

VALUE SIMILARITIES OF WIVES AND HUSBANDS AND CONFLICT
RESOLUTION STYLES OF SPOUSES AS PREDICTORS OF MARITAL
ADJUSTMENT

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ABSTRACT

VALUE SIMILARITIES OF WIVES AND HUSBANDS AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION STYLES OF SPOUSES AS PREDICTORS OF MARITAL ADJUSTMENT

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The aim of this present study was to investigate the predictive power of value similarity of wives and husbands and conflict resolution of spouses on marital adjustment of wives, husbands, and couples. Data is collected by means of questionnaires (“Schwartz’s Value Survey”, “Dyadic Adjustment Scale”, and “Conflict Resolution Styles Scale”), from a sample of one hundred and forty (140 women, 140 men) Turkish married couples. The results of the study indicated that after eliminating the effects of demographic variables, tradition, hedonism, stimulation value type similarities of spouses, and power value type dissimilarities of spouses have positively predicted marital adjustment of wives and couples. However, value similarities of spouses did not have significant effect on marital adjustment of husbands. Although, conflict resolution styles of husbands had a significant effect on marital adjustment of wives, conflict resolution styles of wives did not have significant contribution in predicting marital adjustment of

husbands after eliminating the effects of demographic variables and value similarity of spouses. The usage of negative conflict resolution styles by husbands had negative effects on marital adjustment of wives. When the marital adjustment of couples was considered, it was found that conflict resolution styles of wives and husbands have significant contribution in predicting marital adjustment of couples. The results further indicated that negative conflict resolution styles of wives and husbands negatively predicted marital adjustment of couples. Furthermore, it was found that spouses high in positive conflict resolution style and low in negative conflict resolution style have higher scores on marital adjustment than spouses low in positive conflict resolution style and high in negative conflict resolution style. The findings of the present study were discussed in the light of the related literature. Additionally, limitations of the study and suggestions for future researches were investigated.

Keywords: value similarities of spouses, marital adjustment, conflict resolution styles of wives and husbands.

ÖZ

EVİLİK UYUMUNUN YORDAYICILARI OLARAK KARI VE KOCALARIN DEĞER UYUMLARI VE EŞLERİN ÇATIŞMA ÇÖZÜM STİLLERİ

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Bu çalışmanın amacı, karı ve kocaların değer uyumlarının ve eşlerin çatışma çözüm stillerinin, karıların, kocaların ve çiftlerin evlilik uyumu üzerindeki yordayıcı etkisini araştırmaktır. Veri, yüz kırk (140 kadın, 140 erkek) Türk evli çiftten anketler yoluyla ((“Schwartz Değerler Listesi”, “Çift Uyum Ölçeği”, and “Çatışma Çözüm Stilleri Ölçeği”) toplanmıştır. Araştırma sonuçlarına göre, demografik değişkenlerin etkisi elimine edildikten sonra, eşlerin geleneksellik, hazcılık, uyarılım, değer benzerlikleri ve eşlerin güç değer farklılıkları, kadınların ve eşlerin evlilik uyumunu olumlu bir şekilde yordamıştır. Fakat eşlerin değer benzerliklerinin kocaların evlilik uyumuna anlamlı bir etkisi bulunmamıştır. Ayrıca, demografik değişkenlerin ve eşlerin değer uyumlarının etkisi elimine edildikten sonra, kocaların kullandıkları çatışma çözüm stillerinin eşlerinin evlilik uyumu üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi olmasına rağmen, kadınların kullandıkları çatışma çözüm stillerinin kocalarının evlilik uyumu üzerinde anlamlı bir etkisi

bulunmamıştır. Kocaların olumsuz çatışma çözüm stilini kullanmalarının kadınların evlilik uyumuna olumsuz bir etkisi vardır. Çiftlerin evlilik uyumu düşünüldüğü zaman ise, karıların ve kocaların çatışma çözüm stillerinin, çiftlerin evlilik uyumunu anlamlı bir şekilde yordadığı bulunmuştur. Sonuçlar ayrıca göstermektedir ki karıların ve kocaların olumsuz çatışma çözüm stilleri, çiftlerin evlilik uyumunu olumsuz bir şekilde yordamaktadır. Ayrıca, olumlu çatışma çözüm stilinde yüksek, olumsuz çatışma çözme stilinde düşük olan eşlerin evlilik uyumundan, olumsuz çatışma çözüm stilinde düşük, olumsuz çatışma çözme stilinde yüksek olan eşlere göre daha yüksek puan aldıkları bulunmuştur. Araştırmanın sonuçları ilgili literatür eşliğinde tartışılmıştır. Bunlara ek olarak araştırmanın sınırlılıkları ve gelecek araştırmalar için öneriler de tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Eşlerin değer uyumu, evlilik uyumu, karıların ve kocaların çatışma çözüm stilleri.

Canım annem, babam ve abime

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Marital relationships and their functioning have been an area of interest for many years since marriage serves many social, economic and political functions. For instance, being the functional social unit, the family for many centuries accomplished the requirements of reproduction thus enabled the existence of the society (Kalmykova, 1983). Actually as being the core part for providing the base for socialization of the individual, the family gains importance for determining healthy individuals for the society hence gains recognition by the psychology both in application and in theory (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2000). At this point, in order to protect the stability and continuity of the society, to maintain the stability of marital relationship gains importance. This leads us to ask the following question. What makes one marriage adjusted, happy, stable, and what makes the other unadjusted, unhappy, and unstable? Many researchers deal with this concept and focused on the quality of marital relationship, their predictors, and stability of the relationship. Wolman (1986) suggest that varied factors contribute to dysfunctional marriages, and these factors appear to be associated with the differences in the value system held by the spouses (cited in, Mekhoubat 1993). Moreover, most of the studies illustrate that value similarity of spouses has an effect on marital adjustment of couples (Burgess et al., 1963; Hunt, 1978; Medling & Mccarrey, 1981; Murstein, 1970; Nimkoff & Grigg, 1958; Skaldeman & Montgomery, 1999a). From this perspective, it is considered to be important to study the value similarities of spouses in marriages in order to understand the underlying dynamics of the marital adjustment.

Additionally, conflict resolution styles of couples are another factor that affects marital adjustment besides values. Many researchers point out that conflict is inevitable part of the all types of intimate relationships and it exists in varying

degrees and complexity for intimates (e.g. Cahn, 1992). Furthermore, various factors may contribute to increased conflict in marriage, such as communication of expectations from the spouse, determining how the roles of each other to be defined, usage of finances, personality disagreements, and so on (Mackey, Diemer, & O'Brien 2000). At this point, conflict resolution styles of spouses gains importance in order to increase marital adjustment. How couples cope with conflict, in a destructive or constructive way. Since the conflict has harmful effects on physical, mental, psychological, and mental health of the family, it is very crucial to study the conflict and how the conflict is handled in marriage, and its effects on marital adjustment.

In short, predictive effects of the value similarities of spouses, predictive effects of conflict resolution styles of couples on marriage are considered as important factors in marital adjustment, and also in understanding the marital process. Because of this reason, this thesis aims to investigate the predictive power of value similarity of wives and husbands and conflict resolution of spouses on marital adjustment of wives, husbands, and couples. In this introductory section, first, important value theories are presented. Second, some information about marital adjustment of couples and the effects of value similarity of spouses on their marital adjustment are mentioned. Third, conflict and the effects of conflict on marriage are covered. Following that, the conflict resolution styles of couples are examined. Finally, after giving information about Turkish studies on values, marital adjustment, and conflict resolution styles of couples, research questions and expectations of the thesis are presented.

1. 1. Human Values

1. 1. 1. Defining values

Values are critical elements in understanding several psychological phenomena. Values are considered as central elements in attitude and belief systems and from

this point of view value concept have caught interest of many researchers in social sciences. There are several definitions of values that are available in the literature. For instance, Kluckhohn (1951) defines values as a concept that has permanency through time and organizes a system of action in addition to its function for placing acts, goals of action, and ways of behaving on the approval-disapproval continuum. Kluckhohn (1951) also suggests that values are generally cultural products. However each individual privately interprets and gives meaning to each group of value and attribute different degrees of importance, sometimes to the extent that the value becomes personally distinctive. Another researcher, Blood (1969) defines values as a hierarchically structured preference that has an effect on choices among varied possibilities. The widest definition of values has been researched by Rokeach (1973), and he defines values and value system operationally as:

A value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence. A value system is an enduring organization of beliefs concerning preferable modes of conduct or end-states of existence along a continuum of relative importance (Rokeach, 1973, p. 5).

To further examine the definition, Rokeach (1973) points out the changing character of values (they are not completely stable or unstable). Additionally Rokeach (1973) asserts that values are prescriptive or proscriptive beliefs, which are mainly related with the desirability or undesirability of some means or ends of action, and like all other beliefs, values have affective, cognitive and behavioral components. Rokeach (1973) also differentiates values from needs (needs do not contain ideological and societal demands), attitudes and interest (attitudes and interests are dependent on values), traits (traits do not expose to change), and norms (norms refer to specific situations). According to Rokeach (1973), the selection of one value over another by the individual is central. By rank ordering a list of values, respondents elicit the importance of the each value to them. The result is a statement of preference for certain values over other values.

Furthermore, Rokeach (1973) classifies values in one of two categories, terminal versus instrumental values. This distinction has also been proposed by other researchers (e.g. Braithwaite & Law, 1985; Lovejoy, 1950). Rokeach (1973) defines instrumental values as “means”, and terminal values as “end-states”. There are two kinds of terminal values, namely personal values and social values. Personal values are self-centered or intrapersonal in focus like salvation and peace of mind, whereas social values are society-centered or interpersonal in focus such as world peace and brotherhood. Furthermore, Rokeach (1973) claims that people may attribute different degrees of importance to these personal and social values, and the priorities they place on social and personal values may change from one another. Depending on people’s priority of social or personal values they place, their behavior and attitudes will differ from one another. The more increases a personal value in importance for an individual, the more it will affect other personal values of the self to gain importance and reciprocally will cause social values to loose importance for the self. There are also two kinds of instrumental values, namely moral values and competence values. Moral values have interpersonal focus and when they are violated feelings of guilt might arouse. Forgiving, helpful, and honest are examples of moral values. Competence values have personal focus rather than interpersonal focus and when they are violated feeling of personal inadequacy might arouses rather than feelings of guilt. More importantly, Rokeach (1973) suggests that terminal and instrumental values are separately organized into relatively enduring hierarchical organizations along a continuum of importance, but functionally interrelated systems. Moreover, there is also a close connection between these two kinds of instrumental values and the two referred kinds of terminal values. Furthermore, individuals may experience conflict between two competence values, between two moral values, as well as between a competence and a moral value.

Rokeach (1973) claims that values have several functions, and groups them as standards directing current activities, as common plans that are used to resolve

conflicts and to make decisions, and as providing expression to basic human needs by acting as motivational underpinnings of behavior. The standards that guide current activities can perform in seven ways, which are summarized as below.

Values as standards cause an individual to take particular positions on social themes, and give one a tendency to support a particular religious or political ideology over another. Values as standards are also employed; to compare own self with others whether one is as talented or as moral as others; to guide how one present self to others; and also to guide judgments and evaluations to be made in order to put the blame and praise on self or others, to influence and convince others telling one which actions, attitudes, values, beliefs of others are merit challenging and arguing about along with leading individuals to put effort in trying to influence or change them by determining their worth. Values set also standards to rationalize actions, attitudes, and beliefs that are unacceptable according to social and personal norms thus to equip one with the feelings of morality and confidence (Rokeach, 1973).

The second function of the value system according to Rokeach (1973) is its role as resolving conflict and making decision. When an individual confronts with a particular situation, several values will be activated rather than just a single value, and these activated values can be in conflict with one another. For example an encountered situation may activate a sense of conflict in self for taking action based on being responsible to others or achieving success; or acting by getting hedonistic pleasure or by showing respect for tradition. Rokeach (1973) suggests that a value system is an organization of principles and rules that are learned to guide one through life in different situations. However, in a given situation not the whole landscape of this organization is observable but rather the related part of the organization becomes active.

According to Rokeach (1973), the third and the long range function of values and value systems is to provide expression of basic human needs. Besides cognitive, affective and behavioral components, values also have a strong motivational component. Instrumental values have motivational component because the idealized modes of behavior that they deal with are perceived to be instrumental to the acquisition of desired end-goals. When individuals behave in ways that are guided by their instrumental values, they will be rewarded with all the end-states that are specified by their terminal values. Terminal values have motivational component and are defined as supergoals since they reflect goals other than immediate, biologically urgent goals. Values are also motivating because of their role as maintaining and enhancing self-esteem. Moreover, Rokeach (1973) mentions “adjustive”, “ego-defensive”, “knowledge or self-actualization” functions under the heading of motivational function of values. These three functions of values demonstrate nothing more than expression of different values that all individuals have and hold in varying degrees. Certain values are related with the desirability of politeness, self-control, and success, which are examples of the adjustment oriented values. While individuals can all be assumed to have such adjustment oriented values, they attribute varying degrees of importance to them relative to other values. Considering the ego defensive function of values, the ready-made concepts of culture enable one to create justifications for the unacceptable behavior of the individual, hence enable someone to fulfill ego defensive needs through rationalizing and guiding action accordingly. Also values function to fulfill knowledge or self actualization needs through giving meaning to behavior, thus providing the individual with a sense of accomplishment and wisdom (Rokeach, 1973).

Influenced heavily by Rokeach (1973) and Kluckhohn (1951), Schwartz and Bilsky (1987, 1990) defined values as belief systems or desirable goals that guide individuals’ lives in different ways and as concepts differ in terms of importance. Researchers assert that all societies and people must be responsive to three universal human requirements. Specifically, these are the needs of people as

biological organisms, requisites of coordinated social interaction, and the survival and the welfare needs of groups, and these requirements constitute the values (Kluckhohn, 1951; Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987; 1990). In addition, according to Schwartz and Bilsky (1987), through socialization and cognitive development, people learn these values and attribute changeable degrees of importance to them. Schwartz and Bilsky (1987, 1990) articulated a provisional theory of the universal content and structure of human values and they tested this theory with data from seven countries. Later on, Schwartz (1992) revised the theory with various modifications and extensions. In the next section, earlier version of the theory will be examined to be followed by the review of the final version of the theory.

1. 1. 2. Schwartz's Basic Human Values Theory

As previously mentioned, values of individuals differ in importance. A particular value may be very critical for the sense of self to one person; however this particular value may not mean anything to the other. Schwartz and Bilsky (1987, 1990), by reviewing the content categories in value theories developed earlier, in the value questionnaires from different cultures, and by using Rokeach's (1973) value list as markers, identified eight universal and distinctive motivational domains of values, namely enjoyment, security, achievement, self-direction, conformity, prosocial, social power, and lastly maturity domain.

Enjoyment domain is related to the people's feelings of pleasure and to sensuous gratification after satisfying his/her physical needs. Also people are in need of avoiding threats in order to survive, and also in need of safety and harmony of groups with whom he/she identifies, that are all related to the security domain. Achievement domain is linked to personal success. Constituting another set of values, believing in and acquiring gratification from one's own capacities due to thoughts and action taken is related to the self-direction domain. Conformity to social norms and avoiding to harm others are related to the restrictive conformity

domain. Improving or protecting the welfare of others constitutes the prosocial domain. Social power domain is related to social status and prestige. And as the last one, maturity domain is linked to the understanding and appreciation of self, others and nature (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1990). Schwartz and Bilsky (1990) also specified a set of dynamic relations among the motivational types of values that may include a pattern of compatibilities and conflicts.

Schwartz broadened the “Basic Human Values Theory” with some modifications, specifications, and extensions in 1992 and developed a new values instrument on the basis of revised theory. The structure of the theory was assessed in more than 60 countries, and it is found that the structure of the theory holds its strength across various cultures (Kilbourne, Grünhagen, & Foley, 2005; Schwartz, 1992, 1994; Schwartz & Bardi, 2001; Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004; Schwartz & Sagiv, 1995).

Based on the empirical findings and conceptual definitions, Schwartz (1992, 1994) describes and derives three potentially universal motivational types of values (which were stated only briefly by Schwartz and Bilsky, 1990), further suggests modifications of the descriptions and contents of some value types, and also specify methods for measuring them. Based on these modifications, Schwartz (1992, 1994) defines ten distinct individual-level-value-types from these three universal requirements of human existence. According to Schwartz (1992, 1994) values differ with regards to the motivational goals that they express. Also, it is suggested that value priorities of the individuals are affected by their personalities, cultures, unique life experiences, age, ethnicity, and so on (Prince-Gibson & Schwartz, 1998; Rokeach, 1973). Moreover, single values that share the same motivational goal can be grouped into value types, and they also have positive associations between each other both statistically and conceptually. Each type of values was defined in terms of its central motivational goal in Table 1. 1 and in parentheses specific values that mainly represent these goals were given. Each of these values exhibit extensive goals that apply across contexts and time (Rokeach,

1973; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987). For instance, if achievement values are important for a person, this implies striving for achievement at work, at home, with friendship relationships, and so forth.

Table 1. 1. Definition of the types of values (Schwartz, 1992, 1994)

<i>Power:</i>	Social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources (authority, social power, wealth, preserving my public image) [social recognition]*
<i>Achievement:</i>	Personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards (capable, successful, influential, ambitious) [intelligent]*
<i>Hedonism:</i>	Pleasure or sensuous gratification for oneself (enjoying life, pleasure)
<i>Stimulation:</i>	Excitement, novelty, and challenge in life (an exciting life, daring, a varied life)
<i>Self-direction:</i>	Independent thought and action-choosing, creating, exploring (freedom, independent, creativity, curious, choosing own goals) [self-respect]*
<i>Universalism:</i>	Understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and for nature (equality, wisdom, social justice, broadminded, protecting the environment, a world of beauty, unity with nature, a world at peace) [inner harmony]*
<i>Benevolence:</i>	Preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent personal contact (helpful, honest, loyal, responsible, forgiving) [true friendship, mature love, a spiritual life, meaning in life]*
<i>Tradition:</i>	Respect, commitment, and acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditional culture or religion provide (respect for tradition, humble, moderate, devout, accepting my portion of life) [detachment]*
<i>Conformity:</i>	Restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms (politeness, honoring parents and elders, self-discipline, obedient)
<i>Security:</i>	Safety, harmony, and stability of society, or relationships, and of self (family security, social order, clean, national security, reciprocation of favors) [sense of belonging, healthy]*

* Meaning of the values in brackets were found inconsistent across samples and cultures (Schwartz, 1992, 1994)

Schwartz and Bilsky (1987) define the human values by their conceptual organization in terms of their similarities and differences (for instance, ambitious and capable are both parts of achievement domain). Furthermore, according to the theory of basic human values, each one of these ten individual level values relates to the other dynamically. The pursuit of each value has psychological, practical, and social consequences, and that values, in an incorporated structure, may also include a pattern of relationships characterized through their being conflictual or compatible. For example, actions intended to foster a varied life (a stimulation value) are likely to conflict with actions that foster obedience (a conformity value), on the other hand, these same actions are also compatible or enhance the choice for own goals or creativity (a self direction value). In a similar vein, actions that express hedonism values are likely to conflict with those that express tradition values. However, hedonism values are compatible with self-direction values such as independence and freedom since both are related to the satisfaction of only self but not taking into consideration the society in a great deal (Sagiv & Schwartz 1995; Schwartz, 1992).

According to the theory, relationships among values can be summarized in terms of a two-dimensional structure composed of four higher-order value types. These four dimensions are “openness to change” versus “conservation”, and “self-enhancement” versus “self-transcendence” (Schwartz, 1992). One of these higher order types, openness to change, emphasizes independent thought, action, feeling, supporting change, and this value type motivates people to pursue their own intellectual and emotional interests in unknown and unpredictable situations. Openness to change is composed of stimulation, and self-direction values. Openness to change forms a bipolar dimension with the higher order type, called conservation. Conservation emphasizes submission, protection of customary practices, resistance to change, and self-restriction, and includes security, conformity, and tradition value types that are opposed to stimulation and self-direction value types (Sagiv & Schwartz 1995; Schwartz, 1992; Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004).

The third higher order type, self-enhancement, stressing dominance over others leads individuals to pursue one's own success, and impels them to boost their own personal interests even at the expense of others. Self-enhancement is composed of power and achievement value types. Self-enhancement forms a bipolar dimension with the higher order type called self-transcendence. Self-transcendence stresses acceptance of close and distant others as equals, transcendence of own selfish concerns, and pursue the welfare of interest of others and of nature. Self-transcendence includes universalism and benevolence value types that are in opposition with power and achievement value types. Hedonism values share some elements of both the openness to change and the self-enhancement higher-order value types, and are located between them. Schwartz sometimes uses these four type rather than ten values to predict attitude and behavior (Sagiv & Schwartz 1995; Schwartz, 1992; Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004).

The conflicts and compatibilities among all ten value types form the integrated circular structure of values, and that circular structure of values accords with the theoretical assumption that values represent a motivational continuum. If the values are in opposing directions from the center, they are conflicting values. On the contrary, congruent values are closest to one another in the circle. The more distant any two values around the circle, the more contradictory the motivations they express. Figure 1. 1 represents the total pattern of relations among values postulated by the theory (Sagiv & Schwartz, 1995; Schwartz, 1992; 1994; 1996). Schwartz and Boehnke (2004) also added that, ten values form a quasi-circumplex structure (means that values are not spaced equally around the circle) based on the inherent conflict or compatibility between their motivational goals. Furthermore, ten distinct types of values and patterns of compatibility and conflict among value types were assessed in more than 60 countries, including Turkey, and the structure of the theory has strong evidence across various cultural, linguistic, religious, and geographic groups (Kilbourne et al., 2005; Schwartz, 1992, 1994; Schwartz & Bardi, 2001; Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004; Schwartz & Sagiv, 1995). It is

important to mention that the cross cultural studies have shown that the structure of value types, but not their relative importance is universal.

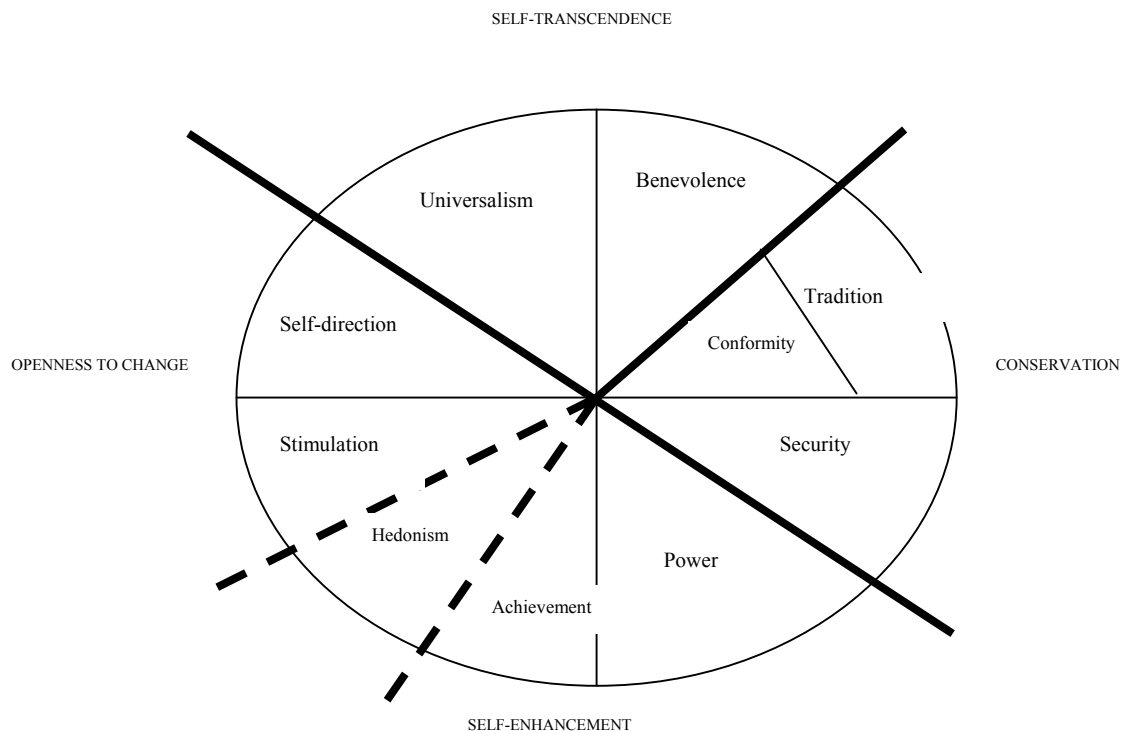


Figure 1.1. Structure of value types and dimensions (Schwartz, 1992)

Struch, Schwartz and van der Kloot (2002) assert that the meaning of a particular item differs between two groups or samples of people depending on the distance around the circular structure and between the locations of that value item in each group. For instance, “politeness” is located with conformity values in one individual, with security values in an other individual, and power values in a third one. It is clear that the meaning of politeness differs for each individual. Especially, the meaning of politeness differs most between the first individual and the third individual because the distance between conformity and power around the circle is greater than the distance between security and conformity or between security and power.

Schwartz studied the values in various areas, as relations between values and behavior (Bardi & Schwartz, 2003), as sex differences in value priorities and cross cultural aspect of sex differences (Prince-Gibson & Schwartz, 1998; Schwartz & Rubel, 2005), as meanings of basic values for women and men, and differences across and within diverse cultures (Struch et al., 2002), as relations between value priorities and readiness for out-group social contact (Sagiv & Schwartz, 1995), and as relations between value priorities and subjective well-being (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000). He has also focused on the value hierarchies across and within cultures (Schwartz, 1992; 1994; Schwartz & Bardi, 2001; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1990; Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004). Schwartz's value types were also studied by other researchers in intimate relationships (e.g. Goodwin & Tinker, 2002). Goodwin and Tinker (2002) examined the relation between value priorities and partner preferences.

As mentioned before values have several functions, such as directing current activities, resolving conflicts and making decisions, and providing expression to basic human needs. As a result, it can be concluded that, according to Rokeach (1973), values are important to direct human attitudes and behavior. Deriving from this notion, values can also be studied in relationships in order to understand how individuals' similarity and dissimilarity of value systems affect their behavior, and their relationships. In the current study, it is aimed to explore the effects of value similarity of married spouses on marital adjustment with using the Schwartz Value Survey. In the literature it is found that values are related with marital functioning, which is broadly mentioned in the next section, but first the literature about marital adjustment will be examined.

1. 2. Marital Adjustment

1. 2. 1. Defining Marital Adjustment and Related Terms

“Adjustment”, “happiness”, “success”, “satisfaction”, and “stability” are the most commonly used terms in research on marital relationship. Although marital adjustment is probably the most frequently studied concept as a dependent variable, there is lack of consensus on the meaning of marital adjustment and the other related variables in the literature (Glenn, 1990; Hicks & Platt, 1970; Lively, 1969; Robinson & Blanton, 1993; Spanier & Lewis, 1980). In some research marital adjustment used as a synonym for marital “satisfaction”, “success”, “happiness”, and “stability” (e.g. Gottman, 1990, cited in Heyman, Sayers, & Bellack, 1994), however some researchers assert that there are differences of nuances on these terms (Burgess, Locke, & Thomes, 1963; Lively, 1969).

Especially Lively (1969) pointed out the ambiguity and vagueness of the definitions of these terms and asserted that several connotations were attached to each of these terms that justified the removal of these words from the field, and for this reason he clarified the most commonly used terms, “marital happiness”, “marital success”, and “marital adjustment” in order to achieve harmony between these concepts and the concept of marital interaction. Lively (1969) defined marital adjustment as “continuing development of the relationship between husband and wife and rests on the continuity between them” (p. 111). With this definition Lively (1969) stresses the dynamic nature of marriage. Lively (1969) criticized some researchers because of the misuse of the marital adjustment concept and other related terms. According to him, they have viewed marital adjustment as if there were stages or levels of adjustment and by following a suitable course of action, it can be achieved and sustained. However Lively (1969) suggests that marital adjustment asserts the existence of some ultimate condition, rather than a continuous process. Lively (1969) further suggested that happiness is the important part of the marriage that it is to be achieved and nurtured, even

above marital stability. However, it is difficult to discriminate whether one's happiness is the result of marriage or reflect happiness with other life events. Following the same topic and considering wives and husbands are separate individuals, it is unexpected that wives and husbands agree about level of happiness. For instance, some factors that make wife happy, do not necessarily serve the same function for husband, or vice versa.

Another earlier definition of the marital adjustment comes from Locke and Wallace (1959). These researchers defined marital adjustment as “accommodation of a husband and wife to each other at a giventime” (p. 251). Burgess et al. (1963) defined a well-adjusted marriage as a

union in which the husband and wife are in agreement on the chief issues of marriage, such as handling finances and dealing with in-laws; in which they have come to an adjustment on interests, objectives and values; in which they are in harmony on demonstrations of affection and sharing confidences; and in which they have few or no complaints about their marriage (p. 294).

Burgess et al. (1963) pointed out the difficulties in measuring marital success and suggested eight related criteria to measure marital success, and pointed out marital adjustment as one of the eight criteria to evaluate marital success. The other criteria are permanence of the marriage, happiness of the husband and wife, satisfaction with the marriage, sexual adjustment, and integration of the couple, consensus, and companionship. Some of these are composite indexes that in fact contain some of the other criteria. Furthermore, Burgess et al. (1963) have raised many objections to the use of happiness as a single criterion of in judging whether the marriage is successful that is similar to the suggestions of Lively (1969). Because the happiness is a subjective concept, agreement on ratings of marital happiness between spouses is really hard. In other words, a marriage may be considered as happy for the husband but not for the wife. There is no guarantee for honesty in responding the questions about these issues, even if the respondents wish to be honest, and this may be the result of the well known tendency for the

subject to give socially desirable responses. Burgess et al. (1963) asserted that marital satisfaction also by itself is not adequate in judging whether the marriage is successful or not. Either wife or husband may be dissatisfied in a marriage regardless of the lack of conflict or incongruity, and on the other hand, both wife and husband may be highly satisfied even the marriage has unsolved problems of adjustment. For instance, being a married women may cause a women to be satisfied with marriage because of gaining social status with the marriage in the society even if she experiences many conflicts in her marriage, and a wife may prefer remaining in a unhappy marriage in order to preserve her social status in society, or not to be labeled as divorced woman in the society. Besides the happiness and satisfaction are not adequate criteria to measure the marital success, Burgess et al. (1963) claim that if one single criterion is to be used, adjustment by itself is probably the most satisfactory measurement of success in marriage.

Kolb (1950) presents a picture of the “successful” marriages emerging from the marital adjustment studies. According to Kolb (1948) in successful marriages, the spouses describe themselves as being happy, the couple agrees on what decisions need to be made within the family. Furthermore, the spouses agree on leisure-time preferences and participate in their outside activities together. There is affection and confidence between them, and finally the spouses are satisfied with their marriage.

Hicks and Platt (1970) reviewed the research focusing on marital stability and happiness in 60s, and have suggested social, personality, and demographic variables were critical for marital happiness or stability. In the Hicks and Platt’s (1970) research, happiness was referred as the subjective feelings about the state of marriage-whether this was labeled as happiness, satisfaction, success, or adjustment. These researchers criticize the acceptance of marital happiness and stability in the literature as interdependent two norms since the interdependency of these two marital norms of marriages means that, happiness leads to stability, and unhappiness leads to instability. Hicks and Platt (1970) suggest that although

many researches show instability may lead to unhappiness, data, which suggests stability may be independent of happiness, is emerging to contradict the previously held beliefs in the area. In their review, Hicks and Platt (1970) reported that income, higher occupational status, educational level for husband, affectional rewards such as sexual enjoyment, esteem for spouse, companionship, age at marriage, husband and wife similarities such as religion, age and socioeconomic status were all correlated with marital happiness and stability.

Spanier (1976) also pointed that there was lack of consensus on the meaning of marital adjustment and the other related variables. Spanier (1976) defined dyadic adjustment as a process of movement along a continuum which can be evaluated at any point in time on a dimension from well adjusted to maladjusted, and dyadic adjustment is based on the degree of dyadic differences that cause trouble, interpersonal tension and personal anxiety, dyadic cohesion, dyadic satisfaction, and general agreement on matters of importance to dyadic functioning. This definition is acceptable for both marital relationships and other relationships. By reviewing literature and based on this definition, Spanier (1976) developed a scale for the measurement of dyadic adjustment that includes subscales of dyadic satisfaction, dyadic cohesion, dyadic consensus and affectional expression in order to provide a richer view of marriage than simple satisfaction measures provided, along with measuring quality and stability. Spanier and Lewis (1980) reviewed the literature related with the marital quality in seventies and also noted the continued definitional ambiguity of such concepts as adjustment, quality, satisfaction, and happiness. Based on this review, it is suggested that high marital quality was related to good adjustment, a high level of marital happiness, adequate communication, integration, and a high level of marital satisfaction.

In the light of these studies, it can be claimed that the quality of marital relationship, their predictors, and stability have been the target of much attention in the social sciences. Research about the concept of marital adjustment has grown out of various positions that make an effort to describe and clarify the

underlying factors that contribute to marital quality. Moreover, it is obvious that marital adjustment, marital satisfaction, marital happiness, and marital stability are all related terms, and they are all important to achieve success in marriage. Furthermore, based on this literature review, marital adjustment was shown to be affected by different factors and in this study, another possible variable, values, will be depicted as being related to marital adjustment. The following section will demonstrate the association between values and marital adjustment.

1. 3. Marital Adjustment and Value Similarity of Spouses

According to several studies, value similarities are related with the marital adjustment of spouses (Burgess et al., 1963; Hunt, 1978; Medling & Mccarrey, 1981; Murstein, 1970; Nimkoff & Grigg, 1958; Skaldeman & Montgomery, 1999a). One of the earlier research linking the values with the family system was reported by Burgess et al. (1963). Burgess et al. (1963) defined family as a group of individuals combined by ties of marriage, blood or adoption that constitute a sole household, who interact and communicate with each other in their respective social roles as husband and wife, mother and father, brother and sister, son and daughter, and further create and preserve a common culture. Burgess et al. (1963) examine family unity based on its components which are “mutual affection”, “emotional interdependence”, “sympathetic understanding”, “temperamental compatibility”, “consensus on values and goals”, “family events, celebrations, and ceremonies”, “interdependence of family roles”, “sexual behavior”, and “pressures by the enviroing society”. Consensus on values and objectives suggest the sharing of values, objectives, and attitudes with family members. Harmony between husband and wife includes molding together behavior patterns that were attained in the years before they have met. Burgess et al. (1963) also claim that in communication, one imaginatively considers the values, objectives, and attitudes that are reflected in the behavior, and if this continues on for longer time periods, then values, objectives, and attitudes of the individuals will be shaped to the point where they are shared by other family members. The

researchers also added that if communications between family members have substantially dissimilar values, objectives, and points of view, then disagreement, disunity, and conflict will occur. According to Burgess et al. (1963) spouses may have different economic and educational status, different cultural backgrounds, different values and attitudes toward a wide variety of things; however the important thing is how spouses handle these differences. Some of these differences may cause slight or no interpersonal difficulties. On the other hand, some other difficulties may disrupt, cause conflict in family stability, unless the one of the spouses or both are tolerant or willing to accommodate (Bell, 1971; Burgess et al., 1963).

Wolman (1986) asserts that historically, families teach values to its members, and that contribute to shape achievement of identity and personalities, and through the development of the individual, personal values become integrated with social values. Moreover, there are value differences between females and males based on their socialization practices that if these differences are acknowledged such integration of these differences will provide social and individual improvement on conflict resolution and human development. Nevertheless, the value differences that may create two different poles of values might produce conflictual behaviors and in the long run cause dysfunctional relationships. Wolman (1986) also suggest that varied factors contribute to dysfunctional marriages, and these factors appear to be associated with the differences in the value system held by the spouses (cited in, Mekhoubat 1993). Rokeach (1973) claims that correspondence of the spouses' personal and social values tend to strengthen their relationship, improve communication, and increase their ability to solve conflicting problems.

Another researcher, Blood (1969), also illustrates the significance of value compatibility among couples. Blood (1969) claims that value harmony is satisfying because it makes one feel accepted by the other person. Moreover, when values are similar, conversation flows more easily due to the comfortable feelings created by common attitudes. Blood (1969) also suggests that the role of

value consensus in promoting relationships is important for both same-sex and cross-sex relationships. However, disagreements in the value hierarchies of the couples cause conflictual situations especially in young families, and in this situations ability to resolve conflict play a crucial role in marriages (Kalmykova, 1984).

Burgess et al. (1963) argue that there are two tendencies for a selecting mate: one is, the tendency to choose others with similar characteristics with the self, the other one is, the tendency to choose others with dissimilar characteristics with the self. The first one is called as “homogamy” or “assortative mating”; the second one is called as “heterogamy”. Couples are attracted to each other both by similarities and by differences. Burgess et al. (1963) questioned which of these tendencies are highly probable in mate selection, whether selecting those with similar or those with dissimilar characteristics; and they reported that approximately a hundred studies had been made in married couples and “...in every case, with the exception of a few early inquiries using questionable methods, it was found that every difference over chance expectation was in the direction of homogamy rather than of heterogamy...” (p. 253). Coombs (1961, 1966) suggests that consistent with the view of homogamy perspective, value similarity fosters reciprocally rewarding interaction, and this make the interpersonal attraction possible. The explanation for a large variety of human behavior, including mate selection, lies in the concept of human values. Coombs (1961) also claims that emotional satisfaction is achieved in association with values. In order to attain emotional satisfaction, it appears reasonable to expect that individuals will seek informal social relationships with those who do not criticize their basic values and thus provide emotional security and a sense of being right. In these compatible relationships, individuals are most of the time those who “feel” the same way about the “important” things in their life, in other words, those can be claimed to be the ones who hold similar values. According to Coombs (1961), having similar values leads individuals to get closer to each other both spatially and psychologically, and this creates a strong potential to select

among the ones with similar values. For example, an individual may want to marry someone who shares the same religious domination because religious values may be an important part of the self for this individual. Coombs (1961) asserts that homogamy can be measured by a variety of social, psychological and even physical factors, and researches illustrate varying frequencies of homogamy when measured according to these different factors. These variations can be the result of the different degrees of importance attributed to different values (since some characteristics are more commonly valued by the population than others). The tendency toward homogamy is likely to diminish for characteristics that are not valued so commonly in society (Coombs, 1961). Finally, Coombs (1961) suggests that value system of the individuals, either consciously or unconsciously, serves as criteria as for mate selection.

In the literature, various measures to evaluate value similarity of spouses have been used with a variety of samples. Moreover, various value types were studied in marital relationships or friendships, thus, making difficult to compare the results of the studies. For instance, Coombs (1966) studied the interpersonal attraction and satisfaction of partners among dating couples in terms of them sharing similar values or perceiving themselves as sharing similar value orientations. Coombs (1966) measure objective (actual) value consensus by comparing partner preferences for one another relating to “campus popularity”, “good-looks”, “fraternity membership”, “stylish clothes”, and “dancing ability”. Coombs (1966) found that partner satisfaction was enhanced when an individual perceived the partner as valuing him/her, and was able to communicate easily with the partner; and further it is revealed that value consensus enhances communication ease and partner satisfaction, that is also consistent with the homogamy perspective. Coombs (1966) states that while stating that value consensus fosters rewarding interaction, promotes emotional satisfaction and enhances communication ease, this does not rule out the possibility that a relationship bonds that attach the spouses to each other may develop between

dissimilar individuals. However, Coombs (1966) suggests that these kinds of relationships are less probable to occur spontaneously or to persist for a long time.

Cole (1973) also studied the value similarity of the married spouses and its effect on marital adjustment using the perspective of homogamy theory. Cole (1973) constructed a scale to measure values of spouses that includes values regarding the family, fashionable clothing, value of improving the family's position in the community, considering spouse's desires when making decision, remaining independent of relatives, constantly learning and reading new things, privacy, making decisions independently, what's going on around the world, believing in God, having spouses share hopes, desires and disappointments and so on. Thus, the researcher found that value similarity was significantly related to the marital adjustment of wives, husbands, and of couples as a whole. He also found that homogamy enhanced marital adjustment moderately when religion and values were considered, but was not a factor for age or education. One of the earlier studies linking a theory of values to dyadic adjustment was reported by Murstein (1970) who hypothesized that couples would verbally explore value convergence and be attracted to partners who had similar values. The aim of the study was to find out the degree of importance role compatibility based on value congruence had in choosing a marital partner. According to the results of Murstein's (1970) study, marital choice is dependent on value similarity.

Medling and Mccarrey (1981) studied the Rokeach's instrumental and terminal value types and suggest that value similarities have greater influence on marital adjustment in the latter years of marriage than in its earlier years. In their study, it is found that terminal and instrumental values together serve as a predictor set for marital adjustment in their sample. Those values characterized the communal space of the more adjusted couples, and called as "reciprocal values" that motivates spouses to work for establishment and maintenance of marriage. In another study conducted by Craddock (1980), it was found that couples, who possessed heterogeneous values, were disadvantaged when solving problems that

occurred in the marital relationships. Couples possessing heterogeneous values also spent more time in the conflict phase of problem solving indulged in a higher proportion of conflictual acts compared to the couples who possessed homogeneous values.

Mckinley (1995) also researched the value similarities of couples and its effects on marital satisfaction. After reviewing the literature, Mckinley (1995) derived ten types of values, namely *to be affectionate, to be caring, to love and take care of family, to be involved with family, to be religious, to be loyal, to carry out commitments, to be respectful, to be faithful, and to be cooperative*. The researcher found that value similarities of spouses play a crucial role in marital satisfaction.

Skaldeman and Montgomery (1999a) examined the congruence between one's own values and perceived values of one's marital partner or ex-partner. Divorce couples were used as representing the sample who lacked marital adjustment. Researchers used achievement, security, stimulation, benevolence and self-direction value types in their study. In the study, it is suggested that the perceived value congruence between one's own and the values of partner is crucial for marital adjustment in determining whether the marriage will continue or will end. It is also found that, as expected, the perceived value congruence of the married couples was higher than it was for the divorced couples. According Skaldeman and Montgomery (1999a) in dysfunctional relationships, spouses experience that their values develop in different paths being in contrast to their partner's values, however in a well-functioning relationship, the spouses experience that they develop towards a greater congruency between their own and their partner's values. Another study was conducted by Skaldeman and Montgomery (1999b) in order to test whether the positive or negative development of a marital relationship was dependent on spouses' conceptions and interpretations of the interactions between self and partner in the relationship. Researchers identified five value dimensions in the study, namely *coordination, personal satisfaction,*

altruistic values, emotional values and communication. In addition, in the study, it is suggested that reciprocal relation between the perceived importance and attainment of marital values plays a significant role for maintaining communication, satisfaction, and stability in marital relationships.

Hebb (2005) investigated the effect of value similarity among different types of relationships like female/female friends, male/male friends, romantic partners, male/female friends, and randomly paired dyads. Hebb (2005) found that, with using the Rokeach Value Survey, actual relationship pairs demonstrated greater similarity than randomly matched pairs on terminal values; however in terms of instrumental values actual pairs did not show greater similarity than randomly matched pairs. Furthermore, it was found that, actual similarity of terminal values related to satisfaction for “male/male” relationship pairs and related to male satisfaction with “romantic partners” relationship pairs. On the other hand, actual similarity of instrumental values was found to be related to dyadic satisfaction for “romantic partners” relationship pairs. Actual similarity of terminal values for male participants was strongly associated with dyadic satisfaction for “male/male” relationship pairs, and related to individual male satisfaction for “romantic partners” relationship pairs.

In the literature, some researchers prefer to study specific type of values in marital relationships. For instance, Kan and Heath (2006) study the political values of the couples. They suggest that individuals who have similar political preferences will be more likely to marry (or to date with each other) than individuals who have dissimilar political preferences. When couples remain together for a long time, their voting patterns become more concordant with each other. This may be interpreted as either couples influence each others’ voting behavior or as couples who have dissimilar preferences are more likely to split up than their counterparts. According to the results of the Kan and Heath’s (2006) study, both of the spouses give a great deal of weight to their own political values but also adjust to some extent to the values of their partners. However, economically dependent men

place almost no importance on their partners' political values. Consequently, Kan and Heath (2006) suggest that there may be a process of reciprocal accommodation within couples concerning political preferences that leads to greater harmony in the partners' preferences over time.

After reviewing the literature related with the marital adjustment and values, it can be concluded that, values, specifically value similarities of couples, are very crucial in improved marital functioning because values shape the way how couples function and communicate with each other. In the literature, it was found that, value congruence of couples tends to strengthen their relationship, increases their ability to solve conflictual problems in their marriage (Rokeach, 1973), fosters reciprocally rewarding interactions, improves communication abilities, leads individuals to get closer to each other both spatially and psychologically, and promotes emotional satisfaction (Blood, 1969; Coombs, 1961; 1966). On the other hand, differences in the value systems held by the spouses found to be associated with dysfunctional relationships (Wolman, 1986; cited in Mekhoubat, 1993). If couples have dissimilar values, it also affects their communication styles and then disagreement and conflictual behaviors may arise between couples (Burgess et al., 1963). Couples possessing heterogeneous values were seen as disadvantaged when solving problems that occurred in marriage and they also spent more time in resolving conflict (Craddock, 1980). Deriving from this notion, values can be considered as a critical factor that affects marital functioning. However, in the literature less effort is made in terms of which type of value discrepancy affect the marital adjustment in a positive or negative way. With this study, it is aimed to explore the effects of specific types of value similarities of spouses on marital adjustment. On the other hand, besides values, literature also shows that conflict resolution styles of couples are also important in marital functioning. In other words, how couples handle conflict in marriage is important in terms of maintaining a marriage. In the next section, conflict in marriages, which is related with the marital adjustment of couples, will be examined.

1. 4. Conflict in Marriages and Its Effects on Marital Adjustment

Conflict is an inevitable part of the marriage, and also of all human association, and many marriage researchers and counselors have focused on the conflict and especially on how conflict gets resolved in marriage (Christensen & Heavey, 1990; Fincham & Beach, 1999; Glick & Gross, 1975; Gottman, 1993; Gottman, Markman, & Notarius, 1977; Greeff & Bruyne, 2000; Kurdek, 1994a; Sprey, 1969; Straus, 1979; Vuchinich & Baryshe, 1997). Mackey et al. (2000), based on their depth-interviews conducted with each spouse, defines conflict in marriage as a state of disagreement in marital relationships that emerge from differences between spouses. Any one or a combination of issues may generate conflict in marriage, such as communication of expectations from the spouse, determining how the roles of each other to be defined, usage of finances, personality disagreements, and so on. Dhir and Markman (1984) suggest that conflict occurs when the current solutions are not satisfying for the partners. Dhir and Markman (1984) especially emphasize that couples are interdependent and this interdependency between spouses cause failure of problem-solving strategies that are required to overcome problems.

If conflict is an inevitable part of marital relationships, behavior of spouses in conflictual situations becomes distinctively important since their behavior will effect their marital adjustment or satisfaction. For instance, Gottman and Levenson (1992) assert that individuals in a successful marriage cope with the problem in a positive way and these couples have the ability to talk about the solutions of problems. In such marriages, partners care about each other, share activities, agree on basic values, accept and even support changes in the partner and in the nature of the relationship. Furthermore, successful couples practice mutual emotional closeness and high levels of physical intimacy. Gottman, Coan, Carrere, and Swanson (1998) also focused on the conflict-management styles of newlywed couples based on annual observations of these couples over a six year period. They found that divorce was predicted by the following order of

behaviors: a “negative start-up” by wives in which anger is placed at the center stage when encountering with their husbands; in response, a disavow by husbands in “accepting influence” from their wives; mutual negativity by wives and the “absence” of responses which may prohibit the escalation of negativity from the husbands. However in happy marriages, wives were able to initiate communication with their spouses by constructive expression of affect, and in response, husbands reacted by listening to their wives and accepting their “influence”. Humor helped to de-escalate negative affect and had a assuaging effect on spouses, mainly on husbands. Finally, they found that positive affect, regardless of the existence of conflict, were related with long term stability and happiness in marriages (Gottman et al., 1998).

Kurdek (1994b) also studied the relationship between marital conflict and marital satisfaction with a sample of gay, lesbian, and heterosexual couples who lived together without children. He found that regardless of type of relationship, each partner’s concurrent relationship satisfaction was strongly negatively related to the frequency of arguing. More specifically, arguments regarding power and intimacy were more undermining to the relationship than were arguments regarding personal plans, social issues, personal distance, and distrust. Cramer (2000) conducted a study to determine the effect of frequency of conflict and of conflict not satisfactorily resolved on the association between relationship satisfaction and a negative conflict style in romantic relationships. He found that, relationship satisfaction was negatively correlated with conflict, negative conflict style and unresolved conflict. Relation satisfaction was more strongly related to unresolved conflict and to negative conflict style than to conflict. He also found that, negative conflict style was significantly related with relationship satisfaction when either conflict or unresolved conflict was controlled.

Gottman and Levenson (1992) proposed a preliminary typology that separated married couples into two groups, namely “regulated” and “nonregulated” couples. Interactions of regulated couples were generally more positive than negative

compared to the interactions of nonregulated couples who had more negative than positive interactions. Gottman and Levenson (1992) added that nonregulated couples had a tendency for increased conflict engagement, defensiveness, stubbornness, withdrawal from interaction, anger, negative emotional expression, and they were less interested in their partner compared to the regulated couples. Nonregulated couples also rated marital problems as more severe and they had greater risk for marital dissolution. Gottman (1993) extended this typology, and identified three groups of stable couples (validators, volatiles, and avoiders), and two groups of unstable couples (hostile and hostile/detached). Validating and volatile couples are both labeled as engaged couples. By using the basic two groups of couples, it was found out that husbands in more stable couples showed more affection, were less angry, and complained less compared with those in unstable couples. Additionally, wives in more stable couples demonstrated more interest, more joy, less anger compared with those in unstable couples. Furthermore, in discussing a topic of relationship conflict, stable couples were more positive in their communication with one another than unstable couples, regardless of the fact that there were differences between conflict engagers and avoiders in terms of ability to actively listen to their partners. Couples who were more engaging in their conflict management style tended to show both more positive and negative emotionality (like complaining, criticism, and a high degree of positive affect). Engaged couples more easily set up a conflict argument, tended to deal with conflict openly, tended to disagree with their partners, and tried to influence one another. On the contrary, avoidant spouses are likely to show increased listener withdrawal (such as disengaging from the complaints of their partner), they tended to demonstrate little positive or negative emotion. Avoidant couples also had more trouble setting a conflict discussion, and showed less specific strategies for resolving conflict, and they are likely to prefer to pay no attention to differences or disagreements.

As previously mentioned Gottman (1993) defined two types of engaging couples: validating and volatile couples. Validating couples were intermediate in

expressing their emotions, had conversations including conflict, but are mainly portrayed by ease and calm. Additionally, the partners in such a relationship have increased understanding and acknowledgement of expressed feelings due to the increased verbal and nonverbal communication with each other. Regardless of the fact that there resides some dissidence in their relationship, they are capable of handling the problem cooperatively. On the other hand, volatile couples demonstrated a great deal of both positive and negative affect in their marriages. For instance these couples showed a lot of negativity in their interactions, in addition to a lot of humor and affection. These couples were less engaged listeners, displayed more tension, assented less, demonstrated more positive affect than validating couples. In sum, volatile couples were both more positive and negative compared with validating couples. Hence, Gottman (1993) proposed a balance theory of marriage that explores the idea that three distinct adaptations exist for having a stable marriage. These three types of stable couples (validators, volatiles, and avoiders) represented the whole range of adaptations that exist balancing or regulating positive and negative behaviors in a marriage.

In conclusion, according to the researchers, how the conflict in marriage have been handled is important in terms of maintaining a marriage. If conflict is handled in a constructive way, marital satisfaction and relationship stability will increase; however if conflict is handled destructively, the couple is doomed to bear a relatively unsatisfactory relationship (Brehm, 1992; Fincham, 2003; Gottman, 1993; Gottman et al., 1977; Gottman & Krokoff, 1989; Greeff & Bruyne, 2000; Heavey, Layne, & Christensen, 1993; Straus, 1979). The findings of Gottman et al. (1977) supported this distinction. They found that while nondistressed couples engaged in constructive conflict, distressed couples have a tendency to engage in more destructive conflict through losing focus on the topic and blaming one another. Besides how the conflict have been handled (constructively or destructively), spouses also differ in the manner in which they argue and respond to conflict (Gottman & Krokoff, 1989; Straus, 1979). At this point, communication patterns, more specifically conflict resolution styles of

spouses, play a crucial role in managing conflict. Rands, Levinger and Mellinger (1981) reported that in marriages, partners commonly had differing ways of managing conflict issues. Related with this, it may be expected for one spouse to be the competer whereas the other acts avoidently that the dissidence of each partner in a couple may in fact designate their complementarity. Moreover, Glick and Gross (1975) assert that certain antecedent individual difference and some situational factors (for example, self esteem levels of spouses or the nature of conflict issues) most probably determine the spouses' interaction styles. In addition, these individual differences and situational factors also affect tendencies of couples to perceive disagreement as threatening or influence couples' tendencies to respond by avoiding or increasing conflict. In the next section conflict resolution styles of couples will be examined.

1. 5. Communication Patterns and Conflict Resolution Styles of Couples

Communication skills are also important in order to manage conflictual areas successfully, and to maintain long-term marital stability and satisfaction. Gottman and Krokoff (1989) assert that deficiency in communication and problem-solving skills result in marital distress. In other words, couples who tend to avoid conflict are less satisfied with their marriages than couples who confront conflicts. If couples avoid negotiation of conflictual issues, resolution of these conflicts will be prevented. In addition, if partners discuss conflictual issues in destructive ways this may prevent conflict resolution and may produce negative affect like anger and resentment (Christensen & Shenk, 1991). On the other, Vuchinich (1987) argues that verbal conflict is functional because it provides a catharsis, endorses open communication, establishes and preserves power hierarchies that make some group processes like decision making easier, and so on. Furthermore, Vuchinich (1987) suggests that good conflict management must permit enough conflict for these functions to be realized, and this partly explicates why conflict is a routine part of family interaction. Nondistressed families, which are not experiencing severe problems and ask for professional help, have leveled out the equilibrium

between positive functions and destructiveness of the conflict hence increase the functioning of their relationships. In a similar vein, Sprey (1969) also indicates that a certain degree of conflict may in fact help to reinforce harmony and in general may alleviate the boredom caused by excessive marital consensus. Moreover, Straus (1979) states that if conflict is suppressed, it may cause dullness and a failure to adapt to changing circumstances and/or hamper the bond of group unity because of the accumulation of hostility.

Dhir and Markman (1984), however assert that before focusing on communication and problem-solving skills between spouses at the behavior level, focusing on the role of discrepancies at a cognitive level is more important for understanding and helping couples in conflict. If couples are not aware of the source of their misunderstandings, then communication training is not sufficient to solve the conflictual situation. On the contrary, focusing on communication behavior in these conditions may actually aggravate the conflict rather than solving the problem.

Gottman and Krokoff (1989) conducted a longitudinal study of marital interaction to investigate communication patterns in conflictual situation. They found that although some marital interaction patterns, like conflict engagement, disagreement of spouses, and expressions of anger were associated negatively with the concurrent marital satisfaction, they might not be harmful in the long run. In other words they may be functional for a marriage longitudinally. Nevertheless, some interaction patterns, such as defensiveness, stubbornness, and withdrawal from interaction (of especially husband), were labeled as dysfunctional in terms of their effect in longitudinal deterioration of the relationship functioning. Moreover, Cartensen, Gottman, and Levenson (1995) studied the emotional climate of long-term marriages. They used an observational coding system to identify specific emotional behaviors expressed by middle aged and older aged spouses throughout negotiations of a marital problem. They found that emotional behaviors expressed by couples differed in terms of age, gender and marital satisfaction. The resolution

of conflict issues was less emotionally negative and more affectionate in older aged marriages than middle aged marriages. While husbands were more defensive than wives, wives were more affectively negative than husbands. Wives were also found more emotionally expressive than husbands, and they showed increased emotion overall such as contempt, sadness, anger, joy, and so on. Finally, they found that unhappy marriages included greater exchange of negative affect than happy marriages.

Sprecher, Metts, Burleson, Hatfield, and Thompson (1995) conducted a study to determine the relative importance of three domains of expressive interaction (namely companionship, sexual expression, and supportive communication) in predicting relationship satisfaction and commitment. According to the results of the study, these three domains were found to be related with relationship satisfaction and commitment. Especially supportive communication had the strongest association with relationship satisfaction and commitment.

In conclusion, communication skills are important in marital functioning. Researches indicate that constructive communication styles enhance the marital satisfaction (Canary & Cupach, 1988; Canary & Spitzberg, 1989; Cartensen et.al, 1995; Christensen & Shenk, 1991; Sprecher et al., 1995; Meeks, Hendrick, & Hendrick, 1998; Noller & Fitzpatrick, 1990). Noller and Fitzpatrick (1990) reviewed the research on marital communication in the 80s, and pointed out that communication patterns were important in terms of marital functioning, and based on their review of related researches, they showed that nondistressed couples reported more satisfaction and used more constructive communication styles than distressed couples. Moreover, negative communication behaviors like complaining and criticizing were seen as typical features of distressed couples. It can be concluded that poor communication skills are related with the marital distress. However if couples use more supportive communication patterns, marital satisfaction will increase. It is also crucial that verbal conflict is functional up to some point because it may provide catharsis and may endorse open

communication; hence, a balanced equilibrium between positive functions and destructiveness of the conflict increases the functioning of the marital relationships (Vuchinich, 1987). The effects of constructive and poor communication patterns on marriage were highly explained until now. Moreover, at this point, it is useful to cite about conflict resolution styles of spouses in depth since the distinctions in conflict resolution styles of spouses are related significantly with changes in subsequent marital satisfaction (Gottman & Krokoff, 1989) and with marital dissolution (Markman, Floyd, Stanley, & Storaasli, 1988).

Conflict management styles have been studied using a variety of different taxonomies in the literature. For example, Thomas (1976), determined two independent dimensions of behavior in conflictual situations (assertiveness and cooperativeness) and identified five conflict management styles according to these two dimensions namely, competing, collaborating, compromising, avoiding, and accommodating. Assertiveness involves the attempts to satisfy one's own concerns, while cooperativeness refers to the attempts to satisfy the concerns of others. Avoiding locates on the point of unassertiveness and uncooperativeness, whereas collaborating style stays on the point of assertiveness and cooperativeness. Competing is characterized with high assertiveness, and low cooperativeness. The reverse relationship is observed in accommodating. Avoiding style means that an individual has low level of concern for goals and outcomes for both the self and the other. Collaborating is characterized by a high degree of concern for goals and outcomes for the self along with the others. Competing style illustrates a high degree of concern for one's own goals and a very low concern for other. Accommodating represents a high concern for other and a very low concern for self. And finally, compromising refers a moderate level in both dimensions. Figure 1. 2 represents the total pattern of the conflict management styles postulated by the Thomas (1976). Collaborating style shows the strongest relationship with high marital satisfaction to be followed by compromising. On the other hand, avoidance is related with low levels of satisfaction (Thomas, 1976).

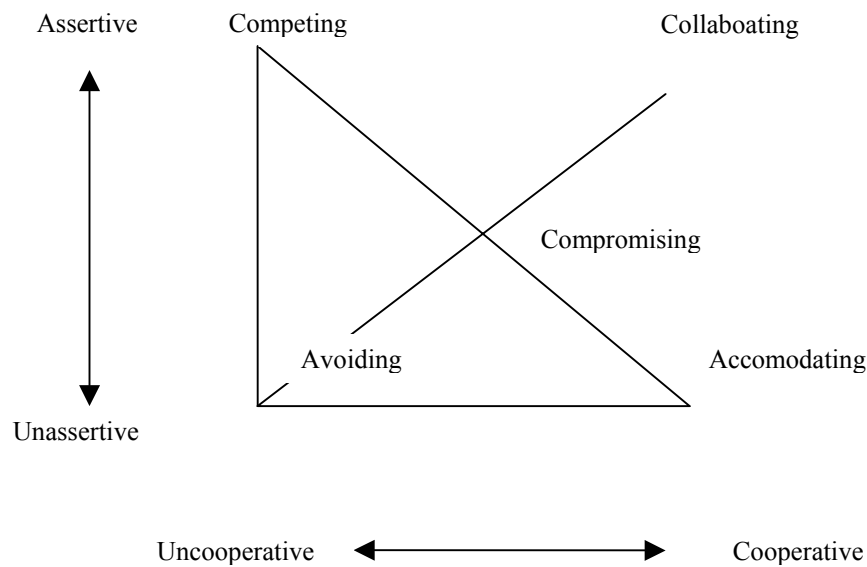


Figure 1. 2. Styles of conflict management according to Thomas (1976).

Greeff and Bruyne (2000) conducted a research with using the conflict management styles of Thomas (1976) and found that collaborative conflict management style had the highest correlation with the marital satisfaction for both males and females. Nevertheless, when both of the spouses or one of the spouses used the competitive conflict management style, the lowest marital satisfaction was reported. Greeff and Bruyne (2000) also suggested that in most of the cases, spouses in the marital couple used the different conflict management styles. However, in marriages where collaboration management style was used, generally both spouses had reported using this conflict management style.

Rahim and Bonoma (1979) after reviewing the related literature identified five conflict management styles, namely dominating, avoiding, integrating, compromising, and obliging. Two dimensions are important in determining these styles: “concern for self” and “concern for others”. While concern for self illustrates the degree (high or low) of which an individual tries to satisfy own concerns, concern for others illustrates the degree of which an individual attempts

to satisfy the needs and concerns of others. Combinations of two dimensions give rise to five specific styles of handling interpersonal conflict as shown in Figure 1. 3. Integrating is a style, which is high in both dimensions, whereas avoiding is related with low levels of both dimensions. Obliging style reflects low concern for self, but high concern for others. Conversely, dominating style is high in concern for self, but low in concern for others. Compromising involves intermediate levels of both dimensions. This taxonomy is similar to Thomas's (1976) taxonomy. In Rahim's (1983) study, it is shown that these five styles of handling interpersonal conflict is valid and reliable.

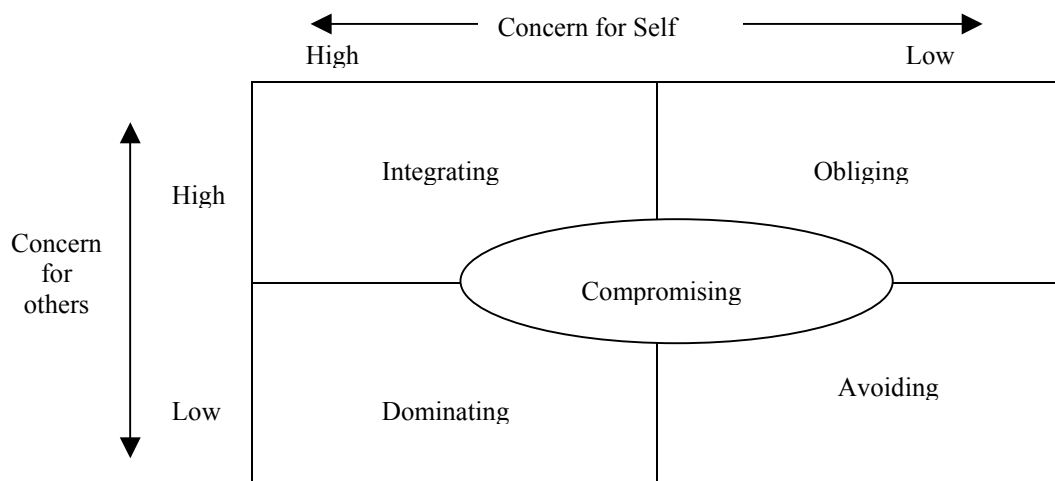


Figure 1. 3. Styles of conflict management of Rahim (1983)

Burman, Margolin, and John (1993) study the relation between conflict styles and marital interaction patterns and they identify three conflict resolution styles namely, physical aggression, verbal aggression, withdrawal. Physically aggressive couples show more assertive, hostile, and attacking behaviors. According to Burman et al. (1993) nondistressed couples may also experience conflictual interactions and express negative behavior patterns, but nondistressed couples exit these conflictual interactions more quickly than physically aggressive couples. In

addition, Burman et al. (1993) suggest that couples who use physical aggression are deficient in problem solving skills.

Rusbult and Zembrodt (1983) identified typologies with four possible responses to dissatisfaction in close relationships. These are exit, voice, loyalty and neglect. Exit is related with actively destroying the relationship (like threatening to end the relationship, getting a divorce). Voice means actively and constructively trying to improve conditions (like discussing issues, suggesting solutions, changing oneself, and seeking professional help). Loyalty refers to passively but positively waiting for situations to improve (like praying for improvement, hoping that things will get better). Neglect involves passively allowing one's relationship to get worse (like avoiding arguing problems, paying no attention to the partner). Rusbult and Zembrodt (1983) discerned two dimensions depending on these four responses, namely constructiveness vs. destructiveness and activity vs. passivity. While voice and loyalty reflect a constructive manner, exit and neglect are relatively more destructive for relationship quality. Furthermore, whereas exit and voice are active responses, loyalty and neglect are relatively passive responses (wherein one does not something about the problem).

Canary and Cupach (1988) identified three types of communication strategies, namely integrative (constructive statements), distributive (destructive statements), and avoidance strategies. Integrative strategy involves negotiating, sharing, expressing trust, collaborating and so on. On the contrary, distributive strategy includes showing anger, criticism and so on. And finally, avoidance strategy includes denying the presence of conflict, changing the focus of conversation, communicating about conflicts indirectly and ambiguously, and so on. Canary and Cupach (1988) suggested that integrative strategies were positively linked with the perception of partner's competence and communication satisfaction. In turn, partner competence and communication satisfaction contributed to the whole relational satisfaction, intimacy, control mutuality, and trust. Inversely, distributive strategies of partner were negatively related to perceived partner

competence and communication satisfaction and directly influenced the relational satisfaction, intimacy, control mutuality, and trust. Avoidance negatively and directly influenced the relational satisfaction. Canary and Spitzberg (1989) added that relation between conflict messages and relational satisfaction was mediated by competence perceptions. These researchers also claimed that while integrative strategies were positively related to competence, distributive and avoidant strategies were negatively related with competence.

After reviewing the literature related with the conflict interactions, Hojjat (2000) cites that conflict management behaviors have been categorized into two dimensions, namely activity (also labeled as engagement) and valence. Activity dimension is related with the degree in which conflict strategies are covert and indirect or overt and direct, thus this dimension determines whether one will behave actively or passively in a conflictual situation. Valence dimension is related with the degree to which conflict behaviors differ on the positive-negative continuum. While positivity refers to the equitable resolution of the conflict, negativity refers to not being concerned with an equitable resolution of the conflict. Hojjat (2000) defined four conflict management strategies based on these two dimensions: positive/active, positive/passive, negative/active, and negative/passive. In positive/active strategy, individuals behave actively in order to resolve the conflict and attain the most equitable outcome (e.g. open discussion, problem solving). In positive/passive strategy, although individuals look for an equitable outcome, they do not behave actively in resolution of the conflictual situation (e.g. wait and see). In negative/active strategy, individuals behave actively but insist on outcomes that are not equitable (e. g. coercion, abuse). And finally, in negative/passive strategy, individuals behave passively in conflictual situations and do not want an equitable outcome (e.g. avoidance, emotional distance).

Kurdek (1994a) identifies four conflict resolution styles, namely, positive problem solving (e.g. negotiation), conflict engagement (e.g. personal attacks), withdrawal

(e.g. refusing to discuss the issue further), and compliance (e.g. not defending one's position). According to Kurdek (1994a, 1995), these conflict resolution styles affect the marital satisfaction of each spouses. Kurdek (1994a) identified these four conflict resolution styles on the basis of behavioral observations enacted by Gottman and Krokoff (1989) and items were generated according to Gottman and Krokoff (1989)'s descriptions.

It is evident from the literature review that the conflict resolution styles generally can be categorized in four categories. These are active and positive engagement with the conflict, destructive handling of conflict, avoidance of it, and compliance to the partner's requests. Consequently, although conflict resolution styles are named differently by different researchers, the meanings they express are generally the same. Based on earlier explanations, in the current study, four conflict resolution styles, namely positive, negative, subordination, and retreat conflict resolution style will be used, and the meanings they express are the same as Kurdek's four conflict resolution styles. Positive conflict resolution style is related with handling conflict in a constructive way such as discussing the conflict issue and finding reasonable solutions for both partners. Inversely, negative conflict resolution style is concerned with handling conflict destructively. It also includes verbal and physical aggression. Retreat is concerned with avoiding and refusing to discuss the conflict issue or staying silent and to postpone the discussion of the issue to a later time. And finally, subordination is concerned with not defending the one's position, accept and compliance to the partner's requests.

1. 6. Researches in Turkey related with Values, Marital Adjustment, and Conflict Resolution Styles

In Turkey, researchers have separately focused on the various topics related to values, marital adjustment, and marital conflict. For instance, values were studied related with, value preferences from 1970s to 1990s in terms of cohort,

generation, and gender differences (İmamoğlu & Karakatipoğlu-Aygün, 1999); value orientations of Turkish teachers (Kuşdil & Kağıtçıbaşı, 2000) were analyzed. Marital adjustment and satisfaction was studied in terms of educational level (Fışıloğlu, 1992), loneliness (Demir & Fışıloğlu, 1999), causal and responsibility attributions (Tutarel-Kışlak, 1997), changing gender roles (İmamoğlu, 2000), religiousness (Hünler, 2002), personal thinking patterns (Günay, 2000), emphatic skills and demographic variables (Tutarel-Kışlak & Çubukça, 2002). Moreover, marital relationship was researched in terms of couples' perception of conflict (Tezer, 1986), dimensions as perceived by Turkish husbands and wives (İmamoğlu & Yasak, 1997), communication styles (Malkoç, 2001), sexism and conflict management styles (Uğurlu, 2003). Conflict resolution strategies and its relation with attachment styles also studied in romantic relationships (Bahadır, 2006).

It is useful to mention about the studies related with the current study. Malkoç (2001) and Uğurlu (2003) demonstrated that there is a significant relationship between marital adjustment and conflict management styles. For instance, Malkoç (2001) found that, consistent with the literature, low adjustment couples use more destructive communication styles than high adjustment couples. In Uğurlu's (2003) study, it was found that, in conflict situation wives used more positive-active conflict resolution styles than husbands. In addition, the negative-passive conflict resolution style of men was predicted by the education level, the frequency of conflict, the source of conflict (themselves or their partners), and hostile sexism. On the other hand, the negative-passive conflict resolution style of women was predicted by the source of conflict, the fulfillment of the wishes at the end of the conflict, and the family's income. Bahadır (2006) studied the relationship between attachment styles and conflict resolution strategies in romantic relations. The researcher found that anxiety dimension of attachment has significant direct effect on forcing, avoiding, accommodating and collaborating conflict resolution strategies. On the other hand, avoidance dimension of

attachment directly and significantly predicted avoiding, accommodating and compromising conflict resolution strategies.

In Turkey, although researchers have focused on topics related with values, marital adjustment, and conflict resolution styles of couples separately, these concepts and the relations between them were not examined. In addition, sexism, marital adjustment and conflict management styles (Uğurlu, 2003), and communication styles and marital adjustment were studied. However marital adjustment was not researched in terms of values. In the literature, it is seen that values or specifically value congruence of couples, also have important effect on marital functioning and with this study it is aimed to explore the effects of couples' value similarity on marital adjustment, as well as conflict resolution styles of couples and its effects on marital adjustment.

1. 7. Concluding Remarks and Aims of the Study

Literature shows us that values, in specifically value similarities of spouses, are very crucial in marital functioning. Values are very important because they also shape the way in which couples function and interact with each other. Many researchers study the relationship between value similarity of spouses and marital adjustment, stability, or satisfaction. And all of these studies illustrate that there is a linkage between values and marital functioning. In the literature, another factor that affects the marital functioning is conflict resolution styles of couples. Marital conflict has harmful effects on physical, psychological, mental, and family health. Deriving from this notion, it is very crucial to determine and learn the necessary and constructive conflict resolution styles in order to cope with conflict, to construct strong relationships, and to form positive communication styles in marital relationships.

In conclusion, literature provides us that there are two important factors related with the marital adjustment, that is, value similarities and conflict resolution

styles. Although studies conducted abroad researched the relationship between values and marital adjustment, and between conflict resolution styles of couples and marital adjustment, the effects of values and conflict resolution styles of couples on marital adjustment was not researched in Turkey. In this study, it is aimed to find the relationship between marital adjustment, value similarity of spouses, and conflict resolution styles of spouses. The main purposes of the thesis are as following:

Hypothesis 1: It was expected that marital adjustment of wives would be predicted by value similarities and conflict resolution styles of husbands.

Hypothesis 2: It was expected that marital adjustment of husbands would be predicted by value similarities and conflict resolution styles of wives.

Hypothesis 3: It is expected that marital adjustment of couples would be predicted by value similarities and conflict resolution styles of spouses.

Hypothesis 4: Spouses high in positive conflict resolution style and low in negative conflict resolution style would have higher scores on marital adjustment than spouses low in positive conflict resolution style and high in negative conflict resolution style.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1. Participants

In the beginning of the study, one hundred and fifty six (156 women, 156 men) couples participated in the study. After controlling the accuracy of data file (outliers, normality, linearity and multicollinearity assumptions) 16 cases were identified as outlier and these individuals and their partners were excluded from the study. Data from a total of one hundred and forty (140 women, 140 men) Turkish married couples that lived in Ankara were analyzed for the purposes of the thesis. Participants aged between 20 and 68 with a mean of 38.09 (SD=10.35). Women aged between 20 and 68 with mean of 36.13 (SD=9.99), and men aged between 23 and 67 with mean of 40.04 (SD= 10.38). The length of the marriages of the couples ranged from 4 months to 54 years. 25 of the participants (8.9%) were Atheist, 2 of them (0.7%) were Christian, and 1 participant (0.4%) was Catholic, and 252 of the participants (90%) were Muslim. 90 of the participants (32.1%) had no children, 92 of the participants (32.9%) had one child, 78 of the participants (27.9%) had two children, 18 of the participants (6.4%) had three children, and finally 2 of the participants (0.7%) had six children. 141 of the participants (50.4%) had left-wing political view, 81 of the participants (28.9%) were liberal, and 58 of the participants (20.7%) had right-wing political view. Finally, 155 of the participants (55.4%) perceived their partner as source of conflict, 125 of the participants (44.6%) perceived themselves as source of conflict. The families' monthly income ranged between 500YTL and 20.000YTL with a mean of 2.775YTL. Further details about the sample are shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1. Sample Characteristics

	Women	Men	Participants
Age(Mean; SD)	140 (36.13; 9.99)	140 (40.04; 10.38)	280 (38.09; 10.35)
Education Level (%)			
Primary School	5 (3.6 % of women)	1 (0.7 % of men)	6 (2.1 % of total N)
Secondary School	5 (3.6 %)	4 (2.9 %)	9 (3.2 %)
High School	27 (19.3 %)	20 (14.3 %)	47 (16.8 %)
Vocational School	16 (11.4 %)	22 (15.7 %)	38 (13.6 %)
University Student	9 (6.4 %)	6 (4.3 %)	15 (5.4 %)
University	57 (40.7 %)	63 (45 %)	120 (42.9 %)
Master	16 (11.4 %)	19 (13.6 %)	35 (12.5 %)
Phd.	5 (3.6 %)	5 (3.6 %)	10 (3.6 %)
Perceived Economic Class (%)			
Lower Class	25 (17.9 % of women)	27 (19.3 % of men)	52 (18.6 % of total N)
Middle Class	58 (41.4 %)	56 (40 %)	114 (40.7 %)
Upper Class	57 (40.7 %)	57 (40.7 %)	114 (40.7 %)
Political View (%)			
Left-wing	72 (51.4 % of women)	69 (49.3 % of men)	141(50.4 % of total N)
Liberal	41 (29.3 %)	40 (28.6 %)	81 (28.9 %)
Right-wing	27 (19.3 %)	31 (22.1 %)	88 (20.7 %)

2.2. Measures

The questionnaire consisted of demographic questions and three scales, namely Schwartz's Value Survey, Dyadic Adjustment Scale, and Conflict Resolution Styles Scale. Demographic measures include questions such as sex, age, age difference, occupation, religion, marriage duration, number of children, education level, income, socio economic status, and political affiliations.

2.2.1. Schwartz's Value Survey

Schwartz's Value Survey was used to measure values of the participants. Schwartz defines ten motivationally distinct types of values, namely power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, and security. Schwartz (1992) claims relationships among values can be summarized in terms of a two-dimensional structure composed of four higher-order value types. These four dimensions are "openness to change" versus "conservation", and "self-enhancement" versus "self-transcendence". Openness to change is composed of stimulation, and self-direction values. Openness to change forms a bipolar dimension with the higher order type, called conservation. Conservation includes security, conformity, and tradition value types (Sagiv & Schwartz 1995; Schwartz, 1992; Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004). Self-enhancement is composed of power and achievement value types. Self-enhancement forms a bipolar dimension with the higher order type called self-transcendence. Self-transcendence includes universalism and benevolence value types. Hedonism values share some elements of both the openness to change and the self-enhancement higher-order value types, and are located between them. Schwartz sometimes uses these four types rather than ten values to predict attitude and behavior (Sagiv & Schwartz 1995; Schwartz, 1992; Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004). These ten distinct types of values and patterns of compatibility and conflict among value types were assessed in more than 60 countries, including Turkey, and the structure of the theory has strong evidence across various cultural, linguistic, religious, and geographic groups (Kilbourne et al., 2005; Schwartz, 1992, 1994; Schwartz & Bardi, 2001; Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004; Schwartz & Sagiv, 1995). Schwartz's value scale consists of 56 value items and each of the value items is followed by a short explanatory phrase in parenthesis that specifies their meaning (Schwartz, 1992).

Schwartz's Value Survey was adapted to Turkish by Kuşdil and Kağıtçıbaşı (2000). Respondents rated the importance of each value as a guiding principle in

their life on a 9-point scale from opposed to my principle (-1) to not important (0), to of supreme importance (7). The value items were translated into Turkish by the collaboration of three bilingual Turkish social psychologists. The theoretical structure proposed by Schwartz (1992) was tested by using Smallest Space analysis. 10 values were excluded from the study. 6 of them (sense of belonging, mature love, intelligent, healthy, moderate, self-discipline) were excluded because they were located in different value types from the original format, 4 of them (a spiritual life, meaning in life, detachment, daring) were excluded because they reduced the reliability of the value types. According to the results of Smallest Space analysis 46 value items were used and the reliability of the 10 value types changed between .54 and .75. In the Turkish version of the survey, the “humble” value item was placed in the “benevolence” value type (which is located in the “tradition” value type in the original format of the Survey). “Capable” value item was located between “self-direction” and “universalism” value types (capable was located on the “achievement” value type in the original format of the Survey). “Self-respect” value item was located on the “achievement” value type (which is located in the “self-direction” value type in the original format of the Survey). The other value items were located in the same way with the original format of the Survey. The four higher types of values were specified within the structure with high levels of reliabilities. Reliabilities for “openness to change”, “conservation”, “self-transcendence”, and “self-enhancement” were .78, .81, .83, and .81, respectively.

In the present study, internal consistency was .77 for universalism, and .78 for self direction. According to Kuşdil and Kağıtçıbaşı (2000), “capable” value item was located between “self-direction” and “universalism” value types (capable was located on the “achievement” value type in the original format of the Survey). In the current study, “capable” was included in the self direction value type because it increased the reliability of the self direction value type. Internal consistency was .82 for benevolence, .78 for tradition, .69 for conformity, .77 for security, .76 for power, .74 for achievement, .62 for hedonism, .69 for stimulation. Internal

consistencies for four higher types of values, namely openness to change, conservatism, self-enhancement, and self-transcendence were .79, .88, .85, and .88 respectively. Moreover, the performed item total correlation analysis demonstrated that the range of correlation was between .50 and .66 for benevolence, between .57 and .70 for tradition, between .48 and .51 for conformity, between .41 and .66 for security, between .45 and .63 for power, between .45 and .60 for achievement, between .45 and .45 for hedonism, between .52 and .52 for stimulation, between .39 and .60 for self direction, between .22 and .59 for universalism. The range of the item total correlation was between .25 and .65 for self-transcendence higher order type value, between .38 and .73 for conservatism higher order type value, between .45 and .66 for self-enhancement higher order type value, between .38 and .55 for openness to change higher order type value (See the items of Schwartz's Value Survey in Appendix C).

2.2.2. Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS)

The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) is the most commonly used measure for the assessment of the marital relationship. It was developed by Spanier (1976) to assess the dyadic adjustment of spouses. DAS consists of 32 items (Spanier, 1976) and factor analysis indicates that the instrument measures dyadic adjustment under four components, namely dyadic satisfaction, dyadic cohesion, dyadic consensus, and affectional expression. Dyadic consensus refers to the consensus that spouses hold on issues of importance like making decisions or handling family finances. Dyadic cohesion is related with the how often spouses engage in activities jointly. Dyadic satisfaction refers to the happiness and the frequency of conflicts experienced in the relationship. Affectional expression related with the how often spouses declare love to each other.

DAS was adapted to Turkish from Fırsıloğlu and Demir (2000). The DAS is Likert-style questionnaire with 5 to 7 point response formats and the questionnaire

also includes two items that are answered in yes-no format. Spouses point out the level of agreement or disagreement in their relationship on various issues. Scores range from 0 to 151 and higher scores indicate a higher perception of the quality of the relationship. The DAS is generally used with a total score to evaluate the overall quality of the dyadic relationship. In the Turkish version of the DAS, items 16-22, 32 constitute dyadic satisfaction, items 12, 24-28 constitute dyadic cohesion, items 3, 5, 7-10 constitute dyadic consensus, and finally items 29 and 30 constitute affectional expression. In the Turkish version of the scale internal consistency was .92 that is very close to the value of the original DAS (.96) (Spanier, 1976). Reliability scores of the subscales of DAS were .83 for dyadic satisfaction, .75 for dyadic cohesion, .75 for dyadic consensus, and .80 for affectional expression. The split half reliability coefficient was .86. The correlation between the Turkish version of the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Test and the Turkish version of the DAS was .82 that indicates the high criterion validity.

In the current study, internal consistency of the dyadic adjustment scale was .92. Item total correlation was between .21 and .62 for dyadic adjustment. Internal consistencies for the sub factors, namely, dyadic satisfaction, dyadic cohesion, affectional expression, and dyadic consensus were .83, .75, .48, and .78 respectively. The performed item total correlation analysis demonstrated that the range of correlation was between .46 and .66 for dyadic satisfaction, between .39 and .57 for dyadic cohesion, between .23 and .65 for dyadic consensus, between .32 and .32 for affectional expression. In addition, in the current study, mean total score was computed for marital adjustment, and scores range from 0 to 4.72 (See the items of DAS in Appendix D).

2. 2. 3. Conflict Resolution Styles Scale (CRSS)

The conflict resolution styles of couples were measured with Conflict Resolution Styles Scale (CRSS) which was developed by the researcher since there was no reliable and valid scale to measure the issue. CRSS measures the four conflict resolution styles of each spouse, namely positive conflict resolution style, negative conflict resolution style, subordination, and retreat. The scale consists of 25 items. After reviewing the related literature, and previously used (but not validated in Turkish sample) measures of conflict resolution styles (e.g. Hojjat, 2000; Kurdek, 1994a), and with the collaboration of 5 social psychologists, 87 items were generated. These social psychologists also interviewed individuals in romantic relationships or in marital relationships so as to learn how these individuals cope with conflictual situations in their relationships in order to generate the items. These provided content coverage of the subject area, thus improving the validity of the questionnaire. Participants indicated their agreement using a 6-point scale with 1=totally disagree and 6=totally agree. The CRSS depends on the scores of the subscales; there is no total score.

2. 2. 3. 1. Participants for the Development of the CRSS

These 87 items of the CRSS and 16 items of CRSI were administered to a total of 200 dating participants (114 female 57%, 86 male 43%) aged between 17 and 36, who reside in Ankara. Their age mean was 23.13 (SD=2.96). Partners of the 164 (%82) dating participants were also dwell in Ankara, the partners of the 36 (%18) participants were dwell in another town. 33 of the participants (%16.5) live in the same house with their partner. Most of the participants were student in the Middle East Technical University.

2. 2. 3. 2. Validity of the CRSS

As mentioned in the “Communication Patterns and Conflict Resolution Styles of Couples” section, these 87 items were expected to fall into four categories, namely positive conflict resolution style, negative conflict resolution style, subordination, and retreat. Exploratory Factor Analysis with varimax rotation was performed on 87 items of CRSS. Those items that had very high correlations with one another were extracted from the study as very high correlations indicated that these items may have the same meaning as one another. The items were excluded if they were confusing; there was repetition, or potentially offensive language. In exploratory factor analysis procedure, the items having factor loading less than .40 was also eliminated from the study in order to achieve a more reliable factor structure and higher internal consistency. Finally, 87 items were dropped to 25 items. In order to understand whether these items can be regarded as indicators of four latent variables, exploratory factor analysis was computed on these 25 items and scree plot showed that four-factor solution was suitable and hence data was forced to four factors. As expected, the four-factor structure was found to be highly suitable in the study with one sub factor has 7 items, the each of the other three sub factors have 6 items. KMO and Bartlett’s test gave the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of sampling adequacy as .75, so factorability of R assumption was satisfactory. Four factors accounted for the 51.69 % of the total variance. First, second, third, and fourth factor explained the 15.22 %, 12.98 %, 12.23 %, and 11.25 % of the total variance respectively. Factor loadings of the items ranged from .54 and .78. Factor loadings of the items were very high, and the number of items in each latent variable was sufficient. Factor structure also confirmed the underlying structure of the scale this enhances the construct validity of the scale. In the study, a 4-factor structure, namely positive conflict resolution style, negative conflict resolution style, subordination, and retreat was expected, and also 4-factor structure was confirmed by the analysis. In the last version of the scale, the maximum score for the negative conflict resolution style, which includes 7 items, is 42. The maximum score for the other each sub scales

(positive, subordination, and retreat conflict resolution style), each of which includes 6 items, is 36.

In the study, in order to test criterion validity, Kurdek's Conflict Resolution Styles Inventory (CRSI) was administered to the participants. There were 16 items in the CRSI. Items were generated based on the literature review by Kurdek (1994). There are four items for each of the four conflict resolution styles (positive problem solving, conflict engagement, withdrawal, and compliance). The maximum score for the each subscale of CRSI was 20. Participants indicated their agreement using a 5-point scale with 1= never and 5=always. CRSI was translated from English into Turkish independently by two social psychology post graduates, who have a good level of English and information about the topic. Back translation method was also used; scales were back translated to English from Turkish by a bilingual social psychologists. These translations were compared and after discussing the differences in the translation necessary changes in the scale were made. Lastly, an expert from the social psychology field, and four graduate students who knows both languages well checked the translations, and final version of the translated CRSI was prepared.

Exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation for four-factor solution was run on 16 items from CRSI. Sample size was enough because there were at least 5 cases for each variable, KMO and Bartlett's test gave the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of sampling adequacy as .79, so factorability of R assumption was satisfactory. As mentioned before, according to Kurdek (1994), CRSI contains four factors, they are conflict engagement (items 1, 5, 9, 13), positive problem solving (items 2, 6, 10, 14), withdrawal (items 3, 7, 11, 15), and compliance (items 4, 8, 12, 16). As a result of PAF with varimax rotation, the present study also found four factor solution that accounted for the 60.77 % of the total variance. The results are the same as Kurdek's latent factor structure. Factor loadings of the items were ranged from .32 to .78. Results of the Exploratory Factor Analysis were very consistent with the original factor structure.

The correlation between the sub factors of the translated CRSI and generated CRSS were satisfactory and indicated there are high correlations between the sub factors of the translated CRSI and generated CRSS. The correlations between conflict engagement (from CRSI) and negative conflict resolution style (from CRSS), positive problem solving (from CRSI) and positive conflict resolution style (from CRSS), withdrawal (from CRSI) and retreat (from CRSS), compliance (from CRSI) and subordination (from CRSS) are .75, .61, .45, .39 respectively. All correlations are significant in .01 level which indicates the criterion validity of the CRSS. Moreover, as mentioned earlier before generating the items, the literature related with conflict resolution styles of couples was researched in depth and these provided content coverage of the subject area improving the validity of the questionnaire.

2. 2. 3. 3. Reliability of the CRSS

Reliability analyses were also run for the four sub factors of the CRSS. Cronbach's Alpha for the positive, negative, retreat, and subordination conflict resolution style were .80, .82, .74, and .73 respectively, and indicating very high internal consistencies. Items' item total correlations were between .47 and .67 for positive conflict resolution style, between .37 and .68 for negative conflict resolution style, between .39 and .59 for retreat conflict resolution styles, between .38 and .57 for subordination conflict resolution style. As can be seen, items' multiple squared correlations of the factors did not produce a problem because they were higher than .20. Moreover, correlations of the items were not .70 or higher than .70 so there were not be redundant variables.

CRSS was also tested by split-half reliability technique, and it was also satisfactory. As a result of the analysis, negative conflict resolution style has good alpha values for two parts (Cronbach's α for part 1= .71, Cronbach's α for part 2= .68). Split half reliability for positive conflict resolution style was .76 for

part 1, and .67 for part 2. Split half reliability for retreat was .74 for part 1, .63 for part 2. Split half reliability for subordination was .62, for part 1, .55 for part 2. Although split half reliability of the subordination sub scale was not very high, it is in acceptable level of reliability. The moderate level of the split half reliability of the sub scale was probably due to the few numbers of items in the sub scale.

2. 2. 3. 4. Results About CRSS from the Current Study

Consequently, CRSS with 25 items was considered as reliable and valid scale that measures the conflict resolution styles of couples. The results indicate that CRSS has high construct validity with high factor loadings (minimum .54), high criterion validity with significant correlations, high and moderate levels of split half reliability, and high internal consistency. As a result CRSS was administrated to the married couples in the current study.

In the present study, exploratory factor analysis with four-factor was forced to data for CRSS. The factor structure was the same as in the pilot study. KMO and Bartlett's test gave the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of sampling adequacy as .83. Four factors accounted for the 52.34 % of the total variance. Positive conflict resolution style includes items 5, 9, 11, 13, 22, and 24. Negative conflict resolution style includes items 1, 6, 8, 12, 14, 16, and 25. Subordination contains 2, 4, 7, 17, 19, and 20. Retreat contains items 3, 10, 15, 18, 21, and 23. First (negative), second (subordination), third (positive), and fourth factor (retreat) explained the 16.93 %, 13.07 %, 11.33 %, and 11.01 % of the total variance respectively. Factor loadings of the items ranged from .46 and .76. Factor loadings of the items were very high, and the number of items in each latent variable was sufficient. Cronbach's Alpha was .77 for positive conflict resolution style, .80 for subordination, .81 for negative conflict resolution style, .75 for retreat. Moreover, corrected item total correlations showed that the range of correlation was between .38 and .64 for positive conflict resolution style, between .50 and .62 for subordination, between .35 and .67 for negative conflict resolution style, and

finally between .36 and .62 for retreat. Item total correlations of the items in the subscales were all high than .20, and they did not produce a problem (See the items of CRSS in Appendix E).

2. 3. Procedure

The scales mentioned in the measures section were combined to form two separate batteries of questionnaires for wives and husbands and were placed into the same envelope in addition to the informed consent. Couples were informed that the research regarded their marital relationship, and were asked to fill in the questionnaire separately. Couples were warned to place the completed questionnaire in the envelope without looking at their partner's questionnaire. Finally, couples were thanked for their participation.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Prior to analysis, mean total scores of each scale (Dyadic Adjustment Scale, Schwartz Value Survey, and Conflict Resolution Styles Scale) were calculated. The degree of similarity in values was computed by taking the absolute value of the difference between each value type scores of wife and each value type scores of their husbands. And then, value similarities of spouses in their ratings of power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, and security values were obtained. As the difference between husband and wives value scores increase the congruence between them decreases, and as the difference in similarity scores decline, their congruencies increased. 0 indicating perfect congruence of the rank ordered values between wives and husbands. Marital adjustment scores of couples were computed by taking the mean total score of husbands' and wives' marital adjustment scores. The use of couples' scores has been offered to be greater to the use of individual scores since they better reflect the existing state of the marital relationship (Spanier, 1976).

3. 1. Descriptive Information about the Study Variables

When spouses' mean scores of value types were observed, it was found that the participants, generally, did not give importance to stimulation value ($M= 3.20$, $SD=1.77$) when compared to other value types. The participants generally demonstrated high endorsement on security value type ($M= 5.67$, $SD=1.14$), benevolence ($M= 5.54$, $SD=.89$), universalism ($M= 5.45$, $SD=.84$), self-direction ($M= 5.32$, $SD=.94$) value types (see Table 3.1). Value scores of women and men were also separately examined. Wives generally demonstrated high endorsement on security ($M= 5.76$, $SD=1.13$), benevolence ($M= 5.63$, $SD=.81$), universalism

($M = 5.47$, $SD = .82$), conformity ($M = 5.39$, $SD = 1.22$), self-direction ($M = 5.26$, $SD = .95$), achievement ($M = 5.16$, $SD = 1.07$), hedonism ($M = 5.14$, $SD = 1.18$) value types. However they did not give much importance to stimulation value ($M = 3.10$, $SD = 1.80$) when compared to other value types. On the other hand, husbands, generally, did not give importance to stimulation value ($M = 3.20$, $SD = 1.74$) when compared to other value types. It was also observed that husbands did not give importance to tradition value ($M = 3.33$, $SD = 2.00$). Husbands generally demonstrated high endorsement on security ($M = 5.58$, $SD = 1.14$), benevolence ($M = 5.46$, $SD = .96$), universalism ($M = 5.43$, $SD = .87$), self-direction ($M = 5.37$, $SD = .93$), hedonism ($M = 5.24$, $SD = 1.20$) value types, as can be seen from Table 3.1. Moreover, one way ANOVA was conducted in order to see whether a significant difference between men and women in terms value types. There was only a significant difference between men and women in terms of conformity value type, $F(1, 279) = 5.082$, $p < .05$. Women ($M = 5.39$, $SD = 1.22$) demonstrated higher endorsement on conformity value type than men ($M = 5.04$, $SD = 1.35$).

Spouses in the sample, generally showed high levels of marital adjustment ($M = 3.46$, $SD = .55$) since the highest point from the scale was 4.72 (see Table 3. 1). When the marital adjustment scores of women and men were examined separately, there was no significant difference between men and women.

The data was also examined in terms of conflict resolution styles of couples. Spouses in the sample, in general, tended to use positive conflict resolution style ($M = 4.51$, $SD = .85$) and showed moderately tendency to use subordination ($M = 3.59$, $SD = 1.03$) and retreat ($M = 3.70$, $SD = 1.08$) conflict resolution styles. They also had a lower tendency to use negative conflict resolution style ($M = 2.42$, $SD = 1.01$). One-way ANOVA was also conducted in order to see the main effects of gender on conflict resolution styles. According to ANOVA results, there was a significant difference between men and women in terms of positive conflict resolution style, $F(1, 279) = 11.28$, $p < .001$, (see Table 3. 1). Women ($M = 4.68$, $SD = .77$) showed more tendency to use positive conflict resolution style than men

(M= 4.35, SD=.90). The correlations among study variables are also calculated, and the correlation table is given at Appendix F.

Table 3. 1. Gender Differences among Study Variables, and Mean Scores of Participants

Variables	Participants		Women		Men		F
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	
Universalism	5.45	.84	5.47	.82	5.43	.87	.130
Benevolence	5.54	.89	5.63	.81	5.46	.96	2.644
Tradition	3.43	1.96	3.52	1.91	3.33	2.00	.646
Conformity	5.21	1.30	5.39	1.22	5.04	1.35	5.082*
Security	5.67	1.14	5.76	1.13	5.58	1.14	1.705
Power	4.31	1.33	4.35	1.30	4.26	1.37	.340
Achievement	5.08	1.08	5.16	1.07	4.99	1.09	1.581
Hedonism	5.19	1.18	5.14	1.18	5.24	1.20	.534
Stimulation	3.20	1.77	3.10	1.80	3.30	1.74	.833
Self-direction	5.32	.94	5.26	.95	5.37	.93	.950
Positive CRS	4.51	.85	4.68	.77	4.35	.90	11.28**
Negative CRS	2.42	1.01	2.46	.96	2.38	1.05	.508
Subordination CRS	3.59	1.03	3.55	.10	3.63	1.06	.444
Retreat CRS	3.70	1.08	3.79	1.06	3.62	1.09	1.660
Marital Adjustment	3.46	.55	3.44	.61	3.48	.48	.405

*df=1,279; $p < .05$, **df=1,279; $p < .001$.

3. 2. Analysis related with Hypothesis 1, 2 and 3.

In order to see the predictive power of the similarities of wives and husbands on the ratings of values, and conflict resolution styles of spouses on marital adjustment of wives, husbands and couples after controlling the effects of the demographic variables, a hierarchical (sequential) multiple regression analysis was performed. By using hierarchical multiple regression analysis, each step of independent variables was assessed by referring to what degree they statistically contributed to the multiple regression equation.

A hierarchical multiple regression make possible to analyze the relationship among a single dependent (criterion) variable and several independent (predictor) variables. Mainly, the hierarchical regression analysis produces an equation that predicts the dependent variable, and at each step hierarchical multiple regression

analysis creates a squared multiple correlation coefficient (R^2) and a standardized regression coefficient (β). R^2 enables to observe the percentage of variance in the dependent variable that is explained by the combined effects of the independent variables. β compares the relative effects of the independent variables. For example, the predictor with the largest β indicates that this predictor has the largest impact on the dependent variable (Tabachnic & Fidell, 2001).

3. 2. 1. Predicting marital adjustment of wives from value similarities of wives and husbands and conflict resolution styles of husbands (Hypothesis 1).

In a three-step hierarchical regression analysis, the unique contribution of the demographic variables, and the similarities of the spouses in the ratings of the values, and conflict resolution styles of husbands on the wives' marital adjustment were investigated. Age difference and number of children were entered in Step 1, followed by the similarities of spouses in the ratings of universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, security, power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, and self-direction values in Step 2, and followed by husbands' positive, negative, subordination, retreat conflict resolution styles in Step 3. Demographic variables which were not found significant in predicting marital adjustment of wives, husbands, and couples, were dropped from the regression analysis such as duration of marriage, income, education level of wives and husbands. Additionally, age of wives and husbands were found as a potential cause of suppressor effect since the sign of regression weights of these IVs had the opposite signs of their correlations with the DV. Suppressor variable is defined as an IV that is useful in predicting DV by means of its correlations with other IVs, hence by increasing the multiple R^2 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Thus, age of wives and husbands were also dropped from the analysis.

Value similarity of spouses and conflict resolution styles of wives and husbands were used to predict the wives' marital adjustment after the influence of demographic variables were statistically removed. The results of the hierarchical

multiple regression equation indicated that R was significantly different from zero at the end of Step 1, F value was $F(2, 123) = 6.760$, $p < .005$ meaning that the demographic variables were statistically significant in predicting the wives' marital adjustment, as can be seen from Table 3. 2. The change in squared multiple correlation coefficient (R^2) was .090 (Adjusted $R^2 = .077$, $SD = .58$), indicating that .077 of the variance in marital adjustment of wives is accounted uniquely by demographic variables (age difference and number of children). Coefficients of number of children and age differences of spouses were negatively associated with the wives' marital adjustment. However, as can be seen in Table 3. 2, only the number of children was found significant in predicting the marital adjustment of wives, $\beta = -.296$, $t = -3.626$, $p < .001$, however, age differences of spouses was not found significant ($\beta = -.048$, $t = -.594$, n.s) in predicting the marital adjustment of wives.

In Step 2, similarities of the wives and husbands in the ratings of values were entered into the equation. The addition of this second block of variables created a significant effect and the change in the F value was $F(10, 123) = 2.552$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .242$ (Adjusted $R^2 = .171$, $SD = .55$). The second block of variables was statistically significant in predicting the wives' marital adjustment. The change in R^2 at this second step was .152; meaning that .152 of variance is accounted for uniquely by the inclusion of the universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, security, power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, and self-direction value type similarities of wives and husbands and it was significant, as can be seen from Table 3. 2. Same as in the first step, number of children significantly negatively ($\beta = -.242$, $t = -3.047$, $p < .005$) associated with wives' marital adjustment. In addition, standardized coefficients (β) and t values indicated that tradition ($\beta = -.185$, $t = -2.278$, $p < .05$), hedonism ($\beta = -.202$, $t = -2.401$, $p < .05$), and stimulation ($\beta = -.161$, $t = -1.939$, $p < .05$, at marginal level) value type similarities of spouses predicted wives' marital adjustment. The negative coefficients of the value types means that tradition, hedonism, and stimulation value type similarities of wives and husbands predicted wives' marital adjustment positively (Because as the

difference between husband and wives value scores increase the congruence between them decreases, and as the difference in similarity scores decline, their congruencies increased). Power value type similarity of spouses ($\beta = .195$, $t = 2.288$, $p < .05$) significantly predicted wives' marital adjustment, meaning that power value type similarity of wives and husbands predicted wives' marital adjustment negatively. Universalism, benevolence, conformity, security, achievement and self-direction value type similarities of spouses were not found significant in predicting the wives' marital adjustment.

In Step 3, husbands' positive, negative, subordination, retreat conflict resolution styles were entered into the equation. The addition of this third block of variables created a significant effect. After Step 3, with all IVs in the equation, the change in the F value was $F(4, 123) = 4.553$, $p < .005$, $R^2 = .340$ (Adjusted $R^2 = .254$, $SD = .52$). The third block of variables was statistically significant in predicting the marital adjustment of wives. The change in R^2 at this second step was .098; indicates that .098 of variance is accounted for uniquely by the inclusion of husbands' positive, negative, subordination, retreat conflict resolution styles and it was significant (see Table 3. 2). Number of children significantly negatively ($\beta = -.233$, $t = -2.966$, $p < .005$) predicted the wives' marital adjustment. Stimulation ($\beta = -.166$, $t = -2.076$, $p < .05$) and hedonism ($\beta = -.213$, $t = -2.641$, $p < .01$) value type similarities of spouses predicted wives' marital adjustment. The negative coefficients of hedonism and stimulation value type similarities of wives and husbands mean that hedonism, and stimulation value type similarities of spouses predicted the wives' marital adjustment positively. Power value type similarity of spouses ($\beta = .189$, $t = 2.304$, $p < .05$) significantly predicted the wives' marital adjustment, meaning that power value type similarity of spouses predicted wives' marital adjustment negatively. Universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, security, achievement, and self-direction value type similarities of wives and husbands were not found significant in predicting wives' marital adjustment. Although, the third block of variables was statistically significant in predicting the marital adjustment of wives, when the unique contributions of variables (β) were

examined, only husbands' negative ($\beta = -.232$, $t = -2.529$, $p < .05$) conflict resolution style was found significant in predicting the wives' marital adjustment.

Table 3. 2. Predicting wives' marital adjustment from value similarities of spouses and conflict resolution styles of husbands

Variables	Model 1				Model 2				Model 3			
	<i>B (SE)</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>B (SE)</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>B (SE)</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
agediff.	-.001 (.00)	-.048	-.594	n.s.	-.001(.00)	-.048	-.618	n.s.	-.001 (.00)	-.076	-1.014	n.s.
children	-.176 (0)	-.296	-3.626	.000	-.144 (.05)	-.242	-3.047	.003	-.139 (.05)	-.233	-2.966	.004
s.universalism					-.080 (.10)	-.079	-.801	n.s.	-.068 (.10)	-.067	-.705	n.s.
s.benevolence					.119 (.10)	.131	1.344	n.s.	.130 (.09)	.143	1.531	n.s.
s.tradition					-.100 (.04)	-.185	-2.278	.024	-.069 (.04)	-.128	-1.594	n.s.
s.conformity					-.055 (.06)	-.080	-.874	n.s.	-.042 (.06)	-.062	-.706	n.s.
s.security					-.033 (.08)	-.038	-.417	n.s.	-.060 (.08)	-.069	-.783	n.s.
s.power					.121 (.05)	.195	2.288	.024	.117 (.05)	.189	2.304	.023
s.achievement					-.084 (.06)	-.125	-1.306	n.s.	-.098 (.06)	-.145	-1.599	n.s.
s.hedonism					-.124 (.05)	-.202	-2.401	.018	-.131 (.05)	-.213	-2.641	.009
s.stimulation					-.081 (.04)	-.161	-1.939	.055	-.083 (.04)	-.166	-2.076	.040
s.selfdirection					.041 (.09)	.047	.460	n.s.	.084 (.09)	.098	.987	n.s.
h.postive									.013 (.06)	.019	.217	n.s.
h.negative									-.134 (.05)	-.232	-2.529	.013
h.subordination									.043 (.05)	.075	.804	n.s.
h.retreat									.082 (.05)	.148	1.747	n.s.
R		.300					.492				.583	
R ²		.090					.242				.340	
Adj. R ²		.077					.171				.254	
R ² Change		.090					.152				.098	
F Change in R ²		6.760*					2.552**				4.553***	
Sig. F Chance		.002					.008				.002	

* df=2,123, **df=10,123, ***df=4,123. Predictors= Age differences of spouses and number of children, universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, security, power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, and self-direction value similarities of spouses, positive CRS of husbands, negative CRS of husbands, subordination CRS of husbands, retreat CRS of husbands.

3. 2. 2. Predicting marital adjustment of husbands from value similarities of wives and husbands and conflict resolution styles of wives (Hypothesis 2).

In a three-step hierarchical regression analysis, the unique contribution of the demographic variables, and similarity of the spouses in ratings of the values, and conflict resolution styles of wives on the husbands' marital adjustment were also examined. Age difference of spouses and number of children were entered in Step 1, followed by the wives and husbands' similarities in universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, security, power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, and self-direction values in Step 2, and followed by wives' positive, negative, subordination, retreat conflict resolution styles in Step 3. However the results of the hierarchical multiple regression equation showed that R was not significantly different from zero at the end of Step 1, Step 2 and Step 3; meaning that demographic variables, value similarities of spouses, and conflict resolution styles of wives did not play a significant role in predicting marital adjustment of husbands.

3. 2. 3. Predicting marital adjustment of wives and husbands from value similarities of wives and husbands and conflict resolution styles of spouses (Hypothesis 3).

In a three-step hierarchical regression analysis, the unique contribution of the demographic variables, and similarities of the spouses in the ratings values, and conflict resolution styles of spouses on the couples' marital adjustment were investigated. Age difference of spouses and number of children were entered in Step 1, followed by the wives and husbands' similarities in universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, security, power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, and self-direction values in Step 2, and followed by wives' positive, negative, subordination, retreat conflict resolution styles, and husbands' positive, negative, subordination, retreat conflict resolution styles in Step 3.

Value similarity of wives and husbands and conflict resolution styles of spouses were used to predict the couples' marital adjustment after the influence of demographic variables were statistically removed. The results of the hierarchical multiple regression equation indicated that R was significantly different from zero at the end of Step 1, F value was $F(2, 119) = 5.478, p < .005$, meaning that the demographic variables were statistically significant in predicting the marital adjustment of wives and husbands, as can be seen from Table 3. 3. The change in squared multiple correlation coefficient (R^2) was .074 (Adjusted $R^2 = .061$, $SD = .47$), this points out that .061 of the variance in marital adjustment of wives and husbands is accounted uniquely by demographic variables (age difference and number of children). As can be seen from Table 3. 3, age differences of wives and husbands ($\beta = -.017, t = -.204, n.s$) was not found significant in predicting couples' marital adjustment. On the other hand, number of children ($\beta = -.272, t = -3.303, p < .01$) was found significant in predicting couples' marital adjustment.

In Step 2, value similarities of wives and husbands in the ratings of values were entered into the equation. The addition of this second block of variables created a significant effect and the change in the F value was $F(10, 119) = 2.587, p < .01, R^2 = .231$ (Adjusted $R^2 = .158, SD = .45$) meaning that the second block of variables were statistically significant in predicting the couples' marital adjustment. The change in R^2 at this second step was .157; indicating that .157 of variance is accounted for uniquely by the inclusion of the universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, security, power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, and self-direction value type similarities of wives and husbands and it was significant (see Table 3. 3). Same as in the first step, number of children significantly negatively ($\beta = -.213, t = -2.663, p < .01$) associated with couples' marital adjustment. Tradition ($\beta = -.177, t = -2.171, p < .05$), hedonism ($\beta = -.237, t = -2.800, p < .01$), and stimulation ($\beta = -.181, t = -2.168, p < .05$) value type similarities of spouses predicted wives' and husbands' marital adjustment, meaning that tradition, hedonism, and stimulation value type similarities of wives and husbands

predicted couples' marital adjustment positively. Power value type similarity of spouses ($\beta = .163$, $t = 1.901$, $p < .06$) significantly predicted couples' marital adjustment at marginal level, meaning that power value type similarity of wives and husbands predicted marital adjustment of couples negatively. Universalism, benevolence, conformity, security, achievement and self-direction value type similarities of spouses were not found significant in predicting couples' marital adjustment.

In Step 3, wives' positive, negative, subordination, retreat conflict resolution styles, and husbands' positive, negative, subordination, retreat conflict resolution styles were entered into the equation. The addition of this third block of variables created a significant effect. After Step 3, with all IVs in the equation, the change in the F value was $F(8, 119) = 4.477$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .409$ (Adjusted $R^2 = .309$, $SD = .40$); meaning that the third block of variables was statistically significant in predicting the marital adjustment of wives and husbands. The change in R^2 at this second step was .178; and .178 of variance is accounted for uniquely by the inclusion of wives' positive, negative, subordination, retreat conflict resolution styles, and husbands' positive, negative, subordination, retreat conflict resolution styles and it was significant. As can be seen from Table 3. 3, number of children ($\beta = -.147$, $t = -1.916$, $p < .06$) was significant in predicting couples' marital adjustment at marginal level. Hedonism ($\beta = -.217$, $t = -2.693$, $p < .01$) value type similarities of spouses predicted couples' marital adjustment. More specifically, hedonism value type similarities of couples predicted couples' marital adjustment positively (Because as the difference between husband and wives value scores increase the congruence between them decreases, and as the difference in similarity scores decline, their congruencies increased). At the third step, only wives' negative ($\beta = -.238$, $t = -.831$, $p < .005$) and husbands' negative ($\beta = -.195$, $t = -2.031$, $p < .05$) conflict resolution styles were found significant in predicting marital adjustment of wives and husbands.

Table 3. 3. Predicting couples' marital adjustment from value similarities of spouses and conflict resolution styles of spouses

Variables	Model 1				Model 2				Model 3			
	<i>B (SE)</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>B (SE)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>B (SE)</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
agediff.	.000 (.00)	-.017	-.204	n.s.	.000 (.00)	-.025	-.312	n.s.	.001 (.02)	-.060	-.816	n.s.
children	-.130 (.04)	-.272	-3.303	.001	-.102 (.04)	-.213	-2.663	.009	-.070 (.04)	-.147	-1.916	.058
s.universalism					-.073 (.08)	-.090	-.906	n.s.	-.071 (.08)	-.087	-.934	n.s.
s.benevolence					.084 (.07)	.115	1.171	n.s.	.095 (.07)	.130	1.380	n.s.
s.tradition					-.077 (.04)	-.177	-2.171	.032	-.035 (.04)	-.081	-.991	n.s.
s.conformity					-.016 (.05)	-.028	-.309	n.s.	-.014 (.05)	-.026	-.312	n.s.
s.security					-.046 (.06)	-.066	-.713	n.s.	-.049 (.06)	-.071	-.805	n.s.
s.power					.081 (.04)	.163	1.901	.060	.057 (.04)	.115	1.441	n.s.
s.achievement					-.062 (.05)	-.116	-1.206	n.s.	-.048 (.05)	-.089	-.962	n.s.
s.hedonism					-.116 (.04)	-.237	-2.800	.006	-.107 (.04)	-.217	-2.693	.008
s.stimulation					-.073 (.03)	-.181	-2.168	.032	-.052 (.03)	-.128	-1.629	n.s.
s.selfdirection					.080 (.07)	.117	1.124	n.s.	.107 (.07)	.156	1.595	n.s.
w.positive									.058 (.05)	.092	1.052	n.s.
w.negative									-.120 (.04)	-.238	-2.831	.005
w.subordination									-.003 (.04)	-.006	-.070	n.s.
w.retreat									.025 (.04)	.054	.665	n.s.
h.postive									.049 (.05)	.091	1.036	n.s.
h.negative									-.090 (.04)	-.195	-2.031	.044
h.subordination									.045 (.04)	.100	1.087	n.s.
h.retreat									.009 (.04)	.021	.247	n.s.
R		.272				.480				.639		
R ²		.074				.231				.409		
Adj. R ²		.061				.158				.309		
R ² Change		.074				.157				.178		
F Change in R ²		5.478*				2.587**				4.477***		
Sig. F Chance		.005				.007				.000		

* df=2,119, **df=10,119, ***df=8,119. Predictors= Age differences of spouses and number of children, universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, security, power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, and self-direction value similarities of spouses, positive CRS of wives, negative CRS of wives, subordination CRS of wives, retreat CRS of wives, positive CRS of husbands, negative CRS of husbands, subordination CRS of husbands, retreat CRS of husbands.

3. 3. Analysis related with Hypothesis 4.

3. 3. 1. Comparison of spouses high in positive conflict resolution style and low in negative conflict resolution style with spouses low in positive conflict resolution style and high in negative conflict resolution style in terms of marital adjustment.

In order to compare spouses in terms of marital adjustment, positive conflict resolution style and negative conflict resolution style were classified as low and high positive conflict resolution style and negative conflict resolution style by using median split (median = 4.67 for positive conflict resolution style, and median = 2.29 for negative conflict resolution style). Then spouses who have high scores on positive conflict resolution style and low scores on negative conflict resolution style was grouped; and then spouses who have low scores on positive conflict resolution style and high scores on negative conflict resolution style was grouped. In order to compare spouses high in positive conflict resolution style and low in negative conflict resolution style with spouses low in positive conflict resolution style and high in negative conflict resolution style, ANOVA was performed.

According to ANOVA results, there was a significant difference between spouses who have higher scores on positive conflict resolution style and lower scores on negative conflict resolution style and spouses who have lower scores on positive conflict resolution style and higher scores on negative conflict resolution style, $F(1, 156) = 36.628, p < .001$. In specifically, as can be seen from Table 3. 4, spouses high in positive conflict resolution style and low in negative conflict resolution style have higher scores on marital adjustment ($M = 3.74, SD = .40$) than spouses low in positive conflict resolution style and high in negative conflict resolution style ($M = 3.25, SD = .60$).

Table 3. 4. Analysis of variance results for the main effects of conflict resolution styles of spouses on marital adjustment

Variables	Df	MS	F	Partial eta	Obs. power
PN ^a	1	9.611	36.628*	.190	1.000
Error	156	.262			
Total	158				

Note: ^a conflict resolution styles of spouses 1= low positive-high negative, 2= high positive-low negative. * p< .000.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

In the light of the literature, the main findings of the study will be discussed in this section. The main issues considered in the current study were the effects of value similarity and conflict resolution styles of spouses on marital adjustment. After evaluating the findings of the study, some limitations of the study and suggestions for future researches will be presented.

4. 1. General Evaluations of the Research Findings

4. 1. 1. Gender Differences Related with the Study Variables

In the current study, significant differences between men and women were found in terms of conformity value type and positive conflict resolution style. According to the results, women demonstrated higher endorsement on conformity value type and increased tendency to use positive conflict resolution style than men.

In the literature some researchers suggest differences in terms of values between different genders (e. g. Rokeach, 1973, Schwartz & Rubel, 2005) and some postulate no clearly attributable gender differences (e.g. Prince-Gibson & Schwartz, 1998). According to Rokeach (1973), many differences associated with sex can be found between men and women because of the different socialization processes of them in the society. He found that, men placed a significantly higher value than do women on *an exciting life, a sense of accomplishment, freedom, pleasure, social recognition, ambitious, capable, imaginative, and logical*. On the other hand, women valued more than do men on *a world at peace, happiness, inner harmony, salvation, self-respect, wisdom, cheerful, clean, forgiving, and loving*. Rokeach (1973) based these differences on different socialization

processes. While men give priority to achievement and intellectual pursuits, women are conditioned to situate a higher value on love, affiliation, and the family (communal/ expressive values). Prince-Gibson and Schwartz (1998) also studied gender differences on the importance attributed to any of 10 different types of values (power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, security). Although they had expected gender differences for eight of the ten value types (power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, benevolence, conformity, tradition), none of the differences were significant. Furthermore, they found that men and women ranked the importance of the value types identically. Both men and women give more importance to security, universalism, and benevolence; give less importance to power, tradition, and stimulation value types. Consistent with the findings of Prince-Gibson and Schwartz's (1998) research, men and women generally rated same values similarly important in the present study. These gender-related findings suggest similarities rather than differences of values between genders, and are also consistent with the research of İmamoğlu and Karakatipoğlu-Aygün (1999). However, inconsistent with the findings of the current study, in 2005 Schwartz and Rubel found that men and women varied in the importance they attribute to these ten value types, but the size of difference between men and women was quite small. Men were found to be attribute more importance to power, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, and self-direction, on the other hand women were found to attributing more importance to benevolence and universalism.

In this study the difference in the conformity value type indicates that women gave more importance to conformity value type than men. When the traditional gender roles are considered, this result may not be surprising. A tendency for women to agree more readily with others may be the result of the common attributes that are imposed on women and men through socialization. Unger and Crawford (1992) assert that men and women differ in terms of the roles they occupy, and the latter gender has roles requiring subjection, whereas males have

roles conferring authority and power. But they argue that these behaviors are not to be considered as characteristics of women and men because individuals behave in ways consistent with social expectations about the role demands. When the traditional gender roles are considered, women are expected to behave more submissively than men, hence it can be concluded that such behavior is more adaptive for women.

The other finding of the current study was that wives demonstrated increased tendency to use positive conflict resolution style than men, which is in the line with the study of Uğurlu (2003) whose findings discerned higher usage of positive-active management strategy by wives than by husbands. Earlier researches (e.g. Christensen & Heavey, 1990; Gottman & Levenson, 1988; Cartensen, et al., 1995) indicate gender differences in marital behavior in which women are found to be more confronting, and emotionally expressive both in being more positive or negative than men. On the other hand, Mackey & O'Brien (1998) suggest that there may be variations in terms of conflict styles used by men and women in the course of the marital relationship. They found that in the early and child-rearing years wives used more confrontational styles (any attempt to reflect own emotions and thoughts in a direct fashion), while husbands used more avoidance strategy. Although, in the empty nest years, wives continued to use confrontational styles more than their husbands, the difference was not significant. Mackey & O'Brien (1998) also suggest the importance of different socialization experiences between genders and its effects on conflict styles. From this point of view, when the socialization processes of females and males are considered, females are generally accepted as being relationship oriented, it being in dyadic or group level, hence are more likely to develop interpersonal skills such as sensitivity, empathy, emotional expressiveness, and nurturance since both it is adaptive and these are encouraged by society. However males are accepted as being involved in positions that requiring agency, independence, achievement orientation and aggression, hence are expected to develop the related skills

(Basow, 1992). Considering the foregoing arguments, tendency of females to use more positive conflict resolution style is not surprising.

Although the most studies of the studies in the related literature indicate that women were more dissatisfied with their marriages (Basow, 1992; İmamoğlu & Yasak, 1997; Renne, 1970), in the current study gender difference was not found significant in terms of marital adjustment which is consistent with the findings of the related Turkish studies (Demir & Fıfıloğlu, 1999; Hünler, 2000; Uğurlu, 2003) and along with the studies conducted abroad, such as Rands et al. (1981).

4. 1. 2. The Predictive Power of Demographic Variables on Marital Adjustment

The central aim of the study was to investigate the predictive effects of value similarity of spouses and conflict resolution styles of wives and husbands on marital adjustment of wives, husbands, and of them together as couples. In the current study, some demographic variables such as age differences of the spouses and number of children were also considered. In order to remove the possible covariate effects of the demographic variables, these variables were entered into the hierarchical regression at the first step. By doing so, besides eliminating the covariate effects of these variables, predictive power and unique contributions of these variables were also measured. The effects of demographic variables were measured for marital adjustment of wives, husbands and couples separately. For wives, the regression equation revealed that the total contributions of demographic variables were significant. In addition, when the unique contributions of variables were examined separately only number of children negatively and significantly predicted marital adjustment of wives in the first, second and third step. For husbands, demographic variables did not significantly contribute to the predictive power. When the marital adjustment of couples was considered, the regression equation revealed that the total contributions of demographic variables were significant in the first, second and third step.

Moreover, when the unique contributions of variables were examined separately, only number of children negatively and significantly predicted marital adjustment of couples in the first, second and third step (at marginal level in the third step). Although, age differences of spouses were negatively associated with the marital adjustment of wives and couples, it was not significant.

Generally number of children had significant negative effects on marital adjustment. Consistent with the current study, in the literature, most of the studies found that children had negative effects on marital adjustment (e.g. Hurley & Palonen, 1967; Ryder, 1973; White, Booth, & Edwards, 1986). To support the argument of present study further, Ryder (1973), using a longitudinal data, compared the childless group and child group of couples and found that children had a negative effect on marriages. In addition Ryder (1973) suggested that wives who had a child more likely to complain about the insufficient attention given to them by husbands. Houseknecht (1979) also found that voluntarily childless women scored higher in their overall marital adjustment. The findings of foregoing studies propose that taking care of children is a time and energy consuming process that this time and energy could well be allocated on working on their own relationship. Furthermore, conflict may stem from disagreements related with childrearing. For example, White et al. (1986) found that children had negative effect on marital quality by decreasing the level of spousal interaction, causing dissatisfaction with finances and division of labor, and moving the division of labor in a traditional course. Burns (1984) points out the increased housing difficulties as family becomes extended. In further analyzing the present data it was found that number of children was negatively significant in predicting marital adjustment of wives and couples; however it had no significant effect on marital adjustment of the husbands. This is in the line with the study of Spanier and Lewis (1980). They reported that mothers stated more difficulties in adjusting to their infants than fathers. Steil (1997) also suggested that while the parenthood was generally related negatively with wives' well-being, it has no negative effects on well-being of the husbands, to further support the present finding. In addition,

when the traditional gender roles were considered, wives generally take more responsibilities of the child/children than husbands. Thus, it is not surprising that number of children mostly effect marital adjustment of the wives.

In the present study, although age differences of spouses associated negatively with the marital adjustment of spouses, it was not found significant in predicting marital adjustment of wives, husbands, and couples. In line with the homogamy perspective which stresses the similarities of couples and its positive effects on mate selection and marital adjustment (Burgess et al., 1963), it would be expected that the age difference of couples would be negatively correlated with the marital adjustment. Although this finding not totally supports the homogamy perspective, it was consistent with the findings of the Cole's (1973) study in which age difference was not found significant in predicting marital adjustment. When the current data set was considered, the age difference of wives and husbands was generally small, and thus this might have caused nonsignificant effects of age differences.

4. 1. 3. The Predictive Power of Value Similarities of Spouses on Marital Adjustment

More specifically, the main purpose of the present study was to investigate the predictive effects of value similarity of spouses on marital adjustment. In the literature, it was suggested that the role of value similarity in promoting relationship is very crucial (e. g. Blood, 1969; Burgess et al., 1963; Hebb, 2005; Skaldeman & Montgomery, 1999a). In addition, disagreements in the value hierarchies of couples cause conflictual situations and in this situation ability of the couples to resolve conflict play a crucial role in marriage (Kalmykova, 1984). Deriving from this notion, values are considered to be very important in predicting marital adjustment. In the current study, effects of value similarities of spouses on marital adjustment were investigated after eliminating the covariate effects of demographic variables. Value similarities of spouses were considered to

be the major importance in predicting marital adjustment. Thus, conflict resolution styles of couples were entered in the third step in order to understand how much do these IVs (conflict resolution styles of wives and husbands) add to the multiple R^2 after IVs with higher priority (value similarities of couples) have contributed their share to prediction of the DV (marital adjustment).

To sum up, tradition, hedonism, stimulation value similarities, and power value dissimilarities positively predicted marital adjustment of wives. However, value similarities of spouses did not found significant in predicting marital adjustment of the husbands. Lastly, tradition, hedonism, stimulation value similarities and power value dissimilarities of the spouses positively predicted marital adjustment of couples. In general, the results of hierarchical multiple regression analysis demonstrated that the value similarities of spouses predicted marital adjustment of wives and couples, which was also consistent with the related studies in the literature (Brandt, 1987; Cole, 1973; Hebb, 2005; Mckinley, 1995; Skaldeman & Montgomery, 1999a). At this point, it is useful to examine the significant value type similarities separately in order to understand the meaning of value types on marital adjustment further.

Schwartz (1992) defines the motivational goal of the tradition value type as “respect, commitment, and acceptance of the customs and ideas that one’s culture or religion impose on the individual”. From this point of view, it is reasonable that the similarity of spouses in tradition value type had positive effects on marital adjustment of wives and couples. However, tradition value type similarities of spouses did not have significant effect on marital adjustment of husbands. These results illustrated that spouses’ similarity on tradition value type was more important in terms of their marital adjustment for wives than husbands. Glenn (1990), by reviewing marital quality research in 80s, provides evidence that spouses both sharing traditional gender-role values reported higher marital satisfaction, and less conflict because there is harmony about the role performance

at home. Although this study is concerned with the traditional gender role similarity, it is in the line with the findings of the current study.

According to Schwartz (1992), the central goal of the hedonism values is viewed as “pleasure or sensuous gratification for oneself”. Hedonism value similarities of spouses predicted marital adjustment of wives and couples positively, meaning that the greater the similarity of hedonism value type of spouses, the greater the marital adjustment of wives and couples. The other value type, stimulation, is defined as “excitement, novelty, and challenge in life”. Stimulation value type similarities of spouses predicted marital adjustment of wives and couples in a positive way, indicating that the greater there is similarity in stimulation value type between spouses, the greater is the marital adjustment of wives and couples. At this point since the stimulation and hedonism value types are the part of openness to change, which is a higher value type, it may be meaningful to discuss them together. Stimulation and hedonism value types include items that are more related with emotional interests and extracting enjoyment from life. For instance, stimulation value type subscale contains an exciting and a varied life value items; hedonism value type subscale include enjoying life and pleasure value items. The predictive effect of these value type similarities on marital adjustment can be explained with the help of researches related with subjective well-being. Subjective well being have affective (hedonic balance) and cognitive component (life satisfaction), and life satisfaction was found strongly related to marital satisfaction (e. g. Heller, Watson and Ilies, 2004). Hedonic balance means in general balancing between pleasant affect and unpleasant affect. Further, it may be assumed that as one leads a life in line with own wishes to acquire a balance between positive and negative life events, an individual will extract more satisfaction with the life. If in a couple, both spouses extract satisfaction from life through hedonic balance, it may be expected that this increased personal satisfaction will add to marital adjustment. It may also be expected that they may get pleasure from similar occasions, it will improve marital adjustment further. Another related study is the research done by Skaldeman and Montgomery

(1999a) that reflect the importance of similarity of stimulation value. They studied the perceived value congruence of couples, including stimulation values, and found that the perceived value congruence between own values and the values of partner was crucial for marital adjustment. As explained above, the individuals sharing values concerning openness to change but not necessarily egocentric, may be expected to have higher marital adjustment by the experiences they go through.

Motivational goal type of power values is defined as “attainment of social status and prestige, and control or dominance over people and resources” by Schwartz (1992). Similarity of spouses on power value type predicted marital adjustment of wives and couples negatively. This result was in the line with the results of Kurdek (1994b) in which the relationship satisfaction of the partner was strongly negatively associated with frequency of arguing in the area of power. In addition to this, when referring to the similarity of spouses on power value type, this means that either both spouses give importance to power value type or neither of them do so, and according to the results of the current study, under both conditions couples’ and wives’ marital adjustment was affected negatively. It can be concluded that in the case of when one spouse gives importance to power values and the other does not, this may create complementarity hence conflict may not occur. On the contrary, in the case of where both spouses give greater importance to power values, this may cause conflictual situations in their marriages, because both wouldn’t want to give up their power. This may be the result of not successfully balancing the power hierarchies. However in this situation, only the marital adjustment of the wives and in general couples was affected negatively. This may be the result of socialization process of men as discussed above. Since men are socialized to gain and exercise power values and they are also more likely to show dominance over women, the effects of similarity of this value type only have significant negative effects on marital adjustment of wives.

When the marital adjustment of husbands is considered, value similarities did not have significant effect on their marriages. This was probably due to the traditional

gender roles of men. While females are generally expected to be relationship oriented, thus encouraged to develop related skills such as emotional expressiveness and empathy, males are not expected to develop these skills, rather they are expected to be achievement oriented, to hide their emotions, and socialized to be independent. Thus males may experience great difficulty in relationships due to their inability to deal with the demands of females (Basow, 1992). In addition, Basow (1992) assert that relationship satisfaction relies on their partners' willingness to be emotionally close and communicate for women. Deriving from this notion, it may be expected that since males tend to self-disclose less, and to be less empathic and relationship oriented, similarity of their values with their partners may not have any effect on their marital adjustment. However, since women are generally give more importance to intimacy, self disclosure and willing to communicate, their value similarities with their partners play more crucial role in their marital adjustment. Based on the facts given above, males already have relational problems that restrict their capacity to become intimate, hence to share the life with their partner, it may be expected that similarity of values are less important for men to determine their marital adjustment.

In conclusion, in general value similarity of spouses predicted the marital adjustment of wives and couples which is consistent with the related studies in the literature (Brandt, 1987; Cole, 1973; Hebb, 2005; Mckinley, 1995; Skaldeman & Montgomery, 1999a). It is important to state that since the similarities of values that were previously studied by other researches generally included value types that are different the ones used in this study, it is therefore hard to compare the results of the present study with the previous findings. However in this point it is crucial to state that not the whole value type similarities have a positive effect on marital adjustment. Some value type similarities which are related with self enhancement (like power) may cause problems in marriage and thus effect the adjustment of couples.

4. 1. 4. The Predictive Power of Conflict Resolution Styles of Couples on Marital Adjustment

In the current study, besides values, conflict resolution styles of wives and husbands are also considered to be important in predicting marital adjustment of wives, husbands, and couples. Because value similarities of spouses were considered as the most important factor that affect marital adjustment, conflict resolution styles of couples were entered to the equation after eliminating the effects of value similarities of couples on marital adjustment.

When the marital adjustment of couples was considered, it was found that conflict resolution styles of wives and husbands had significant contribution in predicting marital adjustment of couples, being in line with the literature (Fincham, 2003; Gottman, 1993; Gottman & Krokoff, 1989; Heavey et al., 1993; Kurdek, 1995; Markman, Renick, Floyd, Stanley, & Clements, 1993; Ridley, Wilhelm, & Surra, 2001; Schneewind & Gerhard, 2002). However, when the unique contributions of variables were examined, it was found that only negative conflict resolution styles of wives and husbands negatively predicted marital adjustment of couples which is consistent with the study of Hojjat (2000). In that study, negative strategies were found to be negatively related to satisfaction while the positive strategies did not relate to satisfaction for men and women.

Although, when the β value of the variables were examined, positive conflict resolution styles of wives and husbands had positive contribution in predicting marital adjustment, they were not significant. According to the results, negative conflict resolution styles of wives and husbands had the greater effect on marital adjustment of couples, rather than positive conflict resolution styles. It can be suggested that although the positive conflict resolution styles of couples had an effect on marital adjustment, the effect of negative conflict resolution styles was more predictive in marital adjustment which to be supported by the literature (Gottman, 1993, Gottman & Krokoff, 1989, Heavey et al. 1993). One of the

explanations comes from Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkemauer and Vohs's (2001) study which indicates "bad is stronger than good". The researchers assert that in everyday life, the experiences considered as bad by the individual have more impact in determining the decisions and actions of the self when compared with the ones perceived as good. This phenomenon has the most important influence in personal relationships in terms of the destructive actions or communications, where it acquires significance and specific attention than the ones that are constructive, hence may extend more forcefully to relationship survival (vs. breakup or divorce). According to these researchers, it is only natural since being precautions and predicting the harmful events are more adaptive for survival and may help maximizing the good events, hence the feelings of well-being. Even though not specifically in line with the current study, Gaelick, Bodenhouse and Wayer (1985) found that negative behaviors were more easily discerned and remembered than positive behaviors, and the reason provided for this selective attention was that individuals were more sensitive to variations in the negative feelings of their partners and interpreted these feelings accurately, however they were not correct in perceiving expression of positive feelings of their partners. As a conclusion, negative conflict resolution style is expected to have increased value in predicting marital adjustment than positive one in a relationship.

If the analysis is taken a step further, to reveal the impact of own conflict resolution style on the partner, it can be seen that there are some influences beyond the marital adjustment of couples as a unit. The hierarchical multiple regression analysis revealed that conflict resolution styles of husbands have a significant effect on marital adjustment of wives after eliminating the covariate effects of demographic variables and value similarity of spouses. This finding is consistent with the study of Faulkner, Davey, and Davey (2005) in which conflict resolution styles of husbands have an effect on marital satisfaction of wives. However when the unique contributions of the variables were examined, only negative conflict resolution style of husbands has negative effects on marital adjustment of wives which is more consistent with the study of Huston and

Vangelisti (1991) in which negativity (whether expressed by the husband or wife) was related with wives' satisfaction but not husbands' satisfaction. When the same analysis was implemented to reveal the effects of wives on husbands, the results of hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed that, conflict resolution styles of wives did not have significant effect on marital adjustment of husbands, which is inconsistent with the study of Faulkner et al. (2005). Also in the line with the Faulkner et al.'s study, Kurdek (1995) suggests that husbands' marital satisfaction was more frequently affected by their wives' conflict resolution styles than wives' marital satisfaction was affected by husbands' conflict resolution styles. However in the current study, the opposite pattern occurred. On the other hand, the current study finding is in line with the longitudinal studies of Heavey et al. (1993) and Huston and Vangelisti (1991) in which relationship between marital satisfaction and conflict resolution style have been more predictive for wives than for husbands. Moreover, consistent with the current study, Gaelick et al. (1985) found that in general men were less influenced by the nature of problem-solving interactions. Huston and Vangelisti (1991), based on the literature, suggest two reasons for why negativity of husbands may have more effect on their wives than vice versa. Firstly, since the husbands having more power than wives in the marriage in a traditional manner, they may be less responsive to affective states of their wives. The second explanation was that husbands may also misunderstand or disattend to negative messages more than women. Another explanation comes from Heavey et al. (1993) that husbands may be less sensitive to changes in the relationship quality than their wives.

4. 1. 5. Comparison of spouses high in positive and low in negative conflict resolution style with low in positive and high in negative conflict resolution style.

In addition, in order to see the differences between couples who use constructive and destructive conflict resolution styles, ANOVA analysis was also conducted. Constructive conflict resolution styles was achieved by classifying couples in

terms of those with high positive conflict resolution style scores and low scores on negative conflict resolution style. On the other hand, destructive conflict resolution styles was achieved by classifying couples in terms of those with high negative conflict resolution style scores and low scores on positive conflict resolution style. As expected, it was found that, spouses high in positive conflict resolution style and low in negative conflict resolution style have higher scores on marital adjustment than spouses low in positive conflict resolution style and high in negative conflict resolution style which is in the line with the study of Malkoç (2001). Malkoç (2001) found that spouses high in marital adjustment use more constructive and less destructive communication patterns than spouses low in marital adjustment. This finding was consistent with the studies conducted abroad, when conflict is handled in a constructive way, marital satisfaction and relationship stability will increase; on the other hand if conflict is handled in a destructive way, the couple is doomed to bear a relatively unsatisfactory relationship (Brehm, 1992; Cramer, 2000; Fincham, 2003; Gottman, 1993; Gottman et al., 1977; Gottman & Krokoff, 1989; Greeff & Bruyne, 2000; Heavey et al., 1993; Kurdek, 1995; Straus, 1979).

4. 1. 6. Conclusions and the Main Contributions of the Present Study

The main concern for this thesis was to investigate the effects of value similarity of couples and conflict resolution styles of wives and husbands on marital adjustment of wives, husbands, and couples. Value similarity of spouses was preferred to study in marital relationship, since values are considered to be very important in marital relationship. Value similarities of spouses was important because values have several functions, such as directing current activities, resolving conflicts and making decisions, and providing expression to basic human needs. As a result, it can be suggested that, according to Rokeach (1973), values are important to direct human attitudes and behavior, thus the effects of value similarity on marriage were preferred to study in the present research. In the current study the Schwartz Value Survey was used and this is the first time this

survey has been implemented on couples in Turkey. Moreover, one of the most important contributions of the current study to the literature was the context of the study. In the literature, there were limited number of studies conducted abroad, and there were no study conducted in Turkey on value similarity of married couples.

After removing the covariate effects of demographic variables, the predictive effects of value similarities of spouses on ten value types, namely power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, security, on marital adjustment were examined. The findings illustrate that although value similarities as a whole were significant in predicting marital adjustment of wives couples, the unique contributions of each value type were not significant and value similarities of spouses did not have significant effect on husbands' marital adjustment. More specifically, tradition, hedonism, stimulation value similarities, and power value dissimilarities positively predicted marital adjustment of wives and couples. One of the other contribution of the current study was to investigate the different effects of different value type similarities of couples on marital adjustment. More specifically, it was revealed that not all of the value type similarities have a positive effect on marital adjustment. Some value type similarities, for example the ones serving to own interests may cause problems in marriage and thus effect the adjustment of couples. In this point, it is not surprising that, value similarities like power, which is related with self-enhancement, had negative effects on marital adjustment. In the literature, only the positive effect of value similarities of spouses on marital adjustment was studied, however with the present study some negative effects of value similarities were also investigated.

Finally, besides value similarities of spouses, conflict resolution styles of wives and husbands were also considered to be important in predicting marital adjustment of wives, husbands, and couples. After eliminating the effects of demographic variables and value similarities of spouses, the effects of conflict

resolution styles on marital adjustment were also examined. According to results, conflict resolution styles of wives and husbands were found to be significant in predicting marital adjustment of couples. Although conflict resolution styles of husbands have significant effects on marital adjustment of wives, conflict resolution styles of wives did not have significant contribution in predicting husbands' marital adjustment. Furthermore, according to the results of the present study, negative conflict resolution styles of spouses were found to be more an important predictor in marital adjustment. Thus, it can be suggested that although positive conflict resolution styles are associated with marital adjustment, contribution of negative conflict resolution style was more predictive for marital adjustment. In addition, as expected, spouses high in positive conflict resolution style and low in negative conflict resolution style have higher scores on marital adjustment than spouses low in positive conflict resolution style and high in negative conflict resolution style.

In conclusion, this thesis provided a supportive evidence for the significant contributions of value similarities and conflict resolution styles of couples on marital adjustment. The other important contribution of this thesis was marital adjustment of couples, wives, and husbands were studied separately which makes it possible to investigate the unique contributions of variables on marital adjustment of wives, husbands, and couples.

4. 1. 7. Limitations and Directions for Future Research

This study also has some limitations that should be taken into consideration. Firstly, the results of the study depend on the actual value similarity of couples. Some researchers suggest that the perceived value similarity of couples is also important (e. g. Hebb, 2005; Skaldeman & Montgomery, 1999a). Furthermore Hebb (2005), assert that perceived similarity was found to be greater than actual similarity, especially for female participants. In the future researches, actual and perceived similarity of couples should be studied together in order to achieve the

comparable results. Secondly, although value similarities predict marital adjustment of wives and couples that they do not guarantee the marital adjustment (Mckinley, 1995), the changing structure of the value types were also taken into consideration. In this point, longitudinal study may be functional to see the effects of changes in value similarity of couples on marital adjustment.

The third limitation of the study was the use of self-report measure to assess conflict. Although, questionnaire approach has several advantages, it brings some limitations for assessing interaction processes. Glick and Gross (1975) also assert that one of the limitation of the questionnaire method is in questionnaire approach spouses are wanted to assess the partner's or their own "*average*" style of interaction in situations that are researched, and that may cause biased results which ignore the interaction processes. On the other hand, in the thesis, while constructing the "Conflict Resolution Styles" scale the couples were interviewed so as to learn how these individuals cope with conflictual situations in their relationships; and for this reason, the self-report measure was preferred. However the importance of observational method is also taken into consideration in the future researches while studying the interactions in the close relationships.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

Değerli katılımcılar,

“Evlilik” ile ilgili bu araştırma için size verilen zarfta iki ayrı ölçek bulunmaktadır. Bu ölçeklerin ikisi birbirinin aynısıdır. Birisini **SİZİN**, diğerini ise **EŞİNİZİN** doldurması gerekmektedir.

Lütfen ölçekleri doldururken sorular hakkında eşinizle **konusmayınız**. Ölçekleri eşinizle beraber doldurmak sizin ve eşinizin vereceği cevapları etkileyecektir. Bu nedenle ölçekleri **tek başınıza, eşinize göstermeden** doldurunuz.

Lütfen ölçeklerin başındaki yönergeleri dikkatlice okuyunuz ve ölçekleri istendiği şekilde cevaplandırınız. Lütfen soru atlamayınız; araştırmanın analizi için soruların tamamının cevaplanmış olması önem taşımaktadır. Ölçekleri doldurduktan sonra **birbirinizin doldurmuş olduğu ölçeği incelemeyiniz**. Doldurulmuş olan ölçeklerin her ikisini de zarfa koyup, zarfın ağzını yapııştırarak araştırmacıya geri dönmesini sağlayınız.

Sizden beklenen, soruları içtenlikle cevaplamanızdır. Ölçeklere adınızı yazmanız **gerekmemektedir**, bu yüzden verilen yanıtların kime ait olacağı hiçbir şekilde anlaşılamayacaktır. Soruları yanıtlarken içten olmanız, yürüttüğümüz bilimsel çalışmanın sonuçları açısından oldukça önemlidir.

Çalışmamıza katıldığınız için teşekkür ederiz...

Araš. Gör. Ayça Özen

APPENDIX B

PERSONAL DATA SHEET

- 1) Cinsiyetiniz: () Kadın () Erkek
- 2) Yaşınız: _____
- 3) Mesleğiniz: _____
- 4) Dininiz: _____
- 5) Kaç yıldır evlisiniz?
Yıl ve ay olarak _____
- 6) Eşinizle aranızda yaş farkı nedir?
Yıl ve ay olarak _____
- 7) Çocuğunuz var mı? _____Evet _____Hayır; Evet ise kaç çocuğunuz var?

- 8) Eğitim düzeyiniz nedir?
a)Resmi eğitimim yok b) İlkokul c) Ortaokul d) Lise e) Yüksek okul
mezunu
f)Üniversite öğrencisi g)Üniversite mezunu h)Yüksek lisans i)Doktora
- 9) Ailenizin toplam aylık geliri ne kadardır?_____
- 10) Ekonomik açıdan kendinizi aşağıdaki ölçek üzerinde nereye yerleştireceğinizi
işaretleyiniz.
- | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|-----------|
| Alt sınıf | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Üst sınıf |
|-----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|-----------|
- 11) Aşağıdakilerden hangisi politik görüşünüzü tanımlar?
- | | | | | | | |
|-------------|-----|------------|------|------------|-----|-------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| Radikal sol | Sol | Sola yakın | Orta | Sağa yakın | Sağ | Radikal sağ |

APPENDIX C

SCHWARTZ'S VALUE SURVEY (SCHWARTZ DEĞER LİSTESİ)

Aşağıda çeşitli değerleri içeren iki liste bulacaksınız. Bu değerler değişik kültürlerden seçilmişlerdir. Her değeri izleyen parantezlerin içinde değerlerin anlamlarının sizler tarafından daha iyi anlaşılmasına yarayabilecek bilgiler vardır.

Sizden istenilen, her değer için, hayatınızı yönlendiren bir ilke olarak önemini bir ölçek sırasıyla belirtmenizdir. Lütfen aşağıdaki ölçeği kullanınız:

“0” sayısı bu değer için **bütünüyle önemsiz olduğunu, hayatınızı yönlendiren bir ilke olarak anlam taşımadığını** gösterecektir.

“3” sayısı bu değer için **önemli olduğunu** gösterecektir. **“6” sayısı** bu değer için **çok önemli olduğunu** gösterecektir. Sayı yükseldikçe (0,1,2,3,4,5,6) bu değer için hayatınızdaki yönlendiriciliği bakımından daha önemli olduğu anlaşılacaktır. **“-1” sayısı** sizi yönlendiren **ilkelere ters düşen** herhangi bir değer için belirtilmesinde kullanılacaktır. **“7” sayısı sizin hayatınızda yönlendirici özellik taşıyan en önemli değer için belirtilmesinde kullanılacaktır**: genellikle bu tür değerlerden iki taneden fazla olmayacağı düşünülebilir. Her değerden önce bir boşluk görecekiniz. Bu boşluklara her değer için taşıdığı önemi gösteren sayıyı (-1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7) yazacaksınız. Lütfen bütün sayıları kullanarak değerler arasında mümkün olduğunca bir ayırım yapmaya çalışınız. Bazı sayıları bir defadan fazla kullanma ihtiyacı duyabilirsiniz.

HAYATIMI YÖNLENDİREN BİR İLKE OLARAK BU DEĞER:

İlkelerime ters düşer	Önemli değildir			Önemlidir			Çok önemlidir	En üst düzeyde önemli
-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Başlamadan önce, 1'den 56'ya kadar olan değerleri okuyunuz ve sizin için en önemli olanını seçip önemini belirten sayıyı boşluğa yazınız. Sonra, sizin değerlerinize ters düşen değeri seçip boşluğa -1 sayısını yazınız. Eğer böyle bir değer yoksa size en az önemli görünen birini seçip 0 ya da 1 sayılarından sizce uygun olan birini boşluğa yazınız. Bundan sonra geri kalan değerlere sizce uygun olan bir sayıyı yazınız.

DEĞERLER LİSTESİ

İlkelerime ters düşer	Önemli değildir			Önemlidir			Çok önemlidir	En üst düzeyde önemli
-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- 1 (_) EŞİTLİK (herkese eşit fırsat)
- 2 (_) İÇ UYUM (kendi kendimle barışık olmak)
- 3 (_) SOSYAL GÜÇ SAHİBİ OLMAK (başkalarını denetleyebilmek, üstün olmak)
- 4 (_) ZEVK (istek ve arzuların giderilmesi, doyurulması)
- 5 (_) ÖZGÜR OLMAK (düşünce ve hareket özgürlüğü)
- 6 (_) MANEVİ (TİNSEL) BİR YAŞAM (maddi değerlerden çok manevi, içsel olanlara önem vermek)
- 7 (_) BAĞLILIK DUYGUSU (başkalarının da beni düşündükleri duygusu)
- 8 (_) TOPLUMSAL DÜZENİN SÜRMESİNİ İSTMEK (kanun, nizam yaklaşımı)
- 9 (_) HEYECANLI BİR YAŞANTI SAHİBİ OLMAK (Uyarıcı deneyimlerle dolu)
- 10 (_) ANLAMLI BİR HAYAT (hayatta bir amacın olması)
- 11 (_) KİBAR OLMAK (nazik terbiyeli)
- 12 (_) ZENGİN OLMAK (maddi varlık, para)
- 13 (_) ULUSAL GÜVENLİK (ülkemin düşmanlardan korunması)
- 14 (_) KENDİNE SAYGILI OLMAK (kendimin değerli olduğuna inanç)
- 15 (_) İYİLİĞE KARŞILIK VERMEK (borçlu kalmaktan kaçınmak)
- 16 (_) YARATICI OLMAK (orijinal olmak, hayal gücümü kullanmak)
- 17 (_) DÜNYADA BARIŞ İSTEMEK (savaş ve çelişkilerden uzak bir dünya)
- 18 (_) GELENEKLERE SAYGILI OLMAK (eski değer ve geleneklerin korunması)
- 19 (_) OLGUN SEVGİ (derin duygusal ve ruhsal yakınlaşmalar)
- 20 (_) KENDİNİ DENETLEYEBİLMEK (kendimi sınırlamak, yanlış olana direnmek)

İlkelerime ters düşer	Önemli değildir			Önemlidir			Çok önemlidir	En üst düzeyde önemli
-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- 21 (_) DÜNYASAL İŞLERDEN EL AYAK ÇEKMEK
- 22 (_) AİLE GÜVENLİĞİ (sevilenlerin tehlikeden uzak olması)
- 23 (_) İNSANLAR TARAFINDAN BENİMSENMEK (başkaları tarafından saygı ve kabul görmek)
- 24 (_) DOĞAYLA BÜTÜNLÜK İÇİNDE OLMAK (doğayla uyum)
- 25 (_) DEĞİŞKEN BİR HAYAT SAHİBİ OLMAK (yarışma içinde yeniliklerle dolu)
- 26 (_) ERDEMLİ OLMAK (olgun bir yaşam anlayışı)
- 27 (_) OTORİTE SAHİBİ OLMAK (yönlendirmek ve yönetmek hakkına sahip olmak)
- 28 (_) GERÇEK ARKADAŞLIK (yakın ve destekleyici arkadaşlık)
- 29 (_) GÜZELLİKLER İÇİNDE BİR DÜNYA (doğa ve sanatın güzelliği)
- 30 (_) TOPLUMSAL ADALET (haksızlığın düzeltilmesi, zayıfın yanında olmak)
- 31 (_) BAĞIMSIZ OLMAK (kendine yeterli, kendine güvenli olmak)
- 32 (_) ILIMLI OLMAK (aşırı duygu ve hareketlerden kaçınmak)
- 33 (_) SADIK OLMAK (arkadaşlarına ve çevresine bağlı olmak)
- 34 (_) HIRSLI OLMAK (çalışkan, istekli olmak)
- 35 (_) AÇIK FİKİRLİ OLMAK (değişik fikir ve inançlara hoşgörülü olmak)
- 36 (_) ALÇAK GÖNÜLLÜ OLMAK (kendini öne çıkarmamak)
- 37 (_) CESUR OLMAK (macera ve risk aramak)
- 38 (_) ÇEVREYİ KORUMAK (doğayı korumak)
- 39 (_) SÖZÜ GEÇEN BİRİ OLMAK (insanlar ve olaylar üzerinde etkili olmak)
- 40 (_) AİLEYE DEĞER VERMEK (saygı göstermek)
- 41 (_) KENDİ AMAÇLARINI SEÇEBİLMEK (kendi isteklerini bağımsızca belirleyebilmek)
- 42 (_) SAĞLIKLI OLMAK (fiziksel ve ruhsal rahatsızlığı olmamak)
- 43 (_) YETKİN OLMAK (rekabeti seven, etkili, verimli olmak)

İlkelerime ters düşer	Önemli değildir			Önemlidir			Çok önemlidir	En üst düzeyde önemli
-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- 44 (_) HAYATIN BANA VERDİKLERİNİ KABULLENMEK (hayatın getirdiklerine, kadere razı olmak)
- 45 (_) DÜRÜST OLMAK (içtenlik)
- 46 (_) TOPLUMDAKİ GÖRÜNTÜMÜ KORUYABİLMEK (başkalarına karşı mahcup duruma düşmemek)
- 47 (_) İTAATKAR OLMAK (görevini yapan, yükümlülüklerini yerine getiren biri olmak)
- 48 (_) ZEKİ OLMAK (mantıklı ve düşünen biri olmak)
- 49 (_) YARDIMSEVER OLMAK (başkalarının iyiliği için çalışmak)
- 50 (_) YAŞAMDAN ZEVK ALMAK (yiyeceklerden, cinsellikten, müzikten vb hoşlanmak)
- 51 (_) DİNDAR OLMAK (dinsel inanç ve imana bağlılık)
- 52 (_) SORUMLULUK SAHİBİ OLMAK (güvenilir ve inanılır biri olmak)
- 53 (_) MERAK DUYABİLMEK (her şeyle ilgilenen, araştıran biri olmak)
- 54 (_) BAĞIŞLAYICI OLMAK (başkalarının özrünü kabul edebilmek)
- 55 (_) BAŞARILI OLMAK (amaçlarıma ulaşabilmek)
- 56 (_) TEMİZ OLMAK (düzenli, titiz olmak)

APPENDIX D

DYADIC ADJUSTMENT SCALE (DAS) ÇİFT UYUM ÖLÇEĞİ

EK 2

Çift Uyum Ölçeği

Birçok insanın, ilişkilerinde anlaşmazlıklar vardır. Lütfen aşağıda verilen maddelerin her biri için siz ve eşiniz arasındaki anlaşma veya anlaşamama ölçüsünü aşağıda verilen düzeylerden birini seçerek belirtiniz.

	Her zaman anlaşılır	Hemen hemen her zaman anlaşılır	Nadiren anlaşamayız	Sıkça anlaşamayız	Hemen hemen her zaman anlaşamayız	Her zaman anlaşamayız
1. Aileyle ilgili parasal işlerin idaresi.....						
2. Eğlenceyle ilgili konular.....						
3. Dini konular.....						
4. Muhabbet-sevgi gösterme.....						
5. Arkadaşlar.....						
6. Cinsel yaşam.....						
7. Geleneksellik (doğru ve uygun davranış).....						
8. Yaşam felsefesi.....						
9. Anne, baba ya da yakın akrabalarla ilişkiler.....						
10. Önemli olduğuna inanılan amaçlar, hedefler ve konular....						
11. Birlikte geçirilen zaman miktarı.....						
12. Temel kararların alınması.....						
13. Ev ile ilgili görevler.....						
14. Boş zaman ilgi ve uğraşları.....						
15. Mesleki kararlar.....						

	Her zaman	Hemen hemen her zaman	Zaman zaman	Ara sıra	Nadiren	Hiç bir zaman
16. Ne sıklıkla boşanmayı, ayrılmayı ya da ilişkinizi bitirmeyi düşünür ya da tartışırsınız?.....						
17. Ne sıklıkla siz veya eşiniz kavgadan sonra evi terk edersiniz?.....						
18. Ne sıklıkla eşinizle olan ilişkinizin genelde iyi gittiğini düşünürsünüz?.....						
19. Eşinize güvenir misiniz?.....						
20. Evlendiğiniz (ya da birlikte yaşadığınız) için hiç pişmanlık duyar mısınız?.....						
21. Ne sıklıkla eşinizle münakaşa edersiniz?.....						
22. Ne sıklıkla birbirinizin sinirlenmesine neden olursunuz?.....						

	Her gün	Hemen hemen her gün	Ara sıra	Nadiren	Hiç bir zaman
23. Eşinizi öper misiniz?.....					
24. Siz ve eşiniz ev dışı ilgilerinizin etkinliklerinizin ne kadarına birlikte katılırsınız?.....	Hepsine	Çoğuna	Bazılarına	Çok azına	Hiçbirine

Aşağıdaki olaylar siz ve eşiniz arasında ne sıklıkla geçer?	Hiçbir zaman	Ayda birden az	Ayda bir veya iki defa	Haftada bir veya iki defa	Günde bir defa	Günde birden fazla
25. Teşvik edici fikir alışverişinde bulunmak.....						
26. Birlikte gülmek.....						
27. Bir şeyi sakince tartışmak.....						
28. Bir iş üzerinde birlikte çalışmak.....						

Eşlerin bazı zamanlar anlaşmazlıkları bazen anlaşamadıkları konular vardır. Eğer aşağıdaki maddeler son birkaç hafta içinde siz ve eşiniz arasında görüştüğünüz farklılığı veya problem yarattıysa belirtiniz. (Evet veya Hayır' ı işaretleyiniz.)

	Evet	Hayır
29. Seks için çok yorgun olmak.....		
30. Sevgi göstermemek.....		

31. Aşağıda ilişkinizdeki farklı mutluluk düzeyleri gösterilmektedir. Orta noktadaki "mutlu" birçok ilişkideki yaşanan mutluluk düzeyini gösterir. İlişkinizi genelde değerlendirdiğinizde mutluluk düzeyinizi n iyi şekilde belirtecek olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

() Aşırı mutsuz () Oldukça mutsuz () Az mutsuz () Mutlu () Oldukça mutlu () Aşırı mutlu () Tam anlamıyla mutlu

32. Aşağıda belirtilen cümlelerden ilişkinizin geleceği hakkında ne hissettiğinizi en iyi şekilde tanımlayan ifadeyi işaretleyiniz.

() A. İlişkimin başarılı olmasını çok fazla istiyorum ve bunun için yapamayacağım hiçbir şey yoktur.

() B. İlişkimin başarılı olmasını çok istiyorum ve bunun için yapabileceklerimin hepsini yapacağım.

() C. İlişkimin başarılı olmasını çok istiyorum ve bunun için payıma düşeni yapacağım.

() D. İlişkimin başarılı olması güzel olurdu, fakat bunun için şu anda yaptıklarımdan daha fazlasını yapamam.

() E. İlişkimin başarılı olması güzel olurdu, fakat bunun için şu anda yaptıklarımdan daha fazlasını yapmayı reddederim.

() F. İlişkim asla başarılı olmayacak ve ilişkinin yürümesi için benim daha fazla yapabileceğim bir şey yok.

APPENDIX E

CONFLICT RESOLUTION STYLES SCALE (CRSS)

ÇATIŞMA ÇÖZÜM STİLLERİ ÖLÇEĞİ

Aşağıda, evlilik ilişkilerinde yaşanan sorunların genel olarak nasıl çözümlendiği ile ilgili ifadeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen eşinizle ilişkinizi göz önüne alarak, aşağıdaki ifadelerden her birine ne derece katıldığınızı belirtiniz. Her bir ifadenin önündeki boşluğa aşağıdaki sayılardan uygun olanı yazınız.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Hiç	Oldukça	Birazcık	Birazcık	Oldukça	Çok
Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum

- ___ 1) Tartışma esnasında konuyla ilgisiz de olsa zayıflıklarını yüzüne vururum.
- ___ 2) Kavganın büyümemesi için onun istediği şeyleri yaparım.
- ___ 3) Çok sinirlenmişsem konuşmayı ertelerim.
- ___ 4) Sorun durumunda pek çok şeyi içime atabilirim.
- ___ 5) Sorunun uzamadan çözülebilmesi için kaynağını bulmaya çalışırım.
- ___ 6) Sinirlendiğimde kırıcı şeyler söylerim.
- ___ 7) Problemi büyütmemek için onu sakinleştirmeye çalışırım.
- ___ 8) Sesimi yükselterek beni dinlemesini sağlamaya çalışırım.
- ___ 9) Tartışmada ortak bir çözüm noktası bulmaya çalışırım.
- ___ 10) Çok büyük sorunlar yaşadığımızda ondan uzak durmaya çalışırım.
- ___ 11) Sorun çözümlenmeden tartışmayı sonlandırmam.
- ___ 12) Bağırıp çağırarak istediğimi yaptırım.
- ___ 13) Sorunun tüm yönlerini tartışma sırasında konuşmak isterim.
- ___ 14) Sevgilimi ilişkiyi bitirmekle tehdit ederim.
- ___ 15) Bana bağırdığında onun olmadığı bir odaya geçerim.
- ___ 16) Kavgalarımız sırasındaki kızgınlığımı fiziksel olarak gösteririm.
- ___ 17) İlişkide sorun yaşanmaması için kendimden ödün veririm.

- ____ 18) Sorun yaşadığımızda sevgilimin yanından uzaklaşıyorum.
- ____ 19) Sorunun çözülmesine yardımcı olacağına inanırsam durumu alttan alırım.
- ____ 20) Onun olumsuz tepkilerine karşılık vermeyerek problemin büyümemesini sağlamaya çalışırım.
- ____ 21) Çok gergin olduğumuzda susarım.
- ____ 22) Bir problem yaşandığında, konuyla ilgili düşündüğüm her şeyi açıklarım.
- ____ 23) Eğer çok sinirlenmişsem, sinirim geçene kadar konuşmayı reddederim.
- ____ 24) Bir problem yaşandığında, kendimi sevgilimin yerine koyarak onun ne düşündüğünü anlamaya çalışırım.
- ____ 25) Sürekli imalarda bulunurum.

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1.UNI ^a	-																				
2.BENE ^a	.44**	-																			
3.TRAD ^a	-.02	.05	-																		
4.CON ^a	.28**	.32**	.21*	-																	
5.SEC ^a	.44**	.32**	.05	.33**	-																
6.POW ^a	.10	.08	-.02	.13	.13	-															
7.ACH ^a	.30**	.29**	-.03	.33**	.31**	.38**	-														
8.HED ^a	.161	.34**	.02	.14	.11	.16	.21*	-													
9.STI ^a	.15	.26**	.11	.03	.02	.08	.08	.17*	-												
10.SDIR ^a	.49**	.45**	.00	.37**	.26**	.26**	.46**	.20*	.26**	-											
11.WPOS ^a	-.02	.14	-.01	-.03	.11	-.01	-.18*	-.14	-.03	.02	-										
12.WNEG ^a	.12	.15	.29**	.12	.17	-.09	.07	.07	.20*	.10	-.04	-									
13.WSUB ^a	-.08	.01	.08	-.07	-.22**	-.02	-.21*	.10	.08	-.10	.12	-.21*	-								
14.WRETR ^a	.09	-.11	.16	.04	-.08	-.03	.00	.08	.07	.08	-.19*	-.12	.21*	-							
15.HPOS ^a	-.03	-.02	-.01	.07	.05	.04	.00	-.14	-.12	-.03	.15	-.04	-.01	.18*	-						
16.HNEG ^a	.01	.07	.27**	.07	.04	-.08	.00	.04	.11	.11	-.26**	.28**	.10	-.02	-.42**	-					
17.HSUB ^a	-.06	-.15	.04	-.02	.06	-.10	-.06	-.02	-.01	-.18*	.06	-.02	.02	.03	.30**	-.36**	-				
18.HRETR ^a	-.10	.00	-.01	-.11	.07	-.05	.05	.11	.08	-.03	.22**	.07	-.00	-.10	-.17*	-.00	.33**	-			
19.WDAS ^a	-.10	-.05	-.23**	-.14	-.11	.12	-.11	-.23**	-.17*	-.05	.26**	-.48**	.09	.10	.18*	-.37**	.12	.09	-		
20.HDAS ^a	-.06	-.04	-.15	-.01	-.10	.06	-.04	-.23**	-.16	.07	.14	-.21*	-.05	-.03	.35**	-.38**	.13	-.16	.60**	-	
21.CDAS ^a	-.010	-.05	-.22**	-.08	-.12	.10	-.09	-.25**	-.19*	-.00	.23**	-.41**	.03	.04	.28**	-.41**	.14	-.02	.92**	.87**	-

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2- tailed). * Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2- tailed). ^a=(UNI=universalism value similarities of spouses, BENE=benevolence value similarities of spouses, TRAD=tradition value similarities of spouses, CON=conformity value similarities of spouses, SEC=security value similarities of spouses, POW=power value similarities of spouses, ACH=achievement value similarities of spouses, HED=hedonism value similarities of spouses, STI=stimulation value similarities of spouses, SDIR=self direction value similarities of spouses, WPOS= positive conflict resolution style of women, WNEG= negative conflict resolution style of women, WSUB= subordination conflict resolution style of women, WRETR= retreat conflict resolution style of women, MPOS= positive conflict resolution style of men, MNEG= negative conflict resolution style of men, MSUB= subordination conflict resolution style of men, MRETR= retreat conflict resolution style of men, WDAS=marital adjustment scores of wives, HDAS= marital adjustment scores of husbands, CDAS= marital adjustment scores of spouses)

