

ASSOCIATED FACTORS OF SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING IN MARRIED
INDIVIDUALS: ONLINE INFIDELITY TENDENCY, GENDER ROLES, AND
MARITAL SATISFACTION

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ABSTRACT

ASSOCIATED FACTORS OF SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING IN MARRIED INDIVIDUALS: ONLINE INFIDELITY TENDENCY, GENDER ROLES, AND MARITAL SATISFACTION

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The main aim of this dissertation is to examine the associations of subjective well-being with online infidelity tendency, gender roles (i.e., masculinity and femininity), and marital satisfaction in married individuals. 319 nonclinical married individuals completed measures of a demographic information form, Subjective Well-Being Scale (SWS), Infidelity Tendency Scale (ITS), Bem Sex-Role Inventory-Short Version (BSRI), and Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS). Separate multivariate regression analyses were conducted for subjective well-being, online infidelity tendency, masculinity, femininity, and marital satisfaction to investigate the unique associations proposed in the hypotheses. Several mediation and moderation analyses were performed via Bootstrapping sampling method to test underlying mechanisms for the associations between study variables and subjective well-being. Results provided considerable support for the associations of study variables in the current sample of married individuals. Masculinity and femininity were found to be positively associated with subjective well-being. Online infidelity tendency was found to be negatively associated with subjective well-being. While the association of online infidelity tendency with masculinity was non-significant, higher online infidelity tendency was found to be

associated with lower femininity. Marital satisfaction was positively correlated with subjective well-being. Online infidelity tendency was found to be as a mediator between femininity and subjective well-being. However, the indirect association between masculinity and subjective well-being through online infidelity tendency was non-significant. Additionally, marital satisfaction partially moderated the relationship between online infidelity tendency and subjective well-being. The findings were discussed in accordance with the relevant literature together with their implications for clinical practices and future studies.

Keywords: Subjective well-being, online infidelity tendency, gender roles, marital satisfaction.

ÖZ

EVLİ BİREYLERDE ÖZNEL İYİ-OLUŞLA İLİŞKİLİ FAKTÖRLER: İNTERNET ÜZERİNDEN ALDATMA EĞİLİMİ, CİNSİYET ROLLERİ VE EVLİLİK DOYUMU

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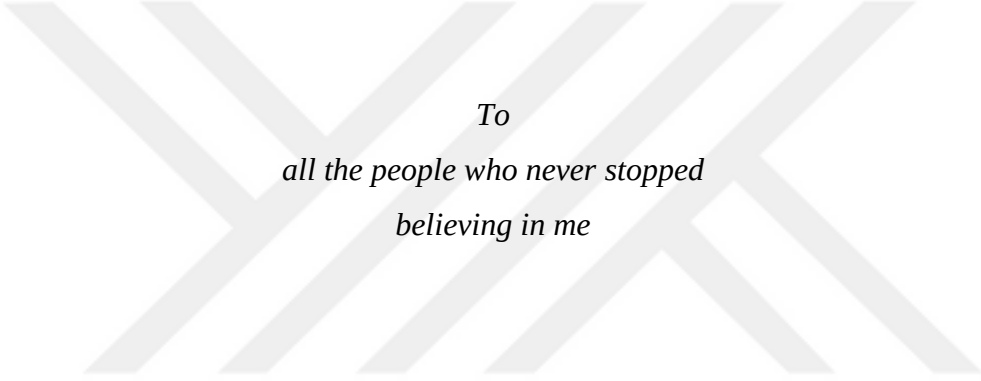
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Bu çalışmanın amacı, evli bireylerde öznel iyi-oluşun internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi, cinsiyet rolleri (erkeksilik ve kadınsılık) ve evlilik doyumu arasındaki ilişkileri araştırmaktır. Klinik olmayan 319 evli katılımcıya Demografik Bilgi Formu, Öznel İyi Oluş Ölçeği, Aldatma Eğilimi Ölçeği, Bem Cinsiyet Rollerı Envanteri Kısa Formu ve Çift Uyumu Ölçeği uygulanmıştır. Öznel iyi-oluş, internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi, cinsiyet rollerinin iki alt-ölçeği (erkeksilik ve kadınsılık) ve evlilik doyumu arasındaki ilişkileri test etmek için SPSS v.23 kullanılarak çok-değişkenli regresyon analizleri uygulanmıştır. İnternet üzerinden aldatma eğiliminin cinsiyet rolleri ile öznel iyi oluş arasındaki ilişkide aracı değişken rolü oynadığını öneren aracı değişken modelleri ve evlilik doyumunun internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ile öznel iyi oluş arasındaki ilişkide düzenleyici değişken rolü oynadığını öneren bir düzenleyicilik modeli Bootstrapping yöntemi kullanılarak test edilmiştir. Bulgular, değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiler için önemli destek sağlamıştır. Erkeksilik ve kadınsılığın öznel iyi-oluş ile olumlu yönde ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. İnternet üzerinden aldatma eğiliminin öznel iyi-oluş ile olumsuz yönde ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. İnternet üzerinden aldatma

eğiliminin erkeksilik ile ilişkisinin anlamsız olduğu, öte yandan kadınsılık ile olumsuz yönde ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Evlilik doyumunun öznel iyi-oluş ile olumlu ve anlamlı biçimde ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Kadınsılık ve öznel iyi-oluş arasındaki ilişkide internet üzerinden aldatma eğiliminin aracı değişken rolü üstlendiği bulunmuştur. Fakat internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi aracılığıyla erkeksilik ve öznel iyi-oluş arasındaki indirekt ilişki anlamlı bulunmamıştır. Ayrıca, internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ve öznel iyi-oluş arasındaki ilişkide evlilik doyumunun kısmi düzenleyici olduğu gösterilmiştir. Çalışmanın sonuçları ilgili literatür ışığında tartışılmış ve çalışmanın önemi ve çıkarımları önerilmiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Öznel iyi oluş, internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi, cinsiyet rolleri, evlilik doyumu.



*To
all the people who never stopped
believing in me*

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The present study examines the associations of subjective well-being with online infidelity tendency, gender roles (namely, masculinity and femininity), and marital satisfaction in married individuals. In the subsequent sections, firstly, background information on the topic is summarized. Secondly, purpose of the study is examined. Thirdly, significance of the study is presented. Finally, implications of the present study are introduced.

1.1. Background Information on the Topic of the Study

Since Herodotus and the beginning of recorded history happiness has been a topic of interest across societies. Today, scientists, philosophers, and lay people still try to answer the question “What is happiness?” Until three decades ago, psychology literature has in the main been focused on negative aspects of psychological functioning, such as anxiety and sadness, in order to answer this question. However, from the 1980s positive aspects like happiness and well-being have become a growing area of interest for researchers (Myers & Diener, 1995). One of the most prominent constructs among these positive viewpoints is subjective well-being.

In psychology literature, research on the construct of subjective well-being has developed considerably in the last four decades. Although subjective well-being literature in earlier periods focused mostly on the emotional aspect of well-being and did not include a subjective view of life satisfaction, recent research has looked at the value of the subjective aspects of well-being (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Notably, Diener (2000) emphasized the importance of the individuals’ subjective evaluation

regarding their quality of life; whether they perceive their lives as satisfying enough or not. This perspective describes the "good life" that has come to be known as "subjective well-being," in colloquial language "happiness" (Diener, 2000).

Subjective well-being includes individuals' affective reactions, thoughts about their satisfaction with life, and general sense of satisfaction with life supported by one's life domains such as marriage and work (Diener, 1984). Diener (2000) stated that individuals with high subjective well-being feel many positive and few negative emotions and are satisfied with their lives. Although there are further aspects to a precious life and psychological health, subjective well-being focuses primarily on individuals' evaluations of their own lives. Diener (1984) proposed that subjective well-being comprises of three main components: life satisfaction, the existence of positive mood and the non-existence of negative mood. While the first component, which is life satisfaction, is defined as the cognitive component of subjective well-being, the other two components (i.e., the existence of positive mood and the non-existence of negative mood) indicates the affect-related aspects of subjective well-being. Subjective well-being includes evaluations regarding extensive periods of life as well as perceptions about their present life.

Along with the remarkable increase in research on subjective well-being, researchers tried to understand who the happy people are. Previous studies on subjective well-being showed that demographic characteristics such as gender, age, education, and money are not the fundamental predictors of happiness (Diener, Sandvik, Seidlitz, & Diener, 1993; Myers & Diener, 1995). Rather, individual features and social factors demonstrate more useful clues for understanding the predictors of subjective well-being. For instance, Myers and Diener's (1995) review of happiness literature displayed that individuals who are satisfied with his or her marriage and job, extrovert and religious are happier. Also, happier individuals live a dynamic social life, perceive high social support from their social networks, likes recreational activities, do exercises on a regular basis, and see themselves as healthy. Additionally, such individuals are more likely to be supplied their basic needs, live

in a egalitarian society that consider civil liberties and freedom of expression (Myers & Diener, 1995). Consistently, earlier research investigating the relationship between subjective well-being and individual features revealed that high extraversion, low neuroticism, high optimism, high self-esteem, and having a sense of personal control are powerful predictors of increased subjective well-being (Diener, Sandvik, Pavot, & Fujita, 1992; Myers & Diener, 1995). Another individual feature that has been shown to be associated with subjective well-being is gender roles (Whitley, 1983).

Gender roles are defined as typical expectations of behavior based on one's gender; femininity gender role corresponding to the female gender, and masculinity gender role corresponding to the male gender. These roles are important personal features that shape individuals' thoughts, feelings, and behaviors (Perry & Bussey, 1984). Concepts of masculinity and femininity have been modified quite a lot of time. In the literature, while before the mid-seventies an individual was perceived as either masculine or feminine (Constantinople, 1973), subsequent theories considered masculinity and femininity as discrete dimensions, each having their own bipolar dimensions (i.e., high-low masculinity, high-low femininity) (Bem, 1974; Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1974). This study is constructed on the latter understanding of gender roles while investigating their associations with subjective well-being.

Earlier empirical evidence as regards the association between gender roles and subjective well-being revealed controversial findings. Although some studies concluded that high masculine orientation is related to high subjective well-being and feminine features are not as much as powerful (Castlebury & Durham, 1997; Whitley, 1983), others demonstrated that androgyny (i.e., a gender role high on both masculinity and femininity dimensions) is linked to high subjective well-being (Flaherty & Dusek, 1980; Norlander, Erixon, & Archer, 2000).

Besides individual features, social and relationship variables are strong predictors of subjective well-being (Myers & Diener, 1995), as noted earlier. Marital satisfaction,

defined as individuals' evaluation of their marriage quality (Fitzpatrick, 1988; cited in Bird & Melville, 1994), is one of the relationship variables related to subjective well-being that has been widely studied. Earlier literature consistently displayed a consistent positive link between marital satisfaction and subjective well-being (e.g., Carr, Freedman, Cornman, & Schwarz, 2014; Shek, 1995; Whisman, Uebelacker, Tolejko, Chatav, & McKelvie, 2006; Whisman, Uebelacker, & Weinstock, 2004). It attracts attention that the cause-and-effect association between marital satisfaction and subjective well-being has been a highly discussed topic. On the one hand, research showed that happy and highly adapted individuals tend to get married and remain married more than other individuals (Mastekaasa, 1992), on the other hand, there is longitudinal evidence that marital satisfaction results in subjective well being (Heady, Veenhoven, & Wearing, 1991). Moreover, although married individuals are more likely to be physically and psychologically healthy than unmarried individuals, not all marriage is superior to no marriage at all regarding overall health (Horwitz, White, & Howell-White, 1996). Indeed, a great deal of research has demonstrated that individuals dissatisfied with their marriages are tend to be unhappy, dissatisfied with life, have lower levels of self-esteem and physical well-being (Hawkins & Booth, 2005). The endorsement of infidelity is one area associated with the marital dissatisfaction (Blow & Hartnett, 2005b; Glass & Wright, 1985).

The relationship between marital satisfaction and infidelity has been intensely studied. It has been shown that the most commonly cited cause of infidelity is dissatisfaction with the relationship (Atkins, Baucom & Jacobson, 2001; Bagarozzi, 2008; Blow & Hartnett, 2005b). Furthermore, marital dissatisfaction both increases the likelihood of infidelity (McAlister, Pachana, & Jackson, 2005) and provides a justification for extra-marital relationships (Glass & Wright, 1992). Atkins et al. (2001) also stated that if one's marriage is not satisfactory, attention from the third party might function as comfort, leading to infidelity. Correspondingly, people tend to be more faithful when they are in a long-lasting and a satisfying marriage (Dabrowski, 2009).

Investigating the associated factors of tendency to infidelity may be crucial for understanding the emergence of extra-marital relationships. Atkins, et al., (2001) reported that sex has been mostly studied as a variable in the associations of infidelity, showing that women are less likely to engage in infidelity compared to men. On the other hand, some researchers found that the gender difference in engaging in infidelity is becoming narrow over time, with women exhibiting similar high rates of engaging in infidelity as men (Laumann, Gagnon, Michael, Michaels, 1994; Wiederman, 1997). It is noteworthy that regarding sexuality, women conform less to traditional gender role patterns day by day, and it may in part explains the decreasing differences seen in infidelity cases. Therefore, it seems that there is a need to investigate the associations of gender roles with infidelity rather than sex differences in itself.

Earlier empirical evidence indicated that both men and women scoring high in masculinity and also low in femininity are more likely to engage in infidelity (Shearer, Hosterman, Gillen, & Lefkowitz, 2005). Leary and Snell (1988) found that masculinity was associated with greater sexual experience, in conjunction with high frequency of sexual intercourse and oral sex, having more sexual partners, experiencing first sex at an earlier age, and having more flexible feelings about having sex. Moreover, feminine features such as communion, expressiveness, and nurturance were shown to predict high relationship satisfaction; thus, femininity is a conceivable indicator of low infidelity tendency (Bem, 1974; Mosher & Danoff-Burg, 2005; Steiner-Pappalardo & Gurung, 2002). Therefore, it appears that high masculinity and low femininity are signs of higher rates of infidelity among both men and women.

As well as infidelity, several studies demonstrated that infidelity tendency was also found to be negatively associated with marital satisfaction (Atkins et al., 2001; Buss & Shackelford, 1997). Buss and Shackelford (1997) indicated that individuals who are unhappy in their marriages anticipate committing infidelity some day, and they also anticipate their spouses to do the same. In a study conducted in Turkey, Polat

(2006) developed the Infidelity Tendency Scale and explained the association between these concepts. Polat's findings indicated that low marital satisfaction is correlated with high infidelity tendency in both husbands and wives. However, the relationship between infidelity tendency and marital satisfaction becomes more complex when an apparent opportunity to infidelity comes into this picture. For instance, Blow and Hartnett's (2005b) study revealed that married individuals who commit infidelity with their co-workers are more satisfied with their marriages than those who commit infidelity with non-co-workers. In other words, the increased opportunity of an affair in one's work environment weakens the significance of marital satisfaction on infidelity. In the contemporary age, the broadest source of opportunity for extra-marital interactions is the online world.

The internet gives people an opportunity to interact with others. For instance, people can be in contact with friends, and attend a conference with business partners through online tools such as email, instant messaging, and chat rooms in different countries and different time zones via the internet (Kraut et al., 2002). It helps people to form or facilitate the initiating a romantic relationship. Indeed, bonds formed online can develop in real lives and turn to marriages (Parks & Roberts, 1998). Cheng, Chan, and Tong (2006) stated that the opportunity of connecting with others via the Internet and sexual interest itself might elicit significant online interpersonal connections that can be felt as intense as face-to-face relationships. Since difficulties related to forming a close relationship are resolved faster online than in person, and people may feel more comfortable to introduce themselves through chatting online, the Internet may allow people to have more intimate relationships than offline venues (Cheng, et al., 2006). Therefore, these online interactions may create an online infidelity threat for marriages. Online infidelity is a kind of romantic or sexual relationship started by an online association and continued mostly via online conversations in cyber world that may be in chat rooms, interactive game platforms, or news forums (Young, Griffin-shelley, Cooper, O'mara, & Buchanan, 2000).

Online infidelity has detrimental impacts both on marital relationship and spouses. Researchers reported that online infidelity explains an increasing number of divorces in the United States (Young, et al., 2000). In Schneider's (2000) exploratory study investigating the influences of a spouse's online infidelity activities on the codependent acts and sexual relationships showed that 22 % of the participants had separated or divorced after such acts, and 66 % of the couples lost their sexual interest with their spouse. Moreover, spouses who are exposed to online infidelity show feelings of sadness, anger, jealousy, fear, loss of self-esteem, need to seek assistance, loss trust in their loved ones, and identify themselves as a trauma victim (Hertlien & Piercy, 2006; Schneider, Weiss, & Samenow, 2012). Further, spouses engaging in online infidelity experience feelings of guilt and shame, loss of sexual interest, and a great deal of emotional distress to his or her partner – irrespective of whether or not they see their behavior as problematic (Hertlien & Piercy, 2006; Schneider, 2000). It is apparent that online infidelity is harmful for relationships and also it is a threat to one's subjective well-being (Cooper, McLoughlin, & Campbell, 2000; Schneider, 2000). Therefore, when it is considered that online infidelity affects relationships and partners in a detrimental way, investigating the associations of online infidelity tendency gains importance.

To sum up, previous research has successfully linked independent associations between gender roles and subjective well-being (pursuant to psychopathology), infidelity and subjective well-being (pursuant to its detrimental impacts), and marital satisfaction and subjective well-being. In addition, independent associations have been found between gender roles and infidelity (based on sex) and between infidelity and marital satisfaction. Nevertheless, any known research have not examined associations among gender roles, infidelity, and subjective well-being concurrently; or infidelity, marital satisfaction, and subjective well-being concurrently. Further, any known research have not examined these associations with online infidelity, which is relatively new construct in infidelity literature. Besides, studies that have examined online infidelity often assess experiences of cybersex and especially

detrimental effects on the offended spouse, less emphasizing the well-being and tendency to online infidelity of involved spouse, and therefore providing an inadequate picture of online infidelity.

Previous studies generally examined subjective well-being and sex differences, instead of gender role dimensions. Similarly, previous studies generally explored online infidelity and sex differences, instead of gender role dimensions; or gender roles and traditional infidelity tendency, instead of online infidelity tendency. The present study supposed that gender roles, online infidelity tendency, and marital satisfaction were three constructs that may explain the levels of subjective well-being of married individuals. Moreover, to what extent online infidelity tendency mediates the relationship between gender roles and online infidelity was investigated.

The present study extends previous research that has been conducted on subjective well-being by investigating moderator role of marital satisfaction in the association between online infidelity tendency and subjective well-being. Additionally, this study is known as first study which investigates the association of infidelity on the Internet not only with subjective well-being independently, but also with these all variables simultaneously. The current examination of subjective well-being, together with gender roles, online infidelity tendency, and marital satisfaction, allows for a clearer and wider explanation of subjective well-beings of married individuals than in the past.

All in all, increase in internet usage, high prevalence and detrimental effects of infidelity in marital relationships, decrease in gender roles differences, and lower marital satisfaction contribute to lower subjective well-being and these factors have raised the attempts to determine and make clear the problem from various ways. This background information showed the links among subjective well-being and married individuals' online infidelity tendency, gender roles, as well as marital satisfaction. The contradictory research findings increased the essentiality to

examine the associations among these variables further. Correspondingly, investigating the unique roles of online infidelity tendency, gender roles, and marital satisfaction of the married individuals would provide significant information in identifying the way of the relationships. On the whole, comprehending of the associations among these variables would be vital to determine and enhance subjective well-being of married individuals.

1.2. Aims of the Study

Strong associations among the study variables were observed based on the reviewed the literature. Subjective well-being displayed significant associations with infidelity tendency, gender roles (i.e., masculinity and femininity), and marital satisfaction. Still, some inconsistencies were in evidence in the findings of prior studies. It was uncertain what led to the discrepancy in the results of the previous studies. The additional examination seemed necessary how multiple factors are associated with others, above and beyond their associations with each other. Furthermore, little is known about infidelity tendency in online settings. Although research showed the associations of subjective well-being with online infidelity and infidelity tendency, studies related to its association with online infidelity tendency is scarce in the literature. Therefore, not only deficiency of research examining online infidelity tendency, but also its link to subjective well-being becomes more important in today's internet age.

Therefore, considering the literature given above, the main aim of the current study was to investigate the associations among subjective well-being, online infidelity tendency, gender roles (i.e., masculinity and femininity), and marital satisfaction of married individuals. Along with this detailed study, it was anticipated to encompass a meaningful difference in subjective well-being as a role of online infidelity tendency, gender roles, and marital satisfaction.

Essentially, this study aimed to investigate the associated factors of subjective well-being of married individuals. For this reason, the study examined whether online

infidelity tendency, gender roles, and marital satisfaction were associated with subjective well-being of married individuals. Furthermore, the study assessed the mediating role of online infidelity tendency in the associations between gender roles and subjective well-being in married individuals (see Figure 1). Specifically, it was directed at a goal that how gender roles are related to the tendency of online infidelity, and in turn, how married individuals' online infidelity tendency predicts their subjective well-being. Gender roles were assessed regarding two traits, namely masculinity and femininity. Moreover, the conditional association between online infidelity tendency and subjective well-being for married individuals on the different levels of marital satisfaction was aimed (see Figure 2). Accordingly, whether the relationship between online infidelity tendency and subjective well-being was significant for married individuals with both high and low levels of marital satisfaction was investigated.

Altogether, the particular aims of the current study were as noted below:

- (1) To explore the relationships among subjective well-being, online infidelity tendency, gender roles and marital satisfaction,
- (2) To examine the potential mediating role of online infidelity tendency in the association between gender roles and subjective well-being,
- (3) To address the potential moderating role of marital satisfaction in the association between online infidelity tendency and subjective well-being.

The hypotheses are set in the current study depending on empirical links summarized above. Specific hypotheses (H) of this study were as follows:

H 1: Gender roles dimensions (i.e., masculinity and femininity) would significantly be associated with subjective well-being.

H 1a: Masculinity would be significantly associated with subjective well-being. Specifically, individuals who have a high level of masculinity would report higher subjective well-being.

H 1b: Femininity would be significantly associated with subjective well-being. Specifically, individuals who have a high level of femininity would report higher subjective well-being.

H 2: Online infidelity tendency would be significantly associated with subjective well-being. Specifically, individuals who reported a higher level of online infidelity tendency would report lower subjective well-being.

H 3: Gender roles dimensions would be significantly associated with online infidelity tendency.

H 3a: Masculinity would be significantly associated with online infidelity tendency. Specifically, individuals who reported a higher level of masculinity would report a higher level of online infidelity tendency.

H 3b: Femininity would be significantly associated with online infidelity tendency. Specifically, individuals who reported a higher level of femininity would report a lower level of online infidelity tendency.

H 4: Marital satisfaction would be significantly associated with subjective well-being. Specifically, individuals who reported a higher level of marital satisfaction would report higher subjective well-being.

H 5: Online infidelity tendency would mediate the relationship between gender roles and subjective well-being.

H 5a: Online infidelity tendency would mediate the relationship between masculinity and subjective well-being.

H 5b: Online infidelity tendency would mediate the relationship between femininity and subjective well-being.

H 6: The association between online infidelity tendency and subjective well-being would be moderated by the marital satisfaction.

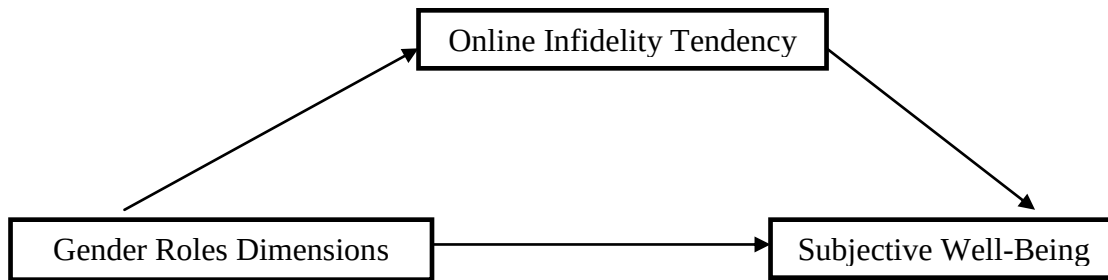


Figure 1.1. The Proposed Model for Mediating Effect of Online Infidelity Tendency

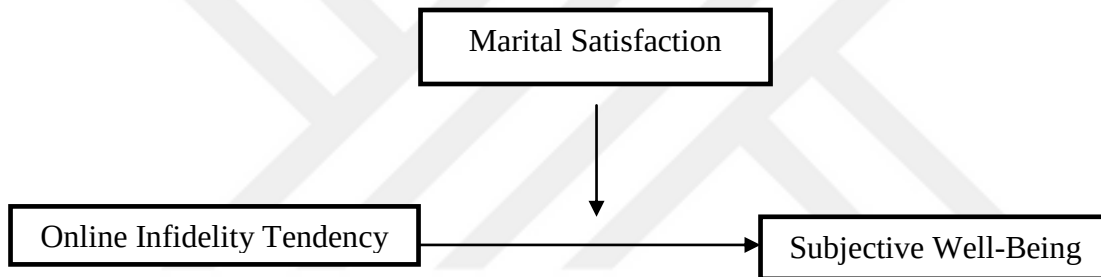


Figure 1.2. The Proposed Model for Moderating Effect of Marital Satisfaction

1.3. Significance of the Study

The concept of subjective well-being has received much attention. Psychology literature traditionally had focused on psychopathology and unhappiness to explain mental health; however, mental health is not so simple as to be restricted to the absence of mental disorder (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). This current study aims to assess how gender roles, online infidelity tendency, and marital satisfaction are associated with the subjective well-being of individuals. Hence, this more positive approach that focuses on happiness can provide researchers, and also clinicians, with a new perspective on understanding the underlying factors related to subjective well-being.

Although sex is one of the most frequently analyzed indicators of infidelity tendency, not much research has been conducted to examine the association between masculine and feminine gender role norms and infidelity tendency. Theories related to feminism have underlined the effects of cultural, political, and social aspects on gender, mainly regarding one's sense of identity (Visser, 2002). Although infidelity research revealed that men have higher rates of infidelity than women, it was also shown that sex differences are gradually decreasing, particularly in the examination of infidelity (Laumann, et al., 1994). Notably, compared to past, today women conform less to traditional gender role patterns regarding sexuality, and this may partly clarify the decreasing variations observed in rates of infidelity. Therefore, it seems a necessity to determine gender roles in association with infidelity rather than sex differences. In addition, while sex differences exist in engaging in online infidelity in previous studies (Martins et. al., 2015), showing that more men than women are more likely to engage in online infidelity, to the best knowledge of this researcher, no research currently exists which investigate the associations between gender roles and online infidelity tendency. Therefore, a further significance of the present study is the fact that it explores the association between gender roles (i.e., masculinity and femininity) and online infidelity tendency.

Given increasing number of online infidelity cases and the altering nature of romantic relationships, clinicians tend to encounter couples struggling with online infidelity and also individuals trying to cope with their own or partner's online infidelity. Online infidelity is damaging not only to the relationship, but also to the subjective well-being of spouses. Thus, a more apparent examination of what factors may affect online infidelity tendency may be helpful for therapists' assessments about not only present but also future issues that clients may have in their marital relationships.

Researchers have observed that after the discovery of infidelity, married individuals who were subjected to partner's infidelity experience several psychological problems, like post-traumatic stress disorder, damaged self-esteem, and depression.

Additionally, related literature showed that as with traditional infidelity, online infidelity is quite destructive in marital relationships. However, while past studies have often examined the detrimental impacts of online infidelity on the offended partners, there is a lack of existing research regarding subjective well-beings of involved partners. Accordingly, the current study which purposes to examine the association between subjective well-being and online infidelity tendency can be helpful in understanding the subjective well-being of married individuals who have infidelity tendency in online settings.

Moreover, there is a gap in the scientific literature on factors influencing the individuals' tendencies to engage in online infidelity. Due to the vital role of infidelity in marriage break-ups, more research should explore other areas that related to online infidelity tendency. Thus, the necessity for future research based on online infidelity tendency and on its proactive diagnosis and treatment is on the increase for researchers, even therapists. The current study addresses to explore the possible factors that affect individuals who are in a marital relationship to promote high expectations of an online affair.

Last, but not least, to date, no known studies in Turkey have examined online infidelity tendency; therefore, this research would help to close the existing gap in this field in Turkey. In addition to that, there is a gap in prior researches that examine the links among subjective well-being, online infidelity tendency, gender roles, and marital satisfaction in the Turkish literature. What is more, separate links between gender roles and several psychopathologies, infidelity and its detrimental effects on spouses, and sex and infidelity has been well established in previous research. However, information regarding associations between the study variables simultaneously does not exist in not only Turkish literature, but also in all psychology literature. Thus, the present study may activate and be a leader for next studies in this field.

1.4. Implications of the Study

Besides its theoretical contributions, the present study has potential to be helpful for practitioners. Knowledge of the roles of online infidelity tendency, feminine and masculine gender role norms, and marital satisfaction in positive psychological health may provide critical clues for individuals to maintain more satisfying lives. Thus, using the information developed by this study about the relationship among those variables, clinicians may use this knowledge while trying to understand how these variables affect married individuals' subjective well-beings.

It is essential to examine the variables of subjective well-being to develop strategies for early intervention. In addition, understanding the relationships between these variables (i.e., online infidelity tendency, gender roles and marital satisfaction) would help to identify the dynamics of the married individuals' subjective well-being. The results of this study can offer new information regarding the factors linked to subjective well-being. Thus, a complete picture of these variables counted above would have considerable importance for understanding better to increase human well-being.

A review of the literature reveals that experiences of infidelity are quite prevalent. It was shown that 25% of married men and %15 of married women have had extramarital sex at least once (Laumann, et al., 1994). The prevalence of infidelity attracts notice due to the severe personal and interpersonal consequences related to it. For instance, infidelity has been associated with divorce, spousal assaults, homicide, and psychological problems (Amato & Previti, 2003). Couples who report committing infidelity are more likely to take steps towards separation and divorce than married couples who do not report infidelity (Amato & Rogers, 1997). However, it is clear that the context under which online infidelity takes place is different than traditional infidelity. Treatment models for online infidelity and its aftermath are still in the development stage (Hertlein & Piercy, 2006). Marriage and family therapists need direction in how to assess and treat the unique challenges of

online infidelity. It is vital for therapists to address online infidelity in therapy with clients. Thus, the present study, which has as focus on the new phenomenon (i.e., online infidelity tendency), may help to make a valuable contribution for clinicians. Furthermore, this study examines essential concepts in the field of online infidelity tendency in order to find the effective methods of treating this marital and familial problem.

Taking the results of the present study into consideration, while working with married individuals attempting to increase their subjective well-beings, therapists may take the advantage of online infidelity tendency knowledge and its association with marital satisfaction. Notably, because the findings of the present study are foreseen to contribute further awareness to the dynamics of subjective well-being, therapists may benefit from the findings of the study for their interventions about marital satisfaction and online infidelity tendency of married individuals. Hence, assessing marital satisfaction of spouses and analyzing the potential impacts online infidelity tendency may help the therapists for increasing individuals' levels of subjective well-being. Overall, when clients' awareness in which marital satisfaction as a critical factor in the association of their online infidelity tendencies with subjective well-beings are increased, clinicians may help better the clients to change their behaviors and increase their subjective well-being.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents a comprehensive review of the literature pertaining to the field of interest of the study. The first section explains subjective well-being of the married individuals; the second focuses on online infidelity tendency, while the third addresses gender roles. The following section examines marital satisfaction. Lastly, the last section demonstrates the connection between literature review and aims of the study.

2.1 Subjective Well-Being

The aim of this section is to identify subjective well-being in detail. For this aim, subjective well-being is presented as follows; definition of subjective well-being, the stability of subjective well-being, and external and internal factors related to subjective well-being.

2.1.1 Definition of Subjective Well-Being

Well-being has been a topic of interest for human beings since time immemorial with the first literary evidence appearing in the works of ancient Greek philosophers such as Epicurus, Zeno and Aristotle. Even though the definition of well-being is still controversial and unsolved, it has been grounded in two distinct if overlapping philosophical perspectives for empirical investigation of well-being: *Hedonism* and *eudaimonia* (Ryan & Deci, 2001). The first of these, *hedonism*, views well-being as the concept which consists of pleasure and happiness (Kahneman et al., 1999, as cited in Ryan & Deci, 2001). On the contrary, according to the second perspective, which has been called as *eudaimonia*, well-being is much more than happiness. It has been operationalized as happiness plus self-actualization and vitality (Ryan &

Deci, 2001). Although two research works of literature are somewhat overlapping, these two perspectives about well-being have different views of human nature and what forms a good society. For this reason, they ask separate questions regarding what developmental or societal origins of well-being are.

Definitions of happiness derived from the eudemonic perspective suggest that people live in compliance with their true selves. Eudaimonia exists when individuals' acts fit with their intensely held values. By this way, people can feel as authentic and fully alive (Waterman, 1993). In contrast, from the hedonic perspective, happiness focuses on the internal information that people used to define their subjective happiness level (Diener, 1984; Ryan & Deci, 2001). One of the most recognized hedonic definitions of happiness is "Subjective Well-Being." Subjective well-being expresses individuals' opinions and feelings about their lives (Lucas & Diener, 2008). In other words, it refers to individuals' both cognitive and affective judgments of their lives (Diener, 1984). People high, relative to low, in subjective well-being feel many positive and few negative emotions, and they are satisfied with their lives in general. Although it was revealed that there are various attributes of a precious life, subjective well-being mainly emphasizes people's own evaluations of their lives (Diener, 2000).

Subjective well-being is conceptualized as two general aspects: Cognitive and affective (Lucas, Diener, & Suh, 1996). Diener (1984) presented that three principal components delineate subjective well-being: "Life satisfaction; Positive affect; and Negative affect". The first component of subjective well-being (life satisfaction) is the cognitive aspect of subjective well-being and refers to a conscious evaluative judgment of one's own life as a whole. People evaluate how satisfying their lives are regarding their criteria. In contrast, the other two components of subjective well-being (positive affect and negative affect) are affective aspects of subjective well-being, which is commonly called "happiness," and these components refer to having common responses of positive affect and uncommon responses of negative affect. People assay how positive their affects or pleasurable their lives. The affective

components of subjective well-being depict ongoing judgments or reactions to current events that people are experiencing (Diener, 2000). The two aspects of subjective well-being are moderately correlated, and several measures of subjective well-being consist of both components (Chamberlain, 1988).

In all, there are various definitions of well-being and subjective well-being is one of the hedonic definitions. While affective components of subjective well-being consist of both positive and negative emotional experiences, cognitive component (i.e., life satisfaction) is one's overall evaluation of his/her life, considered as based on individual's judgment of current life events concerning one's criteria (Pavot & Diener, 1993).

2.1.2 Stability of Subjective Well-Being

Many life events and life changes produce wide effects on people's daily subjective evaluations and emotional experiences. However, except for certain important ones, these events and changes generally influence individual's long-term level of subjective well-being in a limited way (Pavot & Diener, 2004). The process of adaptation (Brickman & Campbell, 1971) was suggested as a reason for the limited long-term effect of many life events and experiences.

Brickman and Campbell (1971) introduced the concept of "hedonic treadmill" implying that good or bad situations influence happiness only in a short term, but then people rapidly become adapted in hedonic neutrality. In other words, people return to their "set-point" at last. The description of the hedonic treadmill includes similar processes to sensory adaptation which occur when people give emotional reactions to life experiences. One's emotional system adapts to one's present life circumstances, and also all responses are related to one's earlier experiences. Brickman and Campbell (1971) suggested that since people give a reaction to good or bad events in a short time, but they return to a neutral stance in brief, happiness or unhappiness is only a reaction that experienced in a short time given to the adjustments of people's situations. Moreover, people keep searching for happiness

because they think that remarkable happiness waits in the next aim achieved, in the future social relationship formed, or in the next barrier removed. As new goals repeatedly attract people's attention, people frequently want to be happy by not being aware that these attempts are vain in the end. Later on, Brickman, Coates, and Janoff-Bulman (1978) provided empirical support for the hedonic adaptation. They reported that lottery winners are not significantly happier than non-winners or paralytic people are not considerably less pleased than others. They explained these findings by suggesting that people become adapted to all events regardless of fortunate or unfortunate.

The hedonic treadmill model has received robust support from other researchers. For instance, Suh, Diener, and Fujita (1996) conducted a longitudinal study to monitor the stability of subjective well-being. They revealed that people adapt to circumstances very rapidly. Good and bad major life events (e.g., being fired or promoted) predicted life satisfaction and positive and negative affect only if they occurred in the last three months. Earlier events did not influence happiness.

However, Brickman and Campbell's (1971) hedonic treadmill model has been revised in several ways, despite the fact that the core elements of model remain constant. For example, Diener and Diener (1995) pointed out that people may not return to hedonic neutrality, instead they may adapt back to a positive set-point. People are mostly in positive subjective well-being, above the neutral points of the scales. Another revise of the hedonic treadmill model was that people have different set-points, and individual differences in set-points mostly results from temperaments (Diener, Lucas, & Napa-Scollon, 2006). In addition, in their longitudinal study, Fujita and Diener (2005) demonstrated that well-being set-points can change under some conditions such as being widowed or laid-off from work. That is to say, hedonic treadmill model's idea that people cannot do much to change their long-term levels of subjective well-being may be untenable. Considering these empirical revisions, it was suggested that subjective well-being is not always dependent on

entire adaptation; some life circumstances can significantly influence an individual's constant level of subjective well-being (Pavot & Diener, 2004).

2.1.3 Factors Affecting Subjective Well-Being

In this part, factors related to subjective well-being are mentioned. First, external correlates and then, internal correlates are given.

2.1.3.1 External Correlates of Subjective Well-Being

2.1.3.1.1 Age

The association between age and subjective well-being has been investigated by some researchers, with contrary findings. Costa et al. (1987) and Stacey and Gatz (1991) found that older adults have lower levels of both positive affect and negative affect than younger adults. Similarly, Braun (1977) revealed that while younger adults have more intense positive and negative feelings, older adults exhibit higher levels of overall life satisfaction. Diener and Suh (1997) conducted a study in 40 different countries, and found that as people get older, positive affect decreases with age, negative affect displays a small variation among all age groups, and life satisfaction slightly increases. In another study conducted by Blanchflower and Oswald (2004), it was found that subjective well-being is U-shaped in age. In both Britain and the United States, subjective well-being arrives at a minimum around the age of 40 when other variables are held constant. A study conducted in Turkey (Eryilmaz & Ercan, 2011) found that respondents in the 19-25 age group have lower levels of subjective well-being, compared to those in 14-17 age group and 26-45 age group. On the other hand, some researchers found a positive relationship between age and subjective well-being indicating that as age increase, happiness increases (or does not decrease) (Campbell et al., 1976, cited in Diener, 1984; Herzog & Rodgers, 1981; Larson, 1978).

Diener (1984) reviewed the literature on subjective well-being and concluded that although early studies revealed that young people were happier than older people, more recent research found that there is nearly no age effect on overall well-being.

Regarding controversial findings, Diener (1984) suggested that the contradictory results may result from using narrow age ranges; thus, the correlations only represent the changes within those years. Besides, other variables that co-vary with age have not been controlled. Performing cross-sectional, instead of longitudinal, data may also reveal cohort differences, not age differences.

2.3.1.1.2 Sex

There are controversial findings among the studies investigating the relationship between sex and subjective well-being. In their meta-analysis, Haring, Stock and Okun (1984) reviewed 146 studies, and displayed that men are happier than women; however, this difference is small (.04). On the other hand, in another meta-analysis, Wood, Rhodes, and Whelan (1989) investigated 93 studies, and they demonstrated that women have a higher level of subjective well-being than men; however, men have a higher overall life satisfaction because this meta-analysis also included the measures of psychopathology.

Some researchers also revealed that there is no sex difference in subjective well-being. For example, Wilson (1967) indicated that both men and women are happy. Diener and Diener (1995) performed a study across 31 countries with 13,118 undergraduate students, and results yielded that there is no gender difference in subjective well-being. Odacı and Çıkrıkçı (2012) found no significant difference between men and women in subjective well-being, but women have higher life satisfaction than men in a Turkish sample.

Moreover, some researchers reported an interaction with age. Medley (1980) found that younger women are happier than younger men, and older men are happier than older women. Eryılmaz & Ercan (2011) conducted a study in Turkey and found that male participants from 26-45 age groups have higher levels of subjective well-being in contrast to female participants in the same age group, but this gender difference was not significantly found in 14-17 and also 19-25 age groups. Consequently,

empirical research findings could not reach a common consequence about gender differences in subjective well-being.

2.3.1.1.3 Race

As with many demographic variables, race or ethnicity exerts a significant effect on subjective well-being, though a small one. In their meta-analysis, Stock, Okun, Haring, & Witter (1985) reviewed only pre-1980 studies and found that European-Americans have higher subjective well-being than African-Americans to some extent. In their review, Myers and Diener (1995) concluded that race is not a predictor of subjective well-being. Diener, Sandvik, Seidlitz, and Diener (1993) found that African-Americans and European-Americans score similarly on scales of subjective well-being, and African-Americans are slightly less vulnerable to depression. Crocker and Major (1989) stated that similar to men and women, and disabled and nondisabled people, black and white people report comparable self-esteem. People who are in disadvantaged groups sustain their self-esteem by comparing themselves within their group, instead of an out-group, and also see difficulties as external factors, like prejudice.

2.3.1.1.4 Education

Education has been shown to have a small, but significant correlation with subjective well-being (Diener et al., 1999). In their meta-analysis, Witter, Okun, Stock, and Haring (1984) reviewed 556 studies and displayed a median effect size of .13 in the relationship between education and subjective well-being. They also found that the relationship between education and subjective well-being did not significantly differ during a 50 year period. Furthermore, empirical studies displayed that the link between education and subjective well-being is likely due to education's co-variation with income and occupational status, the factors which have been shown to influence on subjective well-being (Diener, 1984; Diener et al., 1999). In other words, rather than education itself, having a higher education brings about better occupational status and higher income; and therefore, educated people have higher subjective

well-being. Besides, education leads to a decrease in subjective well-being when SES and income are controlled and held constant (Argyle, 1999). Concerning this, Diener, et al., (1993) indicated that education is a stronger predictor of subjective well-being among people of low income in the United States. Additionally, in an international examination, education is an absolute predictor of subjective well-being in more impoverished regions, like Mexico and Nigeria, as compared to wealthier nations like the United States and Western Europe (Veenhoven et al., 1994, cited in Argyle, 1999). Altogether, there is a mild correlation in the link between education and subjective well-being.

2.3.1.1.5 Marital Status

Marital status has been reported to be one of the most consistent predictors of subjective well-being among the demographic variables. Wilson (1967) was the first to explain the significant association between marital status and subjective well-being, and then more recent studies iterated this association (Diener et al., 1999; Myers, 1999; Myers, 2000). In their meta-analysis, Haring-Hidore, Stock, Okun, and Witter (1985) reviewed numerous relevant studies and substantially showed that married people have higher levels of subjective well-being compared to non-married people. Further, regarding gender, it was shown that married women are happier than single women, and married men are happier than single men (Diener et al., 1999). Diener et al., (2000) conducted a study among 42 countries with 59,169 participants, and indicated that despite small variances, the link between marital status and subjective well-being is similar in all over the world. Likewise, studies with larger sample size (Hayo & Seirfert, 2003; Lee, Seccombe, Shehan, 1991) found that for both men and women, married individuals are happier than never married, widowed, or divorced individuals.

Although marriage has an interaction with other demographic variables such as income and age, it has a significant impact even after these variables were controlled (Diener et al., 1999). However, according to Diener & Suh (1997), with increasing

age, especially after the age of 60, there is a steady decrease in the number of married individuals. By the age of 80, only about a third of people remain married. However, the difference between widowed and married individuals in life satisfaction decreases and almost disappears with age (Diener & Suh, 1997). Moreover, differences between married and non-married men and women in happiness were investigated and found that married men were persistently happier than unmarried men, and married women were persistently happier than unmarried women (Lee, et al., 1991). Diener et al. (1999) demonstrated that while marriage provides more advantages for men than for women regarding positive affect, married men and women are not different regarding life satisfaction. Altogether, marital status is one of the critical indicators of subjective well-being.

2.3.1.1.6 Income and Wealth

The relationship between income and subjective well-being has been investigated by several researchers. In general, researchers demonstrated that people who have higher income have higher subjective well-being because income enables people to meet their basic needs and to buy what they want (Blanchflower & Oswald, 2004; Wang & VanderWeele, 2011). Likewise, in a meta-analysis, Veenhoven (1994) reviewed numerous relevant works and demonstrated that there is a small but significant relationship between personal income and happiness.

On the other hand, some studies demonstrated a relative association of income with subjective well-being and the effect of income on subjective well-being depends on other variables (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2002). For example, the power of the association between income and subjective well-being is different in different countries. Myers and Diener (1995) stated that income was found to be a significant predictor of subjective well-being in emerging countries, but not in rich countries, such as the United States and Western European countries, and income is not influential for subjective well-being when basic needs are met. According to Ryan and Deci (2001), wealth is more critical for high subjective well-being in poorer

countries because insufficient infrastructure restrict opportunities for constant relationships, individual expressiveness, and productivity. Poor nations restrict the satisfaction of physical needs (i.e., food and shelter) and also prevent practicing competencies, pursuing goals, and maintaining relationships. Hence, money for satisfying needs may be more important in poorer countries than rich countries where people have some basic sources for pursuing their goals.

Diener et al. (1993) revealed that income change overtime only slightly affects subjective well-being. A rapid increase in income leads to lower subjective well-being as high aspirations probably follow the rapid rise, and also by disturbances in employment moves and family separation. Thus, Diener et al. (1993) suggested that goals and expectations should be considered to understand the relationship between income and subjective well-being, advantages of an increasing income are balanced if one's material aspirations increase even more rapidly than one's wealth. Additionally, occupational status and power which are varied by income were found to be related to subjective well-being (Yetim, 2001). These factors differ from a community and stay constant when income is increased. Person's income level become meaningful based on the society in which they live. Also, people report their satisfaction of income by comparing other people in their communities, and it leads the effect of income on subjective well-being to evaluate by making a comparison with others (Diener, 1984).

2.3.1.1.7 Unemployment

Unemployment has obviously negative impact on subjective well-being. (Diener et al., 1999; Gerdtham & Johannesson, 2001). It was found that unemployed people have the lowest level of subjective well-being compared to employed and retired people, even after controlling for the decrease in income (Campbell, Converse, & Rodgers, 1976, cited in Diener, 1984). Similarly, Clark and Oswald (1994) indicated that unemployed people who are better educated, at the age of 30 to 50, and who live in a district that employment rate is high are the lowest level of subjective well-

being group. Thus, Clark and Oswald (1994) suggested that unemployment has a negative effect on subjective well-being through the incongruity between goals and reality. As the people have expectations of themselves to work and earn by being more educated, at the working age, and in the environment including people who work, their unemployment would decrease their subjective well-being. Moreover, Blanchflower and Oswald (2004) studied well-being overtime in the United States and Great Britain. They indicated that higher levels of well-being are seen in women than men, married people than never married, currently widowed or separated, or those divorced, the highly educated, and those whose parents did not divorce; however, it is quite low among unemployed people.

2.3.1.1.8 Physical Health

The relationship between physical health and subjective well-being is controversial. Research results demonstrated a relatively extensive relationship between self-rated health and subjective well-being, and this effect is significant even after controlling for SES and age (Diener, 1984). In another study conducted by Selim (2008) in Turkey, it was found that all levels of health status are the significant predictors that have the most significant positive impact on life satisfaction. On the other hand, *good* and *excellent* health statuses have a higher significant positive effect on happiness than the other levels of health status. As health status levels increases, life satisfaction and happiness increase, and *excellent* health status is the most crucial variable among several life domains. Regarding affective components of subjective well-being, Pettit and his colleagues (2001) found that while positive affect is a significant predictor of good health, the association between negative affect and health is not significant. However, Dua (1994) showed that negative affect is linked to poorer physical health, high frequency of doctor visits, and absent work days due to health problems.

However, empirical results on the relationship between physical health and subjective well-being are complex. Diener et al., (1999) revealed that the perception

of health is a stronger predictor than objective health and negative attitudes towards health decrease one's subjective well-being. Moreover, in their meta-analysis, Okun, Stock, Haring, and Witter (1984) found a consistent moderate correlation of $r = .32$ between physical health and subjective well-being. Also, this relationship was stronger for women than men and when subjective measures of health were used. However, they also found that when health was assessed by others (i.e., doctors), the correlation dropped to .16. Ryan and Deci (2001) suggested that the meaning and interpretation of health states may be significant aspects in subjective well-being. Thus, some people may have objectively poor health and low subjective well-being, while some people may have low subjective well-being and good health.

2.1.3.2 Internal Correlates of Subjective Well-Being

Subjective well-being research previously focused on the question of “who” is happy (Diener et al., 1999); whether is he or she married, healthy, or other demographic variables. However, since demographic variables distinguish little from happy and unhappy people, attention shifted from focusing on demographic characteristics to examining personality as the major predictor of subjective well-being (DeNeve, 1999). Since people generally become adapted to good or bad conditions, temperament and personality seem to be significant determinants of subjective well-being to some extent (Diener, 2000).

Considering specific personality traits, for example, Diener et al. (1999) revealed that Extroversion and Neuroticism were the most consistently and significantly correlated with subjective well-being among the “Big Five” Model. In other words, Extroversion is the most powerfully related trait with positive affect as a predictor of higher subjective well-being, whereas Neuroticism is related to negative affect displaying lower subjective well-being. In a meta-analysis of the literature, DeNeve and Cooper (1998) used nine literature search engines to retrieve relevant studies and identified 137 personality traits correlated with subjective well-being, with more than 40,000 adults. They found overall $r = .19$ correlation between subjective well-

being and personality. They showed that personality traits predicted life satisfaction, positive affect, and happiness equally; however those predicted negative affect less than other components of subjective well-being. Moreover, they reported that traits which are the most strongly associated with subjective well-being are “repressive-defensiveness, trust, emotional stability, the locus of control-chance, desire for control, hardiness, positive affectivity, private collective self-esteem, and tension”. Further, concerning the Big Five personality traits, they indicated that Extroversion and Agreeableness were consistently positively associated with subjective well-being, and Neuroticism was found to be consistently negatively related to subjective well-being. The remaining two Big Five personality traits, Openness to Experience and Conscientiousness, had a significant, but a mild association with subjective well-being. When subjective well-being was examined regarding its components, life satisfaction and negative affect were predicted by Neuroticism most closely, whereas positive affect was predicted equally by Extroversion and Agreeableness.

Consistent with DeNeve and Cooper’s (1998) results, Hayes and Joseph (2003) found that Neuroticism and Conscientiousness traits predicted life satisfaction best, whereas Extroversion and Neuroticism predicted happiness best. They suggested that while these results provide evidence that Neuroticism and Extroversion are traits associated with subjective well-being, Conscientiousness is an additional personality aspect in understanding subjective well-being. Besides, Costa and McCrae (1980) demonstrated that Extroversion had effects on positive affect, while Neuroticism had effects on negative affect over a ten-year period. Malkoç (2011) investigated the relationship between the Big Five and subjective well-being with a Turkish sample and found that while Neuroticism predicted subjective well-being negatively, Extraversion and Conscientiousness predicted subjective well-being positively.

Early empirical evidence revealed that personality is the most critical determinant of subjective well-being. More specifically, Extroversion is influential to the experience of high subjective well-being, and Neuroticism is prominent for the lack of subjective well-being (DeNeve, 1999). Diener and Lucas (1999) suggested that

these Big Five Model results should not be unexpected because Extroversion is described by positive feelings, and negative feelings nearly express neuroticism. They provided evidence that the correlation between Extroversion and positive mood was .80 and that Neuroticism and trait negative affect were undifferentiated. Further, Diener and Lucas (1999) suggested that the correlations between the other three Big Five traits (i.e., Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, and Openness to Experience) and subjective well-being are less strong and less consistent because these traits are mainly influenced by environmental factors. On the other hand, Extroversion and Neuroticism are mostly influenced by genetic factors.

Apart from the Big Five personality traits, several personality characteristics associated with subjective well-being were also studied. To illustrate this, in their review article, Myers and Diener (1995) investigated who is happy, and they examined four inner traits that display people with high level of subjective well-being: Self-esteem, a sense of personal control, optimism, and extroversion. Extroverts were happier than introverts regardless that they live alone or together with others, work in solidarity or social occupations, or live in urban or rural areas (Pavot, Diener, & Fujita, 1990). Moreover, Diener and Diener (1995) found that across nations, self-esteem is positively linked to subjective well-being; however, that association is weaker for women in collectivist cultures in which family is preponderance over an individual. Furthermore, optimism was found to be correlated with the measures of subjective well-being such as life satisfaction, positive affect, and negative affect (Lucas, Diener, & Suh, 1996). Scheier and Carver (1992) reviewed literature findings of displaying the relationship between optimism and subjective well-being. They suggested that optimists are more likely to use a problem-focused coping style, seek social support more often, and focus positive aspects of the situation when they come across difficulties. On the other hand, pessimists tend to use denial as a way of coping and concentrate on stressful aspects of the situation.

Overall, subjective well-being is the people's cognitive and affective evaluation of their lives, and it is quite stable across time. External correlates are not strong predictors for subjective well-being. Campbell, Converse, and Rodgers (1976) found that demographic variables of age, sex, income, race, education, and marital status taken together predict less than 20 % of the variance in subjective well-being. Argyle (1999) revealed that external conditions anticipate approximately 15 % of the variance in subjective well-being. Pavot and Diener (2004) reviewed the effects of both external and internal factors of subjective well-being and suggested that demographic variables account for modest amounts of variance in the overall estimation of subjective well-being, compared to personality. Nonetheless, demographic characteristics of an individual tend to influence his or her subjective well-being to some extent, and demographic information may contribute to the overall understanding of the individual's subjective well-being. Personality factors have a significant impact on subjective well-being.

2.2. Online Infidelity Tendency

The purpose of this section is to understand online infidelity tendency in detail. For this aim, online infidelity tendency is presented as follows; definition of online infidelity, acts of online infidelity, attitudes of online infidelity, contributing factors to online infidelity, and impacts of online infidelity.

2.2.1. Definition of Online Infidelity

Infidelity is a fairly complex phenomenon for researchers and therapists. In their methodological review of the literature on infidelity, Blow and Hartnett (2005a) exhibited that infidelity lacks a consistent operational definition showing the different definitions among the studies. Further, they suggested a broad definition of infidelity:

Infidelity is a sexual and/or emotional act engaged in by one person within a committed relationship, where such an act occurs outside of the primary relationship and constitutes a breach of trust and/or

violation of agreed-upon norms (overt and covert) by one or both individuals in that relationship in relation to romantic/emotional or sexual exclusivity (p. 191-192).

Such a broad definition appears to be the most optimum definition because most couples have their own values or beliefs that what acts (e.g., sexual intercourse, fondling, emotional bonds over friendships, friendships, and pornography use) comprises infidelity (Blow & Hartnett, 2005a; Docan-Morgan & Docan, 2007). The Internet has put forth a new dimension in infidelity research that online infidelity even more ambiguous because there is no physical touch in online relationships (Docan-Morgan & Docan, 2007).

Online infidelity is relatively new construct within the infidelity literature. Young et al. (2000) defined online infidelity as “a romantic and/or sexual relationship that is initiated via online contact and maintained predominantly through electronic conversations that occur through e-mail and in virtual communities such as chat rooms, interactive games, and newsgroups” (p. 60). A further definition was given by Nelson, Piercy, and Sprenkle (2005), identifying online infidelity as “using the Internet to take sexual energy of any sort—thoughts, feelings, and behaviors—outside of a committed sexual relationship in such a way that it damages the relationship” (p.174).

As well as traditional infidelity, defining online infidelity has been a struggle for researchers and also therapists. Hertlein and Piercy (2006) reviewed the relevant literature and demonstrated that one aspect that remains stable among the definitions of online infidelity is secrecy. In online infidelity cases, involved partners can live their online relationships in secret by immediately closing the application being used, deleting texts, and cleaning out e-mail boxes (Schneider, 2000). Someone who typically seems to work in his or her office or in a home PC can engage in cybersex secretly (Hertlein & Piercy, 2006). Moreover, engaging in online sexual activity influences relationships with others. Among the people who pursue sexual interests

on the Internet, 70% of them stated that they hide the amount of time spending online (Cooper, Scherer, Boies, & Gordon, 1999).

With respect to the therapists, Nelson, et al., (2005) conducted a multi-wave Delphi study with 20 marriage and family therapists in order to investigate therapists' impressions of online infidelity and the degree of agreement in their definitions and treatment. They found little agreement on conceptualization, critical issues, and interventions of online infidelity among the therapists. The authors noted that the absence of agreement may be related to a relative absence of definitional consensus of online infidelity.

Since online infidelity is relatively new context within infidelity studies, researchers mainly attempted to highlight online infidelity is different from traditional infidelity with respect to relationship formation, communications, and relationship development (Docan-Morgan & Docan, 2007). In offline affairs, people meet each other to develop an extra-dyadic involvement in reality; however, people may not meet in real life during online relations (Hertlein & Piercy, 2006). Because direct physical contact with online person is not necessary for online infidelity, it becomes more of an issue that what acts may constitute online infidelity (Docan-Morgan & Docan, 2007).

2.2.2. Acts of Online Infidelity

Although there are similarities in several ways, forming an online relationship is a noticeably different type of interaction than forming a face-to-face relationship (Cooper & Sportolari, 1997). This type of forming a relationship generates a gap of ambiguity regarding what constitutes infidelity on the Internet. Whitty (2003) explored to understand what behaviors constitute online infidelity with 1,117 participants who were asked to rate the level of infidelity for 15 behaviors. The behaviors, which are related to both traditional infidelity and online infidelity, were determined from the existing literature. The results demonstrated that three types of behaviors represent online infidelity: Sexual infidelity, emotional infidelity, and

pornography use. An important finding from this study that highlighted pornography as one of the components of online infidelity was that connecting with an online individual is not essential for online infidelity to occur.

Henline, Lamke, and Howard, (2007) conducted a similar study to Whitty (2003) exploring perceptions of undergraduate students who are in committed relationships on the acts of online infidelity. The results indicated that participants consider online infidelity to be a versatile, complicated concept that comprises a sexual aspect such as online sex and flirting; and an emotional aspect such as having a serious emotional relationship with someone online and sharing intimate details of their lives with others.

Another study investigating which types of acts conceive of online infidelity was performed by Docan-Morgan and Docan (2007). The findings showed that online infidelity can be classified into two types: Superficial/informal behavior (e.g., chatting about sports, talking about current events, joking) and involving/goal-directed behavior (e.g., disclosing love, making plans to meet someone online, having cybersex with someone online), the latter of which is regarded more devastating. The result of this study suggested a different perspective which explains the varying degrees of behaviors (e.g. emotional, sexual, or otherwise) that might be engaged in online venues. In other words, the conceptualization of online infidelity is on a behavioral continuum ranging in severity from superficial/informal behavior to involving/goal-directed behavior.

2.2.3. Attitudes of Online Infidelity

Although online infidelity does not include physically touch of another individual, previous studies suggest that it has negative impacts on primary relationship as traditional infidelity (Whitty, 2003; Whitty, 2005). Shaw (1997) stated that “Internet infidelity is, of course, behaviorally different from other kinds of infidelity; however, the contributing factors and results are similar when we consider how it

affects the way partners relate.” Therefore, people’s attitudes towards online infidelity are an important area within the context.

Whitty (2005) explored men’s and women’s attitudes towards online infidelity. A majority of participants considered online infidelity is a real form of infidelity, and it has severe impacts on primary relationships as traditional infidelity. On the other hand, some of the participants assuming that developing an online relationship is not a real form of infidelity explained that such virtual relationships were only “fun and flirtation”, and thus, it could be only seen as a kind of friendship. Similarly, Wang and Hsiung (2008) investigated Taiwanese students’ attitudes towards online infidelity. Participants were presented 12 online activities and were asked to rate to what extent these behaviors are unfaithful. Results indicated that participants were separated into three groups: Those who recognized most of the online activities as acceptable and not constituting infidelity, those who considered that only sexual activities constitute infidelity, and those who had a tendency to think most of the online behaviors as infidelity. Moreover, Taiwanese students’ attitudes of online infidelity were significantly related to their online relationship behaviors. Participants who had formed more intensive and longer online relationships were prone to see online relationships as more agreeable and as not constituting infidelity. In respect to gender, men were more likely to have accepting attitudes than women, and women were more apt to label online relationship activities, especially sexual ones, such as participating sex-chat rooms and having cybersex, as infidelity.

Another study investigating perception of different behaviors regarding the sexual activities on the Internet indicated that sex on the Internet is perceived as acts of betrayal (Parker & Wampler, 2003). An interesting finding was that perceptions of sex on the Internet showed difference on the basis of the type of internet sexual activity. For instance, participants rated visiting adult chat rooms with no interaction or becoming a member of adult web site as less threatening than cyber sex. Although no physical touch was involved, most of the internet sexual activities were perceived to involve emotional elements.

Henline, et al.,’s (2007) study also follows along these same lines of perceptions of online and offline infidelity. Results revealed that men and women are more inclined to react in a similar way concerning sexually and emotionally based acts as betrayal on the Internet than offline. This study also showed that both men and women express greater distress for hypothetical online emotional, in comparison to online sexual, infidelity because of the perception that face-to-face interactions are more likely followed by online emotional, as compared to online sexual, infidelity.

2.2.4. Contributing Factors to Online Infidelity

Previous research indicated that the Internet facilitates infidelity (Aviram & Amichai-Hamburger, 2005; Cooper, 1998). Several factors contribute to the opportunity for engaging in online infidelity such as progressively broad use of the Internet and e-mail services, online social networks, continuous formation of chat rooms, and sexual and pornography-related sites (Henline, et. al., 2007). However, while a large body of literature has examined the associated factors of offline infidelity, less is known about online infidelity. Thus, it is essential to understand the nature of online infidelity.

Cooper (1998) identified three aspects of online infidelity that distinguish it from traditional infidelity: Accessibility, affordability, and anonymity. Accessibility refers to the extent of access an individual has to the Internet. Individuals can find a romantic partner at any time in online venues by virtue of easy access. In other words, the more access an individual has to the Internet, the more likely s/he will engage in infidelity in comparison to someone with lesser access to the Internet (Maheu & Subotnik, 2001). Affordability represents the cost of engaging in online infidelity. The Internet is a cheap way that an Internet user can visit numerous sites and contact with others. Finally, anonymity refers to the individuals’ capability to establish any identity on the Internet and representing themselves as different than they actually are. Anonymity facilitates self-disclosure that is very common in online conversations due to not feeling discomfort in showing up their fantasies to

unfamiliar people (Mileham, 2007). It also allows individuals to secretly engage in online infidelity without the fear of being caught by their spouses (Young, et al., 2000).

In addition to specific features that contribute to online infidelity, pre-existing relationship problems may lead individuals to engage in online infidelity. Young et al., (2000) suggested that people who have problems such as poor communication skills, unresolved sexual dissatisfaction, different views in child-rearing, a current relocation from support from family and friends, financial issues, and poor conflict resolution skills are more likely to engage in online infidelity. An online partner may provide a false notion of unconditional support to individuals who have problems in their relationships or marriages (Young, 1998). In Cooper, Delmonico, and Burg's study (2000), 45 % of the participants were ranked as "at-risk" group. Individuals may get involved in online infidelity as a way of escape from dealing with ongoing problems (Young, et al., 2000). Taken together, these factors may give rise to the tendency of online infidelity.

2.2.5. Impacts of Online Infidelity

Online infidelity has detrimental impacts on both relationships and individuals (Hertlein & Stevenson, 2010). Cyberaffairs seriously influence an on-going, long-term, face-to-face relationship, and are highly likely to result in marital discord, separation, and divorce (Young, 1998). For instance, Vaughn (2004) found that 16 % of married individuals divorce after the disclosure of online infidelity. Moreover, secretive online relationships may influence several areas in the committed relationships, such as conflict-resolution, emotional support, and intimacy (Cooper, et al, 2000b).

Previous research indicated that spouses are negatively influenced by online infidelity. Schneider (2000) conducted a study of participants who had experienced severe negative outcomes of their partner's cyberaffairs. Results indicated that 22 % of the participants divorced or separated, and most of the others considered breaking

up seriously. 68 % of the participants, one or both, had lost sexual interest in partners. After discovery of their partner's online relationships, individuals reported to feel hurt, betrayal, rejection, abandonment, devastation, loneliness, shame, isolation, humiliation, jealousy, and anger, damage of self-esteem, and stressed due to being lied to over and over again. Participants also noted that they feel hopeless because they compare their bodies and sexual performances negatively with the online partner and visuals. Similarly, Whitty (2005) found that when individuals are given a hypothetical scenario of online infidelity they do, individuals perceive online betrayal as having a serious impact on their primary relationships as offline betrayal. Besides, the aggrieved partners expressed sadness and anger over the illicit online relationship. They expressed to seeking revenge by hurting, even murdering, the involved partner or the lover, and felt a loss of self-esteem after discovery of the affair. They also reported a loss of trust, and end their relationships as a result of the affair. Furthermore, Cooper et al. (2000b) indicated that online relationships disturb conflict resolution in primary relationships or cause triangulation. Spouses who contend with conflict in their primary relationships may look for comfort, empathy, and sexual intimacy in online relationships instead of resolving the conflict in the primary relationship. In addition, online infidelity includes secrecy and shame that goes with dishonesty of the infidelity and consuming energy from the primary relationship. This inhibits healthy communication ways and leads to feelings of distress between partners and debates (Cooper et al., 2000b).

As regards individuals who engage in online infidelity, previous studies showed that involved partner feel shame, guilt, rejection, anger, and other negative feelings (Cooper, et al., 2000b). Whitty's (2005) findings supported these results, indicating that online infidelity involvement lead individuals to feel upset about the betrayal and spend less time with their offline partner. In another study, Underwood and Findlay (2004) explored the potential impacts of extra-dyadic online relationships on existing marital or de facto relationships in a small sample size ($n = 75$) of individuals who were involved in an extra-dyadic relationship on the Internet. A

majority of participants reported that while they are more satisfied with their online relationship than with their primary relationship, they considered that primary relationship is more important than the online one. Only one-fourth of respondents considered that their online relationship had negatively affected their primary one. On the other hand, they reported that they hide the truth about the time and nature of their activities, and daily incomplete tasks, and that they had a decreased level of sexual intimacy with their primary partner.

Furthermore, Schneider (2000) noted that not only couples but also children whose parents are involved in online sexual activities experience adverse consequences. The most frequently reported consequence was unavailability of one or both parents to spend time or pay attention to children; thus, children might be neglected or ignored by their parents. Besides, children might be involved in parental conflicts, might be exposed to pornography, and might be influenced by negative impacts of the possible divorce or separation. Overall, these problems represents that online relationships seriously influence primary offline relationships and also couples.

2.3 Gender Roles

In the following section, the definition and history of conceptualization of gender roles are presented firstly. Then, variables related to gender roles are discussed.

2.3.1 Definition and Roots of Masculinity-Femininity

Male and female differences function as a fundamental principle to organize every human culture (Bem, 1981). Sex refers to the biological features of being a female with XX chromosome and being a male with XY chromosome (Delega, Winstead, & Jones, 2005). On the other hand, gender refers to the psychologically, sociologically, and culturally established differences between male and female (Bird & Melville, 1934, p.34). Gender roles were developed as children obtain attitudes, behaviors, emotional responses, and motives which are culturally prescribed as suitable for individuals of their sex (Perry & Bussey, 1984, p. 262). Bem (1981) argued that

children internalize these roles which are constructed by their cultural atmosphere at an early age, having a clear view of how men and women are expected to act. For instance, one of the commonly believed gender role assumption is that while women are socialized to acquire the domestic role, men are socialized to acquire the worker role (Eagly, 1987).

Concepts of masculinity and femininity have seen quite a few revisions over the past decades. Before the 1970s, masculinity and femininity were originally conceptualized as a single, bipolar dimension. They were seen as two opposite ends of a single continuum (Constantinople, 1973). People could be categorized as either being masculine or being feminine, precluding the condition that an individual may hold both masculine and feminine features. In fact, individuals in this condition were viewed as deviant. The role of culture and society on gender was ignored, and masculinity and femininity were treated as main human traits (Lewin, 1984). Nevertheless, in the mid-1970s two prevailing theories regarding conceptualization of gender roles have been developed. Both Bem (1974) and Spence (Spence, et al., 1974) recognized masculinity and femininity as separate, unipolar rather than a single, bipolar dimension. Thus, individuals were categorized as “masculine”, “feminine”, “androgynous” (i.e., high on both dimensions), and “undifferentiated” (i.e., low on both dimensions).

Bem’s (1981) gender schema theory claims that individuals become gendered in their society and sex-related features are maintained and transmitted to the other members of that society. Despite the fact that societies show differences to assign specific tasks to the two sexes, all societies divide adult roles among their members in regard to sex, and anticipate this division in the socialization of their children. Children learn to process gender-associated information through the way of *schema*, or network of associations that organizes and leads individuals’ information. According to Bem (1981), these gender schemas allow for some information to be more quickly assimilated than others and individuals vary in the degree to which they possess these gender schemas.

Additionally, Bem (1974) developed The Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI) which includes self-descriptions of gender-typed traits of males and females. An individual's gender-role was described in terms of masculine and feminine rather than biological sex. Thus, traits were called "masculine" if they were assessed as more fitting for men than women in the society and "feminine" if they were assessed as more suitable for women than men. Moreover, the BSRI can be used to measure "androgyny" and "undifferentiated" categories. An individual who displays high levels of both masculine and feminine traits was called androgynous (for instance, an individual who exhibits both emotional and dominant) (Bem, 1974). However, an individual who has low levels of masculine and feminine traits was called undifferentiated (Spence et al., 1975). The scale consists of masculinity traits that are perceived as men's characteristics such as assertive and dominant, femininity traits that are perceived as women's characteristics such as sympathetic and emotional, and also neutral traits that are seen as neither men nor women characteristics such as reliable and unpredictable.

In conclusion, gender is a socially constructed phenomenon which is regarded as fluid and varying. Conceptualization of masculinity and femininity has seen significant changes in the literature. According to Bem (1981), individuals learn gender-related schemas from their society; thus, they acquire gender roles which corresponds their biological sexes. Bem (1974) claimed that individuals might hold both masculine and feminine features; not being opposite poles on a single continuum, but being as distinct and relatively independent constructs.

2.3.2. Factors Related to Gender Roles

In this part, factors related to gender roles are mentioned. Individual factors and then relationship factors are given.

2.3.2.1. Individual Factors Related to Gender Roles

Previous studies have stressed the associations between gender roles and several individual factors such as well-being and psychological disorders, and personality traits. Gender roles have been explored in relation to a great variability of well-being. Research investigating the association between gender roles and subjective well-being has been grounded on one of three main models. These models are the traditional congruence model, the androgyny model, and the masculinity model (Whitley, 1983). The traditional congruence model holds the assumption that masculinity and femininity are two separate poles of a single dimension; in other words, one must have only one gender role orientation; masculine or feminine. This assumption resulted in the hypothesis that people whose gender role orientation and sex is congruent would enjoy the greatest level of well-being regardless of whether they were biologically male or female. The androgyny model assumes that well-being is maximized when high masculinity and high femininity are incorporated. However, the masculinity model claims that those who were more masculine would have the highest level of well-being (Bernstein & Osman, 2016; Castlebury & Durham, 1997; Whitley, 1983).

All these three models received support from empirical evidence. In a meta-analysis study on the relation between sex-role orientation and self-esteem (an indicator of psychological well-being), Whitley (1983) reported that psychological well-being is determined by the individuals' level of masculinity, with high level of femininity being less influential, regardless of their biological sex, and concluded that the results are most supportive of the masculinity model than the other two models. Similarly, a recent study (Eddington & Schuman, 2016) found that despite no significant differences between men and women in subjective well-being, men and women who have high masculinity level have higher subjective well-being than those who have low masculinity level. Johnson et al. (2006) displayed that while masculinity is positively associated with well-being, femininity is negatively associated with well-being. Woo and Oei (2006) explored the predictive roles of

Gender-Masculine (GM) and Gender-Feminine (GF) scales of MMPI-2 on psychological health, and found that while GM is a significant strong predictor of ego strength and low self-esteem, GF has no significant association with psychological health. Castlebury and Durham (1997) revealed that people classified as high masculine tend to get higher on assessments of psychological well-being, and lower on assessments of psychopathology and self-esteem than do people classified as low masculine. Burnett, Anderson, & Heppner (1995) found similar results in their study conducted with undergraduate students. Accordingly, masculinity was significantly related to subjective well-being for both men and women; on the other hand, femininity was not significantly associated with subjective well-being in neither men nor women. Moreover, a recent study conducted by Estrada & Arciniega (2015) found that *caballerismo*, which is a prosocial form of masculinity, predicts subjective well-being among a sample of mostly Mexican/Mexican American men. In another study conducted by Simenson, Blazina, and Watkins, Jr. (2000), the association between gender role conflict (i.e., negative impacts of gender roles on an individual) and well-being in gay men was investigated. It was found that gay men who experience greater gender role conflict show more anger, anxiety, and depression than those who experience lesser gender role conflict.

There are also research findings that support the androgyny model. Lefkowitz and Zeldow (2006) found that high levels of both masculinity and femininity are correlated to higher levels of optimal mental health. Moreover, androgyny was associated with self-esteem, achievement motivation, life satisfaction, marital satisfaction, subjective feelings of well-being (Norlander, et al., 2000), and improved self-concept (Flaherty & Dusek, 1980). Thus, the association between subjective well-being and gender roles remained unclear due to the inconsistent results.

In line with the studies about well-being and gender roles, psychological disorders such as depression, anxiety, and eating disorders were studied regarding gender roles by some researchers. Sanfilipo (1994) examined the associations of masculinity,

femininity, and biological sex with depression. Results showed that lower scores of masculinity are related to higher scores of depression and higher scores of femininity are associated with anaclitic depression (i.e., feelings of helplessness, loss, weakness, abandonment, and being unloved) in men and women. Also, biological sex is weakly associated with depressive experiences. As a result, Sanfilipo (1994) suggested that culturally constructed gender role features may be more critical than biological sex regarding depression in young adults. Moreover, Morgan, Affleck, and Riggs (1986) revealed that masculinity is the most reliable predictor of depression. That is, high masculinity is related to low depression. There were no significant associations of depression with biological sex, and with femininity. While low masculinity and high femininity predicted depression for men, only low masculinity predicted depression for women. Dökmen (2000) demonstrated that while higher levels of masculinity are correlated to lower levels of depression for women, there was no association between gender roles and depression for men in a sample of Turkish individuals. In another study with a sample of Turkish university students conducted by Ümmet (2007), the relationship between social anxiety and gender roles was examined and the results displayed that participants who showed higher femininity have higher levels of social anxiety compared to those who showed higher masculinity and higher androgyny. Besides, Seidler, Dawes, Rice, Oliffe, and Dhillon (2016) reviewed the studies examining the role of masculinity on men's help-seeking for depression, and concluded that conformity to traditional masculine norms has three main impacts on men experiencing depression. Specifically, it influences their symptoms and expression of symptoms, their help-seeking behavior, and their managing ways of symptoms.

Furthermore, research has shown the relationship between gender roles and eating disorders. Meyer, Blissett, and Oldfield (2001) showed that femininity is linked to high levels of eating psychopathology, while masculinity is related to healthy eating-related attitudes and behaviors. They suggested that femininity may be a risk factor for eating disorders, and masculinity might be a protective factor. However, Hepp,

Spinder, and Milos's findings (2005) investigated the links between gender roles and eating psychopathology in women who have been diagnosed with eating disorder. Higher androgyny was negatively related to eating disorder symptoms than undifferentiated patients who exhibited higher levels of symptoms. Thus, they suggested that femininity is not a risk factor for the development of eating disorders.

Regarding alcohol use, in a longitudinal study, Zeldow, Daughterty, and Clark (1987) found that higher femininity is correlated with lower alcohol consumption over a 21-month interval. Likewise, Chomak and Collins (1987) showed that gender roles are more robust predictors than biological sex in alcohol consumption. Specifically, high femininity is linked to less alcohol consumption among both men and women, and higher masculinity is linked to more alcohol consumption for only men. Ricciardelli, Williams, and Kiernan (1998) also revealed that women with higher levels of masculinity show greater problems about alcohol dependence and disordered eating, indicating that they engage in more consummatory behaviors such as binge drinking and eating to deal with gender role conflict.

Personality traits are another predictor of gender roles. Zheng and Zheng (2011) investigated the relationship between masculinity-femininity and personality dimensions in a sample of 1,821 Chinese homosexual and heterosexual individuals. Their results indicated that controlling for age and education, masculinity strongly predicts Extraversion, Conscientiousness, intellect, and weakly predicts Agreeableness; while femininity strongly predicted Agreeableness. Both masculinity and femininity showed very weak predictions on Neuroticism. Similarly, Marusic and Bratko (1998) found that while high masculinity is associated with high Extraversion and Conscientiousness, low Neuroticism and agreeableness; femininity showed powerful positive associations with Agreeableness, but weak positive links with other four traits. Moreover, Lippa (1995) displayed that femininity is positively correlated with Agreeableness and Conscientiousness and masculinity is positively correlated with Extraversion, Openness to Experience, and negatively with Neuroticism. Kurpisz et al. (2016) also revealed positive associations of masculinity

with Extraversion and Openness to Experience and positive association of femininity with Conscientiousness.

2.3.2.2. Relationship Factors Related to Gender Roles

Intimate partner violence, or domestic violence, is a significant variable related to gender roles. Systematic review of the relationship suggests that masculinity is highly related to partner violence (Moore & Stuart, 2005). Further, Loveland (2017) examined the associations of three aspects of masculinity (i.e., restrictiveness, hostility towards women, and hostile sexism) with two kinds of intimate partner violence; namely, physical violence and coercive control. Results yielded that men who endorse higher levels of restrictive beliefs and behaviors and lower levels of hostility towards women exhibited higher levels of physical violence. Moreover, men who endorse higher levels of restrictive beliefs and behaviors and higher levels of hostile sexism exhibited higher levels of coercive control. In addition, Lawson, Brossart, and Shefferman (2010) examined gender roles differences between male-partner abusers in an intimate relationship using MMPI-2. Results showed that borderline men show most consistent femininity gender role orientation when compared with the antisocial, psychotic-featured, and non-pathological men. By contrast, antisocial men showed more features related to masculinity gender roles of all groups. Moreover, the non-pathological intimately violent and non-partner-violent men show normal range scores on masculine gender roles than the other three groups. Hence, they suggested that a less traditional gender role is linked to less intimate partner violence. The influence of masculine gender roles stress (MGRS) on intimate partner violence was also investigated by some researchers. MGRS is defined as having a distress when an individual shows a threat to his masculine identity (Copenhaver, Lash, & Esiler, 2000). Baugher and Gazmararian (2015) reviewed the relevant studies and they suggested that MGRS was associated with violence towards women and gay men in intimate relationships. High-MGRS males, compared to low-MGRS males, tend to show intimate partner violence more when they feel their masculinity was threatened. Further, Stephens and Eaton (2014)

investigated Hispanic college men's perceptions and experiences of sexual coercion initiated by women in dating relationships. According to the findings, males' perceptions of female-initiated sexual coercion were consistent with traditional masculinity ideology, such as the idea that a man could not be coerced by a woman into sex. Regarding experiences of sexual coercion, verbal, psychological tactics and also seduction were reported as a more likely type of coercion by women.

Sexuality is another variable related to gender roles. Kurpisz et al. (2016) investigated the associations of masculinity-femininity and sexual practices of young adult men. They found that femininity is positively related to erectile function, orgasmic function, time needed to ejaculate in minutes, and anal sex per month. On the other hand, masculinity is positively correlated with erectile function, orgasmic function, number of sexual activities without penetration per month, number of orgasms per month, number of any sexual activity per month, sexual satisfaction, one's and partner's attitudes towards sexual activities, and negatively correlated with erectile dysfunction. Thus, they suggested that masculinity is related to a broader range of positive sexual behaviors than femininity. Moreover, Daniel and Bridges (2016) explained the associations among body image, masculinity and sexual satisfaction in men. According to the results, the significant predictive influence of body image does not exist on sexual satisfaction in men and masculinity is the only predictor of sexual satisfaction. Spencer and Zeiss (1987) investigated the relationships among masculinity, partner's sexual pressure, and sexual dysfunctions in heterosexual men. They found that masculine sex-typed men maintain a traditional gender role by initiating a sexual activity and controlling the sexual partner, and they may perceive an assertive input from sex-partner as threatening. Thus, they significantly experience sexual dysfunctions more than non-masculine sex-typed men. In addition, in a study (Rieger, Savin-Williams, Chivers, & Bailey, 2016) investigating the relationship between sexual arousal and masculinity-femininity in women, it was shown that lesbians are more male-typical than straight women in their sexual arousal and nonsexual behaviors. However, the differences of

masculinity-femininity levels between lesbians and straight women does not account for the differences in their sexual arousal.

Relationship between communication skills and gender roles has been investigated by some researchers. Hirokawa, Dohi, Yamada, and Miyata (2000) showed that androgynous individuals have better interpersonal relationships because they have more abundant conversation than do other sex-types. Besides, androgynous individuals decrease their communication partner's anxiety and uneasiness. In another study (Hirokawa, Yagi, & Miyata, 2004), it was reported that masculinity is positively related to overall communication skills after controlling for femininity; however, femininity had lower correlations with communication skills after controlling masculinity, for males. In contrast, for females, androgyny predicted higher communication skills. They suggested that high levels of masculinity may be a significant element, especially for males, on the other hand, the cumulative effects of masculinity and femininity may be a significant element to be more socially competent for females in Japanese population. Additionally, Kirtley and Weaver (1999) examined the predominant communication styles regarding gender roles. They found that while people with high masculinity use a dominating, assertive communication style, people with high femininity use a sharing, expressive communication style, and no interaction between biological sex and gender type was revealed.

2.4 Marital Satisfaction

In the following section, the definition of marital satisfaction is presented firstly. Then, variables related to marital satisfaction are discussed.

2.4.1 Definition of Marital Satisfaction

Matrimonial determinants of well-being, which indicate married individuals' judgments about their marriages, have been expressed via several terms such as "marital satisfaction," "marital adjustment," "marital happiness," "marital stability,"

and “marital quality.” A substantial amount of research has defined these terms and explained the variables that predict them. While there is no clear consensus regarding its jargon, White (2003) supposed that some differences exist among these concepts. More specifically, whereas marital satisfaction involves a cognitive evaluation which implies a relationship between one's conditions and external standards; marital happiness is based on an emotional assessment which is influenced by mood swings of an individual. Besides, marital adjustment and marital quality involve satisfaction and happiness, and these two concepts can be either individual or dyadic-based. In addition to these, White (2003) suggested that since these concepts (i.e., marital satisfaction, marital happiness, marital adjustment, and marital quality) are highly correlated among each other, and also have similar correlations with other variables, using these terms interchangeably is relatively accepted. In this present study, marital satisfaction and other terms have been used interchangeably as well.

Marital satisfaction has been variously defined in the literature. Hawkins (1968) identified marital satisfaction as spouse's subjective happiness, satisfaction, and pleasure regarding all current aspects of his/her marriage. In Gilford and Bengston's (1979) definition, marital satisfaction is the spouse's judgments of his/her marriages concerning two common aspects: Positive interaction and negative feelings. Pill (1990, p.188) indicated that marital satisfaction refers to "how content a person is with his/her marital interaction." According to Bird and Merville (1994), marital satisfaction is the spouse's evaluation of the quality of their marriage, whether it is right, satisfying, and happy. Moreover, Rho (1989) emphasized the subjective judgment of marital satisfaction which includes the degree of happiness, pleasure or being fulfilled in the marriage relationship between oneself and spouse. After all, marital satisfaction has been diversely conceptualized in the literature.

2.4.2 Variables Related to Marital Satisfaction

In this section, variables related to marital satisfaction are presented. For this aim, socio-demographic variables, individual variables, relationship variables, and cognitive variables are discussed respectively.

2.4.2.1 Socio-demographic Variables Related to Marital Satisfaction

Previous studies have demonstrated the relationship between marital satisfaction and several socio-demographic variables. Research investigating the association between gender and marital satisfaction yielded contradictory findings. Many researchers have shown that men have higher marital satisfaction than women (Boerner, Jopp, Carr, Sosinsky, & Kim, 2014; Chi et al., 2011, Guo & Huang, 2005; Heene, Buysse, & Van Oost, 2005; Ng, Loy, MohdZain, & Cheong, 2013; Rostami, Ghazinour, Nygren, & Richter, 2014). On the other hand, Timm and Keiley (2011) found no significant difference between men and women regarding marital satisfaction. This finding was consistent with Demir and Fışıloğlu (1999), Hamamcı (2005), and Sakmar (2015). Besides, in their meta-analysis, Jackson, Miller, Oka, and Henry (2014) tested the widely held hypothesis that women have lower levels of marital satisfaction compared to men. They demonstrated that wives were slightly less satisfied with their marriages than husbands; nevertheless, it was resulted from the inclusion of clinical samples. Further, they found no gender differences regarding marital satisfaction among couples in nonclinical, community-based samples.

In addition to gender, the relationship between education level and marital satisfaction has been investigated by researchers and remained inconclusive. Basat (2004) and Guo and Huang (2005) found a positive association between education level and marital satisfaction. Similarly, Zaheri et al. (2016) reviewed the related literature and argued that several studies conducted in Iran have shown that marital satisfaction is positively related to education level. Moreover, Chi et al. (2011) found that Chinese married people with higher education levels are more satisfied with their marriages than those with lower education levels. Conversely, Alder (2010),

Orathinkal and Vansteenwegen (2007), and Tutarel-Kışlak and Göztepe (2012) indicated that there is no significant correlation between the level education and marital satisfaction.

Age is also found to be an associated variable with marital satisfaction in past research. Lee (1988) showed that marital satisfaction is the lowest during the middle-years of marriage, and that the departure of children is linked to increased marital satisfaction. Similarly, Anderson, Russell, & Schumm (1983) found that marital satisfaction is related to age in a U-curve. That is, wives and husbands are highly satisfied with their marriages in the beginning of their marriages, after that their marital satisfaction become lower when they have children, and finally, they experience an increase again in their levels of marital satisfaction in “empty-nest” stage in adult life. Consistently, Chi et al., (2011) indicated that middle-aged adults have lower levels of marital satisfaction than young and old adults. On the other hand, Koçak (2009) and Orathinkal and Vansteenwegen (2007) showed that as age increased, marital satisfaction decreased. However, in their study of Tutarel-Kışlak and Çabukça (2002), no significant relationship between age and marital satisfaction was found.

There are contradictory results concerning the relationship between the length of marriage and marital satisfaction. Some studies (e.g., Guo & Huang, 2005; Hamamcı, 2005; Tulum, 2014; Tutarel-Kışlak & Çabukça, 2002) revealed no significant correlation between the length of marriage and marital satisfaction. Conversely, Bir-Aktürk (2006) found that marital satisfaction increases with the length of marriage. Orathinkal & Vansteenwegen (2007) reported that in the late years or after about 30 years of marriage, there is a sign of a decrease in the marital and general-life problems, which might be seen as a sign of an increase in marital satisfaction. Zainah, Nasir, Hashim, & Yusof (2012) also found that Malaysian married people with ten years and above in the length of marriage were more satisfied in marriage than those with less than ten years. It is worth noting that some researchers (e.g., Guo & Huang, 2005) imply that since marriage duration increases

with age, length of the marriage is a time-varying covariate of age; thus age should be explained as a determinant of marital satisfaction on the subject of marriage duration. In addition to these, in a recent study, Lee and McKinnish (2018) investigated the relationship between marital satisfaction and marital duration for differently-aged vs. similarly-aged couples and they found that marital satisfaction decreases with marital length for both wives and husbands in differently-aged couples compared to those with similarly-aged. They suggested that it may be due to that differently-aged couples are less resilient to adverse life events relative to similarly-aged couples.

Regarding the number of children and marital satisfaction, there are also divergent results in the literature. White and Edward (1990) showed that having no children is significantly linked with higher levels of marital satisfaction. In addition, in their meta-analysis, Twenge, Campbell, and Foster (2003) demonstrated that nonparents are more satisfied with their marriages than parents, and there is also a negative correlation between marital satisfaction and number of children. They suggested that the reason for a decline in marital satisfaction after the childbirth is role conflicts and reduction of freedom. Similarly, Lawrence, Rothman, Cobb, Rothman & Bradbury (2008) conducted a longitudinal study to examine marital satisfaction over the transition to the parenthood with a voluntarily childless comparison group. They found that the transition to parenthood indicates more significant decreases in marital satisfaction than is observed in nonparent couples. Unlike the results of these studies, Guttman and Lazar (2004) found that first-time parents are happier in their marriages than child-free couples. They discussed that positive impact of having the first-child on marital satisfaction has a cultural value connected to raise children in Israel. In Jewish culture and religion, giving a high value for the presence of children is common knowledge. Further, Guo and Huang (2005) found that the number of children is positively associated with marital satisfaction. They claimed that it is an influential determinant of marital satisfaction in Chinese families, and culture-related factors may affect the relationship between the number of children and

marital satisfaction, as Guttman and Lazar (2004) stated. Nevertheless, Hamamcı (2005) and Tutarel-Kışlak and Çabukça (2002) revealed no significant correlation between the number of children and marital satisfaction in Turkish samples.

Another socio-demographic variable explained in the context of marital satisfaction is income. Dakin and Wampler (2008) compared low-income and middle-income couples' levels of marital satisfaction and found that low-income couples are less satisfied with their marriages than those in middle-income groups. Zainah, Nasir, Hashim & Yusof (2012) reported that high-income individuals' level of marital satisfaction is higher than those of the low-income. However, in Guo and Huang's study (2005), household income did not have statistically significant impacts on marital satisfaction. Besides, Lichter and Carmalt (2009) indicated that although low income and material hardship is related to a severe danger for marital quality and stability, their results revealed that most low-income couples have surprisingly high amounts of several dimensions of marital quality such as commitment and emotional support.

2.4.2.2 Individual Variables Related to Marital Satisfaction

Several individual variables explain marital satisfaction in the existing studies. A broad and growing body of research indicated that marital satisfaction is associated with multiple measures of well-being (e.g. life satisfaction, self-esteem, and psychopathology). For instance, Shek (1995) found that marital satisfaction is positively correlated to several indications of well-being such as less psychiatric symptoms and perceiving good health in married people in China. In a meta-analysis, Haring-Hidore, Stock, Okun and Witter (1985) reviewed 58 empirical studies on the relationship between being married and subjective well-being, and demonstrated that being married is only slightly associated with subjective well-being. They posited that the amount of the satisfaction stemmed from marriage is a critical factor. Spouses who are dissatisfied with their marriages are not likely to have greater subjective well-being. Headey et. al., (1991) conducted a longitudinal

study on the effects of six domain satisfactions (i.e., marriage, work, standard of living, leisure, friendship, and health) on subjective well-being. This study revealed that among these life domains, only marital satisfaction had a significant effect on subjective well-being. In their longitudinal study, Hawkins and Booth (2005) showed that remaining in unhappy marriages results in lower happiness, life satisfaction, and self-esteem, and is associated with poorer physical health than remaining in otherwise continually marriages. Individuals who stay in unsatisfied marriages also have greater psychological distress than continually married individuals.

From the associations of psychological disorders and marital satisfaction perspective, Whisman, Uebelacker, and Weinstock (2004) assessed the associations of both spouses' levels of depression and anxiety and levels of marital satisfaction. Results indicated that spouse's own depression and anxiety, and also partner's depression predicts marital satisfaction. However, partner's anxiety did not predict marital satisfaction. No significant gender differences were found in the magnitude of effects as well. In another study, Lemmens, Buysee, Heene, Eisler, and Demyttenaere (2007) found that the depressed patients are less satisfied with their marriages than their spouses and the non-depressed couples. Amiri et al. (2012) investigated the factors related to marital satisfaction of women with major depressive disorder, and they showed that husbands' psychiatric disorder predicted lower marital satisfaction in women with major depressive disorder. Besides, Davila et al. (2003) found that associations between depressive symptoms and marital satisfaction are bidirectional. More specifically, depressive symptoms predict changes in marital satisfaction and marital satisfaction predicts changes in depressive symptoms. Furthermore, women with binge eating disorder were found to have lower levels of marital satisfaction compared to women with other psychological disorders and women with no disorders (Whisman, Dementyeva, Baucom, & Bulik, 2012). Additionally, Whisman (2006) examined the associations between childhood traumas and current marital satisfaction. Results indicated that

probability of marital disruption (divorce and separation) is more common among adults who had experienced physical abuse, rape, or severe physical attack or assault during childhood; and current marital dissatisfaction is higher among adults who had experienced rape or sexual molestation during childhood.

Beyond subjective well-being and psychological problems, there are controversial findings of the relationship between gender roles (i.e., masculinity and femininity) and marital satisfaction in the literature. It was revealed that femininity is more positively associated with marital satisfaction for both men and women than masculinity (Peterson, Baucom, Elliot, & Farr, 1989). In contrast, Juni and Grimm (1993) found that while feminine gender roles are related to more marital satisfaction for women, masculine gender roles are linked to more marital satisfaction for men. Aslinia (2010) found no significant association between gender roles and marital satisfaction.

Personality traits and temperament are another individual variables related to marital satisfaction. In their review article, Karney and Bradbury (1995) displayed that certain personality traits appeared to be associated with marital distress. Specifically, among Big Five personality traits, Neuroticism demonstrates greater impacts on marital well-being, than the other four traits. Similarly, Gattis, Berns, Simpson, and Christen (2004) investigated whether Big Five personality dimensions and positive expressivity would be associated with marital satisfaction. Results indicated that lower levels of Agreeableness and Conscientiousness, higher levels of Neuroticism, and less positive expressivity were all dependably related to lower marital satisfaction despite small effect sizes. Furthermore, Davila, Karney, Hall, and Bradbury (2003) examined Neuroticism as a moderator of the association between marital satisfaction and depressive symptoms. They found that lower marital satisfaction predicted greater depressive symptoms among both husbands and wives with high levels of Neuroticism than those with low levels of Neuroticism. However, it weakened the moderator effect of depressive symptoms on marital dissatisfaction among husbands. In respect of temperament, Blum and Mehrabian (1999) examined

the pleasantness, arousability, and dominance correlates of marital satisfaction. They found that individuals with more pleasant and more dominant temperaments and those who have spouses with more pleasant temperaments were more satisfied with their marriages.

Over and above, the literature provides a clear, coherent picture of the consistent connections between a sense of attachment security and satisfactory marital relationships. Research shows that attachment styles predict marital satisfaction. Findings indicated that insecure (fearful-avoidant, dismissing-avoidant, and preoccupied or anxious/ambivalent) attachment styles are likely to have the most consistent and powerful negative associations with marital satisfaction for both husbands and wives (Carnelly, Pietromonaco, & Jaffee, 1994; Hollist & Miller, 2005; Meyers & Landsberger, 2002; Timm & Keiley, 2011). Lussier, Sabourin, and Turgeon (1997) explained that partners' attachment styles predicted the spousal marital satisfaction. Specifically, they found that while wives' anxious-ambivalent and secure attachment styles predicted their husbands' marital satisfaction, husbands' anxious-ambivalent attachment style is a significant predictor of their wives' marital satisfaction. Similarly, Banse (2004) displayed that for wives and husbands, secure attachment style was positively, and the fearful, preoccupied and dismissing attachment styles were significantly negatively linked to own and the partner's marital satisfaction.

2.4.2.3 Relationship Variables Related to Marital Satisfaction

Marital satisfaction is explained by several relationship variables in the literature. Several researches have demonstrated a consistent relationship between communication skills and marital satisfaction. In a longitudinal study, Heavey, Christensen, and Malamuth (1995) explained that demand-withdrawal communication patterns (i.e. one partner attempts to initiate a discussion and the other attempts to avoid) showed negative associations with both partners' marital satisfaction. They also examined that withdrawal by men and woman

demandingness-man withdrawal during a discussion identified by the woman significantly predicted a decline in wives' marital satisfaction. However, these associations were not significant when men identified discussions of issues. Moreover, Malkoç (2001) found that there is an association between communication patterns and marital adjustment and spouses with more destructive communication patterns have higher levels of marital maladjustment. Likewise, Litzinger and Gordon (2005) revealed that constructive communication behaviors predict high levels of marital satisfaction. In addition, Lavner, Karney, and Bradbury (2016) tested the alternative prediction that communication is an outcome of spouses' prior levels of marital satisfaction. Their findings supported this prediction indicating that spouses who are more satisfied with their marriages showed more positive, less negative, and more effective communication than those with less satisfied with their marriages.

Love factors including intimacy, passion, and trust are also found to be associated with marital satisfaction. Increase in perceived intimacy was significantly related to increase in marital satisfaction (Dandeneau & Johnson, 1994; Harper & Elliot, 1998). Contreras, Hendrick, and Hendrick (1996) examined predictors of long-term satisfied marriages of Mexican-American (Hispanic-oriented and bicultural) and Anglo-American couples. They found that the most consistent factor for marital satisfaction is passionate love in all groups. They also assessed that love is the essential ingredient for a satisfying marriage for both husbands and wives. Similarly, Goodman (1999) indicated that intimacy and avoidance of hostile-control are positively associated with marital satisfaction, and the two were more important than autonomy to long-term marriages. Harper, Schaalje, and Sandberg (2000) found intimacy as a significant predictor of marital satisfaction. Also, emotional intimacy was the most reliable predictor among five areas of intimacy (e.g., social intimacy, sexual intimacy, intellectual intimacy, recreational intimacy and emotional intimacy) as outlined by Schaufer and Oslon (1981) (cited in Harper, Schaalje, and Sandberg, 2000).

The relationship between sexual satisfaction and marital satisfaction has been dependably shown in previous research. Higher levels of sexual satisfaction have strong associations with higher levels of marital satisfaction (Birnie-Porter & Hunt, 2015; Guo & Huang, 2005; Litzinger & Gordon, 2005; Ojo, 2017; Strait, Sandberg, Larson, & Harper, 2015; Timm & Keiley, 2011). Butzer and Campbell (2008) also found this positive association in long-term married couples. Moreover, in a study based on longitudinal data, McNulty, Wenner, and Fisher (2016) showed that the positive relationship between own marital satisfaction and sexual satisfaction is bidirectional; higher marital satisfaction elicited an increase in sexual satisfaction, and higher sexual satisfaction resulted in an increase in marital satisfaction over time. Likewise, in another longitudinal study, Yeh, Lorenz, Wickrama, Conger and Elder (2006) showed the mediating effect of marital quality in the relationship between sexual satisfaction and marital instability. Both husbands and wives who were satisfied with their sexual relations were satisfied and happy with their marriages, in turn, had a lower levels of marital instability.

In addition to the relationship variables discussed above, researchers also investigated the relationship between perceived social support and marital satisfaction. Qadir, Khalid, Haqqani, Huma, and Medhin (2013) found that perceived social support is positively related to marital satisfaction for Pakistani married women. Moreover, Dehle, Larsen, and Landers (2001) found that spouses who regard as inadequate the social support they receive from their partner have lower levels of marital satisfaction. Pasch and Bradbury (1998) displayed that spouses who are satisfied with their marriages and their partners were more positive as social support providers and receivers. Furthermore, Wunderer and Schneewind (2008) found that German spouses who have more relationship-focused standards (covering three dimensions: Boundaries, power-control, and instrumental and emotional investments) provide more support each other in distressing situations and they feel more supported by their partners.

2.4.2.4 Cognitive Variables Related to Marital Satisfaction

Cognitive variables such as marital attributions, beliefs, expectancies, and assumptions regarding marital satisfaction have also been investigated in the existing literature. Karney, Bradbury, Fincham, and Sullivan (1994) found that there is a strong association between maladaptive attributions and marital satisfaction after controlling for negative affectivity for both husbands and wives. Further, Fincham, Bradbury, Arias, Byrne, and Karney (1997) investigated attributions about marriage and marital satisfaction relationship when marital violence was controlled. They found that marital satisfaction is related to causal (evaluative judgments concerning blame) and responsibility (evaluative judgments concerning responsibility) attributions after controlling for marital violence by husbands. In their longitudinal analysis, responsibility, not causal, attributions significantly predicted 1-year later satisfaction, independently of violence in newlywed husbands. Fincham and Bradbury (1993) also examined a longitudinal association between causal attributions and marital satisfaction and they found that spouses who made non-benign attributions had a lower marital satisfaction level 1-year later when depression was controlled. In addition, Hamamcı (2005) showed that spouses with low marital adjustment had significantly more dysfunctional relationship beliefs compared to those with high marital adjustment in Turkey. Results also revealed that among dysfunctional relationship beliefs, the interpersonal rejection which indicates that being very close to others in one's relationships means having adverse outcomes, have a negative association with marital adjustment in men. However, mind reading beliefs have a positive association with the marital adjustment in women.

2.5 Connection Between Literature Review and Aims of the Study

A comprehensive review of the literature showed that subjective well-being is associated with multiple variables for married individuals. From a wide range of aspects, subjective well-being displayed significant connections with online

infidelity, gender roles, and marital satisfaction. Nonetheless, some discrepancies were seen clearly in the findings of the previous research. It was not obvious that what led to the inconsistency in the findings among the studies. Further analysis seemed necessary to explain how multiple factors influence others, beyond their impacts on each other. Moreover, little is known about infidelity tendency in online settings. Although research showed the association of subjective well-being with online infidelity and infidelity tendency, studies related to its association with online infidelity tendency is scarce in the literature. Not only deficiency of research examining online infidelity tendency, but also its link to subjective well-being becomes more important in today's internet age. As a result, the main aim of the current study is to investigate associations among the variables that the study built upon, specifically, to test the role of online infidelity tendency as potential mediator of the relationship between gender roles and subjective well-being in married individuals, and to address the potential moderating role of marital satisfaction in the relationship between online infidelity tendency and subjective well-being.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

This chapter presents methodology of the study. The first section describes demographic characteristics of the participants. The second section outlines instruments used for data collection in the current study. The third section presents procedures for data collection. Lastly, the fourth section clarifies statistical techniques used for data analyses.

3.1. Participants

Following Tabachnik and Fidel's (2007, p.123) suggestions to determine required sample size (i.e., a method $N > 50 + 8m$; m = number of independent variables), the data of the present study were collected from 319 nonclinical participants. Participants were obtained through snowball sampling method (Kumar, 1996).

In the present study, individuals, instead of couples, were studied. Among these participants, 228 were female (71.5%) and 91 were male (28.5%). The age range of the participants were between 24 and 62 with a mean of 33.66 ($SD = 7.38$). Of the total sample, .9% had primary-secondary school education, 5% had high school education, 5.6% had college education, 51.7% had university education, and 36.7% had postgraduate education. The range for the length of the marriages of the participants was from 1 year to 35 years. 184 (57.7%) of the participants had no children, 86 (27%) of them had only one child, 41 (12.9%) of them had two children, 7 (2.2%) of the participants had three children, and 1 (.3%) participant had four children. With regard to the participants' perceived economic class, 10 (3.1%) participants reported as being in the low economic class, 238 (74.6%) participants reported as being in middle class, and 71 (22.3%) participants reported as being in

high economic class. Furthermore, 81.5% of the participants ($n = 260$) were employed, where 3.4% of them ($n = 11$) were retired, and 15% of them ($n = 48$) were unemployed without any income. Among the participants, while 13.8% of them ($n = 44$) had a general health problem, 86.2% of them ($n = 275$) did not report any health problem. According to previous psychological and/or psychiatric treatment history, 21% ($n = 67$) of the participants have received treatment, and 79% ($n = 252$) of participants have not received any treatments. With respect to the question “Have you ever thought to engage in infidelity?”, 28.2% of the participants reported Yes, and 71.8% of them reported No. All information with regard to socio-demographic features of the participants was given in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Socio-demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Variable	N	Mean	SD	Range	%
Gender	319				
Female	228				71.5
Male	91				28.5
Age	319	33.66	7.38	24-62	
Education Level	319				
Primary-secondary school	3				.9
High school	16				5.0
Associate degree	18				5.6
University	165				51.7
Higher/Post	117				36.7
Length of Marriage (in years)	319	6.40	6.36	1-35	
Number of Children	319				
0	184				57.7
1	86				27.0
2	41				12.9
3	7				2.2
4	1				.3

Table 3.1 (cont.'d) Socio-demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Employment Status	319	
Employed	260	
Unemployed	48	
Retired	11	
Perceived Economic Class	319	
Lower	10	3.1
Middle	238	74.6
High	71	22.3
General Health Problem	319	
Yes	44	13.8
No	275	86.2
Previous Psychological and/or Psychiatric Treatment	319	
Yes	67	79.0
No	252	21.0
Tendency of Infidelity	319	
Yes	90	28.2
No	229	71.8

3.2. Measures

Five self-report instruments, including Demographics Information Form, were applied to the participants in the current study. Following the Informed Consent (see Appendix A), participants filled out the five instruments. The first instrument was the Demographics Information Form (see Appendix B) which was developed by the researcher for the aim of getting some demographic information of the participants.

The second instrument was Subjective Well-Being Scale (see Appendix C) for assessing participants' degree of subjective well-being. Participants were also administered Infidelity Tendency Scale (see Appendix D) for measuring participants' online infidelity tendencies; Bem Sex-Role Inventory-Short Version (see Appendix E) for assessing masculine and feminine personality styles of participants; and Dyadic Adjustment Scale (see Appendix F) for evaluating participants' satisfaction from their marriages.

3.2.1. Demographic Information Form

Demographic Information Form, developed by the researcher, included socio-demographic information of the participants. The form was built on the questions with both open-ended (e.g., How many children have you got?) and close-ended (e.g., What is your gender?) formats. Socio-demographic characteristics of gender, age, education level, length of marriage, employment status, number of children, participants' perceived economic class, whether having a general health problem, whether or not receiving any psychological and/or psychiatric treatment and having an intention of engaging in infidelity were questioned for the participants.

3.2.2. Subjective Well-Being Scale

Subjective Well-being Scale (SWS) was developed by Tuzgöl-Dost in 2005 to assess individuals' degree of subjective well-being by evaluating individuals' cognitive evaluations of their lives and the frequency and intensity of their positive and negative feelings. It consists of 46 items, including 26 positive and 20 negative statements, about major domains of life and about positive and negative emotionality. It is a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 5 (fully agree) to 1 (fully disagree). Each item has a score ranging from 1 to 5 and negative items are scored reversely. The total score obtained from SWB ranges from 46 to 230 and higher scores indicate higher degree of SWS. Tuzgöl-Dost reported Cronbach-alfa coefficient as .93, and test re-test reliability as .86. Construct validity of SWS was assessed by principal component analysis. Item-total item correlation coefficients of

SWB were also examined and item correlations were observed in a range between .32 and .63. Besides, it was found a significant relationship between SWS and Beck Depression Inventory ($r = -.70$) in the study of convergent validity. Based on these results, SWS was proved to be valid and reliable instrument to measure subjective well being of individuals.

3.2.3. Infidelity Tendency Scale

Infidelity Tendency Scale (ITS) was used to measure married individuals' online infidelity tendencies. It is a 5-point Likert type scale which was developed by Polat in 2006 in order to measure general infidelity tendencies of individuals. For the purpose of adapting the scale to assess online infidelity tendency, participants were asked to consider their online interpersonal interactions while filling out the questionnaire. The scale consisted of 30 items; 18 of which assesses positive infidelity tendency behaviors and 12 of which is negative infidelity tendency behaviors. The negative items are scored reversely and high score from the inventory indicates high infidelity tendency. Considering internal consistency, Cronbach alpha was reported as .95 and the split-half reliability as .95. Thus, this scale proved sufficiently reliable to justify its use as a measurement of infidelity tendency.

As for the validity study, among the married individuals, during their marriages, participants who reported to have engaged in infidelity at least one time ($n = 30$) with a mean of 101.60 ($SD = 13.41$) and participants who reported to never engaged in infidelity ($n = 72$) with a mean of 66.00 ($SD = 21.07$) were conducted ITS ($t = 8.55, p < .01$). The significant difference between these two participant group scores of Infidelity Tendency Scale was computed and this significant difference was given as proof for this scale's validity. Based on this finding, Infidelity Tendency Scale is a valid instrument which can discriminate two groups -who engaged in infidelity (high infidelity tendency) and who did not engaged in infidelity (low infidelity tendency) - as expected (Group that engaged in infidelity scores are significantly higher than the other group's scores).

3.2.4. Bem Sex-Role Inventory-Short Version

Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI) was developed by Bem (1974) to measure masculine, feminine, and androgynous personality styles among men and women. The original BSRI includes 60 items (20 masculine, 20 feminine, and 20 neutral personality traits). In the present study, BSRI-Short Version (BSRI-S) was used to evaluate gender-role traits (Bem, 1981).

BSRI-S has 30 items of personality traits. The masculine scale (10 items) contains traits that are perceived as male traits in society (e.g., assertive, independent, dominant, etc.). The feminine scale (10 items) contains traits that are perceived as female traits in society (e.g., emotional, sympathetic, compassionate, etc.). The remaining part of the inventory (10 items) contained neutral items that are perceived neither male nor female traits (e.g., conscientious, unpredictable, reliable, etc.). Participants rated themselves on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging between 1 (never true) and 7 (always true) the extent to which each of the thirty personality traits identifies them.

High internal consistency and test-retest reliability was found in the original version of BSRI (Bem, 1974). Coefficients alphas for Masculinity and Femininity were computed at .86 and .82, respectively. Correspondingly, test-retest reliability of BSRI was found for Masculinity, Femininity, and Androgyny as .90, .90 and .93, respectively. For the short form of BSRI, product-moment correlation scores were reported as .76 to .91 which indicates as a high reliability (Bem, 1981). Moreover, after items from the masculinity and femininity scales that indicated poor item-total correlations were eliminated, BSRI-S demonstrated higher internal consistency than the original form (Bem, 1981). Additionally, BSRI-S displays high correlation (around .90) with the original version of BSRI.

In Turkey, Kavuncu (1987) conducted the validity and reliability studies of the original version of BSRI and reported test-retest reliability of masculinity and femininity scales were as high as .89 and .75, respectively. However, BSRI was not

found to be a valid inventory for men in Kavuncu's study (1987). Concerning the restrictions, Dökmen (1991) replicated the study and she reported that BSRI is a valid and reliable instrument to assess masculinity and femininity in both sexes in Turkish culture. Criterion validity coefficients were reported as .51 for femininity and .63 for masculinity. Reliability coefficients were found to be .71 for masculinity subscale and .77 for femininity subscale (Dökmen, 1991).

Özkan and Lajunen conducted a study for reliability and validity of masculinity and femininity scales of BSRI-S among university students in 2005. They found BSRI-S as a valid instrument for Turkish culture. Scree-plot and parallel analysis methods supported the two factor (masculinity and femininity) model of BSRI. While reliability coefficients for the masculinity and the femininity subscales were found .80 and .73, respectively, in the men's data; reliability coefficients for masculinity and femininity subscales were .80 and .66, respectively, in the women's data. Based on these findings, BSRI-S was proved to be a reliable and valid instrument in the assessment of gender roles of the individuals in Turkey.

3.2.5. Dyadic Adjustment Scale

The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) was developed by Spanier in 1976 to measure quality of marital relationships as perceived by couples. The scale consists of 32 items and it has four subscales: Dyadic consensus, dyadic satisfaction, dyadic cohesion, and affectional expression.

DAS is a Likert-type scale with 5, 6 and 7 point items varying between "always agree" and "always disagree" or "all the time" and "never". Additionally, it includes two items which are answered as yes or no. The lowest possible score on the scale is 0 and the highest is 151, and higher scores indicate a higher perception of marital satisfaction. In Spanier's study (1976), Cronbach's alphas were reported as .96 for the overall DAS, and ranged from .73 to .94 for the four subscales. In terms of criterion validity, DAS was found to be correlated with Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale ($r = .86$).

DAS was standardized into Turkish by Fıfıloğlu and Demir in 2000. In Turkish version of the scale, internal consistency reliability was reported as .92 and the split-half reliability as .86. Its criterion validity was obtained from its correlation with adapted Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale ($r = .82$). Taken together, as original DAS, Turkish Version of DAS can be used as a reliable and valid instrument to assess the marital satisfaction of the individuals in Turkey.

3.3 Procedures

First of all, the study was approved by Research Center for Applied Ethics Committee in Middle East Technical University. After the necessary permission taken from the committee, the data collection process started. Participants were provided with a URL, on www.qualtrics.com, to fill out an online survey consisting of self-report measures to examine the associations between gender roles, online infidelity tendency, marital satisfaction, and subjective well-being. All self-report measures were posted on a secure website dedicated specifically to this research study. Before proceeding to the survey, online informed consent (see Appendix A) which included necessary information regarding the purpose of the study, important points in filling the scales, participants' confidentiality, and contact information of the researcher were taken from the participants. Those who did not give consent were thanked and aborted before proceeding into the survey.

3.4. Data Analyses

In order to answer the research questions, a number of statistical techniques were performed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Each of the analyses was conducted by a computer program for the multivariate statistics, Statistics Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 23.0 for Windows.

Prior to main analyses, mean total scores of subscales (i.e., femininity and masculinity) of BSRI were calculated. Total scores of the ITS, DAS, and SWS were

computed by summing up all items. Next, data were analyzed by using a range of SPSS tools for the assumptions of multivariate statistics.

In order to examine potential effects of demographic variables on the study variables, separate multivariate regression analyses were performed. Moreover, a zero-order correlation was performed to explore the correlations among demographic variables and the main variables. Finally, several mediation and moderation analyses were performed via bootstrapping resembling method (Hayes, 2013; Preacher & Hayes, 2004) to test underlying mechanisms for the associations between study variables and subjective well-being.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter examines the results of the study in seven sections. Initially, the first section presents data screening procedures before the analyses. The second section introduces the descriptive information for the study variables. Then, the third section addresses differences of demographic variables on the main variables (i.e. subjective well-being, online infidelity tendency, gender roles -masculinity and femininity-, and marital satisfaction) of the study. The forth section identifies the correlation coefficients among the main variables of the study. Afterwards, the fifth, sixth and seventh sections tests the main hypotheses of the study and examines the unique associations of subjective well-being, and underlying processes of these associations via mediation and moderation analyses.

4.1. Screening the Data Prior to the Analyses

Before the main analyses, firstly, each of the variables was examined through SPSS DESCRIPTIVES and SPSS FREQUENCIES for the accuracy of data entry, missing values, and the fit between their distributions and the assumptions of multivariate analyses (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Although 745 questionnaires were administered, 325 of them were completed (return rate = 44%). The case with many missing responses were decided as not suitable for the statistical analyses; thus, it was omitted from the study ($n = 1$). Altogether, 324 cases were decided as appropriate for the purpose and analyses of the study. Then, 5 univariate outliers with z-scores larger than ± 3.29 were omitted from the data set and no participants were identified to be multivariate outliers through Mahalanobis distance ($p < .001$). Therefore, 319 participants remained for the main analyses. After that, the data set was analyzed through a range of SPSS tools for the assumptions of multivariate

statistics; namely, normality, linearity, and multicollinearity. The skewness (ranged between -.61 and .44) and kurtosis values (ranged between -.33 and .54) were checked (see Table 4.2), and all variables were in acceptable ranges ($|\text{Skewness}| < 2.0$, $|\text{Kurtosis}| < 7.0$) as suggested by Curran, West, and Finch (1996), indicating the normality of distributions. Then, linearity assumption was tested by pairwise simple scatterplots for all the binary combinations of all variables. Lastly, the tolerance and VIF values for all variables were found in reasonable ranges; thus, no multicollinearity was identified among the variables of the study.

4.2. Descriptive Statistics and Differences of Demographic Variables on the Main Measures of the Study

4.2.1. Descriptive Information for the Measures of the Study

Means, standard deviations, and minimum-maximum scores for the main variables of the study were computed for descriptive information of study variables (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2. Descriptive Statistics of Main Continuous Variables

	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
Gender Roles							
Femininity	319	5.70	.62	3.70	7.00	-.49	.19
Masculinity	319	4.84	.76	2.60	6.70	-.20	-.08
Online Inf. T.	319	65.64	23.57	30.00	133.00	.61	-.19
Marital Sat.	319	98.79	19.03	38.00	130.00	-.90	.54
SWB	319	169.95	27.04	86.00	230.00	-.42	-.33

Notes: Gender roles scores were calculated by obtaining the mean total scores of femininity and masculinity. Subjective well-being, online infidelity tendency, and marital satisfaction scores were computed by summing up the scores of all items as well.

In regard to the mean scores of gender roles subscales, participants were typically likely to be more feminine ($M = 5.70$, $SD = .62$) than being masculine ($M = 4.84$, $SD = .76$), $t(318) = 18.28$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d_z = 1.02$. Average online infidelity tendency of the sample ($M = 114.37$, $SD = 23.57$) was significantly below the midpoint of the scale, $t(318) = -7.09$, $p < .001$. Moreover, participants were reasonably satisfied with their marriages with a relatively high mean marital satisfaction score of 98.79 ($SD = 18.03$), and also relatively satisfied with themselves with a moderately high mean subjective well-being score of 169.95 ($SD = 27.04$).

4.2.2. Differences of Demographic Variables on the Main Measures of the Study

In order to explore if main variables have unique relationships with demographics (except gender, age, and length of marriage, these variables were investigated via correlation analyses and reported in section 4.3 and their unique effects were tested and reported in Section 4.4). Separate multivariate regression analyses were

conducted for subjective well-being, online infidelity tendency, and marital satisfaction in order to investigate if demographic variables have related to each variable, by using SPSS v.23. In each analyses, one of the main variables was regressed on education level, employment status, number of children, perceived economic class, general health problem, previous psychological/psychiatric treatment, and intention of engaging in infidelity. Information related to demographic variables was already presented in Table 3.1. The Table 4.3 depicts the associations between main variables and demographic variables due to regression analyses.

First, participants' subjective well-being scores were regressed on demographic variables. The model when all predictors were in the equation was significant, $R_{adj.}^2 = .08$, $F(7,311) = 4.82$, $p < .001$. Investigating unique associations of individual predictors revealed that perceived economical class ($b = 10.05$, $SE = 3.21$), existence of previous psychological/psychiatric treatment ($b = -9.84$, $SE = 3.67$), intention of engaging in infidelity ($b = 10.65$, $SE = 3.30$) significantly contributed to the model. The regression model as demographic variables was all in the equation indicating a strong relationship between subjective well-being and demographics. The demographic characters of participants accounted for 8% variance in their subjective well-beings. Particularly, perceived higher economic class positively, but previous psychological treatment negatively and substantially are associated with the subjective well-being. Additionally, non-existence of intention of engaging in infidelity increases subjective well-being.

When the criterion was online infidelity tendency, the regression model was found to be significant, $R_{adj.}^2 = .39$, $F(7,311) = 30.57$, $p < .001$. Only the intention of engaging in infidelity ($b = -33.27$, $SE = 2.33$) and employment status ($b = -4.84$, $SE = 2.12$) significantly associated to the online infidelity tendency amongst the demographic variables. If the participants had intentions of engaging in infidelity before, they revealed more online infidelity tendency and the participants already actively working in a job showed less online infidelity tendency.

Marital satisfaction was regressed on the same set of demographic variables. The regression analysis revealed a significant association between demographics and marital satisfaction, $R_{adj.}^2 = .21$, $F(7,311) = 12.93$, $p < .001$. Number of children ($b = -6.23$, $SE = 1.27$), perceived economic class ($b = 4.36$, $SE = 2.09$), and intention of engaging in infidelity ($b = 13.65$, $SE = 2.15$), significantly and uniquely associated with marital satisfaction. Having fewer children, perceiving oneself in higher economic class, and non-presence of intention of engaging in infidelity was associated with increased marital satisfaction.

Table 4.3

Main Variables Were Regressed on the Demographic Variables

Variables	Subjective Well-Being				Online Infidelity Tendency				Marital Satisfaction			
	$R_{adj.}^2$	$B (SE)$	P	95% CI	$R_{adj.}^2$	$B (SE)$	P	95% CI	$R_{adj.}^2$	$B (SE)$	p	95% CI
	.08		<.001		.39		<.001		.21		<.001	
Education Level		1.47(1.87)	.432	-2.21,5.15		.59(1.32)	.656	-2.10,3.19		-.12(1.22)	.925	-2.51,2.28
Employment Status (1=Yes, 2=No or Retired)		-1.73(3.14)	.582	-7.90,4.45		-4.84(2.22)	.030	-9.20,-0.48		-2.73(2.05)	.184	-6.75,1.30
Number of Children		1.18(1.94)	.544	-2.64,5.00		.65(1.37)	.637	-2.05,3.35		-6.23(1.27)	<.001	-8.72,-3.74
Perceived Economic class		10.50(3.21)	.001	4.19,16.82		-1.72(2.27)	.450	-6.18,2.75		4.36(2.09)	.038	.25,8.46
General Health Problem		.05(4.23)	.991	-8.45,8.55		-.70(3.05)	.819	-6.71,5.30		2.60(2.82)	.357	-2.94,9.14
Previous Psych/Psychiatric Treatment		-9.85(3.67)	.008	-17.07,-2.62		-3.80(2.59)	.144	-8.90,1.30		.52(2.39)	.829	-4.19,5.23
Intentions of Infidelity (1=Yes, 2=No)		10.65(3.30)	.001	4.15,17.14		-33.27(2.33)	<.001	-37.86,-28.69		13.65(2.15)	<.001	9.42,17.89

Notes: $R_{adj.}^2$ is the adjusted R^2 , B is the unstandardized B coefficient, and SE is the standard error of the B coefficient.

4.3. Correlation Coefficients and Gender Differences between Main Variables

Pearson correlations were estimated to investigate bivariate associations between main variables (subjective well-being, online infidelity tendency, masculinity, femininity, and marital satisfaction) and some control variables including gender, age, and length of marriage. The results were summarized in Table 4.4.

Investigating gender differences among subjective well-being, online infidelity tendency, masculinity, femininity, and marital satisfaction, the results revealed only a significant difference for online infidelity tendency ($r = .37, p < .001$). Male participants had higher scores in the online infidelity tendency. For all remaining variables, there were no significant gender differences.

The results showed that both length of marriage and age of participants were positively and significantly associated with masculinity ($r = .16, r = .27$, respectively) and femininity ($r = .16, r = .17$, respectively) but negatively associated with marital satisfaction ($r = -.22, r = -.18$, respectively). The results indicated that as age and length of marriage increased, the masculinity and femininity scores of participants were also increased but their marital satisfaction scores decreased.

The first hypothesis of the study claimed that both gender roles (masculinity and femininity) would be positively associated with subjective well-being. As expected, the bivariate associations between subjective well-being and masculinity ($r = .31$) and femininity ($r = .26$) were found to be significant and provide support for the Hypotheses 1a and 1b. Accordingly, having high scores in masculinity and femininity gender roles are related to higher levels of subjective well-being.

As expected, the online infidelity tendency was significantly and negatively correlated with subjective well-being ($r = -.31$) and supported the second hypothesis of the study. As online infidelity tendency increased, the subjective well-being of participants decreased.

It was hypothesized (Hypotheses 3a and 3b) that online infidelity tendency would be positively associated with both masculinity and femininity gender roles. However, the bivariate associations declined the hypotheses 3a but supported the hypothesis 3b, revealing that while correlation between online infidelity tendency and masculinity was non-significant, correlation between online infidelity tendency and femininity was negatively significant ($r = -.17$).

Furthermore, marital satisfaction was significantly and positively correlated with subjective well-being ($r = .46$), indicating that higher marital satisfaction associated with increased subjective well-being, and supported the fourth hypothesis of study.

Table 4.4

Pearson Correlations among Main Variables of the Study including Gender, Length of Marriage, and Age

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Mean(Standard Deviation)		6.40(6.36)	33.66(7.38)	65.64(23.57)	4.84(0.76)	5.70(0.62)	98.79(19.03)	169.95(27.04)
1. Gender (Female=1, Male=2)	1							
2. Length of marriage	.09	1						
3. Age	.21***	.75**	1					
4. Online Infidelity Tendency	.37***	-.01	-.05	1				
5. Masculinity	-.02	.16**	.27**	.01	1			
6. Femininity	-.02	.16**	.17**	-.17**	.26**	1		
7. Marital Satisfaction	-.09	-.22***	-.18*	-.45***	.06	.08	1	
8. Subjective Well-Being	-.06	.06	.10	-.31***	.31***	.26**	.46***	1

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

4.4. Testing the Unique Associations of Online Infidelity Tendency, Gender Roles, and Marital Satisfaction with Subjective Well-Being

The bivariate correlations provided substantial support for the Hypotheses 1, 2 and 3b, and 4, but did not support the Hypothesis 3a. To directly test these hypotheses and investigate the unique associations proposed in the hypotheses, two multiple regression analyses were conducted. The first multiple regression tested the first hypotheses that asserted a positive relationship between subjective well-being and gender roles, and the second hypothesis that acclaimed a negative relationship between online infidelity tendency and subjective well-being. The second multiple regression analyses tested if online infidelity tendency can be predicted by gender roles. In all regression analyses, gender, age, the length of marriage, and marital satisfaction were controlled.

As the Table 4.5.1a depicted, the subjective well-being of participants were regressed on their gender, age, length of marriage, marital satisfaction, masculinity and femininity, and online infidelity tendency scores. The model revealed significant overall association, $R_{adj.}^2 = .33$, $F(7,311) = 22.86$, $p < .001$. Confirming the Hypotheses 1a and 1b, both masculinity ($B = 8.38$, $SE = 1.78$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [4.87, 11.88]) and femininity ($B = 5.82$, $SE = 2.15$, $p = .007$, 95% CI [1.59, 10.05]) significantly and positively associated with subjective well-being. Again, confirming Hypothesis 2, the unique association between online infidelity tendency and subjective well-being was significant, ($B = -.12$, $SE = 0.07$, $p = .068$, 95% CI [-.25, .009]), and in the expected direction. Besides, the marital satisfaction was also positively and significantly associated with subjective well-being, ($B = .59$, $SE = 0.09$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.44, .74]).

Online infidelity tendency was regressed on gender, age, length of marriage, marital satisfaction, masculinity, and femininity. The model explained 33% of the variance in online infidelity tendency, $R_{adj.}^2 = .33$, $F(6,312) = 27.05$, $p < .001$. Investigating unique associations with predictors indicated that online infidelity tendency was

differed by gender ($B = 17.93$, $SE = 2.46$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [13.06, 22.80]), as males scored more tendency towards online infidelity. Further, both higher marital satisfaction ($B = -.54$, $SE = 0.06$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [-.66, -.43]) and higher femininity ($B = -4.90$, $SE = 1.85$, $p = .008$, 95% CI [-8.53, -1.27]) was associated with lower online infidelity tendency. On the other hand, masculinity did not predict online infidelity tendency ($B = 2.35$, $SE = 1.54$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-.68, 5.38]) (see Table 4.5.1b).

Table 4.5.1a

The Subjective Well-Being was regressed on the Masculinity, Femininity, and Online Infidelity Tendency after Controlling Gender, Age, Length of Marriage, and Marital Satisfaction

Variables	Subjective Well-Being			
	$R_{adj.}^2$	$B (SE)$	P	95% CI
	.33		<.001	
Gender		.80(3.08)	.797	-5.27, 6.86
Age		.15(.27)	.583	-.39, .68
Length of Marriage		.28(.31)	.368	-.33, .88
Marital Satisfaction		.59(.08)	<.001	.44, .74
Masculinity		8.38(1.78)	<.001	4.87, 11.88
Femininity		5.82(2.15)	.007	1.59, 10.05
Online Infidelity Tendency		-.12(.07)	.068	-.25, .009

Notes: $R_{adj.}^2$ is the adjusted R^2 , B is the unstandardized B coefficient, and SE is the standard error of the B coefficient.

Table 4.5.1b

Online Infidelity Tendency was Regressed on the Masculinity and Femininity after Controlling Gender, Age, Length of Marriage, and Marital Satisfaction

Online Infidelity Tendency				
Variables	$R_{adj.}^2$	$B (SE)$	P	$95\% CI$
	.33		<.001	
Gender		17.93(2.48)	<.001	14.06, 22.80
Age		-.14(.24)	.545	-.61, .32
Length of Marriage		-.28(.26)	.293	-.80, .24
Marital Satisfaction		-.54(.06)	<.001	-.66, -.43
Masculinity		2.35(1.54)	.128	-.68, 5.38
Femininity		-4.90(1.85)	.008	-8.53, -1.27

Notes: $R_{adj.}^2$ is the adjusted R^2 , B is the unstandardized B coefficient, and SE is the standard error of the B coefficient.

4.5. Testing the Indirect Association between Gender Roles and Subjective Well-Being for Married Individuals through Online Infidelity Tendency

In the current study, it was also hypothesized that the positive association between gender roles and subjective well-being would be mediated by online infidelity tendency. To test the indirect associations between gender roles and subjective well-being, two separate mediation analyses were conducted by PROCESS model (Hayes, 2013) with 5000 bootstrapping samples.

In the first mediation analysis (Figure 4.6.1a), higher masculinity was significantly associated with higher subjective well-being ($B = 11.12$, $SE = 1.81$, $p < .001$, $95\% CI [7.56, 14.68]$) after controlling online infidelity tendency ($B = -.35$, $SE = 0.06$, $p < .001$, $95\% CI [-.46, -.24]$). However, declining the Hypothesis 5a, the indirect

association between masculinity and subjective well-being was non-significant, indirect $B = .13$, Boot $SE = 0.61$, 95% $CI [-1.13, 1.32]$.

In the second mediation model (Figure 4.6.1b), higher femininity scores were related to higher subjective well-being ($B = 9.47$, $SE = 2.33$, $p = .0001$, 95% $CI [4.90, 14.05]$) after controlling for the negative association of online infidelity tendency ($B = -.31$, $SE = 0.06$, $p < .001$, 95% $CI [-.43, -.19]$). Conforming Hypothesis 5b, the results revealed a significant indirect association between femininity and subjective well-being through online infidelity tendency, indirect $B = 2.05$, Boot $SE = 0.75$, 95% $CI [.75, 3.81]$. As Figure 4.6.1b depicted, higher femininity predicted lower online infidelity tendency, which in turn predicted higher subjective well-being; thus, online infidelity tendency operated as an enervating factor in the association between femininity and subjective well-being.

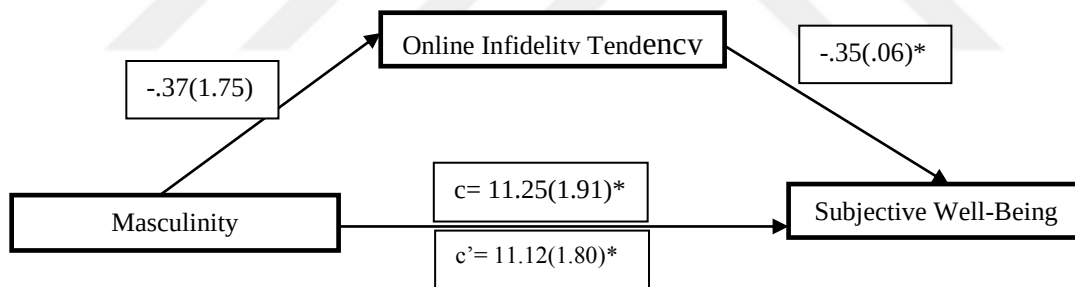


Figure 4.6.1a. The indirect association between masculinity and subjective well-being through online infidelity tendency was non-significant, indirect $B = .13$, Boot $SE = 0.61$, 95% $CI [-1.13, 1.32]$. The values are the unstandardized regression coefficients and their standard errors in the parantheses. * $p < .001$.

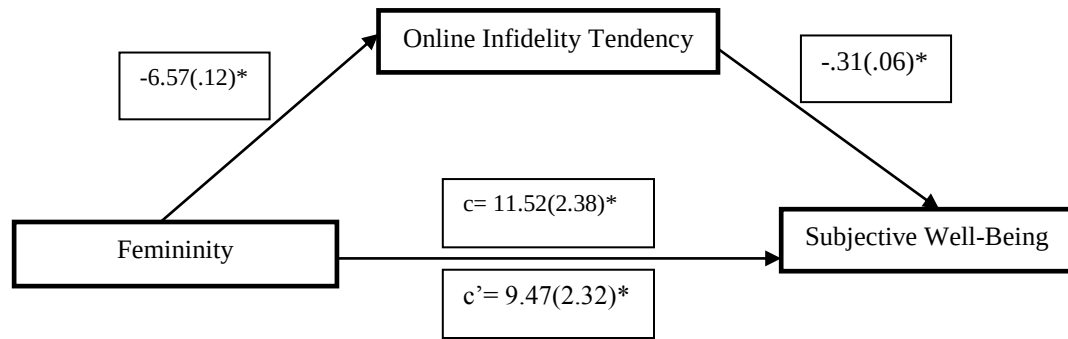


Figure 4.6.1b. The indirect association between femininity and subjective well-being through online infidelity tendency was significant, indirect $B = 2.05$, Boot $SE = 0.75$, 95% $CI [.75, 3.81]$. The values are the unstandardized regression coefficients and their standard errors in the parantheses. * $p < .001$

4.6 Testing the Conditional Association between Online Infidelity Tendency and Subjective Well-Being for Married Individuals on the Different Levels of Marital Satisfaction

To test the Hypothesis 6 that the association between online infidelity tendency and subjective well-being would be moderated by the marital satisfaction was tested by using PROCESS model (Hayes, 2013) via 5000 bootstrapping samples. Both online infidelity tendency and marital satisfaction variables were standardized before the analysis and the model was tested by using these standardized variables.

Conforming the hypothesis 6, the results revealed a significant interaction between online infidelity tendency and marital satisfaction on predicting subjective well-being, $B = -2.70$, $SE = 1.25$, $p = .0312$, 95% $CI [-5.16, -.25]$. Adding the interaction to the regression equation accounted for 1% additional variance in the subjective well-being. As Figure 4.7.1 depicted, higher online infidelity tendency significantly associated with lower subjective well-being for those with higher marital satisfaction, $B = -6.49$, $SE = 2.06$, $p = .0018$, 95% $CI [-10.55, -2.43]$. However, this

association become non-significant for the participants with lower marital satisfaction, $B = -1.08$, $SE = 1.83$, $p = .5556$, 95% $CI [-4.70, 2.53]$. Thus, the results indicated that the negative association between online infidelity tendency and subjective well-being was observed in married individuals, only whom had a higher marital satisfaction.

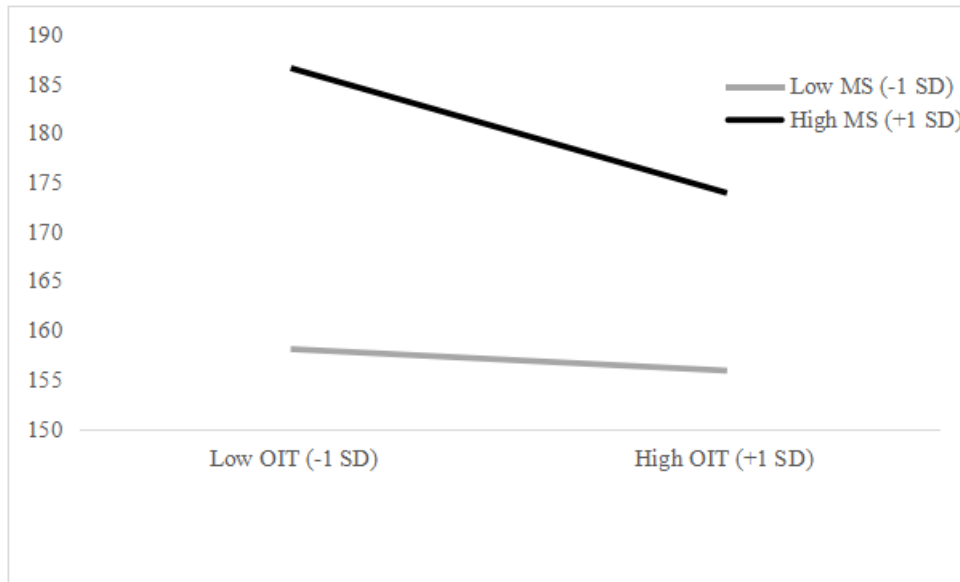


Figure 4.7.1 Marital satisfaction (MS) moderated the relationship between online infidelity tendency (OIT) and subjective well-being. The relationship between online infidelity tendency and subjective well-being is significant for the participants with high marital satisfaction, whereas the association become non-significant for those with low marital satisfaction. The points estimated for the figure were +/- 1 SD of the standardized variables.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This chapter initially addresses an evaluation of the results for the hypotheses in the light of the existing literature. Then, implications of the current findings are addressed. Afterwards, limitations of the study and recommendations for future researches are given. Finally, a summary of the main points of the study is presented.

5.1. Evaluation of Results

In this section, first, differences of demographic variables related to main variables of the study are discussed. Second, correlation coefficients between main variables are examined. Third, the mediating role of online infidelity tendency in the association between gender roles and subjective well-being is argued. Last, the moderating role of marital satisfaction in the association between online infidelity tendency and subjective well-being is discussed.

5.1.1. Differences of Demographic Variables related to Main Variables of the Study

In this part, differences of demographic variables related to main variables of the study were examined. In the current study, separate multivariate regression analyses were conducted for subjective well-being, online infidelity tendency, and marital satisfaction in order to examine if some demographic variables have related to each main variable. All these analyses revealed several significant findings.

According to the findings, firstly, intention of engaging in infidelity was found to be associated with subjective well-being. Specifically, if the participants had intentions of engaging in infidelity, they revealed less subjective well-being. This finding may

be related to the previous studies (e.g. Cooper, et al., 2000a, 2000b; Young, et al., 2000) indicating that engaging in online infidelity can be a symptom of existing problems in the primary relationship before the online relationship was ever formed. For instance, individuals may have online infidelity intentions if they have higher relationship or sexual dissatisfaction, or poor communication skills (Young, et al., 2000). The presence of such problems may predict to have intentions of engaging in online infidelity. Additionally, Jackman (2014) found that infidelity intentions are a function of planned infidelity behaviors, assuming that rational considerations influence the choices and behaviors of individual. Thus, infidelity intentions predict the likelihood of engaging in infidelity, following having negative impacts of online infidelity behaviors (e.g. feelings of sadness, shame, guilt, or regret) on subjective well-being.

Moreover, results of this study revealed gender differences regarding online infidelity tendency. Specifically, male participants had higher scores in online infidelity tendency than female participants. This finding is consistent with previous studies (Martins et. al., 2015), demonstrating that more men than women are more likely to engage in online infidelity. It seems possible that this finding is due to the anonymity and accessibility features of the Internet. Young et al., (2000) showed that men engage in online sexual behaviors as an escape from real life's problems, and these escape-related behaviors may become pathological or addictive as well. Thus, it may be relevant to the reason why men have higher tendency to online infidelity behaviors than women. In addition, gender differences have been shown widely in traditional infidelity literature. Previous research found that women have a lesser desire to engage in infidelity (Prins, Buunk, & VanYperen, 1993), and have fewer tendencies to be unfaithful (Atkins et al, 2001). Hence, men may tend to engage in more infidelity than women.

In the current study, employment status was also found to be associated with online infidelity tendency. Specifically, the participants actively working in a job showed less online infidelity tendency than unemployed and retired participants. There is no

known research investigating to this point the association between employment status and online infidelity tendency. However, regarding traditional infidelity, earlier studies asserted that being employed is a significant factor that contributes to infidelity because workplace offers an opportunity for access to potential partners (Atkins, et al, 2001; Henline et al., 2007; Treas & Giesen, 2000). Particularly, number of days participated in business trip, job requiring private contact with possible sex partners, a broader part of co-workers of the opposite sex, and one remaining at home spouse and working the other is related to increased likelihood of infidelity (Fincham & May, 2017). A possible explanation for the difference between traditional and online infidelities regarding employment status might be due to technical advances in restricting or forbidding employee's adult content sites and dating applications use in workplaces. Companies use the Internet surveillance systems to monitor web use and to block access to cybersex sites (Cooper et al., 2000b). As compared to individuals who are actively working in a job, unemployed and retired individuals are freer, and they have more time, to use such online tools at their home or via their mobile devices than employed individuals.

Furthermore, the current study found no gender difference regarding marital satisfaction as opposed to a wide range of previous research (Boerner, et al., 2014; Chi et al., 2011, Guo & Huang, 2005; Heene, et al., 2005; Ng, et al., 2013; Rostami, et al., 2014), indicating that men are happier in their marriages than women. However, there are also studies conducted in Turkey (Demir & Fıfıloğlu, 1999; Hamamcı, 2005; Sakmar, 2015) and in Western countries (Jakson, et al, 2014; Timm & Keiley, 2011) that revealed the lack of significant gender differences. The finding of gender similarity in marital satisfaction may be due to narrowing the gender gap in childcare and household works despite the fact that women still take on the most part of these responsibilities (Sayer, 2005). Concordantly, 71.5% of the sample of this study was female participants with considerably high education levels and actively working in a job. Hence, it is not surprising that there is no gender difference regarding marital satisfaction.

Lastly, regarding the association of age with marital satisfaction, in the current study it was found that as age increases, marital satisfaction decreases. This finding was consistent with Orathinkal and Vansteenwegen's (2007) research. In addition to this, it was found that as length of marriage increases, marital satisfaction decreases. Similar to the result of the current study, previous research showed that marital satisfaction follows a curvilinear path, decreasing from high degrees of satisfaction in the beginning of marriage, and then reaching again to almost newlywed levels in later years (Rollins & Feldman, cited in Orathinkal & Vansteenwegen, 2007). These findings are consistent with each other, as well. Beyond any doubt, marriage duration increases with age. The unique associations of the variables of age and length of marriage with marital satisfaction are difficult to find out. As Guo and Huang (2005) noted, the influence of age is commonly confounded with marriage duration.

5.1.2. Correlation Coefficients between Main Variables

The first aim of the current study was to explore the relationships among subjective well-being, online infidelity tendency, gender roles and marital satisfaction. Firstly, it was hypothesized that gender role dimensions would be significantly associated with subjective well-being. Specifically, individuals who reported higher masculinity and higher femininity would report higher subjective well-being. These associations were found significant and provided support for this hypothesis. Results revealed that individuals with high levels of masculinity and femininity reported higher subjective well-being. This is consistent with the previous empirical findings demonstrating that individuals with higher masculine and higher feminine orientations had higher subjective well-being (e.g. Burnett, et al., 1995; Eddington & Schuman, 2016; Johnson et al. 2006; Orlofsky & O'Heron, 1987; Sanfilipo, 1994; Whitley, 1983; Zeldow, et al., 1987). Earlier research showed that although both masculinity and femininity are related to subjective well-being, masculinity carried the most weight (e.g. Castlebury & Durham, 1997; Lefkowitz & Zeldow, 2006). In line with the studies demonstrating that femininity is positively associated with

subjective well-being (e.g. Shea, et al, 2014), a possible explanation for this finding may be due to the changes in masculinity and femininity traits over time, and men and women putting on roles that are more alike. Twenge (1997) suggested that one reason of this change is the increasing number of women who work outside the home. As women become more empowered in the society, they conform less to traditional gender roles. Accordingly, the findings of this study may be attributed to the fact that majority of participants (71.5%) in this study were women, 88.4% of them had university and post-graduate education, and 81.5% of them were employed. Thus, they may be more liberal in their thinking about behaviors that are appropriate for males and females, as women become more empowered in the society.

Secondly, it was hypothesized that online infidelity tendency would be significantly associated with subjective well-being. Specifically, individuals who reported higher levels of online infidelity tendency would report lower levels of subjective well-being. Results showed that online infidelity tendency is negatively correlated with subjective well-being. In other words, as online infidelity tendency increased, the subjective well-being of participants decreased. This is consistent with the literature findings (e.g. Cooper, et al., 2000b; Schneider, 2000) showing negative impacts of online infidelity on individuals. Individuals engaging in online infidelity feel upset, shame, and guilt due to the betrayal and spending less time with their offline partner (Whitty, 2005). Additionally, online infidelity involves secrecy and shame that goes with the dishonesty of the infidelity and draining energy from the primary relationship. Thus, this leads to distress and poor psychological health in partners (Cooper et al., 2000b). Moreover, cybersex use can be a sign of deeper problems such as closeness, dependency, and abandonment, indicating that low subjective well-being may predict online sexual involvement (Cooper, et al., 2000b).

Thirdly, it was hypothesized that gender roles dimensions (masculinity and femininity) would be significantly associated with online infidelity tendency. Specifically, individuals who reported higher levels of masculinity would report

higher levels of online infidelity tendency. Moreover, individuals who reported higher levels of femininity would report lower levels of online infidelity tendency. According to the results, femininity was significantly and negatively associated with online infidelity tendency, whereas masculinity was not associated with online infidelity tendency. It is important to note that, to date, no known studies have examined the association between online infidelity tendency and gender role dimensions. However, this finding seems to be consistent with traditional infidelity studies which showed that lower levels of femininity are associated with an increased likelihood of engaging in infidelity (Bem, 1974; Mosher & Danoff-Burg, 2005; Steiner-Pappalardo & Gurung, 2002). A possible explanation for this is that feminine features such as communion, connectedness, and nurturance are determinants of high-quality relationship; thus, more feminine individuals are less likely to engage in infidelity (Mosher & Danoff-Burg, 2005; Zuroff, Moskowitz, & Cote, 1999). However, in contrast to earlier findings consistently showing a positive relationship between masculinity and infidelity tendency, it was not found that higher masculinity is associated with higher rates of infidelity tendency in this study. This rather contradictory result may be due to characteristics of the sample. As noted before, majority of the participants were women who are well-educated and employed of the sample. Perhaps compared to masculinity, demographic characteristics have a greater influence on online infidelity tendency for them.

Finally, it was hypothesized that marital satisfaction would be significantly associated with subjective well-being. Specifically, individuals who reported higher levels of marital satisfaction would report higher levels of subjective well-being. The current study found that higher marital satisfaction is associated with increased subjective well-being, as expected. This finding is consistent with the broad body of earlier empirical studies (e.g., Carr, et al., 2014; Diener, et al., 1999; Glenn & Weaver, 1981; Whisman, et al., 2004) demonstrating that individuals who were satisfied with their marriages had higher subjective well-being. In other words,

married people are happier than non-married people (Diener et al., 1999; Myers, 1999; Myers, 2000). With respect to the benefits of marriage, Haring-Hidore, et al., (1985) suggested that it may be rooted in social support provided by partner. Having a spouse is a critical element for social support that is positively linked to subjective well-being. However, every marriage is not more beneficial than no marriage any time regarding well-being (Horwitz, et al, 1996). Indeed, marital discord, separation, or divorce brings about psychological and health problems. Staying in a dissatisfying marriage is related to significantly lower levels of happiness in general, satisfaction with life, self-esteem, and overall health as well as psychological problems. What is more, remaining in a dissatisfying marriage is more detrimental than divorce, as individuals dissatisfied with their marriages are less happy than divorced or remarried individuals (Hawkins & Booth, 2005). Hence, remaining in a satisfying marriage appears to be vital in order to get the benefits of being married, and have high subjective well-being.

5.1.3. The Mediating Role of Online Infidelity Tendency in the Association between Gender Roles and Subjective Well-being

The second aim of the current study was to investigate the potential mediating role of online infidelity tendency in the association between gender roles dimensions and subjective well-being. Accordingly, it was hypothesized that the positive associations between gender roles (i.e., femininity and masculinity) and subjective well-being would be mediated by online infidelity tendency. The results of mediation analyses with bootstrapping samples provided some evidence that gender roles and online infidelity tendency may help to account for subjective well-beings of married individuals.

When mediation analyses were performed in order to further investigate the links between gender roles dimensions (i.e., masculinity and femininity), online infidelity tendency, and subjective well-being of married individuals, the results indicated that online infidelity tendency mediated the relationship between femininity and

subjective well-being. Specifically, higher femininity predicted lower infidelity tendency, which in turn negatively related to subjective well-being. Hence, this finding suggests that online infidelity tendency operates as an enervating factor in the association between femininity and subjective well-being.

Although previous studies have documented the bivariate associations among femininity, infidelity, and subjective well-being (e.g., Cooper et al., 2000b; Mosher & Danoff-Burg, 2005; Shea, et al, 2014), to date, no studies have examined mediational association of femininity with subjective well-being through online infidelity tendency. Therefore, the findings of the current study are unique in terms of exploring the mediational role of online infidelity tendency in the associations of femininity with subjective well-being. In line with the findings of this study, higher femininity was found to be related with offline infidelity tendency in the previous studies (Bem, 1974; Mosher & Danoff-Burg, 2005; Steiner-Pappalardo & Gurung, 2002). Femininity increases relationship quality, and thus potentially decrease infidelity tendency. Some feminine features are especially important for relationship outcomes. For instance, the feminine feature of communion was related to increased levels of connectedness in both men and women (Zuroff, et al., 1999), and lower willingness to engage in uncommitted sex in men (Mosher & Danoff-Burg, 2005). Consequently, individuals with higher levels of femininity have potentially lower tendencies to online infidelity, and their higher inclination to online infidelity decreases their subjective well-being, leading to feel guilt, shame, sadness and distress between spouses (Cooper et. al., 2000b; Whitty, 2005).

On the other hand, online infidelity tendency did not mediate the association between masculinity and subjective well-being. As predicted, masculinity was found to be positively associated with subjective well-being. This is in line with prior research findings showing that individuals with higher levels of masculinity are likely to have high self-esteem (Whitley, 1983), high ego strength (Woo & Oei, 2006), low depression (Morgan, et al., 1986; Sanfilipo, 1994), social anxiety (Ümme, 2007), low levels of eating psychopathology (Meyer, et al., 2001), and

greater problems about alcohol problems (Zeldow, et al., 1987). However, masculinity was not found to be significantly associated with online infidelity tendency. This in part explains the lack of support for online infidelity tendency mediating the association between masculinity and subjective well-being. A possible explanation for this is the above noted sample characteristics and therefore being female, highly-educated and employed may lead to non-significant association of masculinity with online infidelity tendency.

5.1.4. The Moderating Role of Marital Satisfaction in the Association between Online Infidelity Tendency and Subjective Well-being

The third aim of the current study was to address the potential moderating role of marital satisfaction in the association between online infidelity tendency and subjective well-being. It was hypothesized that the association between online infidelity tendency and subjective well-being would be moderated by marital satisfaction. Results revealed that online infidelity tendency is significantly associated with subjective well-being for individuals with higher marital satisfaction. However, this association was non-significant for those with lower marital satisfaction. That is, individuals' high tendency to engage in online infidelity predicts their low subjective well-beings only in the condition of low marital satisfaction.

When individuals have high marital satisfaction, they reported lower subjective well-being if they also had higher online infidelity tendencies. However, when individuals have low marital satisfaction, their online infidelity tendency level no longer predicts their subjective well-being. This finding implies that marital satisfaction rather than online infidelity tendency is a key factor in predicting individuals' subjective well-being. Individuals who have high marital satisfaction may feel upset, guilt, and shame due to continuing an online relationship in secret, being dishonest to their spouses, and draining energy from their satisfactory marriages (Cooper et al., 2000b). Individuals who have low marital satisfaction, in contrast, may not receive

as the benefits of marriage to their subjective well-being as other individuals who are highly satisfied with their marriages. For instance, happily married individuals perceive their spouses as a consistent source of emotional and social support, whereas unhappily married individuals do not regard their spousal role or the support received from their spouses as significant as well as other happily married individuals (Hawkins & Booth, 2005). Thus, their tendency to engage in online infidelity may not influence their low subjective well-being.

The overall results seem to suggest that online infidelity tendency mediates the relationship between femininity and subjective well-being. Specifically, the findings highlighted the importance of online infidelity tendency as an underlying mechanism through the association between femininity and subjective well-being in married individuals. Moreover, these results suggest that the association between online infidelity tendency and subjective well-being is significant only for the individuals with high marital satisfaction. This may suggest that marital satisfaction is a stronger predictor of subjective well-being, compared to online infidelity tendency. Still, it is important to note that although both masculinity and femininity are directly associated with subjective well-being, when online infidelity is the mediator, the association of masculinity with subjective well-being becomes non-significant. That is, gender role dimensions continued to predict subjective well-being after online infidelity tendency accounted for. It may be suggested that gender role dimensions have a more direct association with subjective well-being than that the predicted mediator play a better part in this association.

5.2. Implications of the Study

The findings of the current study provide some beneficial implications for the field of clinical practice with married individuals. In recent years, research on positive psychology has been grown rapidly (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), and subjective well-being, one of the central concepts widely studied within positive psychology, receives a growing interest in clinical practice. The current study may

contribute further information to this growing field. Firstly, the findings of this study provide information to the increasing body of subjective well-being literature suggesting that gender roles (i.e., masculinity and femininity), online infidelity tendency, and marital satisfaction play significant roles in subjective well-beings of married individuals. Furthermore, online infidelity and its impacts on individuals and marriages have clearly presented new challenges into the practice of the therapists (Hertlein & Piercy, 2008). The fast improvement of the Internet and social networking services in the last decades have expanded the likelihood of online infidelity, and thus detrimentally influence primary relationships as traditional infidelity (Cravens & Whiting, 2014). Therefore, marriage and family therapists need to be aware that an increasing number of couples will present with problems related to online infidelity in their practice. They should consider contributing factors and the impacts of online infidelity tendency on spouses and families; correspondingly, shape their assessment and treatment strategies while working with clients who have these problems. For instance, they can obtain information about client's Internet use, cybersex use, and social media services use during assessment. They can also devote effort to developing physical boundaries for Internet use such as monitoring software and limiting some particular social media services or websites to restore marital trust between couples in the initial sessions of the therapy.

Furthermore, the findings of the current study add to the growing body of online infidelity literature suggesting that online infidelity tendency play a significant role in subjective well-being of married individuals. Moreover, current study presented descriptive information (e.g., gender and employment status) about online infidelity tendency of the non-clinical married sample. Thus, this may widen the understanding for professionals working in this area. More importantly, the findings suggested that online infidelity tendency may be a key element in subjective well-beings of married individuals with more feminine gender role traits.

Individuals may seek therapy in the first place because they consider their online practices as tendency to infidelity, and thus, they have low subjective well-being. However, their problems regarding their inclination of online infidelity may actually be related to low levels of feminine traits. Femininity gender role traits are associated with some features such as communion, expressiveness, and displaying love which are related to high quality relationship. Their low levels of femininity which is linked to low quality relationships turn into tendency to infidelity in online settings. Hence, it may be beneficial for the therapists to assess femininity gender-role dimension of spouses and its role in the online infidelity tendency. Moreover, therapists may work on making the clients aware of their gender role traits as a significant factor in their online infidelity tendencies. Positive aspects of a satisfied relationship are related to keeping more feminine traits. Therapists can inform their clients with low femininity in the development of more feminine features and behaviors. Femininity in both men and women provides a positive, certain, and connected significant-other concept that directly linked to a satisfying relationship, and contributes to less likelihood of infidelity and high subjective well-being.

As many couples seek professional help because one of them show online infidelity tendency, the findings of this study may provide insight for couple or family therapists. Although couples present their problems about online infidelity to their therapists, the problems are in fact related to their marital satisfaction. When they are satisfied with their marriages, and if they have online infidelity tendency, their subjective well-beings become low. They feel negative emotions such as sadness, guilt, and shame due to having an online relationship in secret, not being honest to their spouses, and draining energy to this online relationship from their satisfied marriages (Cooper, et al., 2000b). Therefore, it may be beneficial for the therapists to assess marital satisfaction levels of spouses and its significant role in their online infidelity behaviors. Specifically, a therapist may work on making the couples aware of their high marital satisfaction as a key element in association of their inclination of online infidelity with their low subjective well-beings. In addition, they may encourage the spouses to talk openly about their negative emotions regarding their

online infidelity tendencies. Thus, individuals can gain insight about the issues that cause their low subjective well-being, like the facts that they show tendencies to online secretive relationships and they are happy in their marriages.

In addition to these, considering online infidelity is a relatively new phenomenon and it has detrimental impacts on couples and families as traditional infidelity, therapists should consider contributing factors and the impacts of online infidelity tendency on spouses and families; correspondingly, shape their assessment and treatment strategies while working with clients who have these problems. For instance, they can obtain information about client's Internet use, cybersex use, and social media services use during assessment. They can also devote effort to developing physical boundaries for Internet use such as monitoring software and limiting some particular social media services or websites to restore marital trust between couples in the initial sessions of the therapy.

5.3. Limitations of the Study and Recommendations for Future Research

The present study provide valuable findings to the existing literature by examining the associations among subjective well-being, online infidelity tendency, gender roles (masculinity and femininity dimensions), and marital satisfaction; the mediating role of online infidelity tendency in the association between gender roles and subjective well-being; and the moderator role of marital satisfaction in the association between online infidelity tendency and subjective well-being. Nevertheless, this study has some limitations that should be bore in mind while evaluating the results of the study, all of which lay emphasis on recommendations for future studies.

First limitation of the current study was participants' education levels. This sample has been composed of highly educated participants that may not represent entire population of Turkey. Therefore, future studies would determine a quota for each education level, due to more generalizability to population.

Second limitation of the current study was that the findings of the study were based on cross-sectional design. Cross-sectional design cannot be used to investigate behavior a period of time. The present study only determined current subjective well-being, online infidelity tendency, gender roles and marital satisfaction levels of married individuals. Therefore, future studies may employ longitudinal data to observe the impacts of variables on subjective well-being over a period of time in married individuals.

As a third limitation, only self-report measures were used in the current study. Hence, generalizability of the findings was restricted by the precision of self-reports. Use of self-reports may lead to biases, like social desirability bias, which may affect the results (Kazdin, 2003). In future research, more than one assessment methods may be used; thus, based on findings gained by self-report and interview measure provide more unbiased data.

As a further limitation, an online survey was used as data gathering technique. It may lead to a threat of common method bias. More specifically, filling in an online survey may differently affect answers of respondents who may be inexperienced and experienced with an online survey platform. Future studies may involve additional data collection techniques, such as interviews to gather more unbiased data.

Last, Infidelity Tendency Scale (ITS) was used to measure married individuals' online infidelity tendencies. This scale was developed for the aim of assessing general infidelity tendencies of individuals. Because there is no scale available specifically developed to measure online infidelity tendency in the literature, participants were asked to consider their online interpersonal interactions while filling out the questionnaire. Therefore, future researchers should develop a definite, standardized instrument of online infidelity tendency that sufficiently includes the various features of online infidelity tendency.

5.4. Summary

The current study contributes to the past research by presenting a comprehensive analysis of subjective well-being, online infidelity tendency, gender roles, and marital satisfaction. First, correlation coefficients between main variables were examined. Second, the mediating role of online infidelity tendency between gender roles (i.e., masculinity and femininity) and subjective well-being was investigated. Last, the moderating role of marital satisfaction between online infidelity tendency and subjective well-being was demonstrated. All in all, the present study showed the significant roles of online infidelity tendency, gender roles and marital satisfaction on subjective well-being of married individuals. The results of the current study demonstrated that masculinity, femininity, and marital satisfaction are positively, and online infidelity tendency are negatively associated with subjective well-being. Femininity was significantly and negatively associated with online infidelity tendency, whereas masculinity was not associated with online infidelity tendency. Moreover, higher femininity predicted lower levels of online infidelity tendency, which in turn predicted higher subjective well-being. Furthermore, higher online infidelity tendency significantly associated with lower subjective well-being for married individuals with higher marital satisfaction.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. Informed Consent (Gönüllü Katılım Formu)

Bu çalışma, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Klinik Psikoloji programı doktora öğrencisi Gizem Ateş tarafından, Prof. Dr. Hürol Fıfıloğlu danışmanlığında yürütülmektedir. Araştırmanın amacı, evli bireylerde cinsiyet rolleri, internet aldatması, ilişki doyumu ve psikolojik sağlık arasındaki ilişkiyi saptamaktır.

Çalışmada sizden kimlik belirleyici hiçbir bilgi istenmemektedir. Cevaplarınız tamamıyla gizli tutulacak ve sadece çalışma kapsamında değerlendirilecektir; elde edilecek bilgiler sadece bilimsel yayımlarda kullanılacaktır. Araştırmaya katılım tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Ankette yer alan soruların doğru ya da yanlış cevapları yoktur. Lütfen size en çok uyan cevapları veriniz.

Anketin tamamlanması yaklaşık olarak 30 dakika sürmektedir. Soruları sizin doğruluğunuzu yansıtacak şekilde cevaplamanız ve soruları boş bırakmamanız geçerli ve güvenilir sonuçlar elde etmek açısından oldukça önemlidir. Anket kişisel rahatsızlık verecek sorular içermemektedir. Buna rağmen katılım sırasında sorulardan veya herhangi bir nedenden ötürü rahatsızlık hissettiğiniz takdirde cevaplamayabilir veya cevaplama işini bırakabilirsiniz. Bu çalışmayla ilgili sorularınız e-mail yoluyla cevaplanacaktır. Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için Gizem Ateş’le iletişime geçebilirsiniz (E-posta: gizematess@gmail.com).

Çalışmaya katıldığınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum. (Formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra uygulayıcıya geri veriniz).

İsim Soyad

Tarih

İmza

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APPENDIX B. Demographic Information Form

Lütfen size uygun gelen seçeneğin yanına işaret koyunuz.

1. Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın ☐ Erkek ☐
2. Yaşınız: _____
3. Eğitim durumunuz:
☐ İlkokul ☐ Ortaokul ☐ Lise
☐ 2 yıllık yüksek okul ☐ Üniversite ☐ Yüksek lisans veya Doktora
4. Kaç yıldır evlisiniz? _____
5. İlişki durumunuz:
☐ İlk evlilik ☐ İkinci/ (...) evlilik
☐ İmam nikahlı ☐ Nikahsız birliktesiz
6. Çalışıyor musunuz?
☐ Evet ☐ Hayır ☐ Emekli
7. Sahip olduğunuz çocuk sayısı: _____
8. Sizce hangi sosyoekonomik gelir düzeyine girersiniz?
☐ Alt ☐ Alt-orta ☐ Orta ☐ Üst-orta ☐ Üst
9. Genel bir sağlık problemim: ☐ Yok ☐ Var (Belirtiniz) _____
10. Bugüne kadar psikolojik bir tanı ile tedavi aldınız mı? ☐ Hayır ☐ Evet
(Belirtiniz) _____
11. Şimdiye dek eşinizi aldatmayı hiç düşündünüz mü?
☐ Evet
☐ Hayır

APPENDIX C. Subjective Well-Being Scale

Bu envanterde kişiliğinizin ve yaşamınızın çeşitli yönlerine ilişkin ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Bu ifadeleri tek tek okuyarak, ifadenin size ne derece uygun olduğuna karar veriniz. İfade size “tamamen uygunsa” cevap kâğıdındaki (5); “çoğunlukla uygunsa” (4); “orta derecede uygunsa” (3); “biraz uygunsa” (2); “hiç uygun değilse” (1) numaralı alanı daire içine alarak işaretleyiniz. Lütfen tüm ifadeleri boş bırakmadan cevaplayınız.

		Hiç uygun değil	Biraz uygun	Kısmen uygun	Çoğunlukla uygun	Tamamen uygun
1.	Geleceğe yönelik planlar yapmaktan hoşlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Yaşamımda zevk alarak yaptığım etkinlik sayısı azdır.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Genel olarak kendimi neşeli hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Geriye dönüp baktığımda istediklerimin çoğunu elde edemediğimi görüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Kişilik özelliklerimden genel olarak memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	İstediğim nitelikte ve sayıda arkadaşım olmamasına üzülüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Günlük yaşamımdaki sorumluluklarımı başarıyla yerine getiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Ulaşmak istediğim ideallerim var.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	İlgi ve yeteneklerime uygun etkinliklerin yaşamımdaki yeri istediğim ölçüdedir.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Küçük sorunları bile büyütürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Kendimi genel olarak canlı ve enerjik hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Yakın gelecekte yaşamımda güzel gelişmeler olacağına inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Kişilerarası ilişkilerde sıklıkla hayal kırıklığı yaşıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Yaşamıma beni ona bağlayacak anlamlar katmakta zorlanmam.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Beni eğlendiren faaliyetlere yeterince katılamıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

16	Umutlarımın gerçekleşeceğine inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Mümkün olsa geçmiş hayatımı değiştiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Ailemle olan ilişkilerimden memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Genelde hüzünlü ve düşünceliyim.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Yaşamımda yapmam gerekenleri düşünmek hoşuma gider.	1	2	3	4	5
21	Kendimi yalnız hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Amaçlarıma ulaşmak için çevremdeki olanakları etkili bir şekilde kullanabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
23	Genel olarak kendimi huzurlu hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
24	Başkalarının mutlu görüldüğü kadar mutlu olmayı isterdim.	1	2	3	4	5
25	Sorunları yaşamın öğretici ve doğal bir parçası olarak görürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
26	Çevremdeki insanların yaşamlarına imreniyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
27	Amaçlarıma ulaşmak için yeterince kararlı davranabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
28	Yaşamımı genel olarak monoton ve sıkıcı buluyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
29	Sosyal ilişkilerimdeki girişkenlik yanımdan hoşnutum.	1	2	3	4	5
30	Kendime hedefler koymakta zorlanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
31	İç dünyamın zaman geçtikçe zenginleştiğini hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
32	Tanıdığım insanların çoğundan daha fazla sıkıntım var.	1	2	3	4	5
33	Yaşamın zorluklarıyla başetme gücüne güveniyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
34	Sevilen ve güvenilen biri olduğumu hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
35	Geçmişte yaptığım hatalardan dolayı yoğun suçluluk duygusu yaşıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
36	Serbest zamanlarımda zevkle vakit geçirecek bir uğraşı bulurum.	1	2	3	4	5
37	Yaşamım başarısızlıklarla dolu.	1	2	3	4	5
38	Güçlükler karşısında çabuk pes ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
39	Çevremde ihtiyaç duyduğumda destek alabileceğim insanlar var.	1	2	3	4	5
40	Sıklıkla ümitsiz ve çökkün hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
41	Okumak ve çalışmak benim için zevkli uğraşılardır.	1	2	3	4	5
42	İsteklerime ve değerlerime uygun bir hayat sürüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

43	Ailemle olan ilişkilerimde sorunlar yaşıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
44	Yaşama iyimser bir açıyla bakabilme yönünden memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5
45	Arkadaşlarıma kendimi istediğim gibi ifade edemiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
46	Başkalarına yardım edebilme ve onlara destek olma becerimden hoşnutum.	1	2	3	4	5



APPENDIX D. Infidelity Tendency Scale

Bu ölçekte, evliliğiniz ile ilgili duygu ve düşüncelerinizi değerlendirmeniz istenmektedir. Her bir ifadeyi okuduktan sonra, internette başkalarıyla geçirdiğiniz zamanı düşünerek , buna ne derecede katıldığınızı ya da katılmadığınızı cevap için ayrılan yere (X) koyarak işaretleyiniz.		Tamamen katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Tamamen katılmıyorum
1.	Eşimle iletişim çatışması yaşadığım dönemlerde, beni anlayacak bir partner isterim.					
2.	Eşimle düzenli aralıklarla cinsel ilişkiye giremediğimde (iş seyahatleri vs.), bu dönemlerde başkasıyla birlikte olmayı deneyebilirim.					
3.	Zaman zaman, beni daha mutlu edebilecek bir başkasıyla birlikte olmayı düşünürüm.					
4.	Eşimden aldığım cinsel doyum düşük olsa da, başkasıyla birlikte olmayı düşünmem.					
5.	Evliliğimi artık kurtaramayacağımı hissettiğimde (her şeye rağmen devam edecek ya da boşanmayla sonuçlanacak), hayatımda başka birinin olması için açık kapı bırakırım.					
6.	Eşim kendine ayrı bir sosyal çevre edinip onlarla yoğun bir ilişki içine girdiğinde; ben de ortak ilgilerimizi, hobilerimizi paylaşacağım bir partnerle vakit geçirmeyi deneyebilirim.					
7.	Eşimden daha güzel/yakışıklı, çekici bir partnerle birlikte olmayı da düşünürüm.					
8.	Giderek eşime olan sadakatim azalıyor.					
9.	Evliliğimdeki romantizm bitse de, bunu bir başkasıyla gidermeyi düşünmem.					
10.	Eşimden başka bir partneri düşünmek bile kendimi suçlu hissetmeme neden olur.					
11.	Sevgi, anlayış ve desteğe ihtiyacım olduğunda; yine de bu isteğime eşimden başka bir partnerin karşılık vereceğine inanmıyorum.					
12.	Eşimle yaşayamadığım fantezileri gerçekleştirebileceğim bir teklif aldığımda, bunu değerlendirebilirim.					
13.	Eşimin kıskanç davranışları, başka bir partnere yönelmeme neden olabilir.					

14.	Salt farklı bir heyecan yaşamak için, eşimden başkasıyla birlikte olmam.					
15.	Tek eşlilik bana göre değil.					
16.	Eşimden ayrılmayı düşünsem de, başka biriyle birlikte olmam.					
17.	Evliliğimdeki mutsuzluğun, başkasıyla birlikte olmama neden olacağını sanmıyorum.					
18.	Eşimin fiziksel çekiciliği azalsa da, başka bir insanı çekici olduğu için tercih etmem.					
19.	Eşimin yoğun ilgisi, beni başka bir partnere itebilir.					
20.	Eşimle anlaşamasam da “keşke başka biriyle evli olsaydım” diye düşünmem.					
21.	Eşim bakımsız olduğunda, bakımlı ve hoş biriyle birlikte olmayı isterim.					
22.	Eşim karı-koca rolünü, ana-baba rolünün arkasına atarsa başkasıyla birlikte olabilirim.					
23.	Evliliğimi hiçbir koşulda riske atmam.					
24.	Eşimin başka biriyle birlikte olduğunu öğrensem, ben de bir başkasıyla birlikte olmayı denerim.					
25.	İlişkimiz rutinleştğinde yeni heyecanlar yaşamak için başkasıyla birlikte olabilirim.					
26.	Elimde olmadan, salt ortamın uygun olması nedeniyle; başkasıyla birlikte olabilirim.					
27.	Eşim bana zaman ayırmasa da, hayatıma başka bir partneri almayı düşünmem.					
28.	Karşımdaki insan istedi diye, onunla birlikte olmam.					
29.	Eşim başkasıyla birlikte olmamı hak ediyor.					
30.	Eşim geçici cinsel işlev bozukluğu yaşarsa, cinsel ilişki için bir başkasıyla birlikte olmayı düşünürüm.					

APPENDIX E. Bem Sex-Role Inventory-Short Version

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelerin, sizin için ne oranda doğru ya da yanlış olduğunu, sizi ne oranda tanımladığını göz önüne alıp ilgili rakamı daire içine alarak belirtiniz.

1: Tamamen yanlış 2: Çoğunlukla yanlış 3: Biraz yanlış 4: Ne doğru ne yanlış 5: Biraz doğru 6: Çoğunlukla doğru 7: Tamamen doğru

1.	Düşünce ve inançlarını savunan	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Duygusal	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Vicdan sahibi / Bilinçli	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Bağımsız / Dilediğini yapan	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Sempatik	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	Ne yapacağı belli olmayan / Başına buyruk / Sağı solu belli olmayan	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	İddialı / Tuttuğunu koparan	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Diğer insanların duygularını önemseyen	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	Güvenilir / İtimat edilir	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Sağlam karakterli / Güçlü kişilikli	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	Anlayışlı	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	Kıskanç	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	İşe yarar ve becerikli	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	Şefkatli / Merhametli	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	İçten / Samimi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	Lider / Liderlik özelliklerine sahip	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	Duygularına hakim olabilen / Teskin edici	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	Sır saklayabilen / tutabilen / Ketum	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	Risk alabilen / Risk almayı seven	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	Sıcak kanlı	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	Uyumlu	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	Baskın / Üstün / Hakim	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	Sevecen / Sevgi dolu	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	Kendini beğenmiş / Kibirli	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	Muhalef / Muhalefet eden	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	Çocukları seven	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	Kaba / Patavatsız / Nezaketsiz	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	Saldırgan	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29.	Kibar / Nazik	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	Toplumsal kurallara uyan / Geleneklerine bağlı	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX F. Dyadic Adjustment Scale

Sample Items:

23. Eşinizi öper misiniz?

Her gün

Hemen hemen
her gün

Ara sıra

Nadiren

Hiçbir zaman

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24. Siz ve eşiniz ev dışı etkinliklerinizin ne kadarına birlikte katılırsınız?

Hepsine

Çoğuna

Bazılarına

Çok azına

Hiçbirine

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Yazışma Adresi: Prof. Dr. Hürol Fıfıloğlu, İlişki Pusulası Aile Çalışmaları Enstitüsü,
Şair Eşref Bulvarı, No: 72/3, Alsancak/İzmir.

APPENDIX G. Curriculum Vitae

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Surname, Name: Ateş, Gizem
Nationality: Turkish (T.C.)
Date and Place of Birth: 19 September 1987, Silifke
email: gizematess@gmail.com

EDUCATION

Degree	Institution	Year of Graduation
BS	METU Psychology	2009
High School	Özel Silifke Lisesi, Mersin	2004

WORK EXPERIENCE

Year	Place	Enrollment
12.2017- Present	Korto Psikolojik Danışmanlık Merkezi, İstanbul	Psychotherapist
02.2015- Present	Virtua Psikoloji, İstanbul	Psychotherapist
03.2014 – 02.2018	T.C. Arel University, Psychology Department, İstanbul	Part-time Lecturer
04.2014 – 11.2016	FMV Işık University, Psychology Department, İstanbul	Research Assistant
09.2009 – 06.2013	Middle East Technical University, Psychology Department, Ankara	Research Assistant

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Advanced English, Basic German

APPENDIX H. Turkish Summary/ Türkçe Özet

Psikoloji literatüründe öznel iyi oluş ile ilgili çalışmalar son yıllarda hızla gelişme göstermiştir. Daha önceki dönemlerde öznel iyi oluş literatüründe çoğunlukla duygusal iyi oluşa odaklanılmış ve yaşam doyumunun öznel fikri çalışılmamıştır. Fakat daha sonraki çalışmalar, iyi oluşun öznel yanının değerini incelemiştir (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Özellikle Diener (2000) bireylerin yaşam kalitelerinin, kendi yaşamlarının tatmin edici olup olmadığının öznel olarak değerlendirmelerinin önemini vurgulamıştır. Bu yaklaşım “öznel iyi oluş” olarak bilinegelen “iyi hayatı” tanımlamaktadır (Diener, 2000).

Öznel iyi oluş, bireylerin duygusal tepkilerini, yaşam doyumlarının düzeyleri ile ilgili görüşlerini ve evlilik ve iş gibi yaşam alanlarından beslenen yaşam doyumunun genel algısını içermektedir (Diener, 1984). Değerli bir hayatın ve psikolojik sağlığın daha öte yönleri olması ile beraber, Diener (1984) öznel iyi oluşun üç temel bileşeni içerdiğini önermiştir: (1) yaşam doyumu, (2) olumlu ruh halinin varlığı ve (3) olumsuz ruh halinin yokluğu. Birinci bileşen (yaşam doyumu) öznel iyi oluşun bilişsel bileşeni olarak tanımlanırken, diğer iki bileşen (olumlu ruh halinin varlığı ve olumsuz ruh halinin yokluğu) öznel iyi oluşun duygusal bileşenini ifade etmektedir.

Öznel iyi oluş araştırmalarının önemli düzeyde artışı ile birlikte, araştırmacılar mutlu insanların özelliklerini anlamaya çalışmışlardır. Öznel iyi oluş üzerine yapılan önceki araştırmalar yaş, cinsiyet, ırk ve para gibi demografik değişkenlerin mutluluğun temel göstergeleri olmadığını göstermiştir (Diener, Sandvik, Seidlitz, & Diener, 1993; Myers & Diener, 1995). Daha ziyade, bireysel özellikler ve sosyal faktörler öznel iyi oluşun belirleyicilerini anlamak için daha faydalı ipuçları sunmaktadır. Öznel iyi oluş ile ilişkilendirilen bireysel faktörlerden biri cinsiyet rolleridir (Whitley, 1983).

Cinsiyet rolleri bireyin cinsiyetine göre tipik davranış beklentileri olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Kadınsılık (feminenlik) cinsiyet rolü kadın cinsiyeti ile erkeksilik (maskülenlik) cinsiyet rolü ise erkek cinsiyeti ile uyuşturulmaktadır. Bu roller bireylerin düşüncelerini, duygularını ve davranışlarını şekillendiren önemli bireysel özelliklerdir (Perry & Bussey, 1984).

Cinsiyet rolleri ve öznel iyi oluş arasındaki ilişkiyi gösteren önceki bilimsel kanıtlar farklı bulgular ortaya koymuştur. Bazı çalışmalar yüksek düzey erkeksilik ve düşük düzey feminenliğin yüksek düzey öznel iyi oluşla ilişkili olduğu sonucunu çıkarırken, (Castlebury & Durham, 1997; Whitley, 1983), diğer çalışmalar androjenliğin (hem erkeksilik hem kadınsılık boyutlarının yüksek olduğu cinsiyet rolü) yüksek düzey öznel iyi oluşla ilişkili olduğunu göstermiştir (Flaherty & Dusek, 1980; Norlander, Erixon, & Archer, 2000).

Bireysel özelliklerin yanı sıra, sosyal ve ilişkisel değişkenler de öznel iyi oluşun güçlü belirleyicileridir (Myers & Diener, 1995). Bireylerin evliliklerinin kalitesinin değerlendirilmesi olarak tanımlanan evlilik doyumu (Fitzpatrick, 1988; akt. Bird & Melville, 1994), öznel iyi oluşla ilişkilendirilen ilişki değişkenlerinden biridir. Daha önceki çalışmalar evlilik doyumu ve öznel iyi oluş arasında olumlu yönde anlamlı bir korelasyon olduğunu göstermişlerdir (Carr, Freedman, Cornman, & Schwarz, 2014; Shek, 1995; Whisman, Uebelacker, Tolejko, Chatav, & McKelvie, 2006; Whisman, Uebelacker, & Weinstock, 2004). Fakat, evli bireylerin evli olmayan bireylere kıyasla fiziksel ve psikolojik olarak daha mutlu oldukları bulunmasına rağmen, genel sağlık açısından her evlilik her zaman daha avantajlı değildir (Horwitz, White, & Howell-White, 1996). Hatta pek çok araştırma mutsuz bir evliliğin genel mutluluk, yaşam doyumu, özgüven ve genel sağlık üzerinde düşüşe neden olduğunu göstermiştir (Hawkins & Booth, 2005). Aldatma, evlilikte doyumsuzluk ile ilişkilendirilen alanlardan biridir (Blow & Hartnett, 2005b; Glass & Wright, 1985).

İlişkide doyumsuzluk aldatmanın en yaygın nedeni olarak gösterilmiştir (Atkins, Baucom & Jacobson, 2001; Bagarozzi, 2008; Blow & Hartnett, 2005b). Dahası, evlilikte doyumsuzluk aldatmaya eğilimi artırmakta (McAlister, Pachana, & Jackson, 2005) ve evlilik dışı ilişkilere bir gerekçe sağlamaktadır (Glass & Wright, 1992). Buna ek olarak, Atkins ve arkadaşları (2001) bireylerin evliliğinin doyumsuz olduğunda üçüncü kişinin birey üstünde konfor işlevi olabileceğini ve bunun aldatma ile sonuçlanabileceğini belirtmiştir. Buna paralel olarak, insanlar uzun süreli ve doyurucu bir evlilikte oldukları zaman eşlerine daha sadık olma eğilimi göstermektedirler (Dabrowski, 2009).

Aldatma eğilimi ile ilişkili faktörleri araştırmak, evlilik dışı ilişkilerin ortaya çıkışını anlamak için önemli olabilir. Atkins ve arkadaşları (2001) erkeklerin kadınlara kıyasla daha fazla aldatma eğiliminde oldukları sonucu ile birlikte, cinsiyetin aldatmanın ilişkili olduğu faktörler arasında en sık çalışılan değişken olduğunu belirtmişlerdir. Öte yandan, bazı araştırmacılar aldatma açısından kadın ve erkek arasındaki farkın azaldığını, kadınların da erkeklerle benzer olarak yüksek oranda aldattıklarını bulmuşlardır (Laumann, Gagnon, Michael, Michaels, 1994; Wiederman, 1997). Bu nedenle, sadece cinsiyet farklılığı yerine cinsiyet rollerinin aldatma ile ilişkisinin araştırılmasına bir ihtiyaç olduğu görülmektedir.

Önceki çalışmalar yüksek erkeksilik ve düşük kadınsılık düzeylerinde olan hem erkek hem de kadınların daha fazla aldatmada bulunduğunu göstermiştir (Shearer, Hosterman, Gillen, & Lefkowitz, 2005). Leary ve Snell (1988) erkeksiliğin daha fazla cinsel deneyim, daha fazla cinsel partnere sahip olma, ilk cinsel deneyimi daha erken yaşlarda deneyimleme ve seks hakkında daha esnek duygulara sahip olma ile ilişkili olduğunu bulmuşlardır. Ayrıca, paylaşım (communion), dışavurumculuk ve besleme gibi kadınsılık özelliklerinin yüksek düzey ilişki doyumunu yordadığı, böylelikle yüksek düzey kadınsılığın düşük aldatma eğiliminin akla uygun bir göstergesi olduğu belirtilmiştir (Bem, 1974; Mosher & Danoff-Burg, 2005; Steiner-Pappalardo & Gurung, 2002). Dolayısıyla, yüksek erkeksilik ve düşük kadınsılığın

hem erkek hem de kadınlarda daha yüksek oranda aldatmanın belirleyicileri olduğu görülmektedir.

Pek çok araştırma, sadece aldatmada bulunmak değil, aldatma eğiliminin de evlilik doyumu ile olumsuz yönde ilişkili olduğunu bulmuştur (Atkins ve ark., 2001; Buss & Shackelford, 1997). Örneğin Türkiye’de yapılan bir araştırmada, Polat (2006) Aldatma Eğilimi Ölçeği’ni geliştirmiş ve bu değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemiştir. Polat’ın bulguları, düşük evlilik doyumunun hem kadın hem de kocalarda yüksek aldatma eğilimi ile ilişkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Fakat, bu tabloya fırsat eklendiğinde aldatma eğilimi ve evlilik doyumu ilişkisi daha karmaşık bir hale gelmektedir. Örneğin, Blow and Hartnett’in (2005b) çalışması iş arkadaşlarıyla aldatmada bulunan evli bireylerin, iş arkadaşı olmayan kişilerle aldatmada bulunanlara kıyasla, daha yüksek evlilik doyumuna sahip olduklarını göstermiştir. Başka bir deyişle, iş ortamında yüksek oranda aldatma fırsatına sahip olmak evlilik doyumunun aldatma üzerindeki anlamlılığını azaltmaktadır. Günümüzde, evlilik dışı ilişkiler için en geniş fırsat kaynağı internet dünyasıdır.

İnternet insanlara başkalarıyla etkileşimde olma fırsatı sağlar. Romantik bir ilişkiye başlamaya veya başlamayı kolaylaştırmaya yardımcı olur. Hatta internet üzerinden kurulan ilişkiler gerçek hayatta evliliğe dönüşebilir (Parks & Roberts, 1998). Cheng, Chan, ve Tong (2006) internet aracılığıyla başkalarıyla bağlantıya geçme fırsatının ve cinsel ilginin, yüz yüze ilişkiler kadar yoğun hissedilen anlamlı, çevrimiçi kişilerarası bağlantılar açığa çıkardığını belirtmişlerdir. İnsanlar internet üzerinden kendilerini açmada daha rahat hissettikleri için, internet üzerinden, çevrimdışı ortamlara kıyasla, daha yakın ilişki kurma fırsatına sahiplerdir (Cheng, ve ark., 2006). Dolayısıyla, bu çevrimiçi etkileşimler evlilikler için internet üzerinden aldatma tehdidi oluşturabilir. İnternet üzerinden aldatma, çevrimiçi irtibat ile başlayan ve sohbet odaları, etkileşimli oyunlar ve haber grupları gibi sanal ortamlarda çevrimiçi sohbetlerle devam eden romantik ve/veya cinsel ilişki olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Young, Griffin-shelley, Cooper, O’mara, & Buchanan, 2000).

İnternet üzerinden aldatmanın hem evlilik hem de eşler üzerinde olumsuz etkileri vardır. Schneider'in (2000) çalışmasında, katılımcıların %22'sinin ayrıldıkları ya da boşandıkları ve çiftlerin üçte ikisinin eşlerine cinsel ilgilerini kayb ettikleri bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, internet üzerinden aldatmaya maruz kalan eşlerin üzüntü, öfke, kıskançlık gibi duygular gösterdikleri, özgüvenlerini ve sevdikleri kişiye güvenlerini yitirdikleri ve kendilerini travma kurbanı olarak tanımladıkları gösterilmiştir (Hertlien & Piercy, 2006; Schneider, Weiss, & Samenow, 2012). Dahası, internet üzerinden aldatmada bulunan eşlerin de suçluluk ve utanç duyguları, cinsel ilgi kaybı ve eşlerine karşı büyük oranda duygusal stres yaşadıkları bulunmuştur (Hertlien & Piercy, 2006; Schneider, 2000). Dolayısıyla, internet üzerinden aldatmanın ilişkiler ve bireylerin öznel iyi oluşları için zararlı olduğu açıktır (Cooper, McLoughlin, & Campbell, 2000; Schneider, 2000) ve internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ile ilişki faktörlerin araştırılması önemli hale gelmektedir.

Çalışmanın Amacı

Yapılan detaylı literatür taraması bu çalışmanın dayalı olduğu değişkenler arasında anlamlı düzeyde ilişkiler göstermiştir. Fakat araştırma bulgularında bazı çelişkiler görülmüştür. Çalışmalar arasında bulguların çeşitliliğinde neyin, ne şekilde katkı yaptığı belirsiz kalmıştır. Değişkenlerin birbirleriyle ilişkilerinin ötesinde, çoklu faktörlerin nasıl ilişkili olduğu ile ilgili daha ileri araştırmanın gerekli olduğu görülmektedir. Dahası, literatürde çevrimiçi ortamlarda meydana gelen aldatmaya eğilim ile ilgili çok az bilgi mevcuttur. Öznel iyi oluşun internet üzerinden aldatma ve aldatma eğilimi ile ilişkilerini gösteren araştırmalar olsa da, internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ile ilişkisinin incelendiği araştırmalar literatürde oldukça kısıtlıdır. Sadece internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimini araştıran çalışmaların eksikliği değil, aynı zamanda öznel iyi oluşla ilişkisinin araştırılması günümüz internet çağında önemli hale gelmektedir.

Bu nedenle, yukarıda verilen literatür ışığında, bu çalışmanın temel amacı evli bireylerde öznel iyi oluş, internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi, cinsiyet rolleri

(erkeksilik ve kadınsılık) ve evlilik doyumu arasındaki ilişkilerin araştırılmasıdır. Özünde, bu çalışma evli bireylerin öznel iyi oluşları ile ilişkili faktörleri açıklamayı amaçlamıştır. Bunun için, bu çalışma internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi, cinsiyet rolleri ve evlilik doyumunun öznel iyi oluş ile ilişkilerini araştırmıştır. Ayrıca, cinsiyet rolleri ve öznel iyi oluş ilişkisinde internet üzerinden aldatma eğiliminin aracı rolünü belirlemiştir. Ek olarak, evlilik doyumunun farklı düzeylerinde internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ve öznel iyi oluşun koşullu ilişkisi araştırılmıştır.

Çalışmanın Savları:

S1: Cinsiyet rolleri (erkeksilik ve kadınsılık) öznel iyi oluş ile anlamlı düzeyde ilişkilidir.

S2: İnternet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi öznel iyi oluş ile anlamlı düzeyde ilişkilidir.

S3: Cinsiyet rolleri internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ile anlamlı düzeyde ilişkilidir.

S4: Evlilik doyumu öznel iyi oluş ile anlamlı düzeyde ilişkilidir.

S5: İnternet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi, cinsiyet rolleri ve öznel iyi oluş arasındaki ilişkilerde aracı değişken rolü oynamaktadır.

S6: Evlilik doyumu, internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ve öznel iyi oluş arasındaki ilişkide düzenleyici değişken rolü oynamaktadır.

YÖNTEM

Katılımcılar

Çalışmanın örneklemi 319 klinik olmayan evli bireyden oluşmaktadır. Çalışmaya katılım gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır ve katılımcılar kartopu örnekleme yöntemi ile seçilmişlerdir (Kumar, 1996). Katılımcıların 228'i (%71.5) kadın ve 91'i (%28.5) erkektir. Yaşları 24 ile 62 arasında değişen katılımcıların %9'u ilkokul-ortaokul, %5'i lise, %5.6'sı yüksekokul, %51.7'si üniversite ve %36.7'si lisansüstü

mezunudur. Evlilik süreleri 1 yıldan 35 yıla değişen katılımcıların 184'ü (%57.7) çocuk sahibi değilken, 86'sının (%27) bir, 41'inin (%12.9) iki, 7'sinin (%2.2) üç ve 1'inin (%.3) dört çocuğu bulunmaktadır. Katılımcıların %3.1'i kendilerini düşük ekonomik sınıfta algıladıklarını belirtirken, 238'i kendilerini orta ekonomik sınıf ve 71'i ise yüksek ekonomik sınıfta algıladıklarını belirtmişlerdir. Katılımcıların 260'ı çalışmaktadır, 11'i emeklidir ve 48'i herhangi bir işte çalışmamaktadır.

Kullanılan Ölçüm Araçları

Çalışmada kullanılan ölçüm araçları Demografik Bilgi Formu ve dört ölçekten oluşmaktadır. Öznel iyi oluşu ölçmek için Öznel İyi Oluş Ölçeği (Tuzgöl-Dost, 2005), internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimini ölçmek için Aldatma Eğilimi Ölçeği (Polat,2006), cinsiyet rollerini ölçmek için Bem Cinsiyet Roller Envanteri-Kısa Formu (Bem, 1974) ve evlilik doyumunu ölçmek için Çiftler Uyum Ölçeği (Spanier, 1976) kullanılmıştır.

İşlem

Öncelikle, araştırmayı uygulamak için ODTÜ Uygulamalı Etik Araştırma Merkezi'nden tüm izinler alınmış, daha sonra veri toplama süreci başlamıştır. Öznel iyi oluş, internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi, cinsiyet rolleri ve evlilik doyumu arasındaki ilişkileri ölçmek için kullanılan öz bildirim ölçeklerini içeren elektronik bir anket, katılımcılara internet yoluyla, www.qualtrics.com üzerinden uygulanmıştır. Ankete devam etmeden önce, elektronik bilgilendirilmiş onam katılımcılardan alınmıştır. Çalışmaya katılmayı kabul etmeyen katılımcılara teşekkür edilmiş ve bu katılımcılar ankete devam etmeden çıkarılmışlardır.

Veri Analizi

Araştırma sorularının değerlendirilmesi için birçok istatistikî teknik kullanılmıştır (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Tüm analizler SPSS 23.0 paket programı yoluyla uygulanmıştır. Analizlerden önce, Bem Cinsiyet Roller Envanteri-Kısa Formu'nun

alt-ölçeklerinin (kadınsılık ve erkeksilik) ortalama toplam puanları hesaplanmıştır. Öznel İyi Oluş Ölçeği, Aldatma Eğilimi Ölçeği ve Çiftler Uyum Ölçeği'ni puanlamak için, tüm ölçeklerin maddelerinin tümü toplanarak toplam puanlar elde edilmiştir. Ardından, çok değişkenli analizlerin varsayımları için pek çok SPSS araçları kullanılarak veri seti incelenmiştir.

Demografik değişkenlerin ana değişkenlere olası etkilerini araştırmak için çeşitli çoklu regresyon analizleri uygulanmıştır. Ardından, ana değişkenler arasındaki ilişkileri ölçmek için sıfır sıralı korelasyon analizleri uygulanmıştır. Daha sonra, internet üzerinden aldatma eğiliminin cinsiyet rolleri ve öznel iyi oluş arasındaki ilişkide aracı değişken rolü oynadığını öneren aracı değişken modelleri ve evlilik doyumunun internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ve öznel iyi oluş arasındaki ilişkide düzenleyici değişken rolü oynadığını öneren bir düzenleyicilik modeli Bootstrapping yöntemi (Hayes, 2013; Preacher & Hayes, 2004) kullanılarak test edilmiştir.

SONUÇ

Betimleyici İstatistik

Araştırmanın ana değişkenlerinin ortalamaları, standart sapmaları ve minimum-maksimum puanları hesaplanmıştır. Buna göre, cinsiyet rollerinin alt-ölçeklerinin ortalamalarına bakıldığında, katılımcılar erkeksiliğe kıyasla ($M = 4.84$, $SS = .76$) daha kadınsı ($M = 5.70$, $SS = .62$) özelliklere sahiptir, $t(318) = 18.28$, $p < .001$, Cohen's $d = 1.02$. Katılımcıların internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimlerinin ortalaması ($M = 114.37$, $SS = 23.57$), ölçeğin orta noktasından anlamlı olarak daha alttadır, $t(318) = -7.09$, $p < .001$. Ayrıca, katılımcılar yüksek evlilik doyumu ortalaması ($M = 98.79$, $SS = 18.03$) ile birlikte evliliklerinde görece mutlulardır ve 169.95 kısmen yüksek öznel iyi oluş ortalaması ile birlikte kendilerinden görece mutlulardır.

Çalışma Değişkenleri Arasında Korelasyon Kat sayıları ve Cinsiyet Farklılıkları

Çalışma değişkenleri (öznel iyi oluş, internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi, erkeksilik, kadınsılık ve evlilik doyumu), cinsiyet, yaş ve evlilik süresi değişkenlerinin birbirleriyle ilişkilerini araştırmak için Pearson korelasyon katsayıları belirlenmiştir.

Çalışma değişkenlerinde cinsiyet farklılıkları incelendiğinde, sadece internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi için anlamlı bir farklılık bulunmuştur ($r = .37, p < .001$). Erkek katılımcılar kadın katılımcılardan internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimine daha fazla sahiptir. Diğer değişkenler için cinsiyet farkı tespit edilmemiştir.

Evlilik süresi ve katılımcıların yaşı erkeksilik (sırasıyla $r = .16, r = .27$) ve kadınsılık (sırasıyla $r = .16, r = .17$) ile olumlu, fakat evlilik doyumu ile olumsuz düzeyde ilişkili bulunmuştur (sırasıyla $r = -.22, r = -.18$).

Çalışmanın birinci savı cinsiyet rollerinin (erkeksilik ve kadınsılık) öznel iyi oluş ile olumlu olarak ilişkili olduğunu iddia etmiştir. Beklendiği gibi, öznel iyi oluş ve erkeksilik ($r = .31$) ve kadınsılık ($r = .26$) arasındaki ilişki anlamlı bulunmuştur ve 1a ve 1b savları doğrulanmıştır. Buna göre, yüksek düzey erkeksilik ve yüksek düzey kadınsılık yüksek düzey öznel iyi oluş ile ilişkilidir.

İnternet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi öznel iyi oluş ile olumsuz yönde anlamlı bulunmuş ($r = -.31$) ve çalışmanın ikinci savı doğrulanmıştır. İnternet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi arttıkça, katılımcıların öznel iyi oluşları düşüş göstermektedir.

Cinsiyet rolleri ve internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi arasındaki ilişki test edildiğinde, internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ile kadınsılık arasında olumsuz yönde anlamlı bir ilişki bulunurken ($r = -.17$), internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ile erkeksilik arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmamıştır. Elde edilen bu bulgulara göre, 3b savı doğrulanırken, 3a savı doğrulanmamıştır.

Ayrıca, evlilik doyumu öznel iyi oluş ile olumlu yönde, anlamlı düzeyde ilişkili bulunmuştur ($r = .46$). Yüksek düzey evlilik doyumu, yüksek düzey öznel iyi oluş ile ilişkilidir; çalışmanın dördüncü savı desteklenmiştir.

İnternet Üzerinden Aldatma Eğilimi, Cinsiyet Roller ve Evlilik Doyumunun Öznel İyi oluş ile Özgün İlişkilerinin Test Edilmesi

İki değişkenli korelasyonlar 1., 2., ve 3b. Savlarını doğrularken, 3a savını doğrulamamıştır. Bu savları doğrudan test etmek ve savlarda iddia edilen ilişkileri araştırmak için, iki çoklu regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. İlk çoklu regresyon öznel iyi oluş ve cinsiyet rolleri arasındaki olumlu ilişkiyi öne süren birinci savı ve internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ve öznel iyi oluş arasındaki olumsuz ilişkiyi iddia eden ikinci savı test etmiştir. İkinci çoklu regresyon analizi internet üzerinden aldatma eğiliminin cinsiyet rolleri tarafından yordanıp yordanmadığını test etmiştir. Tüm regresyon analizlerine cinsiyet, yaş, evlilik süresi ve evlilik doyumu kontrol değişkenleri olarak eklenmiştir.

İlk çoklu regresyon analizi modeli anlamlı düzeyde genel ilişki ortaya çıkarmıştır, $R_{adj.}^2 = .33$, $F(7,311) = 22.86$, $p < .001$. 1a ve 1b savları doğrulanarak, erkeksilik ($B = 8.38$, $SE = 1.78$, $p < .001$, 95% $CI [4.87, 11.88]$) ve kadınsılık ($B = 5.82$, $SE = 2.15$, $p = .007$, 95% $CI [1.59, 10.05]$) olumlu yönde ve anlamlı olarak öznel iyi oluşla ilişkilidir. Ayrıca, 2. sav doğrulanarak, internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ve öznel iyi oluş arasındaki özgün ilişki anlamlıdır, ($B = -.12$, $SE = 0.07$, $p = .068$, 95% $CI [-.25, .009]$) ve beklenen yöndedir. Ek olarak, evlilik doyumu olumlu yönde ve anlamlı olarak öznel iyi oluşla ilişkilidir, ($B = .59$, $SE = 0.09$, $p < .001$, 95% $CI [.44, .74]$).

İkinci çoklu regresyon analizi modeli internet üzerinden aldatma eğiliminde %33 varyans açıklamıştır, $R_{adj.}^2 = .33$, $F(6,312) = 27.05$, $p < .001$. Yordayıcılarla özgün ilişkilerin araştırılması internet üzerinden aldatma eğiliminin cinsiyet tarafından farklılaştığını göstermiştir, ($B = 17.93$, $SE = 2.46$, $p < .001$, 95% $CI [13.06, 22.80]$). Erkekler daha fazla internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi göstermektedir. Ayrıca,

yüksek evlilik doyumu ($B = -.54, SE = 0.06, p < .001, 95\% CI [-.66, -.43]$) ve yüksek kadınsılık ($B = -4.90, SE = 1.85, p = .008, 95\% CI [-8.53, -1.27]$) düşük internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ile ilişkilidir. Öte yandan, erkeksilik internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimini yordamamıştır ($B = 2.35, SE = 1.54, p > .05, 95\% CI [-.68, 5.38]$).

İnternet Üzerinden Aldatma Eğiliminin Cinsiyet Roller ve Öznel İyi Oluş Arasındaki İlişkilerdeki Aracı Rolünün Test Edilmesi

Cinsiyet rolleri ve öznel iyi oluş arasındaki olumlu yönde olan ilişkilerde internet üzerinden aldatma eğiliminin aracı rolünün oynayıp oynamadığını test etmek için, iki ayrı aracı değişken modeli 5000 bootstrap örnekleme ile PROCESS modeli kullanılarak (Hayes, 2013) test edilmiştir.

İlk aracı değişken analizinde, internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi kontrol edildikten sonra ($B = -.35, SE = 0.06, p < .001, 95\% CI [-.46, -.24]$), yüksek erkeksilik yüksek öznel iyi oluş ile anlamlı olarak ilişkili bulunmuştur ($B = 11.12, SE = 1.81, p < .001, 95\% CI [7.56, 14.68]$). Fakat erkeksilik ve öznel iyi oluş arasındaki ilişki anlamlı bulunmamıştır, *dolaylı* $B = .13, Boot SE = 0.61, 95\% CI [-1.13, 1.32]$.

İkinci aracı değişken modelinde, , internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi kontrol edildikten sonra ($B = -.31, SE = 0.06, p < .001, 95\% CI [-.43, -.19]$) yüksek kadınsılık yüksek öznel iyi oluş ile anlamlı olarak ilişkili bulunmuştur ($B = 9.47, SE = 2.33, p = .0001, 95\% CI [4.90, 14.05]$). Bulgular, kadınsılık ve öznel iyi oluş arasındaki ilişkide internet üzerinden aldatma eğiliminin aracı değişken rolü oynadığını göstermiştir, *dolaylı* $B = 2.05, Boot SE = 0.75, 95\% CI [.75, 3.81]$.

İnternet Üzerinden Aldatma Eğilimi ve Öznel İyi Oluş Arasındaki Koşullu İlişkinin Evli Bireyler için Evlilik Doyumunun Farklı Düzeylerinde Test Edilmesi

İnternet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ve öznel iyi oluş arasındaki ilişkinin evlilik doyumu tarafından düzenlendiğini (moderation) iddia eden altıncı savı test etmek için 5000 bootstrap örnekleme ile PROCESS model kullanılmıştır (Hayes, 2013). İnternet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ve evlilik doyumu analizden önce standardize edilmiştir ve model standardize edilmiş bu değişkenler ile test edilmiştir.

Altıncı savı doğrulayan bulgular, öznel iyi oluşu yordama üzerinde internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ve evlilik doyumu arasında anlamlı bir karşılıklı etki ortaya çıkarmıştır, $B = -2.70$, $SE = 1.25$, $p = .0312$, 95% $CI [-5.16, -.25]$. Karşılıklı etkinin regresyon denklemine eklenmesi öznel iyi oluşta %1 ek varyansı açıklamıştır. Evlilik doyumu yüksek olan katılımcılar için, yüksek düzeyde internet üzerinden aldatma eğiliminin düşük düzeyde öznel iyi oluş ile ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur $B = -6.49$, $SE = 2.06$, $p = .0018$, 95% $CI [-10.55, -2.43]$. Öte yandan, bu ilişki, evlilik doyumu düşük olan katılımcılar için anlamsız bulunmuştur, $B = -1.08$, $SE = 1.83$, $p = .5556$, 95% $CI [-4.70, 2.53]$. Dolayısıyla, internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ve öznel iyi oluş arasındaki olumsuz ilişki, sadece evlilik doyumu yüksek olan evli bireylerde gözlenmiştir.

TARTIŞMA

Sonuçların Değerlendirilmesi

Bu çalışmanın birinci amacı öznel iyi oluş, internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi, cinsiyet rolleri ve evlilik doyumu arasındaki ilişkilerin araştırılmasıdır. Pearson korelasyon analizlerinden elde edilen bulgulara göre, erkeksilik ve kadınsılık cinsiyet rolleri yüksek olan bireylerin öznel iyi oluşları da yüksektir. Bu bulgu literatürdeki çalışmalarla tutarlılık göstermektedir (Örn. Burnett, ve ark, 1995; Eddington & Schuman, 2016; Johnson ve ark, 2006; Orlofsky & O'Heron, 1987;

Sanfilipo, 1994; Whitley, 1983; Zeldow, ve ark, 1987). Önceki çalışmalar hem erkeksilik hem de kadınsılığın öznel iyi oluşla olumlu yönde ilişkili olduğunu, ancak erkeksilik cinsiyet rolünün daha güçlü bir ilişkiye sahip olduğunu belirtmişlerdir (Castlebury & Durham, 1997; Lefkowitz & Zeldow, 2006). Kadınsılığın öznel iyi oluşla olumlu ilişkisine de paralel olarak (örn. Shea, ve ark, 2014), her iki cinsiyet rolünün olumlu yönde bir ilişkisinin olmasının sebebi cinsiyet rollerinin zamanla değişmesi, kadın ve erkeklerin daha benzer rolleri benimsemesi olabilir. Twenge (1997) bu değişimin nedeni olarak kadınların çalışma hayatına girmesi olduğunu belirtmiştir. Kadınlar toplumda güçlendikçe geleneksel cinsiyet rollerine daha az uyum göstermektedir. Buna göre, bu çalışmanın bulguları katılımcılarının çoğunluğunun (%71.5) kadın olması, %88.4'ünün üniversite ve lisansüstü eğitim düzeyinde olması ve %81.5'unun bir işte çalışıyor olmasıyla birlikte düşünülebilir. Katılımcılar kadın ve erkek cinsiyetlerine uygun olan davranışlar hakkında daha liberal düşüncelere sahip olabilirler.

İnternet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ve öznel iyi oluş arasındaki ilişki incelendiğinde ise, internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi yüksek olan bireylerin öznel iyi oluş düzeylerinin düşük olduğu bulunmuştur. Benzer şekilde, literatürde internet üzerinden aldatmanın bireyler üzerinde olumsuz etkileri olduğu bulunmuştur (Cooper, ve ark, 2000b; Schneider, 2000). İnternet üzerinden aldatma, bireylerde ihanet etmeleri ve birincil partnerleriyle daha az zaman geçirmelerinden dolayı üzüntü, utanç ve suçluluk gibi duygular açığa çıkarmaktadır. (Whitty, 2005). Ayrıca internet üzerinden aldatma gizleme durumu ve aldatmanın dürüst olmaması ile gelen utanç duygusu içermekte ve birincil ilişkiden enerji düşürmektedir. Bu durum partnerlerde strese ve olumsuz psikolojik sağlığa neden olmaktadır (Cooper ve ark. 2000b). Bunlara ek olarak, siberseks yakınlık, bağımlılık ve terkedilme gibi daha derin problemlerin belirtisi olabilir; başka bir deyişle düşük öznel oluş siberseksi yordayabilir (Cooper, ve ark, 2000b).

Cinsiyet rolleri ve internet üzerinden aldatma eğiliminin ilişkilerine bakıldığında, internet üzerinden aldatma eğiliminin kadınsılık ile olumsuz yönde anlamlı düzeyde

bir ilişkisi olduğu bulunurken, erkeksilik ile anlamlı düzeyde bir ilişkisi olduğu bulunmamıştır. Bu noktada literatürde bu ilişkilere dair bilinen bir çalışmanın olmadığını belirtmek önemlidir. Fakat bu bulgular, düşük kadınsılık ve yüksek aldatma eğiliminin ilişkili bulunduğu geleneksel aldatma çalışmaları ile tutarlılık göstermektedir (Bem, 1974; Mosher & Danoff-Burg, 2005; Steiner-Pappalardo & Gurung, 2002). Paylaşım, bağlılık ve besleme gibi kadınsılık özellikleri kaliteli ilişkinin belirleyicileridir; böylelikle, kadınsılık özellikleri yüksek olan bireyler daha az aldatma eğilimine sahiplerdir (Mosher & Danoff-Burg, 2005; Zuroff, Moskowitz, & Cote, 1999). Önceki çalışmaların aksine, bu çalışmada erkeksilik ve aldatma eğilimi arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunamamıştır. Bu çalışmada bu ilişkinin anlamsız bulunmasının bir nedeni örneklemin büyük çoğunluğunun kadın olması ve onların da oldukça yüksek eğitimli ve çalışan kadınlar olması olabilir. Katılımcıların cinsiyetleri, yüksek eğitim düzeyleri ve iş hayatında olmaları onları geleneksel cinsiyet rollerini daha az taşıdıklarını düşündürebilir ve bu durum aldatma eğilimi üzerinde erkeksilik özelliğinden daha anlamlı etki yaratmış olabilir.

Beklendiği gibi, evlilik doyumu yüksek olan bireylerin öznel iyi oluşlarının da yüksek olduğu bulunmuştur. Bu bulgu, önceden yapılmış pek çok çalışma ile tutarlıdır (örn., Carr, ve ark. 2014; Diener, ve ark., 1999; Glenn & Weaver, 1981; Whisman, ve ark., 2004). Başka bir deyişle, evli bireyler evli olmayan bireylere kıyasla daha mutludur (Diener ve ark., 1999; Myers, 1999; Myers, 2000). Evliliğin sağladığı avantajlarla birlikte, Haring-Hidore ve ark. (1985) bu durumun eş tarafından sağlanan sosyal destekten kaynaklandığı belirtilmiştir. Bir eşe sahip olmak öznel iyi oluşla olumlu olarak ilişkili olan sosyal destek için kilit unsurdur. Fakat, iyi oluş açısından, her evlilik de her zaman avantajlı değildir (Horwitz, ve ark, 1996). Hatta evliliklerdeki aile içi geçimsizlik, ayrılık veya boşanmalar psikolojik ve fizyolojik sağlıkla ilgili problemlere yol açmaktadır. Mutsuz bir evliliğe devam etmek genel mutluluk, yaşam doyumu, özgüven ve genel sağlıkta düşüşle ilişkili olup psikolojik problemlere neden olmaktadır. Dahası, evlilik doyumu düşük olan bireyler boşanmış ya da yeniden evlenmiş bireylere kıyasla daha mutsuzlardır

(Hawkins & Booth, 2005). Dolayısıyla, doyumu yüksek bir evlilik, evliliğin avantajlarından faydalanmak ve böylece yüksek öznel iyi oluşa sahip olmak için oldukça önemlidir.

Çalışmanın ikinci amacı ise, internet üzerinden aldatma eğiliminin cinsiyet rolleri ve öznel iyi oluş arasındaki ilişkilerde aracı değişken rolünü incelemektir. Sonuçlar, yüksek kadınsılık cinsiyet rolüne sahip olan evli bireylerin aldatma eğiliminin düşük olduğunu, böylelikle öznel iyi oluşlarının da yüksek olduğunu göstermiştir. Literatür çalışmalarından çıkan sonuca göre, kadınsılık cinsiyet rolü ilişki kalitesini artırır ve aldatma eğilimini düşürür (Bem, 1974; Mosher & Danoff-Burg, 2005; Steiner-Pappalardo & Gurung, 2002). Paylaşım, besleme gibi kadınsılık özellikleri erkek ve kadınlarda yüksek bağlanmışlık (Zuroff, ve ark, 1999) ve erkeklerde rastgele cinsel ilişkide daha az istek (Mosher & Danoff-Burg, 2005) ile ilişkili bulunmuştur. Bu nedenle, kadınsılık rolü düşük olan bireyler potansiyel olarak daha fazla internet üzerinden aldatma eğiliminde olup düşük öznel iyi oluşa sahip olurlar. Zira suçluluk, utanç, üzüntü gibi olumsuz duygular hissederek ve eşleri ile problemler yaşarlar (Cooper et. al., 2000b; Whitty, 2005). Öte yandan, internet üzerinden aldatma eğiliminin erkeksilik ve öznel iyi oluş arasındaki ilişkide aracı değişken rolü bulunmamıştır. Beklendiği gibi, erkeksilik öznel iyi oluş ile anlamlı bir olumlu ilişkiye sahiptir. Bu bulgu, erkeksilik düzeyi yüksek olan bireylerin daha yüksek özgüvene (Whitley, 1983), daha yüksek benlik gücüne (Woo & Oei, 2006), daha düşük depresyon düzeyine (Morgan ve ark. 1986; Sanfilipo, 1994), daha yüksek sosyal kaygıya (Ümmet, 2007) ve daha fazla alkol problemine (Zeldow ve ark. 1987) sahip olduklarını gösteren önceki çalışmalarla tutarlıdır. Fakat erkeksilik internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ile anlamlı olarak ilişkili bulunmamıştır. Bu, erkeksilik ve öznel iyi-oluş arasındaki ilişkide internet üzerinden aldatma eğiliminin aracı rolünün olmamasını kısmen açıklamaktadır. Bu durumun olası bir nedeni, yukarıda da bahsedildiği üzere, çalışmanın katılımcılarının özellikleridir. Kadın olmak, yüksek eğitim düzeyine sahip olmak ve iş hayatında var olmak bu

örnekleme erkeksiliğın internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ile ilişkisinin anlamlı bulunmamasını etkilemiş olabilir.

Çalışmanın üçüncü ve son amacı, evlilik doyumunun internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ve öznel iyi oluş arasındaki ilişkide düzenleyici rolünü incelemektir. Sonuçlar, evlilik doyumu yüksek olan bireyler için, internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ve öznel iyi oluş arasında olumsuz yönde, anlamlı düzeyde bir ilişki olduğunu; öte yandan bu ilişkinin evlilik doyumu düşük olan bireyler için anlamlı olmadığını göstermiştir. Bu sonuçlar, internet üzerinden aldatma eğiliminden ziyade evlilik doyumunun bireylerin öznel iyi oluşlarını yordamada kilit unsur olduğuna işaret etmektedir. Evlilik doyumu yüksek olan bireyler, gizlilik içinde sanal bir ilişkiyi yürüttükleri, eşlerine karşı dürüst olmadıkları ve doyumu yüksek olan evliliklerinden enerji düşürdükleri nedeniyle üzüntü, suçluluk ve utanç gibi olumsuz duygular hissetmektedirler (Cooper ve ark, 2000b). Öte yandan, evlilik doyumu düşük olan bireyler, evlilik doyumu yüksek olan bireyler kadar evlilik ilişkisinin avantajlarına sahip değillerdir. Örneğın, evliliklerinde mutlu olan bireyler eşlerini daimi duygusal ve sosyal destek olarak algırlarken, evliliklerinde mutsuz olan bireyler eşlerinin rolünü önemsemez ya da eşlerinin gösterdiği desteğı anlamlı bulmazlar (Hawkins & Booth, 2005). Bu nedenle, onların internet üzerinden aldatmaya olan eğilimleri düşük öznel iyi oluşlarını etkilemeyebilir.

Sonuçlardan Yapılan Çıkarımlar

Araştırmadan elde edilen bulgular psikoterapistler için birtakım katkılar sağlayabilir. Öncelikle, pozitif psikoloji alanında yapılan araştırmalar son yıllarda giderek artmaktadır ve öznel iyi oluş, pozitif psikoloji alanı içerisinde en çok çalışılan konulardan biri olarak klinik alanda gittikçe gelişmektedir. Bu nedenle, öznel iyi oluşun internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi, cinsiyet rolleri ve evlilik doyumu ile ilişkileri evli bireylerle çalışan terapistlere ışık tutabilir. Bunun yanı sıra, internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ve bu eğilimin hem eşler hem de ilişki üzerine olan etkileri terapistlerin uygulamalarına birtakım yenilikler getirmiştir. Son yıllarda

meydana gelen internet ile ilgili hızlı gelişmeler ve sosyal bağlantı sitelerinin kurulması internet üzerinden aldatma olasılığını artırmış ve bu eğilim birincil ilişkileri tıpkı geleneksel aldatmalar kadar etkilemektedir (Cravens & Whitting, 2014). Dolayısıyla, evlilik alanında çalışan terapistler internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ile ilişkili faktörlerin ve bu eğilimin sonuçlarının farkında olmalı, bu problemle baş etmeye çalışan danışanlarla çalışırken değerlendirme ve tedavi yöntemlerini buna göre şekillendirmelidirler. Örneğin, değerlendirme esnasında danışanların internet, sanal seks ve sosyal medya kullanımları hakkında bilgi alabilirler. Ayrıca terapinin ilk aşamalarında çiftler arasındaki güveni yeniden inşa etmek için gözetim yazılımı ve bazı birtakım sosyal bağlantı siteleri gibi internet kullanımları için fiziksel sınırlandırmalar geliştirmeye yönelik çalışmalarda bulunabilirler.

Kadınsılık cinsiyet rolünün internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ile olumsuz yönde ilişki olması ile bireyler düşük öznel iyi oluşa sahip olmaktadır. Danışanlar sadece internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimleri nedeniyle mutsuz olduklarını düşünebilirler. Fakat kadınsılık cinsiyet normlarının öznel iyi oluş üzerindeki rolü terapide göz önünde bulundurulmalıdır. Kadınsılık cinsiyet rolünün barındırdığı paylaşım, anlayışlılık ve sevgi gösterme gibi özelliklerin ilişki kalitesini artırması nedeniyle bireylerin aldatma eğilimleri azalabilir ve daha yüksek öznel iyi oluşa sahip olabilirler.

Çiftler internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi nedeniyle profesyonel bir yardım ararken, bu çalışmanın bulgularına bakıldığında, aslında ilk problem her zaman aldatma eğilimi olmayabilir, bunun yerine düşük evlilik doyumu olabilir. Bireyler evliliklerinde mutlu olduklarında ve aynı zamanda internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi gösterdiklerinde öznel iyi oluşları düşüş göstermektedir. Gizli bir sanal ilişki sürdürmeleri, eşlerine dürüst davranmadıkları ve sanal ilişkilerinin enerji çekmesi nedeniyle üzüntü, suçluluk ve utanç duymaktadırlar. Bu nedenle, terapistler internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimleri üzerindeki rolünü hesaba katarak, çiftlerin evlilik

doyumlarını detaylı değerlendirmelilerdir. Çiftlerin bu tarz bir eğilimleri üzerinde evlilik doyumlarının rolü ile ilgili farkındalıklarını artırmalıdır.

Sınırlılıklar ve Gelecek Çalışmalar için Öneriler

Bu çalışmada işaret edilmesi gereken kimi sınırlılıklar mevcuttur. İlki, katılımcıların eğitim seviyesi ile ilgilidir. Bu çalışmadaki eğitim seviyesi dağılımı nüfusun geneline olan dağılımdan farklıdır. Gelecek çalışmalarda bu durumun kontrol edilmesi için nüfusa uygun şekilde, eğitim seviyeleri için kota belirlenmesi uygun olabilir. İkincisi, çalışma bulgularının enlemesine veriden edinilmesidir. Bu nedenle bu bulgular zamanla meydana gelen bir değişim hakkında bilgi sunmamaktadır. Gelecek çalışmalar değişkenler arasındaki ilişkilerin zamanla değişip değişmediğini görmek için çalışmanın savlarını boylamsal dizayn kullanarak test edebilir. Sonuncusu, katılımcıların internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimlerini ölçmek için Aldatma Eğilimi Ölçeği kullanılmasıdır. Bu ölçek geleneksel aldatma eğilimini ölçmek için geliştirilmiştir. Ancak, günümüzde internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimini ölçecek bir ölçek bulunmadığı için, bu katılımcılardan sanal kişilerarası ilişkilerini göz önüne alarak maddeleri yanıtlamaları istenmiştir. Gelecek araştırmalarda internet üzerinden aldatmanın çeşitli özelliklerini yeterli biçimde kapsayan, standardize edilmiş bir internet üzerinden aldatma eğilimi ölçeğinin geliştirilmesi bu alandaki eksikliğin kapatılması açısından önemli olabilir.

APPENDIX I. Tez İzin Formu

ENSTİTÜ / INSTITUTE

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü / Graduate School of Natural and Applied Sciences

Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü / Graduate School of Social Sciences

Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü / Graduate School of Applied Mathematics

Enformatik Enstitüsü / Graduate School of Informatics

Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü / Graduate School of Marine Sciences

YAZARIN / AUTHOR

Soyadı / Surname : Ateş

Adı / Name : Gizem

Bölümü / Department : Psikoloji

TEZİN ADI / TITLE OF THE THESIS (İngilizce / English) :

Associated Factors of Subjective Well-Being of Married Individuals: Online Infidelity Tendency, Gender Roles, and Marital Satisfaction

TEZİN TÜRÜ / DEGREE: **Yüksek Lisans** / Master

Doktora / PhD

1. **Tezin tamamı dünya çapında erişime açılacaktır.** / Release the entire work immediately for access worldwide.

2. **Tez iki yıl süreyle erişime kapalı olacaktır.** / Secure the entire work for patent and/or proprietary purposes for a period of **two year**. *

3. **Tez altı ay süreyle erişime kapalı olacaktır.** / Secure the entire work for period of **six months**. *

* Enstitü Yönetim Kurulu Kararının basılı kopyası tezle birlikte kütüphaneye teslim edilecektir.

A copy of the Decision of the Institute Administrative Committee will be delivered to the library together with the printed thesis.

Yazarın imzası / Signature

Tarih / Date