorce did not show a significant relationship with neither emotional/social adjustment nor psychological distress levels. Supporting to the current finding, some other studies have also found no relationship between duration of divorce and postdivorce adjustment (Farnsworth et al., 1989; Gray & Silver, 1990; Plummer & Koch-Hattem, 1986; Tschann et al., 1989). Although the finding of the present study appeared to be consistent with the latter body of literature, there was a difference between the current study and the others in terms of the measurement of the duration of divorce. In this study, the duration of divorce was measured by adding the time since the legal date of divorce to the time since separation, considering the notion that disregarding the contribution of physical separation prior to the divorce as a time marker to

the duration of divorce might prevent the exact determination of the time in divorce adjustment process (Sussman & Steinmetz, 1987). In this vein, such a conceptualization and measurement of the duration of divorce might be a reason for this pattern of finding, which indicates consideration of also separation time in the further studies. Besides, the quality of the marriage might be another important explanation for this finding. Rather than after the physical separation and/or divorce, divorced people experienced a highly disruptive process of marriage are likely to complete most of their adjustment even before the physical separation and/or divorce from the former spouse. In addition, the meaning of divorce could also be taken into consideration in the discussion of such a finding. Divorced parents' general attitudes towards divorce either during the marriage or after the separation and/or divorce might affect the process of adjustment. It is clear that the last two interpretations also need to be evaluated in future research.

To sum, it is important to note that most of the results obtained from a sample of Turkish culture were consistent with many studies in the literature. According to the results of the study, as well as the perceived power/control on the parenting and financial matters, perceived social support, and demographic characteristics of age, education, being the person raised the idea of divorce first, taking professional help, and presence of a romantic relationship at the time of measurement appear to be useful in explaining variation in Turkish parents' divorce adjustment. In some cases, however, demographic characteristics found to be predictive of postdivorce adjustment in the literature were not associated with Turkish

peoples' adjustment to divorce. According to the results, gender, length of marriage, number of children, initiator status, and duration of divorce were not even correlated with the two indicators of postdivorce adjustment used in this study.

5.2 Implications of the Study

The findings of the present study have substantial implications for the society, as well as the clinical psychologist in their theoretical and practical studies in order to identify appropriate points of prevention, assessment, and intervention. First of all, empirical knowledge about the constituents of divorced parents' adjustment might be functional in making the society conscious about the portrait of divorce. The more well educated the society about the afterward of divorce, the more appropriately they can react in case of divorce both in their individual lives and in their environment.

Based on the results of perceived power/control, it can be stated that perceiving oneself as having power/control over parenting and financial matters serves as a means of adjustment. It is likely that the perception of power/control over these issues naturally decrease after a divorce that is a highly disruptive experience. Therefore, in clinical settings, focusing on enhancing perceived power/control over these issues can improve poor postdivorce adjustment. Normalization of decreased satisfaction with parenting and financial matters by helping divorced parents recognize the normative aspects of impairments on parenting and

financial matters taken place after divorce might be a necessary tool in order to improve lower levels of perceived power/control. In addition, investigation of maladaptive expectations, distorted perceptions, dysfunctional beliefs and assumptions about parenting and financial matters in the postdivorce situation would be also beneficial so as to deal with poor postdivorce adjustment. In other words, determination of whether self-expectations, beliefs, assumptions, and perceptions over parenting and financial matters still ties to the roles as he/she plays in the intact family relationship might be crucial in the therapeutic interventions of divorced parents. Not being no longer appropriate in the postdivorce situation, such a scene might reduce perceived power/control over parenting and financial matters, which consequently leads to poor postdivorce adjustment. At this point, reframing the meanings attributed to parenting and financial matters to make them more rational in terms of the conditions appear afterward of the divorce might be a useful device in the clinical settings. To conclude, taking into consideration these power/control perceptions in the whole progress of the clinical intervention including the first assessment and the case formulation, as well as the application of the treatment plan would result in better outcomes not only for the individual but also for all members of the divorced family system. Furthermore, given the importance of perceived satisfaction with parenting according to the results of the current study, parenting education programs devised specifically for the needs of divorced parents in order to enhance the perceived power/control over parenting might also serve as a functional device in improving mothers' and fathers' postdivorce adjustment levels.

In view of the crucial impact of perceived social support, efforts to improve Turkish divorced parents' emotional/social postdivorce adjustment and alleviate their psychological distress should consider social factors as well as person-centered factors. Assessment of internal and external barriers on the social interaction and empowerment of the divorced parent in regard to these factors can enhance the social network involving the effective usage and accurate interpretation of the support from the family, friends, and significant others, which consequently leads to increased levels of perceived social support. In order to facilitate the divorced parent's social networking, social skills training can be used as a necessary tool (Cheung & Liu, 1997). Through this training, the divorced parent would learn how to plan for seeking help and appropriate evaluation of present social network system.

With regard to the results of demographic characteristics, some other implications also exist. Profiting from the knowledge of age, education level, being the person raised the idea of divorce first or not, and presence or absence of a romantic relationship, a Turkish clinician can reframe an initial baseline impression about the divorced client and treat these factors as among the potential explanatory structural factors for the levels of postdivorce adjustment. On the other hand, it should be kept in mind that not founding any relationship between postdivorce adjustment and gender, length of marriage, number of children, initiator status, and duration of divorce does not necessarily mean that these characteristics are not useful in explaining individual adjustment of divorced parents since

only one study is not enough to reveal the whole factors effecting the portrait of Turkish parents' postdivorce adjustment process.

5.3 Limitations of the Study and Future Suggestions

Besides the limitations and suggestions mentioned earlier, some other points that are to be taken into consideration as limitations of the current study and suggestions related to them should be addressed. The present cross-sectional design that prevents causal inferences might be accepted as the first limitation of the study. In other words, although it is hypothesized that perceived power/control over child-related concerns and perceived social support influence postdivorce adjustment, it is possible that actually adjustment determines one's perceived power/control and social support. Especially, measurement of social support as "perceived" rather than actually "received" would have additionally raised the problem because the level of adjustment might have been much more effective on such a subjective judgment. Therefore, these possible reverse cause-effect relationships make impossible to reach conclusive causal inferences in one direction. At this point, employment of a longitudinal design and measuring actually received social support may be suggested for the future research in order to alleviate this limitation.

Limitations to this study's generalizability should also be considered. First, the participants of the study were not representative of the population of divorced people without children. Given that the sample was mainly comprised of relatively well-educated divorced parents from medium-

duration marriages and in the advanced stages of the divorce adjustment process, generalizability of the results of the present study was limited for the divorced people having such demographic characteristic. It is also possible that different findings would have been obtained if the data had been collected from a more representative sample in terms of the all predictor variables employed in the current study. In the light of these, replication of the present investigation with a larger sample of especially both males and females is indicated in order to enhance the generalizability of the results and ensure that the results were not unique to the present sample.

Furthermore, other study limitations concern the way in which variables were measured. Assessment of the perceived power/control over child-related concerns, which were the main variables of the study, through single item questions might prevent reaching more significant results. Given their apparent importance, future research needs to consider measurement of the satisfaction with these power/control components more carefully than these single items allow. With regard to the limitations related to the measurements of the variables, it is also important to acknowledge that the factorial structure of the Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale (FDAS), which was employed to determine the emotional/social adjustment levels of the divorced parents, could not be evaluated with the present data due to the limited sample size relative to the number of items included in the FDAS. Therefore, although the validity and the reliability of the scale were found sufficient when it is used on the basis of

the total scores in a parent sample, further adaptation studies employing a larger sample of both non-parent and parent divorced people so as to establish the factorial structure of the scale in a Turkish population should be conducted.

5.4 Conclusions of the Study

Despite some limitations, this study was the first attempt to investigate custody, visitation, alimony, parenting and financial matters together in a power/control context in regard to their associations with postdivorce adjustment. The findings indicated that perceiving oneself as having power/control over parenting and financial matters were predictive of postdivorce adjustment, which was a result having substantial implications for the society and theorists, as well as the practitioners. Also, it can be stated that because perceived social support and all of the studied demographic characteristics were included in order to identify the nature of the relationships between these variables and postdivorce adjustment in a Turkish sample, this study provides valuable insight about Turkish parents' components of postdivorce adjustment. It is important to note that the results obtained from a sample of Turkish culture were consistent with many studies in the literature. Accordingly, higher levels of perceived social support, older age, higher levels of education, being the person raised the idea of divorce first, and presence romantic relationship appear to be useful in explaining variation in Turkish parents' divorce adjustment and should be included as factors in future research on adult adjustment after divorce. As some demographic characteristics were not

helpful in understanding Turkish parents' adjustment, further research was needed to investigate these characteristics more fully. Since divorced parents' adjustment has not been studied by Turkish researchers until so far, covering such variables in the present study helped to fill the research gap exist in divorce field in Turkey where the divorce rates are tend to be increase continuously. These increasing trends indicate that in the near future, divorce should be a significant issue for scholars and mental health clinicians interested in family life in Turkey as in the absence of professional literature, one cannot really know how the society and culture affect Turkish parents' divorce process.



REFERENCES

- Arditti, J.A. (1991). Child support noncompliance and divorced fathers: Rethinking the role of parental involvement. In Volgy, S.S. (Ed.), Women and divorce / men and divorce (pp. 107-119). New York: The Haworth Press.
- Arıkan, Ç. (1990). Alt sosyo-ekonomik düzeydeki boşanmış kadınların psiko-sosyal sorunları. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Hacettepe University, Ankara.
- Arıkan, Ç. (1996). Halkın boşanmaya ilişkin tutumları araştırması. Ankara: Başbakanlık Aile Araştırma Kurumu.
- Barnes, G.G. (1999). Divorce transitions: Identifying risk and promoting resilience for children and their parental relationships. *Journal of Marital and Family Therapy*, 25, 425-441.
- Bay, R.C. & Braver, S.L. (1990). Perceived control of the divorce settlement process and interparental conflict. *Family Relations*, 39, 382-387.
- Beilin, R.L. & Izen, M.G. (1991). Custody disputes in context. In Everett, C.A. (Ed.), The consequences of divorce: Economic and custodial

impact on children and adults (pp. 19-45). New York: The Haworth Press.

Berman, W.H. (1988). The role of attachment in the post-divorce experience. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54, 496-503.

Bevino, D.L. (2000). Divorce adjustment as a function of gender, education level, personality, length of separation, disentanglement, initiator status and meaning (Doctoral Dissertation, Lehigh University). UMI ProQuest Digital Dissertations.

Booth, A. & Amato, P.R. (2001). Parental predivorce relations and offspring postdivorce well-being. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 63, 197-213.

Buehler, C. (1989). Influential factors and equity issues in divorce settlements. Family Relations, 38, 76-82.

Bugental, D.B. & Happaney, K. (2000). Parent-child interaction as a power contest. Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 21, 267-282.

Bursik, K. (1991). Correlates of women's adjustment during the separation and divorce process. In Volgy, S.S. (Ed.), Women and divorce / men and divorce (pp. 137-162). New York: The Haworth Press.

Cheung, C. & Liu, E.S. (1997). Impacts of social pressure and social support on distress among single parents in China. In Everett, C.A. (Ed), Divorce and remarriage: International studies (pp. 65-82). New York: The Haworth Press.

Christensen, D.H. & Rettig, K.D. (1991). Standards of adequacy for child support awards. In Everett, C.A. (Ed.), The consequences of divorce: Economic and custodial impact on children and adults (pp. 19-45). New York: The Haworth Press.

Cohen, O., Finzi, R., & Avi-Yonah, O.K. (1999a). An attachment based typology of divorcing couples. Family Therapy, 26, 167-190.

Cohen, O., Luxenburg, A., Dattner, N., & Matz, D.E. (1999b). Suitability of divorcing couples for mediation: A suggested typology. The American Journal of Family Therapy, 27, 329-344.

Cohen, O. & Savaya, R. (1997). 'Broken glass': The divorced woman in Moslem Arab society in Israel. Family Process, 36, 225-245.

Cole, C.L. & Cole, A.L. (1999). Boundary ambiguities that bind former spouses together after the children leave home in post-divorce families. Family Relations, 48, 271-273.

Dağ, İ. (1990). Kontrol odağı, stresle başa çıkma stratejileri ve psikolojik belirti gösterme ilişkileri. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Hacettepe University, Ankara.

DeGarmo, D.S. & Kitson, G.C. (1996). Identity relevance and disruption as predictors of psychological distress for widowed and divorced women. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 58, 983-997.

Demir, G. (1988). Boşanma yoluyla parçalanmış ailede kadının rol ve statüsündeki değişmeler. Unpublished master's thesis, Ege University, İzmir.

Diedrick, P. (1991). Gender differences in divorce adjustment. In Volgy, S.S. (Ed.), Women and divorce / men and divorce (pp. 33-45). New York: The Haworth Press.

Divorce Statistics (1999). State Institute of Statistics Prime Ministry Republic of Turkey, Ankara.

Doğan, E. (1998). Evli ve boşanmışlarda yalnızlık, depresyon, benlik saygısı ve denetim odağı inancı. Unpublished master's thesis, Ankara University, Ankara.

Doherty, W.J., Su, S., & Needle, R. (1989). Marital disruption and psychological well-being. Journal of Family Issues, 10, 72-85.

Dudley, J.R. (1991a). The consequences of divorce proceedings for divorced fathers. In Everett, C.A. (Ed.), The consequences of divorce: Economic and custodial impact on children and adults (pp. 171-193). New York: The Haworth Press.

Dudley, J.R. (1991b). Exploring ways to get divorced fathers to comply willingly with child support agreements. In Volgy, S.S. (Ed.), Women and divorce / men and divorce (pp. 121-135). New York: The Haworth Press.

Eker, D. & Arkar, H. (1995). Perceived social support: Psychometric properties of the MSPSS in normal and pathological groups in a developing country. Soc Psychiatry Psychiatr Epidemiol, 30, 121-126.

Eker, D., Arkar, H., & Yaldiz, H. (2000). Generality of support sources and psychometric properties of a scale of perceived social support in Turkey. Soc Psychiatry Psychiatr Epidemiol, 35, 228-233.

Emery, R.E. & Dillon, P. (1994). Conceptualizing the divorce process: Renegotiating boundaries of intimacy and power in the divorced family system. Family Relations, 43, 374-379.

Emery, R.E & Wyer, M.M (1987). Child custody mediation and litigation: An experimental evaluation of the experience of parents. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 55, 179-186.

Farnsworth, J., Pett, M.A., & Lund, D.A. (1989). Predictors of loss management and well-being in later life widowhood and divorce. Journal of Family Issues, 10, 102-121.

Feldman, R.S. (1989). Adjustment: Applying psychology in a complex world. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Fıfılođlu, H. (2000a). Positive dimensions of divorce. Unpublished manuscript, Middle East Technical University at Ankara.

Fıfılođlu, H. (2000b). Towards cross-cultural demographics by Differentiation Analysis Inventory: II. Data from Turkey-Divorced Sample. Poster session presented at 2nd World Congress for Positive Psychotherapy, Germany.

Fisher, B.F. (1976). Identifying and meeting needs of formerly-married people through a divorce adjustment seminar. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Northern, Colorado.

Freeman, M.L. (1999). Gender matters in the Satir growth model. The American Journal of Family Therapy, 27, 345-363.

Furstenberg, F.F. & Nord, C.W. (1985). Parenting apart: Patterns of childrearing after marital disruption. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 47, 893-904.

Gallagher, R.V., Rostosky, S.S., Welsh, D.P., & Kawaguchi, M.C. (1999). Power and psychological well-being in late adolescent romantic relationships. Sex Roles, 40, 689-710.

Gardner, A.R. (1999). Guidelines for assessing parental preference in child-custody disputes. Journal of Divorce & Remarriage, 30, 1-9.

Garvin, V., Kalter, N., & Hansell, J. (1993). Divorced women: Individual differences in stressors, mediating factors, and adjustment outcome. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 63, 232-240.

Gerstel, N., Riessman, C.K., & Rosenfield, S. (1985). Explaining the symptomatology of separated and divorced women and men: The role of material conditions and social networks. Social Forces, 64, 84-101.

Goldstein, J.R. (1999). The levelling of divorce in the United States. Demography, 36, 409-414.

Gray, J.D & Silver, R.C. (1990). Opposite sides of the same coin: Former spouses' divergent perspectives in coping with their divorce. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 59, 1180-1191.

Holloway, S.D. & Machida, S. (1991). Child-rearing effectiveness of divorced mothers: Relationship to coping strategies and social support. In Volgy, S.S. (Ed.), Women and divorce / men and divorce (pp. 179-201). New York: The Haworth Press.

Hughes, J.R. & Clark, C.D. (1994). An evaluation of a newsletter intervention for divorced mothers. Family Relations, 43, 298-304.

Júlíusdóttir, S. (1997). An Icelandic study of five parental life styles: Conditions of fathers without custody and mothers with custody. In Everett, C.A. (Ed), Divorce and remarriage: International studies (pp. 87-103). New York: The Haworth Press.

Katz, R. (1991). Marital status and well-being: A comparison of widowed, divorced, and married mothers in Israel. In Volgy, S.S. (Ed.), Women and divorce / men and divorce (pp. 203-218). New York: The Haworth Press.

King, V. & Heard, H.E. (1999). Nonresident father visitation, parental conflict, and mother's satisfaction: What's best for child well-being. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 61, 385-396.

Kitson, G.C., Babri, K.B., Roach, M.J., & Placidi, K.S. (1989). Adjustment to widowhood and divorce. Journal of Family Issues, 10, 5-32.

Kitson, G.C. & Holmes, W.M. (1992). Portrait of divorce: Adjustment to marital breakdown. New York: Guilford Press.

Kitson, G.C. & Morgan, L.A. (1990). The multiple consequences of divorce: A decade review. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 52, 913-924.

Knudson-Martin, C.K. & Mahoney, A.R. (1999). Beyond different worlds: A "postgender" approach to relational development. Family Process, 38, 325-340.

Koel, A., Clark, S.C., Straus, R.B., Whitney, R.R., & Hauser, B.B. (1994). Patterns of relitigation in the postdivorce family. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 56, 265-277.

Kruk, E. (1991). Discontinuity between pre- and post-divorce father-child relationships: New evidence regarding parental disengagement. In Everett, C.A. (Ed.), The consequences of divorce: Economic and custodial impact on children and adults (pp. 195-227). New York: The Haworth Press.

Kumar, R. (1996). Research methodology: A step-by-step guide for beginners. Malaysia: Sage Publications.

Kurz, D. (1995). For richer, for poorer. New York: Routledge.

Lambert, J.D. (2000). The divorce transition and parental involvement: Longitudinal effects on father's and mother's well-being (Doctoral dissertation, The University of Wisconsin). UMI ProQuest Digital Dissertations.

Lawson, E.J. & Thompson, A. (1996). Black men's perceptions of divorce-related stressors and strategies for coping with divorce. Journal of Family Issues, 17, 249-254.

Lester, D. (1997). Correlates of worldwide divorce rates. In Everett, C.A. (Ed), Divorce and remarriage: International studies (pp. 215-219). New York: The Haworth Press.

Lindahl, K.M. & Malik, N.M. (1999). Observations of marital conflict and power: Relations with parenting in the triad. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 61, 320-330.

Lonsdorf, B.J. (1991). The role of coercion in affecting women's inferior outcomes in divorce: Implications for researchers and therapists. In Everett, C.A. (Ed.), The consequences of divorce: Economic and custodial impact on children and adults (pp. 69-106). New York: The Haworth Press.

Lorenz, F.O. & Simons, R.L. (1997). Married and recently divorced mothers' stressful events and distress: Tracing change across time. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 59, 219-233.

Lowery, C.R. (1985). Child custody in divorce: Parents' decisions and perceptions. Family Relations, 34, 241-249.

Madden-Derdich, D.A. & Arditto, J.A. (1999). The ties that bind: Attachment between-former spouses. Family Relations, 48, 243-249.

Madden-Derdich, D.A. & Leonard, S.A. (2000). Parental role identity and fathers' involvement in coparental interaction after divorce: Fathers' perspectives. Family Relations, 49, 311-319.

Madden-Derdich, D.A., Leonard, S.A., & Christopher, F.S. (1999). Boundary ambiguity and coparental conflict after divorce: An empirical test of a family systems model of the divorce process. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 61, 588-598.

Magistad, B.M. & Rettig, K.D. (1999). Supporting children after divorce: An interpretation of power and control dynamics in obligor/obligee interactions. Journal of Divorce & Remarriage, 30, 85-102.

- Masheter, C. (1997). Healthy and unhealthy friendship and hostility between ex-spouses. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 59, 463-475.
- Mastekaasa, A. (1997). Marital dissolution as a stressor: Some evidence on psychological, physical, and behavioral changes in the pre-separation period. In Everett, C.A. (Ed), Divorce and remarriage: International studies (pp. 155-183). New York: The Haworth Press.
- Mauldin, T.A. (1991). Economic consequences of divorce or separation among women in poverty. In Volgy, S.S. (Ed.), Women and divorce / men and divorce (pp. 163-177). New York: The Haworth Press.
- McKenry, P.C., Clark, K.A., & Stone, G. (1999). Evaluation of a parent education program for divorcing parents. Family Relations, 48, 129-137.
- Petit, E.J. & Bloom, B.L. (1984). Whose decision was it? The effects of initiator status on adjustment to marital disruption. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 46, 587-595.
- Plummer, L.P. & Koch-Hattem, A. (1986). Family stress and adjustment to divorce. Family Relations, 35, 523-529.

Robinson, M. (1993). Family transformation through divorce and remarriage. A systemic approach. Great Britain: Tavistock/Routledge Publication.

Roizblatt, A., Rivera, S., Fuchs, T., Toso, P., Ossandón, E., & Guelfand, M. (1997). Children of divorce: Academic outcome. In Everett, C.A. (Ed), Divorce and remarriage: International studies (pp. 51-56). New York: The Haworth Press.

Romanoff, B.D, Israel, A.C., Tremblay, G.C., O'Neill, M.R., & Roderick, H.A. (1999). The relationships among differing loss experiences, adjustment, beliefs, and coping. Journal of Personal & Interpersonal Loss, 4, 293-309.

Rosenbaum, W.L. (2000). Variables associated with the involvement and frequency of contact of nonresidential fathers with their children following divorce. (Doctoral Dissertation, Lehigh University). UMI ProQuest Digital Dissertations.

Rowe, B.R. (1991). The economics of divorce: Findings from seven states. In Everett, C.A. (Ed.), The consequences of divorce: Economic and custodial impact on children and adults (pp. 5-17). New York: The Haworth Press.

Sagrestano, L.M., Heavey, C.L., & Christensen, A. (1999). Perceived power and physical violence in marital conflict. Journal of Social Issues, 55, 65-79.

Sansom, D. & Farnill, D. (1997). Stress following marriage breakdown: Does social support play a role? In Everett, C.A. (Ed), Divorce and remarriage: International studies (pp. 39-49). New York: The Haworth Press.

Savaşır, I. (1994). Ölçek uyarlamasındaki sorunlar ve bazı çözüm yolları. Türk Psikoloji Dergisi, 9, 27-32.

Seiling, S.B. & Harris, H. (1991). Child support awards: Links with alimony and in-kind support. In Everett, C.A. (Ed.), The consequences of divorce: Economic and custodial impact on children and adults (pp. 121-137). New York: The Haworth Press.

Seltzer, J.A. & Garfinkel, I. (1990). Inequality in divorce settlements: An investigation of property settlements and child support awards. Social Science Research, 19, 82-111.

Shapiro, A.D. (1996). Explaining psychological distress in a sample of remarried and divorced persons. Journal of Family Issues, 17, 186-204.

Shapiro, A. & Lambert, D.J. (1999). Longitudinal effects of divorce on the quality of the father-child relationship and on fathers' psychological well-being. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 61, 397-408.

Sheets, V.L. & Braver, S.L. (1996). Gender differences in satisfaction with divorce settlements. Family Relations, 45, 336-342.

Shehan, C.L. & Lee, G.R. (1990). Roles and power. In J. Touliatos, B.F. Perlmutter, & M.A. Straus (Eds.), Handbook of family measurement techniques (pp. 420-441). New York: Sage Publications.

Shifflett, K. & Cummings, E.M. (1999). A program for educating parents about the effects of divorce and conflict on children: An initial evolution. Family Relations, 48, 79-89.

Song, Y.I. (1991). Single Asian American women as a result of divorce: Depressive affect and changes in social support. In Volgy, S.S. (Ed.), Women and divorce / men and divorce (pp. 219-230). New York: The Haworth Press.

Spencer, S. & Felmler, D. (1997). The balance of power in romantic heterosexual couples over time from "his" and "her" perspectives. Sex Roles, 37, 361-379.

Stewart, A.J., Copeland, A.P., Chester, N.L., Malley, J.E., & Barenbaum,

N.B. (1997). Separating together: How divorce transforms families.

New York: The Guilford Press.

Sussman, M.B & Steinmetz, S.K. (1987). Handbook of marriage and the

family. New York and London: Plenum Press.

Şahin, N.H. & Durak, A. (1994). Kısa Semptom Envanteri (Brief Symptom

Inventory-BSI): Türk gençleri için uyarlanması. Türk Psikoloji

Dergisi, 9, 44-56.

Tabachnick, B. G. & Fidell, L.S. (1996). Using multivariate statistics, 3rd

edition. New York: HarperCollins College Publishers.

Tichenor, V.J. (1999). Status and income as gendered resources: The

case of marital power. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 61, 638-

650.

Tschann, J.M., Johnston, J.R., & Wallerstein, J.S. (1989). Resources,

stressors, and attachment as predictors of adult adjustment after

divorce: A longitudinal study. Journal of Marriage and the Family,

51, 1033-1046.

Uyar, S. (1999). Boşanmış bireylerin evlilik süreci ve bugüne ilişkin psikolojik sorunları üzerine bir araştırma. Unpublished expertise thesis, Gülhane Askeri Tıp Akademisi, Ankara.

Wallerstein, J.S. (1986). Women after divorce: Preliminary report from a ten-year follow-up. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 56, 65-77.

Wang, H. & Amato, P.R. (2000). Predictors of divorce adjustment: Stressors, resources, and definitions. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 62, 665-678.

Weiss, R.S. (1975). Marital separation. New York: Basic Books.

Wolchik, S.A. & Fenaughty, A.M. (1996). Residential and nonresidential parents' perspectives on visitation problems. Family Relations, 45, 230-237.

Wright, D.W. & Price, S.J. (1986). Court-ordered child support payment: The effect of the former-spouse relationships on compliance. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 48, 864-874.

Zielinski, J.J. (1999). Discovering imago relationship therapy. Psychotherapy, 36, 91-101.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

FISHER DIVORCE ADJUSTMENT SCALE

FISHER BOŞANMAYA UYUM ÖLÇEĞİ

Aşağıdaki ifadeler, boşandıktan sonra sıklıkla ortaya çıkabilecek duygu, düşünce ve davranışları yansıtmaktadır. Bitirdiğiniz ilişkinizi düşünerek, her ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyunuz ve bu ifadenin ne sıklıkta sizin şimdiki duygu, düşünce ve davranışlarınıza uygun olduğunu yandaki bölmede işaretleyiniz. Lütfen, her ifade için sadece bir yeri işaretlemeye özen gösteriniz.

Yanıtlarınızı aşağıdaki ölçeğe göre değerlendiriniz:

Bu ifadeler ne sıklıkta sizin şimdiki durumunuza uygun?

1) Her zaman 2) Genellikle 3) Bazen 4) Nadiren 5) Hiçbir zaman

		Her Zaman	Genellikle	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiçbir Zaman
1.	Eşimden ayrıldığımı diğer insanlara rahatlıkla söyleyebiliyorum.					
2.	Gün boyunca bedensel ve duygusal olarak çok yorgunum.					
3.	Sürekli eski eşimi düşünüyorum.					
4.	Eşimle beraberken sahip olduğum arkadaşlarımdan çoğunun benden uzaklaştığını hissediyorum.					
5.	Eski eşimi düşündüğüm zaman çok üzülüyorum.					
6.	Kendim olmaktan hoşnutum.					
7.	Öyle üzgünüm ki kendimi ağlayacakmış gibi hissediyorum.					
8.	Eski eşimle sakin ve mantıklı bir biçimde iletişim kurmak konusunda kendimi rahat hissediyorum.					
9.	Kişiliğimde değiştirmek istediğim pek çok yön var.					
10.	Boşanmış olduğumu kabul etmek bana kolay geliyor.					
11.	Kendimi çok mutsuz hissediyorum.					
12.	Eski eşimle duygusal bağlarımı kopardığımı düşünüyorum.					
13.	İnsanların beni yakından tanıdıklarında benden hoşlanmayacaklarını düşünüyorum.					
14.	Eski eşimi görmek ve onunla konuşmak konusunda kendimi rahat hissediyorum.					
15.	Kendimi çekici buluyorum.					
16.	Büyük bir şaşkınlık içindeymişim ve dünya gerçek değilmiş gibi hissediyorum.					
17.	Kendimi, eski eşimi memnun etmek için bir şeyler yapar halde buluyorum.					
18.	Kendimi yalnız hissediyorum.					
19.	Vücudumda değiştirmek istediğim pek çok şey var.					
20.	Geleceğe yönelik pek çok plan ve hedefim var.					

		Her Zaman	Genellikle	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiçbir Zaman
21.	Cinsel çekiciliğimin fazla olmadığını düşünüyorum.					
22.	Eşimden ayrılığımın beri insanlarla yeni ilişki ve etkileşimler içindeyim.					
23.	Eşimden ayrılmış insanlar arasına katılmak bana onlar gibi yenilmiş biri olduğumu hissettiriyor.					
24.	Gündelik yaşamımı düzenlemek bana kolay geliyor.					
25.	Eski eşimi görmek ve onunla konuşmak için bahaneler yarattığımı farkediyorum.					
26.	İlişkim başarısız olduğuna göre, ben de başarısız biri olmalıyım diye düşünüyorum.					
27.	Öfke ve incinmişliğimi eski eşimin üzerine boşalttığımı hissediyorum.					
28.	İnsanlarla birlikteyken kendimi rahat hissediyorum.					
29.	Dikkatimi toplamakta güçlük çekiyorum.					
30.	Eski eşimi ayrı bir insan olmaktan çok, benimle bağlantılı biri gibi düşünüyorum.					
31.	İyi bir insan olduğumu düşünüyorum.					
32.	Eski eşimin en az benim kadar acı çekmesini umuyorum.					
33.	Beni tanıyan ve anlayan yakın arkadaşlarım var.					
34.	Duygularımı kontrol edemiyorum.					
35.	Derin ve anlamlı başka bir ilişki kurabileceğime inanıyorum.					
36.	Uyumakta güçlük çekiyorum.					
37.	Eski eşime çok kolay öfkeleniyorum.					
38.	Duygusal ilişkiye girebileceğim insanlara güvenmekten korkuyorum.					
39.	İlişkim bittiğine göre, bende yanlış birşeyler olmalı diye düşünüyorum.					
40.	Alışık olmadığım bir biçimde, ya hiç iştahım yok ya da sürekli yiyorum.					
41.	İlişkimizin bittiği gerçeğini kabul etmek istemiyorum.					
42.	Aç olmasam bile birşeyler yemek için kendimi zorluyorum.					
43.	Eski eşimle yeniden biraraya gelemeyeceğimizi düşünüyorum.					
44.	İçimde korkular var.					
45.	Ailemin ve arkadaşlarımdan eski eşimin yanında değil de benim tarafımda olmalarına önem veriyorum.					
46.	Yeni biriyle ilişki kurmayı düşünmek bile beni rahatsız ediyor.					
47.	İstediğim gibi bir yaşam sürdürebileceğime inanıyorum.					
48.	Kilomun önemli miktarda değiştiğini farkediyorum.					
49.	Eğer denersek, ilişkimizi yeniden başlatabileceğimize inanıyorum.					
50.	İçimde bir boşluk hissediyorum.					

		Her Zaman	Genellikle	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiçbir Zaman
51.	Eski eşime karşı romantik duygular besliyorum.					
52.	Kendimle ilgili kararları verebilirim çünkü duygularımı biliyor ve onlara güveniyorum.					
53.	Beni incittiği için eski eşimle ödeşmek istiyorum.					
54.	Arkadaş edinmeyi istememe ve buna ihtiyacım olmasına rağmen insanlardan kaçıyorum.					
55.	Hayatımı tam anlamıyla karmakarışık bir hale getirdiğimi düşünüyorum.					
56.	Çok fazla iç çekiyorum.					
57.	İlişkimizin bitmiş olmasının pek çok açıdan en iyisi olduğuna inanıyorum.					
58.	Günlük işlerimi mekanik ve duygusuz bir biçimde yapıyorum.					
59.	Eski eşimin başka biriyle duygusal ilişkiye gireceğini düşündüğüm zaman çok üzülüyorum.					
60.	Kendimi sorunlarımla yüzleşebilecek ve başa çıkabilecek güçte hissediyorum.					
61.	İlişkimizin başarısızlığından eski eşimin sorumlu olduğunu düşünüyorum.					
62.	Başka birine cinsel olarak yakınlaşmaya korkuyorum.					
63.	Bir eş olarak kendimi yeterli hissediyorum.					
64.	Eşimle yeniden biraraya gelmemiz için yalnızca zamana ihtiyacımız olduğuna inanıyorum.					
65.	Çevremde olup bitenleri bir sinema perdesinde izliyormuşum gibi, kendimi her şeyden kopmuş hissediyorum.					
66.	Eski eşimle cinsel yaşantımızın sürmesini istiyorum.					
67.	Yaşamın bir şekilde gerisinde kaldığımı hissediyorum.					
68.	Sinema gibi topluma açık yerlere tek başıma rahatça gidebiliyorum.					
69.	Ayrıldığımda yaşadığım kötü günlerden sonra kendimi tekrar hayat dolu hissediyorum.					
70.	Kendimi tanıdığıma ve anladığıma inanıyorum.					
71.	Kendimi duygusal olarak eski eşime bağlı hissediyorum.					
72.	Diğer insanlarla birlikte olmak istememe rağmen kendimi duygusal olarak onlardan uzak hissediyorum.					
73.	Bir arkadaşta aradığım özelliklere sahip olduğumu düşünüyorum.					
74.	Başka birine duygusal olarak yakınlaşmaya korkuyorum.					
75.	Kendimi iyi hissettiğim günlerde bile birdenbire üzüntüye kapılıp ağlamaya başlayabiliyorum.					
76.	İlişkimizin bittiğine inanamıyorum.					
77.	Eski eşimin başka biriyle çıkacağını düşündüğüm zaman çok üzülüyorum.					
78.	Kendime, yeteri kadar güveniyorum.					

		Her Zaman	Genellikle	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiçbir Zaman
79.	İnsanların benimle birlikte olmaktan hoşlandıklarını düşünüyorum.					
80.	Ahlaken ve ruhen, ilişkimizin bitmesinin yanlış olduğuna inanıyorum.					
81.	Sabahları uyandığım da, yataktan kalkmak için iyi bir nedenim olmadığını düşünüyorum.					
82.	Kendimi, eşimle geçirdiğimiz güzel zamanları düşlerken buluyorum.					
83.	İnsanlar benimle duygusal bir ilişkiye girmek isterler çünkü sevilebilir biri olduğuma inanıyorum.					
84.	Duygusal olarak ne kadar incindiğimi eski eşimin bilmesini sağlayarak ona acı çektirmek istiyorum.					
85.	Eşim olmadan sosyal etkinliklere rahatlıkla katılabiliyorum.					
86.	İlişkim bittiği için kendimi suçlu hissediyorum.					
87.	Kendimi duygusal olarak güvensiz hissediyorum.					
88.	Cinsel ilişkiye girmeyi düşünmek bile beni rahatsız ediyor.					
89.	Kendimi duygusal olarak zayıf ve çaresiz hissediyorum.					
90.	Yaşamıma son vermeyi düşünüyorum.					
91.	İlişkimizin neden yürümediğini anlıyorum.					
92.	İlişkimizin bittiğini arkadaşlarıma rahatlıkla söyleyebiliyorum.					
93.	Eski eşimin yaptıklarına kızıyorum.					
94.	Kendimi çıldıracakmış gibi hissediyorum.					
95.	Cinsel ilişkiye giremiyorum.					
96.	Çiftlerden oluşan bir toplumda eşi olmayan tek kişi benmişim gibi hissediyorum.					
97.	Kendimi evlenip boşanmış birinden çok bekar biri gibi hissediyorum.					
98.	Eşimden ayrılmış olduğum için, arkadaşlarıma bana dengesizmişim gibi baktıklarını düşünüyorum.					
99.	Eski eşimle birlikte olduğumu ve onunla konuştuğumu hayal ediyorum.					
100.	Bir kadın/erkek olarak kendime daha çok değer vermeye ihtiyacım olduğunu düşünüyorum.					

APPENDIX B

BRIEF SYMPTOM INVENTORY

Aşağıda, insanların bazen yaşadıkları belirtilerin ve yakınmaların bir listesi verilmiştir. Listedeki her maddeyi lütfen dikkatle okuyun. Daha sonra o belirtinin **SİZDE BUGÜN DAHİL, SON BİR HAFTADIR NE KADAR VAROLDUĞUNU** yandaki bölmede uygun olan yerde işaretleyin. Her belirti için sadece bir yeri işaretlemeye ve hiçbir maddeyi atlamamaya özen gösterin.

Yanıtlarınızı aşağıdaki ölçeğe göre değerlendirin:
Bu belirtiler son bir haftadır sizde ne kadar var?

0. Hiç yok
1. Biraz var
2. Orta derecede var
3. Epey var
4. Çok fazla var

Bu belirtiler son bir haftadır sizde ne kadar var?

	Hiç				Çok fazla
1. İçinizdeki sinirlilik ve titreme hali	0	1	2	3	4
2. Baygınlık, baş dönmesi	0	1	2	3	4
3. Bir başka kişinin sizin düşüncelerinizi kontrol edeceği fikri	0	1	2	3	4
4. Başınıza gelen sıkıntılardan dolayı başkalarının suçlu olduğu duygusu	0	1	2	3	4
5. Olayları hatırlamada güçlük	0	1	2	3	4
6. Çok kolayca kızıp öfkelenme	0	1	2	3	4
7. Göğüs (kalp) bölgesinde ağrılar	0	1	2	3	4
8. Meydanlık (açık) yerlerden korkma duygusu	0	1	2	3	4
9. Yaşamınıza son verme düşünceleri	0	1	2	3	4
10. İnsanların çoğuna güvenilemeyeceği hissi	0	1	2	3	4
11. İştahta bozukluklar	0	1	2	3	4
12. Hiçbir nedeni olmayan ani korkular	0	1	2	3	4
13. Kontrol edemediğiniz duygu patlamaları	0	1	2	3	4
14. Başka insanlarla beraberken bile yalnızlık hissetmek	0	1	2	3	4
15. İşleri bitirme konusunda kendini engellenmiş hissetmek	0	1	2	3	4
16. Yalnızlık hissetmek	0	1	2	3	4
17. Hüzünlü, kederli hissetmek	0	1	2	3	4
18. Hiçbir şeye ilgi duymamak	0	1	2	3	4
19. Ağlamaklı hissetmek	0	1	2	3	4
20. Kolayca incinebilme, kırılmak	0	1	2	3	4

21. İnsanların sizi sevmediğine, kötü davrandığına inanmak	0	1	2	3	4
22. Kendini diğerlerinden daha aşağı görme	0	1	2	3	4
23. Mide bozukluğu, bulantı	0	1	2	3	4
24. Diğerlerinin sizi gözlediği ya da hakkınızda konuştuğu duygusu	0	1	2	3	4
25. Uykuya dalmada güçlük	0	1	2	3	4
26. Yaptığınız şeyleri tekrar tekrar doğru mu diye kontrol etmek	0	1	2	3	4
27. Karar vermede güçlükler	0	1	2	3	4
28. Otobüs, tren, metro gibi umumi vasıtalarla seyahatlerden korkmak	0	1	2	3	4
29. Nefes darlığı, nefessiz kalmak	0	1	2	3	4
30. Sıcak soğuk basmaları	0	1	2	3	4
31. Sizi korkuttuğu için bazı eşya, yer ya da etkinliklerden uzak kalmaya çalışmak	0	1	2	3	4
32. Kafanızın "bomboş" kalması	0	1	2	3	4
33. Bedeninizin bazı bölgelerinde uyuşmalar, karıncalanmalar	0	1	2	3	4
34. Günahlarınız için cezalandırılmanız gerektiği	0	1	2	3	4
35. Gelecekle ilgili umutsuzluk duyguları	0	1	2	3	4
36. Konsantrasyonda (dikkati birşey üzerinde toplama) güçlük/zorlanmak	0	1	2	3	4
37. Bedenin bazı bölgelerinde zayıflık, güçsüzlük hissi	0	1	2	3	4
38. Kendini gergin ve tedirgin hissetmek	0	1	2	3	4
39. Ölme ve ölüm üzerine düşünceler	0	1	2	3	4
40. Birini dövme, ona zarar verme, yaralama isteği	0	1	2	3	4
41. Birşeyleri kırma, dökme isteği	0	1	2	3	4
42. Diğerlerinin yanındayken yanlış birşeyler yapmamaya çalışmak	0	1	2	3	4
43. Kalabalıklarda rahatsızlık duymak	0	1	2	3	4
44. Bir başka insana hiç yakınlık duymamak	0	1	2	3	4
45. Dehşet ve panik nöbetleri	0	1	2	3	4
46. Sık sık tartışmaya girmek	0	1	2	3	4
47. Yalnız bırakıldığında / kalındığında sinirlilik hissetmek	0	1	2	3	4
48. Başarılarınız için diğerlerinden yeterince takdir görmemek	0	1	2	3	4
49. Yerinde duramayacak kadar tedirgin hissetmek	0	1	2	3	4
50. Kendini değersiz görmek / değersizlik duyguları	0	1	2	3	4
51. Eğer izin verirsiniz insanların sizi sömüreceği duygusu	0	1	2	3	4
52. Suçluluk duyguları	0	1	2	3	4
53. Aklınızda bir bozukluk olduğu fikri	0	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX C

MULTIDIMENSIONAL SCALE OF PERCEIVED SOCIAL SUPPORT

Aşağıda 12 cümle ve her bir cümle altında da cevaplarınızı işaretlemeniz için 1 den 7 ye kadar rakamlar verilmiştir. Her cümlede söylenenin **sizin için ne kadar çok doğru olduğunu veya olmadığını** belirtmek için o cümle altındaki **rakamlardan yalnız bir tanesini** daire içine alarak işaretleyiniz. Bu şekilde **12 cümlelerin her birine bir işaret** koyarak cevaplarınızı veriniz. Lütfen **hiçbir cümleyi cevapsız bırakmayınız**. Sizce doğruya en yakın olan rakamı işaretleyiniz.

1. Ailem (örneğin, annem, babam, eşim, çocuklarım, kardeşlerim) bana gerçekten yardımcı olmaya çalışır.
Kesinlikle hayır 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Kesinlikle evet
2. İhtiyacım olan duygusal yardımı ve desteği ailemden (örneğin, annemden, babamdan, eşimden, çocuklarımdan, kardeşlerimden) alırım.
Kesinlikle hayır 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Kesinlikle evet
3. Arkadaşlarım bana gerçekten yardımcı olmaya çalışırlar.
Kesinlikle hayır 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Kesinlikle evet
4. İşler kötü gittiğinde arkadaşlarıma güvenebilirim.
Kesinlikle hayır 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Kesinlikle evet
5. Ailem ve arkadaşlarım dışında olan ve ihtiyacım olduğunda yanımda olan bir insan (örneğin, flört, nişanlı, sözlü, akraba, komşu, doktor) var.
Kesinlikle hayır 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Kesinlikle evet
6. Ailem ve arkadaşlarım dışında olan ve sevinç ve kederlerimi paylaşabileceğim bir insan (örneğin, flört, nişanlı, sözlü, akraba, komşu, doktor) var.
Kesinlikle hayır 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Kesinlikle evet
7. Sorunlarımı ailemle (örneğin, annemle, babamla, eşimle, çocuklarımla, kardeşlerimle) konuşabilirim.
Kesinlikle hayır 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Kesinlikle evet
8. Sevinç ve kederlerimi paylaşabileceğim arkadaşlarım var.
Kesinlikle hayır 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Kesinlikle evet

9. Ailem ve arkadaşlarım dışında olan ve duygularıma önem veren bir insan (örneğin, flört, nişanlı, sözlü, akraba, komşu, doktor) var.
Kesinlikle hayır 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Kesinlikle evet
10. Kararlarımı vermede ailem (örneğin, annem, babam, eşim, çocuklarım, kardeşlerim) bana yardımcı olmaya isteklidir.
Kesinlikle hayır 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Kesinlikle evet
11. Ailem ve arkadaşlarım dışında olan ve beni gerçekten rahatlatan bir insan (örneğin, flört, nişanlı, sözlü, akraba, komşu, doktor) var.
Kesinlikle hayır 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Kesinlikle evet
12. Sorunlarımı arkadaşlarımla konuşabilirim.
Kesinlikle hayır 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Kesinlikle evet



APPENDIX D

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM

Aşağıda araştırmaya katılanların genel özelliklerini belirleyebilmek amacıyla bazı sorular bulunmaktadır. Bu sorulara verdiğiniz cevaplarla kimliğiniz arasında hiçbir bağlantı olmadığından, **isminizi belirtmenize gerek yoktur**. Lütfen ayrılan kutulara (X) işareti koyarak veya gereken yerlerde yazarak cevaplandırınız.

1. Cinsiyetiniz : Kadın Erkek
2. Yaşınız : _____
3. Eğitiminiz :

<input type="checkbox"/> Sadece okur yazar	<input type="checkbox"/> Ortaokul ve dengi	<input type="checkbox"/> Yüksek Okul/Üniversite
<input type="checkbox"/> İlkokul mezunu	<input type="checkbox"/> Lise ve dengi	<input type="checkbox"/> Yüksek Lisans/Doktora
4. Eski eşinizle ne kadar süre evli kaldınız? _____
5. Boşanmadan önce eşinizle ayrı yaşıyor muydunuz?

<input type="checkbox"/> Hayır	<input type="checkbox"/> Evet (süreyi belirtiniz: _____)
--------------------------------	--
6. Boşanmanızın üzerinden ne kadar süre geçti? _____
7. Boşanma fikrini ilk kim ortaya attı?

<input type="checkbox"/> Ben	<input type="checkbox"/> Eşim	<input type="checkbox"/> Karşılıklı	<input type="checkbox"/> Diğer (belirtiniz: _____)
------------------------------	-------------------------------	-------------------------------------	--
8. Boşanma davasını kim açtı? Ben Eşim Karşılıklı Anlaşmalı
9. Boşandıktan beri ne kadar maddi sıkıntı çekiyorsunuz?

<input type="checkbox"/> Çok fazla	<input type="checkbox"/> Oldukça fazla	<input type="checkbox"/> Orta derecede	<input type="checkbox"/> Oldukça az	<input type="checkbox"/> Hiç
------------------------------------	--	--	-------------------------------------	------------------------------
10. Kaç çocuğunuz var? _____
11. Şu anki velayet statünüzden ne derece memnunsunuz?

<input type="checkbox"/> Hiç memnun değilim	<input type="checkbox"/> Memnun değilim	<input type="checkbox"/> Kararsızım	<input type="checkbox"/> Memnunum
<input type="checkbox"/> Çok memnunum			
12. Genel olarak değerlendirdiğinizde, çocukların ziyareti konusunda (sıklığı, düzenliliği, vb.) ne derece memnunsunuz?

<input type="checkbox"/> Hiç memnun değilim	<input type="checkbox"/> Memnun değilim	<input type="checkbox"/> Kararsızım	<input type="checkbox"/> Memnunum
<input type="checkbox"/> Çok memnunum			

13. Genel olarak deęerlendirdiđinizde, nafaka konusundan (miktar, dzenlilik, bađlanıp bađlanmaması vb.) ne derece memnunsunuz?
- Hi memnun deęilim* *Memnun deęilim* *Kararsızım* *Memnunum*
 ok memnunum
14. Evli olduđunuz zamana kıyasla, bir anne/baba olarak kendinizden ne derece memnunsunuz?
- ok daha az memnun* *Daha az memnunum* *Aynı*
 Daha fazla memnunum *ok daha fazla memnunum*
15. Őimdiye kadar hi psikolojik yardım almak amacıyla bir uzmana (psikolog, psikiyatrist, psikolojik danıřman, sosyal hizmet uzmanı) bařvurdunuz mu?
- Evet* *Hayır (17. soruya geiniz)*
16. Ne zaman bařvurdunuz? (Birden fazla řıkkı iřaretleyebilirsiniz.)
- Evlenmeden nce* *Bořanma srecinde* *Halen yardım alıyorum*
 Evliliđim sırasında *Bořandıktan sonra*
17. Őu an bařka biriyle duygusal bir iliřkiniz var mı? *Evet* *Hayır*
18. Genel olarak yařamınızdan ne derece memnunsunuz?
- Hi memnun deęilim* *Memnun deęilim* *Kararsızım* *Memnunum*
 ok memnunum

APPENDIX E**INFORMATION FORM FOR THE COURT SAMPLE**

Sayın Katılımcı,

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Psikoloji Bölümü, Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans tez çalışması kapsamında yürütülen bu araştırmada, boşanma yaşantısının genel özellikleri incelenmektedir. Bu çalışmaya katılımın önerilebilmesi için, boşanmış kişilerin isim ve adreslerine Asliye Hukuk Mahkemelerindeki toplu kayıtlar aracılığıyla ulaşılmıştır. Ancak bu, araştırmaya katılmayı kabul eden kişilerin kimlik bilgisinin alındığı anlamına da gelmemektedir. Formları doldururken, isim ve adres gibi hiçbir tanıtıcı bilgi yazmanıza gerek yoktur. Böylece, hangi cevabın kimin tarafından verildiğinin araştırmacı tarafından bilinmesi mümkün olamayacaktır.

Bu bilimsel çalışmaya katkıda bulunmayı kabul edip etmemek sizin inisiyatifinizdedir. Elinizdeki formların hiçbir yasal yaptırımını bulunmamaktadır. Boşanma yaşantısının genel özelliklerine ilişkin bilimsel bilgi birikimini arttırmak için hazırlanmış olan bu dört formdan elde edilen bilgiler, başka hiçbir amaçla kullanılmayacak ve tüm cevaplarınız saklı tutulacaktır. Bu araştırmanın gerçekleşebilmesi, ancak sizlerin katkıları ile mümkün olacaktır.

Çalışmaya katkıda bulunmayı kabul ederseniz, size yollanan formları doldururken;

- ✓ cevaplarınız grup olarak değerlendirileceğinden, isim ve adres gibi kimliğinizi tanıtıcı hiçbir bilgi vermenize gerek yoktur,
- ✓ ayıracağınız süre yaklaşık 40-45 dakikadır,

- ✓ ifadelere doğru ya da yanlış cevap vermek söz konusu değildir, çünkü her boşanma yaşantısı benzersizdir ve kendine özgü pek çok yönü içinde barındırır,
- ✓ sizden beklenen; hiçbir maddeyi atlamadan, tüm ifadeleri elinizden geldiğince içten ve sizin için en geçerli durumu düşünerek cevaplandırmanızdır,
- ✓ başkalarının fikirlerini değil sadece kendi görüşlerinizi dikkate almanız gerekmektedir.

Her bir formun başında o formun amacını belirten ve cevaplayabilmeniz için ihtiyaç duyacağınız bilgileri içeren açıklamalar yer almaktadır. En uygun cevaplamaı yapabilmek için lütfen bu açıklamaları dikkatlice okuyunuz. Formlarda yer alan sorular, sayfanın hem önüne hem de arkasına basılmış olduğundan, lütfen **bir sayfanın her iki yüzünü de doldurunuz**. Bir formu bitirmeden bir diğerine geçmeyiniz.

Tüm formları doldurduktan sonra, lütfen **adıma postalanmaya hazır halde size yolladığım adresli ve pullu zarfın içine koyunuz** ve elime ulaşana kadar açılmaması için ağzını yapıştırınız. Yardımlarınız için şimdiden çok teşekkür ederim.

Psk. Esin Yılmaz
ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü
Klinik Psikoloji Y.L. Öğrencisi

APPENDIX F

INFORMATION FORM FOR THE SNOWBALL SAMPLE

Sayın Katılımcı,

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Psikoloji Bölümü, Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans tez çalışması kapsamında yürütülen bu araştırmada, boşanma yaşantısının genel özellikleri incelenmektedir. Elinizdeki dört form, bu amaca yönelik bilgi toplamak için hazırlanmıştır. Elde edilen bilgiler, bu konuya ilişkin bilimsel bilgi birikimini arttırmak dışında hiçbir amaçla kullanılmayacak ve tüm cevaplarınız saklı tutulacaktır. Bu araştırmanın gerçekleşebilmesi, ancak sizlerin katkıları ile mümkün olacaktır.

Çalışmaya katkıda bulunmayı kabul ederseniz, size yollanan formları doldururken;

- ✓ bireysel bir değerlendirme yapılmayacağından, isim ve adres gibi kimliğinizi tanıtıcı hiçbir bilgi vermenize gerek yoktur,
- ✓ ayıracağınız süre yaklaşık 40-45 dakikadır,
- ✓ ifadelere doğru ya da yanlış cevap vermek söz konusu değildir, çünkü her boşanma yaşantısı benzersizdir ve kendine özgü pek çok yönü içinde barındırır,
- ✓ sizden beklenen; hiçbir maddeyi atlamadan, tüm ifadeleri elinizden geldiğince içten ve sizin için en geçerli durumu düşünerek cevaplandırmanızdır,

Her bir formun başında o formun amacını belirten ve cevaplayabilmeniz için ihtiyaç duyacağınız bilgileri içeren açıklamalar yer almaktadır. En uygun cevaplama yapabilmek için lütfen bu açıklamaları dikkatlice okuyunuz. Bazı formlarda yer alan sorular, sayfanın hem önüne hem de arkasına basılmış olduğundan, lütfen **bir sayfanın her iki yüzünü de doldurunuz.** Bir formu bitirmeden bir diğerine geçmeyiniz.

Tüm formları doldurduktan sonra lütfen zarfın içine koyunuz ve elime ulaşana kadar açılmaması için ağzını yapıştırınız.

Yardımlarınız için şimdiden çok teşekkür ederim.

Psk. A. Esin Yılmaz
ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü
Klinik Psikoloji Y.L. Öğrencisi

**T.C. YÜKSEKÖĞRETİM KURULU
DOKÜMANTASYON MERKEZİ**

APPENDIX G

THE PERMISSION TO USE THE FISHER DIVORCE ADJUSTMENT
SCALE

Date: Thu, 07 Dec 2000 09:45:49 -0700
To: esin yilmaz <esin_yilmaz@yahoo.com>
From: Jere Bierhaus <fisher@denver.net> | Block address
Subject: Re: Fisher Divorce Adjustment Scale

Dear Esin

I tried faxing the FDAS and it would not go through. You have Jere's permission to use the FDAS in your master thesis. I will try faxing it again.

Sincerely,
Crystal

At 02:37 PM 11/30/00 -0800, you wrote:

>Dear Toliver,
>I have faxed a request form for the Fisher Divorce
>Adjustment Scale on 07 Nov 2000 to the Fisher
>Seminars. Although you have send an e-mail informing
>that you would fax me the FDAS on 14 Nov 2000,
>I have not received the fax yet.
>It is possible that you could have not faxed the FDAS
>to me because of a problem in the fax I informed its
>number to you in the request form so I am giving you
>another fax number: +90 (312) XXX XX XX. I would
>appreciate it very much if you again try to fax the
>FDAS to me.
>On the other hand, if you relay my permission request
>for using the FDAS in my master thesis to Mr.
>Bierhaus, I want to remind you to convey the decision
>to me. Many thanks in anticipation.
>>Yours Sincerely,
>A.Esin Yilmaz
>Department of Psychology,
>Middle East Technical University
>
>--- Jere Bierhaus <fisher@denver.net> wrote:
>> Dear A. Esin
>>
>> Thanks for your e-mail. I will fax you the
>> FDAS today.
>> Thanks for your patience.
>> Sincerely,
>> Crystal, The Fisher Seminars