

FAMILY BACKGROUND, FAMILY PROCESSES, WOMEN'S FEELINGS, ATTITUDES,
AND SELF-EVALUATIONS IN RELATION TO FAMILY ROLES

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ABSTRACT

FAMILY BACKGROUND, FAMILY PROCESSES, WOMEN’S FEELINGS, ATTITUDES, AND SELF-EVALUATIONS IN RELATION TO FAMILY ROLES

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This study aimed to demonstrate the effects of contextual factors (socio-economic conditions and level of urbanization) on family processes and outcomes related to women. The family processes of interest were spousal relations, relative power, feelings of mastery, and self-evaluation of women in familial roles. Another aim was to investigate the effect of participation in the activities of family support and women education programs on women’s attitudes in relation to family roles. I studied with an accidental sample of 145 women in various districts of Kadiköy, İstanbul. There were three groups of women (1) women living in poor districts of Kadiköy and in touch with “Family Guiding /Solidarity Center” (FG/SC) of Kadiköy Municipality, (2) women living in the same districts but not in touch with (FGSC), (3) women living in central-wealthy neighborhoods of Kadiköy. There were three main predictions; (1) Education was predicted to determine

economic status, which would influence mastery. Mastery, in turn, would affect spousal relations and decision-making processes in family. Finally, spousal relations would predict self-evaluation, (2) urbanization was predicted to influence modern attitudes toward spousal roles positively and traditional attitudes toward spousal roles negatively, (3) women who were in touch with FG/SC were predicted to have more favorable attitudes toward modern spousal roles, but less favorable attitudes toward traditional spousal roles. The model of the first prediction revealed that; economic status determined mastery, which influences warmth and equality. Warmth and equality in turn, influences individual's self-evaluation. As expected in second prediction, urbanization was negatively related to traditional attitudes. Comparison of the three groups revealed that, women living in peripheral districts, showed more favorable attitudes toward traditional gender stereotypic duties of women, and male dominance than women living in central districts. Women living in peripheral districts and in touch with FG/SC, showed more favorable attitudes toward women's participation in labor market than women living in the same area but not in touch with FG/SC, and woman living in central districts.

Keywords: Women, Family processes, Effects of SES and urbanization on family processes, Effects of urbanization on attitudes toward spousal roles, Effects of urbanization on attitudes toward women's participation in labor market.

ÖZ

AİLEVİ KOŞULLAR, AİLEİÇİ SÜREÇLER, KADINLARIN AİLEİÇİ ROLLERE İLİŞKİN DUYGU, TUTUM VE ÖZ-DEĞERLENDİRMELERİ

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Bu çalışma, sosyo-ekonomik konum ve kentlileşme düzeyi bağlamsal değişkenlerinin, aileiçi süreçler ve kadına dair sonuçlar üzerindeki etkilerini göstermeyi amaçlamaktadır. Eşler arası yakınlık ve güç ilişkileri, yetkinlik duygusu ve aile içi rollerde yeterlik öz-değerlendirmesi, ele alınan aileiçi süreçlerdir. Ayrıca, aile ve kadını eğitmeyi ve desteklemeyi amaçlayan çeşitli programlara katılmanın, kadınların aileiçi roller hakkındaki tutumlarını nasıl etkilediği sorusu üzerinde durulmuştur. Çalışmaya, İstanbul, Kadıköyde yaşayan, rastlantısal olarak seçilen 145 kadın katılmıştır. Katılımcılar, (1) Kadıköy'ün yoksul ve merkezden uzak mahallelerinde yaşayan ve Kadıköy Belediye'sinin Aile Danışma Merkezlerine (ADM) üye olanlar, (2) aynı bölgede yaşayan ama ADM'ne üye olmayanlar, (3) Kadıköy'ün görece varlıklı ve merkezdeki mahallelerinde yaşayan kadınlar olmak üzere üç gruptur. Çalışmada üç ana

öngörüde bulunulmuştur; (1) eğitimin, ekonomik koşulları, ekonomik koşulların yetkinlik duygusunu, onun da eşler arası yakınlığı ve karar verme süreçlerini (güç ilişkilerini) etkileyeceği öngörülmüştür. Eşler arası ilişkiler de rollerdeki yeterlik değerlendirmesini belirleyecektir, (2) kentlileşmenin ailevi rollere ilişkin modern tutumlarla olumlu, geleneksel tutumlarla olumsuz ilişki içinde olacağı düşünülmüştür, (3) ADM'ne üye kadınların modern ailevi roller konusunda olumlu tutum geliştirirken, geleneksel ailevi rollere karşı daha olumsuz tutum geliştirmeleri beklenmiştir. Birinci beklenti ile ilgili model, SES'in yetkinlik duygusunu, onunda eşler arası yakınlığı belirlediğini ortaya koymuştur. Eşler arası yakınlık, yeterlik öz-değerlendirmesi üzerinde etkili olmaktadır. Kentlileşmenin etkileri konusunda, umulduğu gibi, kentlileşme düzeyinin geleneksel tutumlarla olumsuz ilişki içinde olduğu görülmüştür. Son olarak, yoksul-merkezden uzak mahallelerde yaşayanlar, varıl mahallelerde yaşayanlara oranla, kadının geleneksel rollerine ve ailede erkeğin baskınlığına daha olumlu yaklaşmışlardır. Yoksul mahallelerde yaşayan kadınlardan ADM'ne üye olanlar, kadının çalışma yaşamına katılması konusuna, aynı bölgede yaşayıp da ADM'ne üye olmayanlardan daha olumlu tutum geliştirmişlerdir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Kadın, Aileiçi süreçler, Sosyo-ekonomik konum ve kentlileşmenin aileiçi süreçlere etkisi, Kentlileşmenin ailevi rollere dair tutumlara etkisi, Kentlileşmenin kadının çalışma yaşamına katılımına dair tutumlara etkisi.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Purpose

The present study aimed to demonstrate the effects of contextual factors on family processes and outcomes related to women. The specific contextual factors of interest were socio-economic conditions and level of urbanization. The family processes of interest were spousal relations, relative power, and feelings of mastery and self-evaluation of women in familial roles. A second aim was to investigate the effect of participation in the activities of family support and women education programs on women's attitudes in relation to family roles. This study is an application and extension of studies in the West and in Turkey, which have shown the effects of context, on family processes and individual outcomes. Some of these studies have focused on economical stress and have demonstrated the negative effects of economical adversity on family and individuals (Arikan, 1992; Conger & Elder, 1994; Conger & Conger, 2002; Kwon et al., 2003). These studies are generally within the framework of Systems Theory, a macro approach to family processes.

The Systems Theory emphasizes the influence of context on family processes, and perceptions of family members. Previous researches, examining the effects of economical adversity on familial relations supported this view (Conger & Elder, 1994; Conger & Conger, 2002; Kwon et al., 2003). In line with the above theoretical orientation, I aimed to demonstrate this association on an accidental sample of women in various districts of Kadıköy, İstanbul. Some of

these women attended to Family Guidance/Solidarity Center of Kadiköy municipality.

The four main purposes of the study were:

- (1) To investigate the relation between family SES, feelings of mastery, family processes, and women's self-evaluation as mother, spouse and housewife.
- (2) To examine the relation between family SES and women's attitude towards spousal roles and women's participation in labor market.
- (3) To compare women attending the Family Guidance/Solidarity Center of Kadiköy Municipality with the women not attending that center, with respect to attitudes toward gender roles and women's participation in labor market.
- (4) To develop and/or adapt measures related to family processes, as well as indicators of SES and urbanization, because indicators of SES other than education are seldom used in psychological researches in Turkey.

In the first section, The Systems Theory perspective and its explanation appropriate to family will be elucidated. The second section will be about the subsystems of family. The marital and mother-child subsystem will be discussed. In the third section, in line with the framework offered by the systems theory, the association between the social context (especially economic adversity) and familial processes/relations will be elaborated with the help of the Family Stress Model (Conger & Elder, 1994). Additionally, the resilience concept and factors

inducing resilience will be explained. The fourth section will be on Turkish Family. Demographic characteristics of Turkish Family, traditional family and influences of social change on family will be discussed. Next, general demographic characteristics of squatter settlement (gecekondu) family in Turkey will also be detailed. In the last section, brief information about Kadiköy and Family Guidance/Solidarity Centers of Kadiköy Municipality will be provided.

1.2 Systems Theory

According to Systems Theory, social world is a whole system composed of hierarchy of sub-systems (individual, family, society) operating at different levels.

Hall and Fagan (1956) define system as ‘a set of objects and relations between these objects and their attributes’ (cited in Klein & White, 1996, p.). Klein and White (1996) give a simpler definition of system such as ‘a unit that effects its environment and can be distinguished from its environment’ (p.157).

According to systems theory perspective, all systems have boundaries. For Klein and White (1996), a boundary is a border between the surroundings and the system, which controls and shapes the flow of information in and out of the system. Boundaries vary with respect to permeability. In a closed system the boundaries do not allow flow of information, while in an open system there is no limitation of information flow. Since a system, by definition, should be in interaction with its environment to some degree, there can be no ‘completely’ impermeable system or boundary. On the other hand, a completely open system would be so vulnerable to the influence of the surrounding systems that, it would loose its identity and could not be separated from its environment. Most systems

are neither completely open nor closed, and family is a representative of an open system.

1.2.1 Properties of Systems

Cox and Paley (1997) summarize the properties of systems in general and of family system in particular as; (a) wholeness and order, (b) hierarchical structure, (c) adaptive self-stabilization and adaptive self-organization (stability and change).

Wholeness and order. A family is something different and more than the sum of its components, i.e. family members. It has properties that cannot be understood simply from the combined characteristics of each part (subsystems and individuals).

Hierarchical structure. Family as a complex system, is a combination of subsystems. Subsystems have their own integrity defined by the boundaries. Interaction across systems occurs according to some implicit and explicit rules and patterns (Minuchin, 1996; Cox and Paley, 1997). Family system includes sibling subsystems, spousal subsystem and parent-child subsystems; family on the other hand exists within a larger system, the social context.

Elements in a system or subsystem (individuals) are assumed to be interdependent. They contribute to the formation of the patterns and interact according to these patterns. In other words, each agent or subsystem exchanges messages (reactions and responses) with other agents and subsystems in the system. So, every agent and subsystem affects the other agents and subsystems, and, at the same time, it is affected by them. For example, problematic parent-

child relationships may cause the development of poor self-regulation in a young child, but reciprocally, the poor regulation in the child can worsen the problematic parent-child relationship (Cox and Paley, 1997). Moreover, patterns of functioning within one family subsystem are systematically related to functioning within other subsystems. For example, positive parent child relationships are related to harmonious sibling relationships.

Adaptive self-stabilization and adaptive self-organization. A family tends to compensate for the changing environmental circumstances by making adaptive changes in the internal mechanism of the system (adaptive self-stabilization). In other words, the system tries to maintain the stability of its patterns with little changes in the workings of the system. The patterns are stable as long as they are adaptive, but when the system is challenged, the system exhibits adaptive self-organization in order to survive (Minuchin, 1996).

To conclude, according to The System Theory perspective, the social world is a system composed of hierarchy of sub-systems (individual, family, society). The subsystems are open to every kind of interaction within or between the boundaries. Thus, every agent in the system (individual, family, society) changes through time due to the influences of others as a consequence of relationships occurring in a context. Thus, according to systems theory, the impact of the elements of the context; time, culture, education, socio- economic status and other possible factors should be considered, in order to understand and explain (a) the processing of the family (a sub-system of the whole social system), (b) the interactions and relations between family subsystems.

1.2.2 Components of Context

1.2.2.1 Time

Can be accepted as one of the most essential elements of the context (Aldous, 1990). Individual lifetime of the family members (age), family lifetime (the stage of the marriage), and the historical lifetime of the family can influence expectations, satisfaction level, and types of responses of family members. For example, age of a mother may affect communication with her child. Besides, having the first baby at the first or tenth year of the marriage affects parents differently, even if the parents are at the same age at the birth of the first child. Moreover, a country's participating in war also influences the nature and the patterns of family relations. Besides, some socio-economical changes in society also change and affect the lives of individuals; such influences vary according to individuals' ages. For example, Elder et al. revealed that, many young men, who could not achieve educational and occupational skills at the times of economic depression, joined the army during Second World War. They gained some skills and self-efficacy through their experiences in the army, after the war, many had the opportunity of attending university through the support of the state. So, they gained the chance of upper mobility (Elder, 1994; Elder & Caspi, 1988).

1.2.2.2 Culture

'Relationship patterns often make sense within a particular cultural setting' Goodwin (1999). Because, elements of cultural systems, such as values, beliefs and worldviews, form social norms, which are the forms guiding relationship behavior. Thus, dissimilarities between the family lives of different cultural groups can be attributed to culture. Normative and approved relationship patterns,

role definitions (Cochran et al.1990), type of closeness in intimate relationships (Rothbaum et al., 2000), child rearing values (Watanabe, 2001) and responsibilities in the family (Cicirelli, 1994; Doherty et al. 1998; Hortaçsu et al.2001) are to some extent shaped by the culture of the society. Degree of individualism vs. collectivism (Watanabe, 2001) and masculinity vs. femininity (Hofstede, 1996) of the culture influences gender stereotypes and partner preferences of individuals, thus values indirectly influence family functioning.

Van de Vijver and Leung (1997) argue that culture is a very global concept, which cannot be a meaningful explanatory variable. They assert that, culture should be substituted by its components in order to obtain more consequential variables. These variables are called context variables or cultural dimensions. Gross national product, educational systems, health care institutions are some examples for culture related variables. Besides the context variables mentioned above, political structure and ideology and perspective of the state is influential on the functioning, size and importance of family (Flanagan, 2001; Hortaçsu, 2000).

1.2.2.3 Social Class

Social class is a subsystem within any culture. Although Stephanie (2000), accepts socio-economical status of a family as a context variable which influence both functioning and the relations of family subsystems, he argues that social class is not a 'particular income, occupation, or level of educational attainment but is a set of long term options, privileges and vulnerabilities' (p. 166). He claims that class exhibits a multidimensional relationship with 'economic and political institutions' and current ideologies such as racism, sexism, and ethnicism.

Therefore, it (class) facilitates the formation of some “social locations” which guide the strategies and values of families and individuals.

Similarly, for Flanagan (2001) there is an important link between social class and perceptions, experiences and observations of an individual, which in turn shape the definition of ‘functional norms’ that have survival value in the society. So he argues that, the values that should be thought to children in family change with class. Moreover, spousal interaction and approaches to marriage (Hortaçsu, 1997) and content and quality of available social network of a family (Cochran et al. 1990) vary with social class. Therefore, social class determines social capital for families and individuals.

1.2.2.4 Modernization and Family

The traditional theories of modernization emphasized the change and breakdown of familial and community integration as the results of urbanization and industrialization. The changes occurring in the production process was assumed to undermine the cooperation and commitment between extended kin and some others that live within the same locality. According to these views, the extensive connections are replaced by restricted and selective involvements (Allan, 2001). The nuclear family was accepted to have some structural advantages in modern society. The bond between the land and the nuclear family was weak so, the nuclear family was highly mobile. Since the ties of kinship were also weak, family members relied on institutional support rather than kin assistance. The individualistic theme of the nuclear family was seen as compatible to industrialization and economic growth (Razi, 1993, cited in Kağıtçıbaşı, 2002).

However, studies question the degree to which this shift from extended to nuclear family was really happening. Laslett and his colleagues (Laslett & Wall, 1972, cited in Allan 2001) argued that extended families were always uncommon in history. Additionally, researchers in the 1950's and 1960's demonstrated that dominant theoretical models exaggerated the tightly framed or isolated structure of family (Young & Willmott, 1957; Rosser & Harris, 1965, cited in Allan, 2001). According to these sociologists, community did not disappear with continuing industrial development, but took a different form. Individuals continued being involved in relationships with significant others outside their household, but the roots of the relationships, or the ways individuals met each other, were different from those of former times. Although the theories of modernization are questionable, it's clear that the family life, relationships and social integration of people changed significantly as industrialization continued.

Speaking for the western part of the world, one of the most significant about changes in family patterns is the increase in divorce rates. According to the statistical data, approximately the 40 % of all marriages taking place at the beginning of the 21st Century will end in divorce. Thus, broken marriages will be normative in the near future (Allan, 2001). Moreover, a growing number of people are rejecting marriage and many prefer raising their child alone. Giddens (cited in Allan, 2001) argues the changes in the social and economic location of women produce radical change in women's routine patterns of dependence on men. He asserts that, with women's participating to the labor market, they gained economical independence.

Similarly, with modernization of society, the value attributed to children and their functions change. The traditional approach, which tends to perceive children as a kind of guarantee for parents' future, is challenged and the psychological functions of children are more emphasized with modernization (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982; Sunar, 2002).

Interestingly, while the changes of outer systems are affecting and rebuilding the patterns related to inner systems, the opposite is also true. State policies provide opportunities for individuals live according to their individual preferences. However, these policies are also shaped by the preferences of the individuals. According to Allan "the state moved from viewing marriage as a core social institution or a morally correct framework to a life style choice.....in seeking to protect the interest of children, the state has in the process further reduced the significance of marriage...." (2001, p. 330). Thus, consistent with system theory, we can see the reciprocity of relations between the systems.

1.2.2.5 Urbanization and Family

Urbanization may be seen as a side-product of modernization, provides familiarity with western values and life styles for the families. Urbanization is associated with the value of individualism, which is related to ego-centeredness, hedonism and the definition of self in terms of attitudes and personal preferences rather than relationships with the family network (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1998). Contact and dependence on the extended family is reduced and a change occurs in the network composition of the family (Goodwin, 1999). Urbanization is also related to attitudes toward family and children. Spousal equality is increased as well as costs associated with bringing up children. Consequently, attitudes associated with

relative equality of spouses gain popularity. Urbanization also facilitates woman's participation in economic and social life. Female participation in economic and social life in turn fosters spousal equality (Hortaçsu, 2000; Goodwin, 1999). Moreover, urbanization is also associated with perceived functions of children. The importance of the psychological function of the children increases, whereas the instrumental functions of children are emphasized. The fact that the psychological function of children may be fulfilled and increased perceived cost of children lead to desire for fewer numbers of children. Thus, parents invest more in the few children that they have and do not see their children as old age security (Hortaçsu 2000; Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982; Sunar, 2002).

1.2.2.6 Education

Hortaçsu (2000) showed that, values and norms in family change with education; a shift occurs from collectivist to individualistic values emphasizing achievement, individual goals and independence, which in turn affect family relations. Function of children also changes according to the education level of the parents. Low educated parents are more likely to emphasize the instrumental function while higher educated ones are more likely to emphasize the psychological function of their children (Hortaçsu et al., 2001). Marriage type (family vs. couple initiated), preferred gender, and desired number of children changes with the education level of the individuals (Hortaçsu, 1997). Also, education is inversely related to age of the individuals at first marriage (Hortaçsu, 1997). Finally, Kağıtçıbaşı (1998) emphasizes the great impact of mother's education on her performance of functional parenting. Kağıtçıbaşı (1998) argues

the importance of state policies to provide education and guidance for families on family related issues such as functional parenting, communication skills, etc. In her study (1998) she reveals a positive change in the communication skills, parent and child role definitions of parents, after attending an intense and long-term education program.

1.3. The Subsystems of the Family System

As mentioned before, family as a system is composed of dyads or pairs of people (couples, one parent or one child etc.), which function as subsystems of the whole system. In order to understand the dynamics of the family system, the functioning and underlying mechanisms of its subsystems should be considered. In line with the aims of the study, some processes related to marital subsystem, such as decision-making, division of labor; conflict and power distribution will be explained. Also, mother- child relations will be examined.

1.3.1. Marital Subsystem

The most distinguishing characteristic of a marital relation is, its being a kind of close relationship developed between partners through joint experience and resolution of everyday problems. A spousal tie, involves feelings of intimacy, emotional interdependence, cooperation, and reciprocal help. Generally, the spouses are committed to preserve this relationship into the future (Kirchler et al., 2000). According to Kirchler et al. (2000), grasping the structural dimensions of close relations is crucial, in order to understand and make predictions about marital processes such as decision-making etc. They describe the two basic dimensions of spousal relations as horizontal and vertical dimensions. The horizontal dimension (harmony) involves emotional aspects, structure of

emotions, friendliness or harmony within a relationship, whereas the vertical dimension is involved with power and dominance processes.

1.3.1.1 Horizontal Relationship Structure: Harmony

Harmony in a relationship can be measured through the satisfaction and commitment levels of the partners, which, in turn, influence their readiness to maintain their relationship. In a harmonious relationship the sides are expected to meet the wishes and needs of their partner and surrender self desires and needs easily for the long-term benefit of the relationship. According to Interdependence Theory (Kelley, 1979; Kelley & Thibaut, 1978; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959, cited in Hortaçsu, 1998), satisfaction level is defined as referring to positive versus negative emotions an individual experiences with respect to a relationship, based on the sense that a specific partner and relationship satisfy one's most important needs. For Rusbult et al. (1994), the degree of satisfaction and dissatisfaction experienced by one of the partners in a relationship, is not mediated just by that individual's own preferences or actions, but also by the choices and the behaviors of the other partner.

In their theory, Thibaut and Kelley defined several factors contributing to the level of satisfaction in a relationship. The combination of the rewards obtained and the costs involved during an interaction can be a determinant of relationship satisfaction. Rewards are defined as 'the pleasures, satisfactions and gratifications that a person enjoys', while the costs are defined as 'any factors that operate to inhibit or deter the performance of a sequence of behavior' (Thibaut and Kelley, 1959, cited in Rusbult, Drigotas & Verette, 1994). The number and/or intensity of rewards is related to the level of satisfaction experienced in a relationship. The

theorists, emphasized 'comparison level' (CL), that is individual's internal standard for evaluating a relationship, as another important factor affecting satisfaction. When obtained outcomes are better than what is expected, the individual is more likely to feel satisfied. 'Comparison level for alternatives' (CLalt) is also influential on marital satisfaction. Comparison level for alternatives is associated with the potential benefits, which could be obtained through an alternative relationship. When the comparison level for alternatives is lower than the benefits gained from the current relationship, the individual feels satisfied with his/her current affiliation (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959, cited in Rusbult, Drigotas & Verette, 1994).

Model offered by Rusbult et al. (1994), proposes that, besides 'satisfaction level', 'quality of alternatives' and 'investment size' also determine commitment level. Additionally, in their model for relationship maintenance phenomena, the researchers emphasize the promoting role of commitment level on the patterns of relationship maintenance behavior. According to the model, an individual's willingness to sacrifice for the good of the relationship or his/her partner, derogation of alternatives, decision to remain in the relationship, perception about the current relationship and tendency to accommodate are positively related to that individual's commitment level. Rusbult et al. (1994) further argues that, people hold a greater number and proportion of positive beliefs regarding their own relationships than others' relationships.

1.3.1.2 Vertical Relationship Structure: Power

Power is defined as potential or current ability to achieve desired goals (a) through affecting the behaviors of the other side (individual), (b) in spite of the

opposition of the other partner Kirchler et al. (2000). A power relation involves asymmetry; there is an inequity in the activities and perceptions of the partners. In other words, there is an asymmetry in the behavioral repertoires of two sides (Sidanus & Pratto, 1999). However, since power has a dynamic character, the behavioral asymmetry between the partners can shift according to the context and content.

There are six generally accepted sources of power (Kirchler et al., 2000, p. 55); (a) reward power, (b) coercive power, (c) legitimate power, (d) referent power, (e) expert power, and (f) informational power.

1.3.1.2.1 Power and Mastery

Mastery is defined as the feeling and belief that you can control and shape your own life (Cassidy & Davies, 2003). Rosenfield (1989) argues that, powerlessness leads to feelings of lack of control on life, which cause the feelings of helplessness and hopelessness. Education, employment status, income, and occupational skills are accepted to be positively linked to mastery (Cassidy & Davies, 2003), since they lessen the feelings of powerlessness, through increasing knowledge, expertise and degree of resourcefulness (Ross & Wu, 1995).

Cassidy & Davies (2003) revealed that, work and family strains undermine the sense of control. However, women's sense of control was found to be more vulnerable to such conflicts, and their mastery was found to exhibit a greater decline than that of men. On the other hand, after controlling for socio-economic resources, the researchers found no significant gender difference by in terms of mastery. These findings support Rosenfield's (1989) argument that, because women have less power than men in general, they will experience less

control over their lives. They also imply that socio-economic resources may be important in influencing sense of control.

1.3.1.2.2 Power and Decision-Making

For Kirchler et al. (2000), if there is a dominance imbalance in a relationship, the dominant partner has excessive influence over decisions. If quality of the relationship is poor, but the power is distributed equally, and the relation characterized by equality of power, exchange principles will be followed. In other words, the benefit which one partner receives in a particular decision-issue should be repaid. In other words, the dominant side will accept to be dominated in the next decision-making. If the spousal relation is characterized by trust and friendliness, the differences in influence and benefit can continue to exist over some period. However, a balance is required in long term.

In harmonious relations, it is accepted that, the imbalance of power influences the decision-making process to a small degree, since the sides will not want to exert their power advantage. The partners are expected to behave in an altruistic manner, so that individual maximization of profit will give way to altruistic profit maximization. Each side will aim to please the other, without any expectancy of balancing benefits and influence, over time. On the other hand, in disharmonious relationships the powerful partner uses his/her advantage to meet his/her own wishes (Kirchler et al., 2000).

In addition to love and power relations between the couples, current social norms and partners' relative contribution of resources are also influential in decision-making process. The partner who contributes more to the family budget is expected to be more influential. In line with the values of society, the gender

roles may also be more important in decision-making. The couples' internalization of the social norms and education levels are also crucial. Less educated and more traditional couples are believed to behave in more gender stereotypic ways, during decision-making (Kirchler et al., 2000). Joint decisions are more common in middle class households of middle status than in upper or lower class households (Mayer and Boor in 1988, cited in Kirchler et al., 2000).

Kirchler et al.(2000) emphasize that, in some cases, the decision making process or issues may lead to conflicts among partners. Conditions of the decision-making process are influential on this. For March and Simon (1958, cited in Kirchler et al., 2000), decision-making situations may occur in three different conditions; (1) both sides perceive the reality similarly, so that they make parallel preferences and reach a decision without any conflict, (2) the partners make different attributions for the probabilities, so they have difficulties in reaching an agreement about different choices, (3) as a result of the variance in the perceptions and views of the partners, their goals and desires vary, so they have a conflict.

Conflict level of the spouses is accepted as a predictor of marital quality (Cate et al. 2002). Kirchler (1990), describes three types of conflict; probability conflict, distributional conflict and value conflict.

1.3.1.2.3 Value Conflict

These conflicts are caused by the dissimilarities in basic values of the partners. They are accepted to be more important (than the other kinds of conflict), in terms of their consequences, since they do not have a single correct solution.

1.3.1.2.4 Distributional Conflict

If the discussion is based on the division of costs and benefits in a relationship, there is a distributional conflict. If the costs and benefits of a decision are distributed asymmetrically between the spouses, then they will try to reach a concession using their negotiation skills.

1.3.1.2.5 Probability Conflict

These conflicts relate the judgments about objective contents of alternatives in a decision-making process. In other words, although the partners have similar views or values, they rate the alternatives differently. For Kirchler (1990), such a conflict cannot be regarded as negative as the other types, since the partners will not tend to exert power in order to influence each other.

Kirchler et al. (2000), argue that, in happy marriages there may be just as many conflict situations as in unhappy marriages, however rather than value issues, these will generally be probability issues. Thus, the sides will not tend to influence or persuade each other. Furthermore, in a case of distributional conflict, the happy couples are expected to maximize the shared interests, whereas the unhappy couples will try to extend their own egocentric advantages.

Gill et al. (1999) reveal that, besides the amount of the conflicts, the ratio between the positive and negative communications (between the partners) is also influential on marital quality. If the negative communication of the couples is more than the positive communication, their marital satisfaction decreases.

Gill et al. (1999), emphasized the role of conflict management behavior of the couples, in their marital satisfaction. In their study, they examined the validity of opposing explanations of two perspectives; social learning model and negative

confrontation model. The first model hypothesizes that, spouses' conflict engagement and especially wives' anger may lead to long term improvements in marital satisfaction for one or both partners. (Gottman & Krokoff, 1989) (cited in D. S. Gill, A. Christhensen & F. D. Fincham, 1999) However, social learning model places more emphasis on the detrimental effects of negative emotions and behaviors that could emerge in a problem-focused discussion. Gill et al.'s research (1999) supported the social learning theory predictions. Positive behavior of both spouses was found to increase wives' satisfaction, and negative behavior of both spouses was found to decrease wives' satisfaction. None of the variables predicted any change in husbands' satisfaction.

Consistent with Gill et al.'s findings (1999), Bradbury et al. (2000), argue that, negative reactivity¹ and continuous reciprocal negativity² of the partners leads them be distressed, which in long term have negative effects on marital quality and happiness. Kirchler et al. (2000), also assert that, happy partners develop a different dynamic of interactions than unhappy partners.

1.3.1.2.6 Division of Labor

In traditional marriages division of household labor is divided according to traditional gender roles (Hortaçsu, 1997). Generally, housework and child-care, as well as other duties related to extended family (such as taking care of the elderly) are performed by wives, while earning family budget and duties related to outside world, are done by husband. However, with women's participation in the labor market, both husband and wife begin to have demanding jobs. Furthermore, existing social norms, the internalization of these norms, for example the type of

¹ Suppression of the positive behavior, following negative behavior of the partner (Bradbury, et al 2000).

² Negative behavior, following negative behavior of the partner (Bradbury, et al 2000).

marriage (family initiated vs. couple initiated) is also influential on task division (Hortaçsu, 1997).

More over, regardless of social norms and socio-economic status, spouses begin to perform more stereotypic duties, with transition to parenthood (Cowan et al., 1998). Whether they begin to share equally in housework and child-care duties or not, is assumed to be an important indicator of marital equality (Steil, 1997).

1.3.2 Parent-Child Subsystem

1.3.2.1 Effects of Parents on Child(ren)

Parent -child subsystem is another important subsystem of family. Palkovitz (1996), mentioned that, individual characteristics of the parent and the child, family dynamics, social support and historical period are factors effecting parental investment Besides the personality, psychological state (Chen & Kaplan, 2001), and education level (Hortaçsu, 2000), developmental history (Chen & Kaplan, 2001) and parenting beliefs/values of the parents (Flanagan, 2001) are also influential on mothering behavior.

Marital satisfaction and received social support were found to affect the quality of mother-child relationship positively, whereas experiencing economic adversity was found to lead to negative consequences for parenting practices (Conger & Conger, 2002; Wickrama & Bryant, 2003). Moreover, Wickrama and Bryant (2003) found that, parents, who live in communities in which adults maintain warm relationships with children, are more likely to maintain effective parenting practices with their own children. Furthermore, the cultural and social changes also shape relationship patterns. Hierarchical and distant mother-child

relations shifted to a warmer, more supportive and negotiating structure, as a result of urbanization and changing values (Hortaçsu, 2000; Sunar, 2002).

Warm and supportive parenting was found to be associated with children's higher educational achievement, better psychological development and a lower rate of deviancy (Chen & Kaplan, 2001). Involved parenting contributes to child's resilience to difficult transitions. Adolescents, who have parents with authoritative parenting style, were found to be more resilient, mature and optimist (Conger & Conger, 2002). They also found to have lower stress levels and higher self-esteem (Chen & Kaplan, 2001).

The guiding role of parents for value orientation of children is another interesting aspect in parent-child interaction. Miller & Glass, (1989), enlightened a noticeable similarity between worldviews of parents and those of their children (adult). The conformity between the attitudes of parents and children is not valid just for the period when children are young and living with their parents, but remains so for a much longer time (Miller & Glass, 1989). Similarly, Flanagan (2001) revealed that, the worldviews and values of parents about social problems or inequalities, shape the attributions of the child (blaming individual vs. societal factors) and his/her understanding of democracy.

In their study Volleberg et al. (2001) found that, parental attitudes are more influential on children's tolerance for alternative life styles than children's education level. In the same study they also found that, education level is associated with the orientations of both parents and their children toward ethnic minorities. However, after controlling education level, parents and children were still found exhibiting similarity, with respect to ethnocentrism. Their results also

indicated that, material resources in the family was the core factor influencing the orientations of both parents and children, however, parental influence on children's socio-economic orientations was evident as well.

Finally, child's recollections of parents' parenting practices and marriage shapes her/ his beliefs, perceptions and performance in parenting (Chen & Kaplan, 2001) and marital relationship (Amato & Booth, 2001). For example, early experiences of parental rejection lead to development of depressive affect, which in turn contributes to rejecting parental behavior toward one's own children (Chen & Kaplan, 2001). Furthermore, if parents are divorced without deep conflict, child's commitment to life-long marriage will be damaged, so s/he will be more ready to end his/her marriage (Amato & Booth, 2001).

1.3.2.2 Effects of Child on Mother and Marriage

Transition to motherhood is assumed to advance the generativity of woman. Responsibilities and obligations related to motherhood, contribute to the development of woman as an adult (Palkovitz, 1996).

The daily routine of life changes for mother, with the birth of the first child. She has to spend her time mostly with child-care and related tasks and housework (Nomaguchi & Milkie, 2003), so the division of labor turns to be more gender stereotypic. Moreover, the frequency and content of shared activities between spouses change. The heavier responsibilities and great differentiations in the roles, may lead to distress, depression, and ambiguous feelings in both parents. Consequently, marital quality, marital satisfaction and finally, marital stability is affected deeply (Palkovitz, 1996; Bradbury et al. 2000). If transition to parenthood

occurs through an unplanned pregnancy, there is a greater threat for marital satisfaction or quality (Cox et al., 1999).

Nomaguchi & Milkie (2003) revealed that, new parents show a lower level of efficacy than non-parents. They argued that, since young children interfere with adults' freedom, parents' sense of power to achieve their own goals decrease. Besides, Ambert (1992) mentioned that, if child's development is not in line with the expectancies of the parents, the parents tend to feel responsibility for the negative outcomes at some degree, and feel unhappy.

However, besides its effects on mother as an individual, a child has great impact on marriage. However, child may serve as a source of social status for woman (Hortaçsu, 1999). Thus, in line with the traditional values, woman may be expected to gain power after being mother. However, it is argued that, in the modern world, she will have to leave her active position at work and her contributions to family budget, furthermore, her information and experiences about outside world, will be diminished, as a result of her expanding responsibilities and obligations as a mother. Thus, she will loose power – at least in decision making processes- in the marital relations (Kirchler et al. 2000).

1.4 Family Stress Model and Resilience

1.4.1 Family Stress Model

A number of risks at personal, familial, or social level, such as chronic illness, alcoholism, unemployment of the breadwinner, changes in labor market or economy, increasing participation of women in the labor force, changing nature of family structure, migration, or some family transitions (transition to parenthood, widowhood or divorce) may cause serious challenges to the well-being of

families. Coyne and Downey (1991) argue that, the most essential effects of chronic and acute stresses and strains often emerge on individuals' well being through the problems they cause in person's closest ties, like family ties (cited in Conger and Elder, 1994).

In order to enlighten family stress processes in general, and family economic hardship in particular, Conger and Elder (1994) developed Family Stress Model (FSM). Their theoretical perspective was based on three main sources; (1) early research on families during the depression years of 1930s, (2) contemporary studies of economic stress, especially Elder (1985) and George's (1993) integration of life-course views with more traditional stress research, and (3) social epidemiological conceptualizations of emotional distress (Mirowsky & Ross, 1989, cited in Conger & Elder, 1994).

In the light of their previous studies, Conger and coworkers argue that, economic problems may lead to severe and permanent conflicts and withdrawal in family relations such that their negative effects on family life continues even when the original external precipitant no longer exist. For example, the impact of family stress caused by the unemployment of the breadwinner continues to be observed in the period after the original crisis is solved (Conger et al. 1984; Liker and Elder, 1983, cited in Conger & Elder, 1994). The theorists also emphasize the reciprocal character of the effect mechanism. Economic pressures alter family relations by changing individual behavior, but changes in family relations causes further changes in individual behavior.

In their study (1994) Conger and Elder combine the life-course, stage, and life stress perspectives and assess the effect of economic adversity on individuals

at different life stages (adolescents and parents) by regarding possible stress-mediating factors relevant for the different developmental levels of family members.

Life stage perspective (Elder, 1994) argues that, the impact of any social change on an individual varies according to the life stage at which s/he experiences the change. Since the skills, life experiences and options of the persons differentiate in line with the life stage, people of different ages are influenced differentially by the same life transition or event. Consistently, the parents and children are expected to be influenced differently by the same source of adversity, even though they share the same household.

It is argued that, any source of adversity places families in a new situation with its unique behavioral necessities and options. FSM suggests that, economic hardship is accompanied by a loss of control –at some degree- over outcomes, which leads some efforts to regain control, such as limiting consumption expenditures or entry of other family members into the labor market. Furthermore, the economic scarcity generally demands greater responsibilities from older children for financial contribution for the family (Elder, 1974, cited in Conger and Elder, 1994).

1.4.2 Economic Adversity and Economic Pressure

According to FSM, financial stress; operationalized as low income, unstable work, a high depth load and declining income; leads to increase in perception of financial pressure, among the family members. These dimensions of economic pressure reflect daily financial difficulties associated with stressful

economic circumstances, which may demoralize family members and disturb family function process.

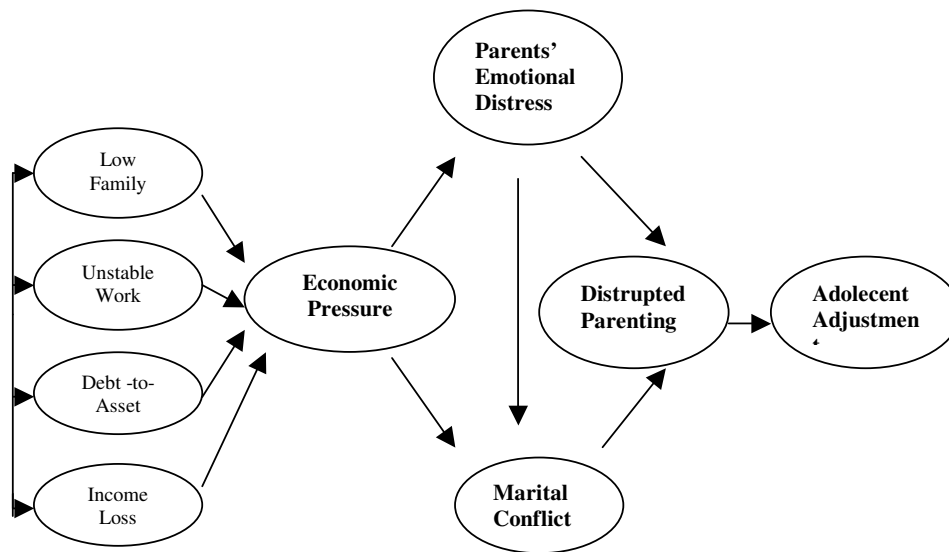


Figure 1.1. Family Stress Model (Conger and Elder, 1994)

1.4.3 Economic Pressure; The Source of Emotional Distress

Studies in literature link economic hardship to psychological distress and depression (Dressler, 1985; Mc Adoo, 1986, cited in Taylor et al., 2000), anxiety, hostility, and increased feelings of victimization (Mc Loyd, 1990, cited in Taylor et al., 2000). Moreover, despair and hopelessness often accompanies economical pressure, especially when the (economic) adversity is chronic (Belle, 1984 cited in

Taylor et al., 2000). Taylor et al. (2000), suggest that, persons with economic pressure may engage in risky behaviors or activities such as, alcohol consumption and drug use, in order to divert their attention from their problems and cope with their feelings of hopelessness and desperation. This kind of risky behavior will have additive negative impact on both individual's morale and his/her family relations. Consistent with the above argument, compared to employed families unemployed parents and their dependents were found more likely to suffer from various psychosomatic disorders (Hoffman et al. 1991, cited in Galloway & Flanagan, 2000).

1.4.4 Linking Economic Pressure and Emotional Distress to Marital Conflict

The model links economic pressure to parents' emotional distress and marital conflict, in line with emotional distress studies revealing the positive relation of negative mood with irritable and hostile behavior between intimates (Gotlib & McCabe, 1990) and reduced effort in socially skilled behaviors. The researchers showed that (Conger et al. 1999, cited in Conger & Conger, 2002), economic pressure leads to an increase in both husbands' and wives' emotional distress (indicators of anxiety, hostility and depression), which in turn cause increases in marital conflict. They also revealed that, spouses in conflict showed increased tendency to make negative evaluations of the marital relationship, considered divorce or separation. In other words, economic adversity, through leading to emotional distress for both husband and wife, causes an increase in marital conflict, which in turn decreases marital satisfaction (Conger & Conger, 2002; Kwon et al., 2003).

Similarly, Liem and Rayman (1982) exposed that; the phase of adaptation to unemployment is stressful not only for the unwaged parent but also for the spouse and children. In the following several months of the lay-off, wives of unemployed men were more depressed, anxious and phobic than the wives of the employed men (cited in Gallay & Flanagan, 1999).

In their study about the impact of working for low wages on family processes, Crouter et al. (1989) and Repetti (1987), provided support for the association between husbands' reports of work overload stress and their wives' reports of negative marital interactions later that day. Similarly, wives' overload stress was found to be associated with husbands' reports of negative marital relations (cited in Brody et al., 1996). Furthermore, fathers' job loss was found to lead an increase in marital conflicts through diminishing fathers' decision-making power in the family (Elder, 1974, cited in Taylor et al., 2000).

1.4.5 From Parents to Children and Adolescents

Psychological states have been found to be an important predictor of parenting behavior. Depressed and anxious mothers tend to display negative affect in the interaction with their children, and thus make the family environment disturbing, rejecting and hostile (Orvaschel et al., 1980, cited in Chen & Kaplan, 2001). Simons et al. (1993), found that psychological disturbance is negatively associated with supportive parenting (cited in Chen & Kaplan, 2001). Consistently, parents, experiencing emotional distress and marital conflict, were found to exhibit harsh and inconsistent parenting. Besides, parents' tendency for risk behaviors (alcohol or drug use) raises additive threat for the adolescents and children in the family (Conger & Conger, 2002).

In their study Kim, Conger, Lorenz, and Elder (2001) determined a reciprocal relationship between the angry and hostile behaviors of the parents and adolescents over time. Moreover, their findings showed that, being subjected to maltreatment during adolescence led to patterns of hostility in romantic relationships during early adulthood (cited in Conger & Conger, 2002). Additionally, Conger, Cui, Bryant, and Elder (2000), found that, interpersonal behavior between parents when offspring were young adolescents predicted offspring's interpersonal behavior with romantic partners (when offspring were in early adulthood) (cited in Amato & Booth, 2001).

Furthermore, as a result of a crisis in family, such as economical adversity, normal strains associated with school became exaggerated for children (Flanagan & Eccles, 1993, cited in Galloway & Flanagan, 2000). Two explanations were offered for this occurring; (1) parents are facing their own set of problems and stressors so they fail to encourage educational achievement or assist with homework, (2) the stress and increased family related responsibilities interfere with children's ability to focus on schoolwork.

Consistent with Elder's views, Galloway and Flanagan (2000) argue that, the impact of family economic pressures on children varies according to the age and gender of the child. Deriving from Flanagan's prior study (1993) they propose that, in line with the expectations of parents, boys are more likely to take family related responsibilities when their families deal with job or income loss. However, the effects on girls are more subtle and permanent. Families are more likely to distribute scarce financial resources to their sons rather than to their daughters.

Consequently, families foreshorten girls' educational and occupational aspirations, regardless of their daughters' performance at school.

Children's vulnerability to negative outcomes of family stress also differs with respect to child's age. Offspring in their early childhood are more vulnerable than the adolescents. Adolescents have resources for resilience at both individual and social level, whereas young children are dependent on their parents (Conger & Elder, 1994).

1.4.6 Resilience

The concept 'resilience', in other words, 'how children and adolescents overcome significant adversity in their lives' have been an important issue for developmental psychology. Masten et al. (1990, cited in Mc Cubbin et al., 1999) defines resilience as 'recovering from, coping with or overcoming adversity'. As an internalized process, resilience refers to 'the capacity to maintain feelings of personal integration, and sense of competence when confronted by particular adversity' (Cohler, 1997, cited in Mc Cubbin et al., 1999). Luthar (2000) emphasizes that, rather than being a rigid or unchanging trait; 'resilience is a dynamic process encompassing positive adaptation with in the context of significant adversity'. To diverse between resilience as a trait versus as a process, the term resiliency is recommended for referring to an individual trait and that resilience for defining the process of successfully overcoming adversity (Luthar, 2000). Family resilience can be defined as the process through which the families manage to adjust and operate efficiently after being subjected to considerable difficulty or crisis (Patterson, 2002). For Patterson (2002), in order to examine family resilience, the observations should consider family not at the individual,

but at the system level. The adaptation of family occurs at two levels of transaction; (1) between the individuals in the family (members) and family unit, (2) between the family unit and the society. Consistently, a resilient family exhibits adaptation for succeeding (1) to continue facilitating its member's personal developments, (2) to keep its members willing to maintain 'family unit', so it can perform its life-cycle tasks.

In order to evaluate whether a family is resilient or not it is necessary to consider the performance of the following functions. Generally, a family is accepted to fulfill four basic functions for its members; (a) nurturance and socialization, (b) family formation and membership, (c) economic support, (d) protection of vulnerable members. Sometimes families may be resilient in some functions but fail in some others. Additionally, since resilience is a process, families may not necessarily show the same degree of resilience at all times and under all circumstances. For example, a family may be resilient in facing some sort of stress but it may not manage to remain resilient under some new conditions. On the other hand, a family's ability in responding to crisis may develop in time.

1.4.7 Family Protective Processes

Protective factors are elements in resilience process that counter the influence of risk. Family protective processes function at three levels, (1) individual family members, (2) family unit and (3) multiple community contexts.

1.4.7.1 Individual Level Factors

Personal qualities such as ability in expressing emotions and thoughts, understanding (empathizing with) others, drawing out positive responses from

others (Gilgun, 1996), high self confidence and feelings of self-worth (Attie, Brooks-Gunn, & Peterson, 1991, cited in Henderson et al., 1996) play a buffering role for individuals who face various risks. Education and income are also accepted as individual level resources (Patterson, 2002).

1.4.7.2 Family Level Factors

Getting affection from at least one parent (Gilgun, 1996), receiving nurturant-involved parenting, harmonious parental relationships, warm and supportive sibling relations, especially receiving support from older siblings (Conger & Conger, 2002), high commitment to spouse and children, family cohesiveness and flexibility, affective and instrumental communication patterns, common values, beliefs and goals, family meanings (shared experiences and history), and finally family's previous successes (Patterson, 2002) are family level resources.

1.4.7.3 Community Level Factors

Health and education services, social support and guidance services, social network (extended family, relatives, friends or people experienced the same kind of trauma) are the community level resources.

In the model of Family Adjustment and Adaptation Response (FAAR) Patterson (1991, cited in Patterson, 2002) identified nine family coping strategies. The study was based on the data collected from families with disabled children, but it can be adapted for any trauma. According to FAAR model, a resilient family should (1) balance the demands associated with the trauma (crisis) with other family needs, (2) maintain clear family boundaries, (3) enhance communication skills, (4) attribute positive meanings to the situation (Garwick et

al.1999, revealed that, negative attributions and explanations for the condition is a risk factor that can interfere with the family's healthy adaptation to the chronic condition), (5) exhibit flexibility in its responses (6) maintain commitment to the family 'unit', (7) engage in active coping efforts, (8) maintain social integration and (9) be in touch with social services/ professionals. The perspective offered by the Family Stress Model and resilience literature provides a fruitful framework for grasping the multifaceted and reciprocal relations of family with its inner and outer systems.

1.5. Turkish Family

As elucidated in section 1.1, according to the System Theory perspective, family is embedded in a hierarchy of systems, and interacts with numerous contextual variables. Thus, in order to grasp the intra-family interaction and family structure, context should be taken into consideration. For Kağıtçıbaşı (1985), a study of family dynamics in Turkey, means examining the process of social change. She argues that, 'in the context of social change, there is such a diversity of family structures and interaction patterns that, it is very difficult to make generalizations in any absolute meaning of the term. Continuities and change intermix through the multidimensional axes of rural-urban, geographic and socio-economic variation.' (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1985, p.149). In line with this view, all family related aspects, such as demographic characteristics and attitudes of family members, and intra-familial interaction patterns and dynamics will be examined from a perspective, sensitive to 'rural-urban and socio-economic variation'.

1.5.1.Demographic Characteristics

1.5.1.1 Age of the partners at their first marriage

Age of the partners at their first marriage exhibits difference in urban and rural areas (Atalay et al., 1992). In rural areas it is common for persons to enter their first marriage at the age of 20 or younger. On the other hand, in urban areas age at first marriages is generally older than 20. The age of persons at their first marriage also changes with gender. Women in general marry at an earlier age (18.90), whereas men mostly marry between the ages 22-23. Finally, it is found that, education level is positively related to first marriage that is; individuals with higher education marry at an older age (Atalay et al., 1992).

1.5.1.2 Kind of Marriage

Generally, marriages involve both religious and civil ceremonies (85%). Atalay et al. (1992), revealed that, 10 % of the marriages involved only civil ceremony whereas 5 % involved only religious ceremony. In urban areas, percentage of marriages, which involve only civil ceremony, is two times greater than that in rural areas. When the percentage of marriages that involve only religious ceremony is considered, this rural-urban ratio reverses. Kind of marriage varies according to the education level of the couples. With level of education, number of marriages, which involve both ceremonies, decreases in urban, and increases in rural areas (Atalay et al. 1992). Moreover, performing only civil ceremony is inversely related to education.

1.5.1.3 Family Size

The average family size in Turkey is 4.75; it is larger in rural (5.39) than in urban (4.27) areas. Family size is lowest in the west part of the country (4.03) and highest in the east and southeast (6.24) (Atalay et al., 1992).

Although nuclear family is normative, functionally, these nuclear families have closer ties with extended family than those of their north European counterparts. Turkish families interact with a wider set of kin and their relations are relatively more intense (Baştuğ, 2002, p.109). Kağıtçıbaşı (1985) argues that, most of the families are structurally nuclear, but many function as an extended family. Individuals generally interact frequently with a large net of kin such as grandparents, aunts, uncles and cousins as well as with nuclear family members (parents and siblings), and have considerable responsibility towards the kin network.

1.5.1.4 Mate Selection

Family initiated marriage is the traditional type of marriage in Turkey. More than half of the existing marriages (56%) are arranged by families. Family initiated marriages are more common among less educated than more educated, and among younger partners than older partners. Furthermore, arranged marriages are more prevalent in rural than urban areas (Atalay et al. 1992, Sunar 2002). However, in the case of urban marriages Sunar (2002, p.234) argues that, ‘while families may approve or oppose their children choice of partner, and while the families attitude may carry considerable psychological or emotional importance for the child, typically (for urban family) the final decision rests with the child rather than the parents’.

1.5.1.5 Bride Price

Although bride price is not practiced in most of the marriages (74%), the ratio exhibits geographic variation. It is most commonly practiced in the east and southeast parts of the country. It is more common among the less educated than more educated and among rural than urban areas (Atalay et al. 1992). Moreover, the couples, which practiced bride price in their own marriages, have more favorable attitudes toward bride price and, consequently, found it proper to practice bride price in their child's marriage (Atalay et al., 1992; Gökçe et al., 1993).

1.5.2. Traditional Turkish Family

Traditional Turkish family is defined as a male-dominated, patrilineal, patrilocal and patriarchal system. The family line is traced from father to son and traditionally, sons are expected to live in or near father's home, even after they get married. Although father is the symbol of authority in the family, brothers may share his authority, particularly for protecting their sisters and sometimes their mothers. Main value of the family is honour (namus), and men aim to control the sexual behavior of women in family, in order to maintain and protect it. Consequently women's participation to public space is limited (Sunar, 2002; Baştuğ, 2002). Wives are expected to be responsible and obedient, thus, demandingness of wife is perceived as a form of instigation for aggression and is justification for husband's aggression toward his wife (Hortaçsu, Kalaycıoğlu & Rittersberger-Tılıç, 2003).

Common findings of many studies involved with male and female sex roles, women's intra-family status, power relations and decision contexts and

related values revealed the inferior status of women in family. Furthermore, women's inferior status is widely accepted by both men and women (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1985).

For Kağıtçıbaşı (1985), the inequality and status differentiation between men and women is also reflected in emotional and attitudinal domains. The need to be closer to one's spouse and value attributed to spousal relations are higher among women than among men (in rural areas). Furthermore, differentiation in status and emotions between the spouses also causes a differentiation with respect to their reasons for wanting children. As a result of their greater dependence on men, women sometimes mention that, they want a child to 'attract the husband to the home' (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982). Kongar (1998) also emphasizes the disadvantaged position of women in traditional family, where money is earned, and spent by men. Since women cannot contribute to labor market (their participation to public space and consequently opportunity of education is restricted), they are highly dependent on men with respect to material resources.

Economical dependence among family members is also evident in parent-child relations. For Kağıtçıbaşı (1985), families value children for their economical/material contributions to the family. Also, parents tend to perceive children as a kind of guarantee for their future. Since the contribution of children is significant for the family, having many children is functional. Kağıtçıbaşı (1985) underlines that this pattern is widely seen in non-western world, where industrial-urban socio-economic structures have not been established.

In line with the findings of Value of Children Study, Kağıtçıbaşı (1985) argues that, when dependence is normative in parent-child relationship, parents

mention obedience as the most desirable quality for a child. Child is not expected to be independent but rather obedient and dependent on his/her parents. Moreover, the emphasized value of attachment, closeness, respect and obedience in family may affect and shape the responses of parents to disobedience and independent behavior. Parents punish misbehavior and disobedience, and physical punishment is common as well (Sunar, 2002; Hortaçsu, Kalaycıoğlu& Rittersberger-Tılıç, 2003). Definition of deviance is strict, and tolerance to nonconformity is low especially for daughters, who are the lowest in the Turkish family's power hierarchy (Hortaçsu, Kalaycıoğlu& Rittersberger-Tılıç, 2003). When the child grows older, parallel to its 'old age security' function for the parents, being close, loyal and faithful to parents is rated as the most desirable quality for an adult child. Interestingly, consistent with their disadvantaged and more dependent position in family, women were found to put greater emphasis on the old age security of children (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982).

Expectancies of parents from their children vary according to the gender of child. Male child has a key position in the interdependent family interaction pattern (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982). Besides reflecting 'the patriarchal patrilineal family structure, where living in with the son's family is widely accepted, but being dependent on one's son in law is considered degrading' (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1985, p.155), this value of sons is a result of their being far more functional than daughters as a main source of economic help and security.

In line with traditional Turkish culture collectivism, there is high emotional interdependence in the relationships within the family. Attachment, respect and loyalty are important values. Consistently, needs of others in the

family are emphasized as more important than the individual's preferences. Moreover, in the highly close and hierarchic structure of traditional Turkish family, ' the conceptions and the experience of the self are inseparable from conceptions and experience of close family members' (Fişek, 2002).

1.5.3 Change in Family

In line with general change in society, industrialization and urbanization, migration to metropolises, residence in apartments and increase in education; role definitions, relationship patterns, values, daily routines and future expectations of family members change accordingly (Hortaçsu, 2000).

The communal living of traditional family, sharing space and objects with relatives is replaced by emphasis on nuclear family and private space (Hortaçsu, 2000). Consistent with the change from farming to organized labor, the material contribution of children to family budget decreased. Consequently, instead of economical value, parents began to stress the psychological value of children (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982).

In line with the changing role of child in the family, Kağıtçıbaşı (1985) argues that, role and place of mother is also alterned. Urbanized, higher educated and economically active women became less dependent on intra-familial relations. Thus, old age security value of child and son preference of mothers declined.

Consistently, earlier asymmetric hierarchical model of spousal relationship tend to be replaced by a more equal structure. Kağıtçıbaşı (1985) argues that, with the increasing emotional value of the child, the emotional value of the spouse and investment with spouse also increased, which in turn contributed to the increase of

the intra-familial status of wife. The economic function of the family decreased for both children and parents, while the emotional function gained importance.

It is argued that, the change in Turkish family is not inline with the Western model, in which the extended family shifted to the independent nuclear type. Instead, emotional interdependence and intergenerational relatedness continues (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1985). Although the amount of control hierarchy towards children decreased, the care hierarchy stayed unchanged (Fişek, 2002). The non-demanding and obedient children with loving but distant parents of the past, is replaced by friendly, respectful, communicative parents and demanding and more autonomous children of today (Hortaçsu, 2000).

1.5.4. Squatter Settlement (Gecekondu) Family

Since 1950's, urbanization and migration led to increased mobility, change and formation of new patterns of social life in Turkey (Erder, 2002). Migration from rural to urban areas has been an important problem because of its social, cultural and economical consequences (Gökçe, 1993). Rapid growth of population, rapid mechanization of agriculture (Tekeli, 1982), industrialization, feuds, and terror are the underlying factors of migration (Hortaçsu, 2003). According to the 1990 census results, 60% of the population lives in urban areas (Hortaçsu, 2003). However, integration of the migrants occurs only when different cultural and economical systems are really ready and open for integration (Ersoy, 1985). Although the migrants manage to minimize the physical distances to the city center and the symbols of the desired life conditions, they are still distant from being urbanite in many senses. Many of the new comers, so

called 'new urbanites' can only have the chance to live in *gecekondu*, at the transition zone of the city.

Gökçe (1993) argues that, squatter settlement family is different from both urban and rural families, by means of intra and inter-familial processes and relations. Demographic characteristics of squatter settlement family in general will be examined in the light of Gökçe et al.'s (1993) study encompassing 1986 families from 74 cities and 7 geographical regions of Turkey.

1.5.4.1 Family Type

Nucleus family is found to be normative in squatter settlements; 84.4% of the families included parents and their unmarried children. However, this percent varies with the geographical regions. The percent of nucleus families in Ankara, İstanbul and İzmir is 84.1 but, in East and Southeast, this percent decreases to 72.9. Moreover, extended families including parents, their unmarried children and various relatives are relatively more common (27.1%) in East and Southeast (Kasapoğlu, 1993).

1.5.4.2 Family Size

The average family size in squatter settlements is 5.4 in general. It is near to the average family size in rural areas, but much greater than that of urban areas. (The average family size in Turkey is 4.75; it is larger in rural (5.39) than in urban (4.27) areas) (Atalay, 1992). Average family size in squatter settlements also changes according to the geographical regions and cities. It is 5.3 for İstanbul, 5.7 for Ankara and 4.8 for İzmir. However, in Eastern and Southeastern regions the size increases to 7.0 (Kasapoğlu, 1993).

1.5.4.3 Average Age of the Family Members

Average age of the family members in squatter settlements is found as 27.4; 27.5 for men and 27.2 for women. More than 50 % of the people living in squatter settlements is younger than the age of 24. In İstanbul, the average ages of the squatter settlement residents are identical to the country averages. Values are higher in Ankara (28.5) and İzmir (27.6). The youngest population is observed in East and Southeast, where the average age is 23.6 for males and 21.9 for females (Kasapoğlu, 1993).

1.5.4.4 Place of Birth

Place of birth of the people living in squatter settlements vary according to regions and age of the family members. In İstanbul, Ankara and İzmir 63.6% of the people, living in squatter settlements, was born in cities, 32.8% was born in villages and 3.5% was born out of Turkey (Kasapoğlu, 1993).

When the place of birth is examined concerning to the ages of people, it is found that, people younger than 20 and second or third generations in squatter settlement, were mostly born in cities (60%)(Kasapoğlu, 1993; Işık & Pınarcıoğlu, 2001).

1.5.4.5 Education

Great majority of the squatter settlement residents are primary school graduates (46.1%). In Ankara, İstanbul and İzmir, 16.2 % of the population is illiterate, 12.3 % is literate only, 47.9 % is graduated from primary school, 12.7 % is graduated from secondary school, and 9.1 % is high school graduates. Only 1.8 % is university graduates (Kasapoğlu, 1993).

In their research including 611 families living in Sultanbeyli İstanbul, Işık and Pınarcıoğlu (1998) found that, among all participants 12.4 % was literate only, 60.8 % was graduated from primary school, 14.4 % was graduated from secondary school, and 10.6% was high school graduates. Only 1.8 % was university graduates. Interestingly, the percent of women who were only literate (19.8%) were much greater than that of men (5.2%).

1.5.4.6 Age of the partners at their first marriage

Among the people living in squatter settlements, the average age of the partners at their first marriage is found as 20.6 in general, 22.4 for men and 18.9 for women. The average values for İstanbul are 22.4 for men and 18.9 for women (Kasapoğlu, 1993).

1.5.4.7 Work Status of Women

Only 9.2 % of the women in squatter settlements were found to be working outside the house. However, working outside is positively related to education and years of residence in urban areas. The percent of housewives, which is 96.7 among newcomers, decreases to 87.4 among women who have been living in urban area for more than thirty years (Kasapoğlu, 1993).

1.6 Kadiköy and Family Guidance/ Solidarity Centers of Kadiköy

Municipality

1.6.1. Kadiköy

According to the population census in 2000, 654.000 inhabitants live in Kadiköy, the biggest administrative district of İstanbul. The majority of the inhabitants of Kadiköy are from middle and upper classes. Although the production activities are limited, it is the one of the most important metropolitan

subdivisions of İstanbul, as a result of the concentration in trade and service sector (Kadiköy Municipality, 2002). Ninety four percent of the inhabitants, who are 6 years old or above are literate, 50.000 of which are graduated from university. According to the numbers provided by the State Institute of Statistics in 1990, 41 % of the district population was born in İstanbul and 43 % is economically active (Kadiköy Municipality, 2002). The statistics reveal that, Kadiköy received a great number of migrants from rural areas in the last two decades. The newcomers settled to relatively peripheral districts of Kadiköy, which is situated (geographically) above E-5 highway and is segregated from the central districts with respect to socio-economical and cultural characteristics. This is consistent with Marcuse and Van Kempen's (2000) argument that, division of space reflects and recreates the divisions of society.

1.6.2 Family Guidance/ Solidarity Centers of Kadiköy Municipality

The importance and role of education in modernization of Turkey is emphasized by many researchers (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1998; Özkan-Kerestecioğlu, 2004). However, illiteracy in general and women illiteracy in particular is still a serious problem of the country. Interestingly, school attendance rates changes with gender (74.3 % for men and 57.2 % for women) (Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı; 2003). According to the Human Development Report of United Nations Development Program (UNDP) (2002), nearly 14.6 % of women in Turkey is illiterate. Female illiteracy rate is relatively high in rural (30.4 %) areas, especially in the East (36%) and South-East Anatolia (39%). The percent of illiteracy among women also indicates other facts related to women; only 27.9 % of women participates in the labor market (DİE; 1999). Özkan-Kerestecioğlu (2004) argues that, there is a

link between education and women's participation in the labor market. More educated women are more likely to participate in the labor market.

The disadvantaged position of women and its possible indirect effects on children induced many state and civil organizations to focus on the education of women. The Mother Child Education Program developed by Kağıtçıbaşı in the beginning of 1980's emphasized the education of women in their natural environment and in the medium of their family relationships. They taught women in the underdeveloped areas to teach pre-school skills to their children as well as providing them information about spousal and parental communication skills, and birth control. Their evaluation of the outcomes of the program revealed that, the participation in the program increased women status in the family and led to a optimistic outlook towards to future. The long-term effects of the program also revealed improved cognitive skills, positive outlook towards the school and higher academic achievement for children involved in the program than children not involved in the program (Bekman, 1998).

Similar to the Mother Child Education Program, The Family Guidance/Solidarity Center aimed to provide women skills and education in order to empower them with competence related to both family and child management and basic knowledge for survival in İstanbul. FG/SC was established in 1994, with the partnership of three institutions: Kadıköy Municipality, Marmara University Center of Women's Labor, and Women's Society of Kadıköy. The aim of the center is to provide services for especially female migrants who live in the peripheral districts and need guidance and help for survival in the city and adaptation/integration to urban life. Besides maintaining social solidarity and

various health services, providing education for the residents is intended. The centers organize courses with the contributions of Mother Child Education Foundation (Açev) and Kadiköy Education Center for the Public. Course attendants are entitled to follow a basic citizenship education program, involving women's rights in Turkish Civil Law, basic principles of Turkish Republic, duties of local authorities, rights and duties of citizens, women's health, basic health principles, birth control, communication in family, and home economics. Furthermore, literacy and job acquisition courses are provided. After these courses, which last for three to eight months depending on the field, the attendants experience a training period and begin to work in workshops and sell their products at local market places (Kadiköy Municipality, 2002).

In addition to the training of adults, various education programs are provided for children, aiming to improve their achievement at school. Finally, several programs involving; basic civil rights, terms of social insurance, rights of workers in the labor union, and familial communication methods are organized for men living in the area (Kadiköy Municipality, 2002).

1.7 Expectations

Two main expectations are offered, based on the above review of literature. The first expectation is concerned with effects of SES on women's perception of adequacy in their mother, wife and housewife roles mediated through feeling of mastery and husband wife relations. The above review of literature revealed that economical adversity leads to feelings of loss of control (Cassidy & Davis, 2003). Conger & Elder (1994) found that economical stress was related to conflictual family relations. The mediating role of feelings of

power over family relations was not demonstrated. In this study I predict that, perceived mastery mediates between economic conditions and family processes.

Furthermore, research has shown that conflictual spousal relations and low relative power in spousal relations affects women's self esteem and mastery negatively (Cassidy & Davis, 2003). Therefore I predict that, women's self-evaluation, as mother, wife and housewife will be affected by spousal relations. The model in figure 1.2 is based on the above arguments.

It may be seen in figure 1.2. that, education determines economic status, which influences mastery. Mastery, in turn, affects spousal relations and decision-making process in family. Finally, spousal relations will predict perception of performance of women.

The second prediction is concerned with influences of urbanization on attitudes of women about spousal roles within the family. In line with the general change in society, industrialization and urbanization, role definitions, relationship patterns, values and attitudes related to family change accordingly (Hortaçsu, 2000; Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982; 1985). Therefore, it is predicted that, urbanization influences modern attitudes toward spousal roles positively and traditional attitudes toward spousal roles negatively.

My third prediction is related to comparison of women attending the Family Guidance /Solidarity Center of Kadıköy Municipality with the women not attending that center with respect to attitudes toward spousal roles. Kağıtçıbaşı (1998) emphasizes that, the education programs, which aim to educate and guide women in their natural setting, serve as indicators of change in terms of attitudes and behaviors. She argues that, mother education programs not only influence

mothers directly, but also has indirect effects on families and children.

Consistently, she revealed that (1998), parents' familial role definitions and communication skills changed positively after attending to a longitudinal and intense education program.

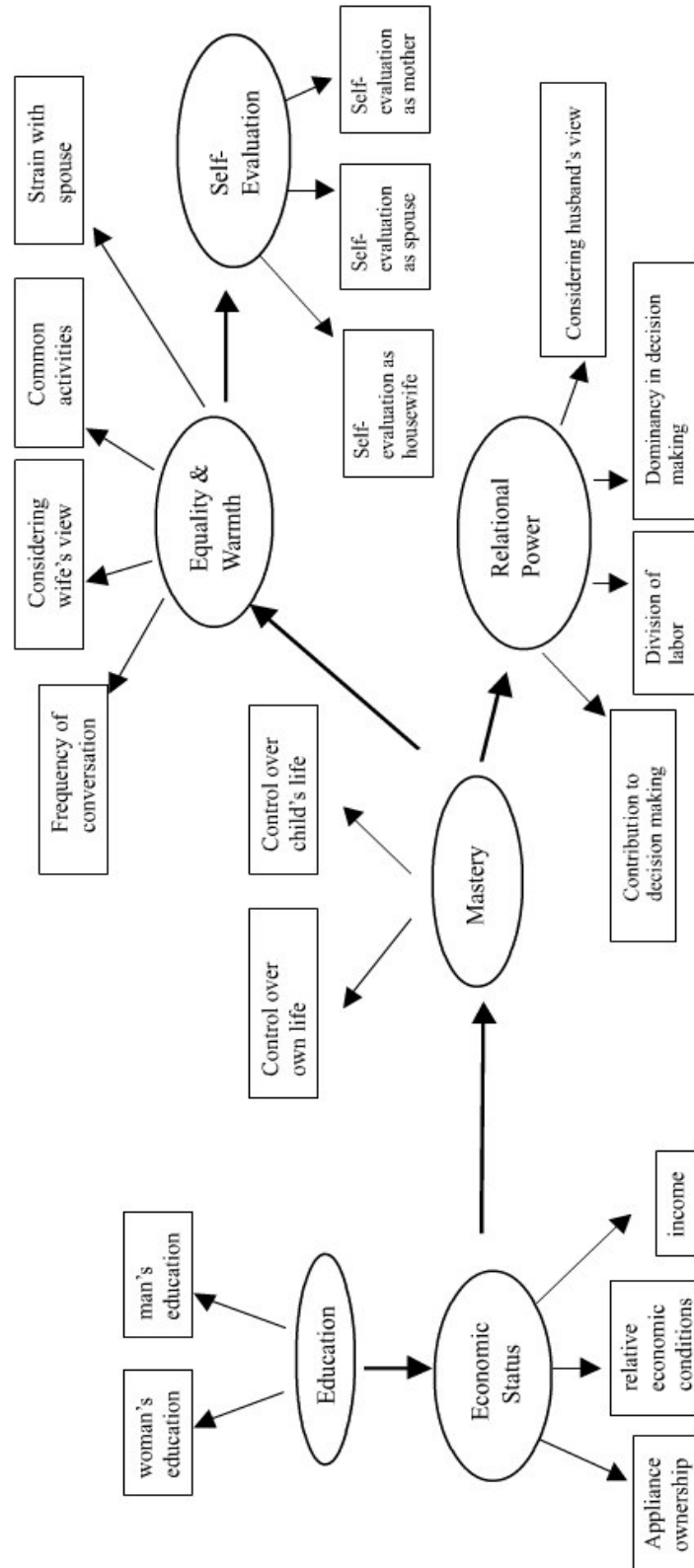


Figure 1.2 Hypothesized Model: Relation between background measures; mastery; family processes and self evaluation

In line with her findings, I predict that, women who are in touch with FG/SC will have more favorable attitudes toward modern spousal roles, but will have less favorable attitudes toward traditional spousal roles.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

2.1 Participants

An accidental sample of 145 women living in various districts of Kadıköy, İstanbul, participated in the study. There were three groups of women (1) women living in poor, peripheral districts of Kadıköy and in touch with “Family Guiding /Solidarity Center”(Aile Danışma Merkezi) of Kadıköy Municipality (FG/SC group), (2) women living in the same districts of Kadıköy but not in touch with “Family Guiding /Solidarity Center” (FGSC) (non-FG/SC group), (3) women living in central and relatively wealthy neighborhoods of Kadıköy (central group). There were 70, 49 and 26 participants in these three groups respectively.

Women were selected such that all were married and had at least one child sharing the same house. Participants varied with respect to age, financial status, and education. They also exhibited great diversity with respect to ethnic, religious and cultural characteristics, and time lived in Kadıköy. Although mean duration of residence in İstanbul was over 10 years (Table 1), 50 % of the participants had been living in İstanbul for more than 20 years.

Education level of the women varied from no schooling to university; 43.8% graduated from primary school and 25 % were literate only, while 9 % were university graduates. Approximately forty nine percent (48.9) of the participants did not work outside their homes or did not earn any income; whereas 30.9 % worked or produced handiworks for money, 20.2 % had regular work. However, only 10.8 % had social security.

Participants were married for 17.39 years on the average (with a mode of 10 years) (Table 1). Most (84.1 %) marriages involved both religious and civil ceremonies, 4.1 % involved only religious and 11.7 % involved only civil ceremony. Bride price was practiced in 24.1 % of the marriages. The mean number of children was 2.54, ranging from 1 to 8 (SD = 1.38). The mean monthly family income was 1,750 billion TL (with a mode of 300 million), ranging from no regular income (2.1 %) to 12 billion TL (0.7%) (Table 1). When the mean number of children is taken into consideration (2.54), it may be argued that, most lived in poverty and % 68.8 suffered hunger according to the figures provided by Türk-İş Research Center³. Further information about participants is presented in Table 2.1.

2.2 Questionnaires

The questionnaires consisted of 6 parts. The first part of the questionnaire included questions about demographic characteristics and social background such as age; years married; number of children; educational level of self, spouse and children; occupation of self, spouse and children; gender, marital status and age of children; years of residence in İstanbul and in Kadıköy; places and years of previous residences; family type (nuclear vs. extended), housing type (flat / house / *gecekondu*); monthly total income of the family; ownership of various household appliances(0= there is no, 1= second hand, 2=first hand), and car (adapted from Veri Araştırma (2000)).

³ Poverty line for a four member family; 1.634 million; Türk-İş Research Center; Feb/2004
Hunger line for a working single person; 601 million; Türk-İş Research Center; Feb/2004

Table 2.1 Characteristics of the sample

	Mean	Mode	Min - Max:	Percent %
Age (woman)	37.69	35	23 - 62	
Income (monthly) (Billion)	1,752 billion	300 million	0 – 12,000 billion	
Wife Education Status 1 = literate 2 = primary s 3 = secondary s 4 = high s 5 = university	2.37	2	1 - 5	25.0 43.8 9.7 12.5 9.0
Husband Education Status 1 = literate 2 = primary s 3 = secondary s 4 = high s 5 = university	2.6	2	1 - 5	11.0 51.0 13.8 15.2 9.0
Years Married	17.39	10	4 - 42	
Number of Children	2.54	2	1 - 8	
Years in Istanbul 1 = less than 1 year 2 = 1 - 3 years 3 = 3 - 5 years 4 = 5 -10 years 5 = 10-20 years 6 = 20-30 years 7 = more than 30 years	5.44	7	1 - 7	1.4 2.8 4.8 14.5 26.9 16.6 33.1
Work Status of Wife Not earning money Earning money via producing handiworks or working time to time Employed, does not have social security Employed, has social security				48.9 30.9 9.4 10.8
Work Status of Husband Unemployed Retired and unemployed at the moment Employed but does not have social security Employed, has social security Retired but employed at the moment				22.1 8.6 26.4 39.3 3.6
Kind of Marriage Civil marriage Religious marriage Civil & Religious marriage				11.7 4.1 84.1
Religious Denomination Hanefi Alevi Şafi Alevi-Hanefi Marriage Şii I don't know				69.7 15.9 8.3 2.1 3.4 .7

Next, came five questions about perceived relative economic status (rated on five-point scales where 1= much better, 5= much worse). The participants were asked to compare their current economical conditions a) with their previous (five years ago) economic conditions b) with the current economic conditions of their friends, relatives etc. c) with the economic conditions of their family of origin d) with the economic conditions they expected to have in the future (five years later) e) with the future expected economic conditions of their children.

The second part, included questions about work and financial conditions of the participants; (whether they worked outside the house or had any personal saving) and how the women spent their money.

The third part included questions about decision-making processes in the family. The first two questions inquired about decisions concerning buying an expensive item and desired number of children. Three response alternatives were provided for these questions (1= usually man decides, 2= man and woman decide together, 3= usually woman decides). Next, the degree to which husband and wife took spouse's views into consideration with respect to a number of issues was asked separately for husband and wife (Gökçe et al.; 1993). The issues were related to children, housework, shopping, relations with relatives and network, religious issues, and voting. The items were rated on 5-point scales (1= always to 5 = never). Third, relative decision power of husband and wife with respect to a number of issues related to husband's and wife's work and personal life, housekeeping, spending, child rearing, and relationships with relatives and friends was asked (Hortaçsu, 1999). This scale included 21 items, which were rated twice (first for wife and then for husband) with 4- point scales (1= totally

wife/husband's decision, 2= wife/husband is effective on decision process, 3= wife/husband's view is taken, 4= wife/husband's view is not taken).

The next section was about division of labor (Hortaçsu, 1999). It included 21 items about various choices such as cooking, washing the dishes, ironing, cleaning the house, shopping, earning money, driving car, teaching children etc. (rated on 6-point scales; 1= always I do, 2= husband always does, 3= usually I do, 4= my husband usually does, 5= we do together, 6= we do in turn). The division of labor items, were followed by two questions about whether the participant was satisfied with the division of labor, and her perception about her spouse's satisfaction with the division of labor (4= very satisfied, 1 = not at all satisfied).

Next, two scales, which were taken and adapted from Atalay et al. (1992), inquired about the importance of different duties of men and women within the family. Items related to duties of men were; a) providing for the family, b) up keep and protection of the family, c) make decisions on family related issues d) decide about division of labor among family members e) control manners and activities of women and girls in the family. Items related to duties of women were a) do housework b) contribute to family budget c) give birth d) take care of children and husband e) manage family budget f) maintain harmony and peace in the family g) take care of elder members of the (extended) family h) arrange social relations for women. Perceived importance of each duty was rated on 7-point scales (1= a very important duty of man /woman, 2= an important duty of man/woman, 3= man/woman's duty but not important, 4= man/woman's duty but not at all important, 5= duty of both, 6= duty of the other spouse, 7= it is not a duty for both).

The next scale was also taken from Atalay et al. (1992), and inquired about the attitudes toward women's participation in labor market. A number of items voicing pros and cons of women's participation in labor force such as; a) strengthens the family b) contributes to family budget c) makes woman to spend her time more effectively d) woman improves herself e) (woman) spends less time with her children f) (woman) becomes more understanding and adaptive g) the discipline and education she gives to her children is improved h) social relations of the family gets worse i) she reflects the work related problems and stress to the family members j) working outside is exhausting for woman, were included in this scale. Each item was rated on a 4-point scale (1 = very true, 4 = not at all true).

The fourth part was about spousal relations. The first three questions asked about type of marriage (arranged vs. couple initiated), and type of marriage ceremony (religious vs. civil) and whether or not the marriage involved bride wealth. The next two questions asked about whether or not the women went out or had conversations with husband. This question was followed by ratings of reasons for not going out (1 = very true, 4 = not at all true) and frequency of talking about different topics such as; a) children, b) family problems, c) husband's work (1 = very often, 4 = never). Furthermore, an open-ended question asked about favorite activities with husband. Next came a translated and adapted form of Wheaton's (1994) Chronic Strain Inventory (cited in Cassidy & Davis, 2003). The items in this inventory were (a) my husband and I argue a lot (b) my husband restricts my freedom; (c) my husband does not understand me; (d) my husband expects too much of me; (e) my relationship does not give me what I want/

expect; (f) my husband does not show his affection/love; (g) my husband is not committed enough to our relationship; (h) my husband is always threatening to leave or divorce; and (i) I am not very happy / satisfied with our sexual relationship. Participants responded to these items on a 4-point scale (1= very true, 2= true, 3= not true, 4= not at all true).

The fifth part was about relations with children. In this part, respondents first responded to translated and adapted versions of the child-related subset of items from Wheaton's (1994) Chronic Strain Inventory. Items concerning strain due to children were as follows; (a) one of my children seems very unhappy; (b) I can't make my children listen to me; (c) I am concerned (worried, afraid) about my child's behavior; (d) one or more children do not do well enough at school or at work; (e) my children do not help around the house; (f) one of my children spends too much time away from the house, and (g) I have regular conflicts with one (or more) of my children. Participants responded to these items with a 4-point scale (1= very true, 2= true, 3= not true, 4= not at all true). After responding to these items, women were asked about the desired and expected levels of education for their daughters and sons. Then, a seven-item mastery scale (Pearlin et al., 1981, cited in Cassidy & Davies, 2003) was translated and adapted to measure the level of women's perceived control over their children's lives. The scale included the following items; (a) I have no control over the bad things that happen to my child/children; (b) there is really no way I can solve some of the problems my children have; (c) there is little I can do to change many of the important things in my children's life; (d) I often feel helpless in dealing with problems of my children face in their lives; (e) sometimes I feel that my children are being pushed

around in life; (f) what happens to my children in the future mostly depends on me; (g) I can make my children do just about anything I really set my mind for them. Women responded on 4-point scales (1= very true, 2= true, 3= not true, 4= not at all true).

The sixth section of the questionnaire inquired about women's self-evaluation as mother, spouse, and housewife. Perception of adequacy in these roles was measured with 4-point scales (1= very true, 2= true, 3= not true, 4= not at all true). The first scale of this section, which inquired the woman's self evaluation in motherhood role, included 14 items about six parenting tasks; dressing, bathing, comforting, teaching, disciplining and communicating. The items were; a) I dress my child cleanly and tidily, b) I dress my child tastefully, c) I keep my child clean, d) I can comfort and relax my child when she/he is upset, frightened or crying, e) I can make my child behave properly, f) I do not have difficulty in making my child listen to me, g) I show interest in my child's studies, h) I help my child in his/ her lessons, i) I know her/his friends j) I know exactly when, where s/he is, k) I know her/his problems with her/his siblings, l) I know her/his problems with her/his friends, m) I know her/his problems with teachers and school. The woman's self evaluation as a spouse was measured with 9 items related to 6 different tasks. The items were; a) I see that my husband is clean b) I see that my husband dress tidily and cleanly, c) I see that my husband dress tastefully, d) I can comfort him when he is in a bad mood/ he is upset, e) I help him to have good relationships with others, f) I can imagine the difficulties and problems he faces in his work g) I support him for overcoming his problems and difficulties h) I have good relationships with his parents and siblings. Woman's

self evaluation as a housewife was measured with 8 items related to different tasks. The items were; a) I keep my house clean, b) I keep my house tidy, c) I always prepare meal, d) I care about providing fresh meal for my husband and children e) I make my house beautiful by my skills in sewing, embroidering and knitting. f) I dress my child, spouse and myself by my skills in sewing and knitting. g) I can manage the family budget successfully. / I am good in managing the family budget.

Finally, a translation of the seven-item mastery scale (Pearlin et al., 1981, cited in Cassidy & Davies, 2003) was used in order to inquire women's perception of mastery over her life. The scale included the following items; (a) I have no control over the bad things that happen to me; (b) there is really no way I can solve some of the problems I have; (c) there is little I can do to change many of the important things in my life; (d) I often feel helpless in dealing with problems of life; (e) sometimes I feel that I am being pushed around in life; (f) what happens to me in the future mostly depends on me; (g) I can do just about anything I really set my mind to (1= very true, 2= true, 3= not true, 4= not at all true).

The seventh and the final part was only given to the women who were in touch with "Family Guiding /Solidarity Center"(Aile Danışma Merkezi) of Kadıköy Municipality. Six questions about the reasons for attending the center (1= very true, 2= true, 3= not true, 4= not at all true), and ideas about the services were asked. Additionally, the participants were asked to indicate the changes that happened in their lives after getting into contact with the center, if any.

2.3 Procedure

Questionnaires were pilot tested on 19 women living in the peripheral, mostly “gecekondü”, neighborhoods of Kadıköy, in order to ascertain comprehension of questions and appropriateness of wording. Some changes and additions were made, in line with the feedback provided by the respondents of the pilot study.

Two female interviewers, a senior and a graduate student in psychology department aged 23 and 29 experienced in interviewing underprivileged samples, conducted the interviews. The two interviewers conducted approximately equal number of interviews with women living in poor districts (59 and 60). Interviews with 29 women living in middle class areas were conducted by the first interviewer.

Women were generally interviewed in their homes, or in free offices and classes of the Family Guiding /Solidarity Center. It was ensured that women were alone with the interviewer and were not disturbed or influenced by anybody during the interviews. Interviewers read the questions to the participants and filled out the questionnaire forms in line with the answers provided by the participants. Explanations or examples were provided when necessary. The interviews lasted about one hour.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

3.1 Characteristics of Participants

Table 3.1 includes background information about women living in peripheral districts connected or not connected with FG/SC and women living in relatively wealthy areas of Kadıköy. It may be seen in Table 3.1 that women living in central districts were different from the other two groups with respect to most measures whereas the other two groups were similar with respect to most measures except for years lived in İstanbul and work status of women. Women living in wealthier districts were somewhat older, had more income, were more educated, had fewer children, had lived in İstanbul for a longer period, were more likely to be employed and have employed husbands than women living in peripheral districts. Furthermore, bride wealth was practiced in 29.4 % of the marriages in the periphery and none of the marriages in the wealthier district.

3.2 Scale Construction and Reliabilities

Attitude items adapted from Atalay (1992) about the duties of men and women in family were factor analyzed. The exploratory factor analysis of the items on duties of women in family revealed two dimensions (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy [KMO] = .773). Do housework, give birth, take care of elder members of the (extended) family and arrange social relations items loaded on the first factor, named Gender Stereotypic Duties of Women. This factor had an eigenvalue of 2.90, and explained 30 % of the variance. Alpha coefficient for reliability of a scale based on this factor was .71.

Table 3.1 Comparison of three groups with respect to background variables.

	Per. FG/SC	Per. Non FG/SC	Central District	F	Partial η^2	χ^2
Age (woman)						
Mean	37.23 ^a	35.42 ^a	43.30 ^b	7.6 [*]	.097	
Min-Max	23 - 62	23 - 58	29 - 60			
Income Monthly (million)						
Mean	395.29 ^a	427.87 ^a	7692.31 ^b	5.84 [*]	.078	
Min-Max	0-1,250	0-1,000	750-12,000			
Wife Education Status %						
1=literate	24.6	38.8	-			
2=primary s	52.2	46.9	15.4			
3=secondary s	14.5	8.2	-			
4=high s	8.7	6.1	34.6			
5=university	-	-	50.0			
Mean	2.07 ^a	1.82 ^a	4.19 ^b	67.64 ^{**}	.49	
Min-Max	1 - 4	1 - 4	2 - 5			
Husband Education Status%						
1=literate	14.5	12.0	-			
2=primary	59.4	64.0	3.8			
3=secondary	17.4	12.0	7.7			
4=high	8.7	12.0	38.5			
5=university	-	-	50.0			
Mean	2.20 ^a	2.24 ^a	4.35 ^b	74.45 ^{**}	.51	
Min-Max	1 - 4	1 - 4	2 - 5			
Years Married						
Mean	17.45 ^a	16.58 ^a	18.81 ^a			
Min-Max	6 - 40	4 - 38	8 - 42			
Number of Children						
Mean	2.62 ^a	2.86 ^a	1.73 ^b	6.39 [*]	.083	
Min-Max	1 - 7	1 - 8	1 - 6			

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

Table 3.1 (Continued)

	Per. FG/SC	Per. Non FG/SC	Central District	F	Partial η^2	χ^2
Years in İstanbul %						$\chi^2(12)$ =49.29**
1 = less than 1 year	-	4.0	-			
2 = 1 - 3 years	1.4	6.0	-			
3 = 3 - 5 years	2.9	10.0	-			
4 = 5 -10 years	15.9	16.0	7.7			
5 = 10-20 years	33.3	32.0	-			
6 = 20-30 years	21.7	14.0	7.7			
7 = more than 30 years	24.6	18.0	84.6			
Mode	5	5	7			
Min-Max	2 - 7	1 - 7	4 - 7			
Work Status of Wife %						$\chi^2(6)$ =38.28**
1 = not earning money	39.7	66.0	38.1			
2 = earning money via producing handiworks or working time to time	39.7	28.0	9.5			
3 = employed, do not have social security	11.8	6.0	9.5			
4= employed, have social security	8.8	-	42.9			
Mode	1	1	4			
Work Status of Husband %						$\chi^2(8)$ =31.23**
1 = unemployed						
2 = retired and unemployed at the moment	31.8	20.0	-			
3 = employed but do not have social security	9.1	8.0	8.3			
4 = employed, have social security	22.7	38.0	12.5			
5 = retired but employed at the moment	36.4	32.0	62.5			
	-	2.0	16.7			
Mode	4	3	4			
Kind of Marriage %						$\chi^2(4)$ =20.29**
Civil marriage = 1	10.1	2.0	34.6			
Religious marriage= 2	2.9	8.0	-			
Civil & Rel. = 3	87.0	90.0	65.4			
Mode	3	3	3			
Religious Denomination %						
Hanefi = 1	66.7	64.0	88.5			
Alevi = 2	21.7	14.0	3.8			
Şafi = 3	5.8	14.0	3.8			
Alevi-Hanefi Marriage = 4	1.4	2.0	3.8			
Şii = 5	2.9	6.0	-			
Do not know= 6	1.4	-	-			
Mode	1	1	1			

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

Manage family budget, maintain harmony and peace in the family, contribute to family budget and take care of children and husband loaded to the second factor, named managerial duties of women. This factor had an eigenvalue of 1.14, and explained 20 % of the variance. In the light of the reliability analysis, the item 'contribute to family budget was excluded. Alpha coefficient for reliability of a scale based on this factor was .64.

The exploratory factor analysis of the items on duties of men in family revealed the presence of two dimensions ([KMO] = .753). Providing for the family, upkeep and protection of the family, and making decisions on family related issues loaded the first factor named Gender Stereotypic Duties of Men, with an eigenvalue of 3.0, and explaining 39 % of the variance. Alpha coefficient for reliability of a scale based on this factor was .79. Decide about division of labor among family members, and control manners and activities of women and girls in the family loaded to the second factor named Male Dominance, with an eigenvalue of 1.11, explaining 30 % of the variance. Alpha coefficient for reliability of a scale based on this factor was .76.

A household appliance ownership measure was constructed using z score transformations of responses (0= none, 1= second hand, 2=first hand) for ownership of items such as refrigerator, no-frost refrigerator, washing machine, dishwasher, TV, phone, mobile phone and personal computer, the items were adapted from Veri Araştırma (2000). Z score transformations were used because these reflected the relative position of each respondent in comparison to other participants in the sample with respect to item ownership. The index was found to be reliable ($\alpha = .76$).

Other measures such as, taking husband's view into consideration, taking wife's view into consideration, division of labor, strain with spouse, dominance in decision making, strain with child, common activities, frequency of talking about different topics, contribution to decision making, perceived control over child's life, perceived control over own life, self evaluation as mother, self evaluation as housewife, self evaluation as spouse were measured by related scales. The reliability values of scales are presented in Table 3.2. As may be seen in Table 3.4, reliabilities were generally satisfactory, alpha values ranged between .72 and .90, the average alpha was 80.84.

3.3. Tests for Normality Assumptions

In order to meet the normality assumption, some of the variables exhibiting extreme positive or negative skewness, were transformed following Tabachnick and Fidell's (2001) recommendations. The variables with positive skewness; division of labor, relative economical conditions, common activities, monthly income, managerial duties of women, and gender stereotypic duties of men were logarithmically transformed. Since the variables years of residence in İstanbul, frequency of talking about different topics and contribution to decision making exhibited negative skewness, they were reflected before logarithmic transformations⁴. Skewness values of the variables before and after transformations are presented in Table 3.3.

⁴ The variables with extreme skewness were subjected to both square root and logarithmic transformations. However, the frequency histograms revealed that logarithmic transformations functioned better.

Table 3.2. Reliabilities of the scales

Scale	Reliability of the scale (α)
Strain with spouse	.86
Frequency of talking about different topics	.79
Contribution to decision-making	.90
Taking husband's view into consideration	.72
Taking wife's view into consideration	.80
Division of labor	.73
Self evaluation as mother	.89
Self evaluation as housewife	.78
Self evaluation as spouse	.76
Perceived control over (own) life	.85
Perceived control over child's life	.86
Strain with child	.81
Appliance ownership	.76
Gender stereotypic duties of women	.71
Managerial duties of women	.64
Gender stereotypic duties of men	.79
Male Dominance	.76
Attitudes towards women's participation in labor market	.75

Table 3.3. Skewness values of the transformed variables

Variable	Skewness (Untransformed)	Skewness (Transformed)
Division of labor	.42	-.14
Relative economical conditions	.48	-.46
Common activities	.68	.02
Monthly income	11.46	1.73
Years of residence in İstanbul	-.75	.10
Frequency of talking about different topics	-.55	.29
Contribution to decision making	-.83	.66
Managerial duties of women	.98	.061
Gender stereotypic duties of men	.63	-.037

3.4. Testing for Interview Effects

The first interviewer interviewed 60 of the 119 women living in relatively poor and peripheral districts, and 26 women living outside the poor districts of Kadıköy. The second interviewer interviewed 59 of the 119 women living in poor and peripheral neighborhoods. Interviewer effect was tested by a one-way multivariate analysis where 37 measures served as dependent variables and interviewer served as the between participant variable. Analyses were performed through SPSS GLM. The multivariate effect of interviewer was significant; $F(37, 37) = 3.78$ $p < .05$ $\eta^2 = .79$, for Wilks' criterion. Univariate analyses revealed significant effects for six measures namely, contribution to decision process, common activities, self evaluation as a mother, self evaluation as a housewife, gender stereotypic duties of women, and male dominance. Means and univariate F values are presented in Table 3.4. Women interviewed by the first interviewer

had higher scores for their contribution to decision process, than women interviewed by the second interviewer. Moreover, they received higher scores for both self-evaluation as mother, and as housewife than women interviewed by the second interviewer. Participants interviewed by the first interviewer mentioned a higher number of common activities with their spouse than women interviewed by the second interviewer. Finally, attitudes of the participants, who were interviewed by the second interviewer, were more favorable towards gender stereotypic duties of women, and male dominance. Considering that the further analyses would be based on the pair-wise correlations of the variables, two separate correlation matrices were computed using data from women living in poor districts interviewed either by the first or the second interviewers. Women living in wealthier districts interviewed by the first interviewer were excluded from these analyses. Thus, inter-correlations between 44 variables were computed separately for the data collected by the two interviewers resulting in 1892⁵ correlations. Correlations between each pair of measures emerging in the two correlation matrices were compared using Fisher's Z test for testing significant differences between correlations for independent samples. Only 20 out of 946⁶ pairs of correlations (2.12%) were significantly different from each other.

3.5. Comparison of Women with Respect to Measures Related to Family SES and Family Processes

A MANOVA was performed comparing the three groups of women. The dependent variables were: education level of women and husbands, ownership of

⁵ $[(43 \times 44) \times 2] = 1892$

⁶ $[(43 \times 44) / 2] = 946$

household appliances, monthly family income and relative economic conditions, perceived control over (own) life, perceived control over child's life, strain with

Table 3.4 Means and univariate F values associated with interviewer effects

	Mean Values		
Measures	Interviewer (1)	Interviewer (2)	F (1,73)
Contribution to Decision Process	.89	.91	7.63**
Self evaluation as Mother ⁷	1.74	2.12	14.03***
Self evaluation as Housewife ²	1.83	2.13	11.25**
Common (Leisure) Activities	.32	.21	7.85**
Gender stereotypic duties of women	2.85	2.27	6.99*
Male dominance	5.17	3.27	43.44***

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

child, self evaluation as mother, self evaluation as spouse, and self evaluation as housewife, contribution to decision-making, division of labor, taking husband's view into consideration, and dominance in decision making, strain with spouse, frequency of talking about different topics, taking wife's view into consideration, and common activities. The independent variable was group membership ((1) women living in peripheral districts and in touch with FG/SC, (2) women living in the same districts but not in touch with FG/SC, (3) women living in central and relatively wealthy neighborhoods of Kadiköy). Analyses were performed through SPSS GLM⁸.

⁷ A lower mean value revealed a more positive perception of performance in the related role.

⁸ Prior to analysis the variables were examined for missing values, accuracy of data, univariate and multivariate outliers, multivariate normality, linearity, singularity and multicollinearity. The assumptions were met.

A significant multivariate effect of group membership emerged, $F(38, 168) = 5,18$ $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .54$ according to Wilks' criterion.

Univariate analysis revealed significant effects for all the dependent variables except for self evaluation as housewife, division of labor, dominance in decision making, taking husband's view into consideration, and taking wife's view into consideration. The univariate F values and effect sizes are presented in Table 3.5.

Comparison of group means revealed that, women living in central districts of Kadıköy reported significantly higher level of education (for both wives and husbands), more appliance ownership; higher monthly family income and superior relative economic conditions; reported higher perceived control over own and child's life, and better self evaluation as mother and spouse; greater contribution to decision-making than the two groups of women living in peripheral districts of Kadıköy, regardless of whether the latter two groups were or not in touch with FG/SC. Besides, the women in central districts had significantly lower levels of strain with spouse and child than women living in peripheral districts. Moreover, mean values revealed that, women living in central districts performed significantly more common activities with their husbands than those living in peripheral districts. In addition, women living in central districts reported higher frequency of talking about different topics with their husband, than the women living in peripheral and in touch with FG/SC. However, there were no significant differences between women living in central districts and the ones living in peripheral districts but not in touch with FG/SC, with respect to frequency of talking about different topics with their husbands.

Women living in peripheral districts and in touch with FG/SC exhibited no significant difference from the women living in the same area but not in touch with FG/SC with respect to any of these family process variables.

Table 3.5. Means, F values and Effect Sizes of Family Process Measures

	Per. FG/SC	Per. Non FG/SC	Central District			
Dependent Variable	Mean/ SD	Mean/ SD	Mean/ SD	F (2,102)	p	η^2
Education level of women	2.14/.88	1.72/.98	4.21/1.10	50.194	.001	.50
Education level of husbands	2.21/.76	2.20/.91	4.33/.81	63.78	.001	.56
Appliance ownership	1.13/.37	1.12/.35	1.90/.18	49.11	.001	.49
Monthly family income	2.55/.25	2.62/.26	3.44/.47	71.15	.001	.58
Relative economic conditions	.37/.15	.38/.11	.48/.10	6.89	.005	.12
Perceived control over (own) life	2.29/.56	2.41/.60	3.13/.54	18.78	.001	.27
Perceived control over child's life	2.61/.56	2.61/.81	3.37/.45	14.55	.001	.22
Self evaluation as mother	1.91/.40	1.95/.55	1.457/.37	10.78	.001	.18
Self evaluation as spouse	2.06/.43	2.01/.43	1.06/.43	9.76	.001	.16
Contribution to decision-making	.90/.03	.91/.03	.89/.02	5.30	.01	.09
Strain with spouse	2.70/.54	2.78/.59	3.24/.40	8.90	.001	.15
Strain with child	2.55/.37	2.55/.85	3.29/.62	15.16	.001	.23
Frequency of talking about different topics	.69/.06	.68/.06	.65/.04	3.42	.05	.06
Common activities	.28/.18	.25/.19	.52/.11	19.99	.001	.28

Per. FG/SC= women living in peripheral districts and in touch with FG/SC

Per. Non-FG/SC= women living in peripheral districts and not in touch with FG/SC

Central District= women living in central districts

3.6. Comparison of women with respect to attitudes towards spousal roles

Correlations between attitudes related to gender roles and education of wife, education of husband, years of residence in İstanbul, city development index value, monthly family income and appliance ownership were computed. As seen in table 3.6, significant correlations emerged between education and urbanization levels and attitudes.

Table. 3.6 Correlations among observed variables related to attitudes towards family roles

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Years in İstanbul								
Place of residence	.33**							
City value index	-.46**	.88**						
Income	-.34**	.42**	.51**					
Gender stereotypic duties of men	-.26**	.26**	.34**	.31**				
Male dominance	-.12	.04	.02	.18*	.39**			
Gender stereotypic duties of women	-.35**	.37**	.40**	.34**	.61**	.45**		
Managerial duties of women	-.27**	.09	.20*	.27**	.41**	.23**	.43**	
Women's participation in labor market	.19*	-.26**	-.27**	-.31**	-.13	-.12	-.12	-.06

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level.

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level.

MANCOVA was performed where the dependent variables were attitudes toward gender stereotypic duties of women, managerial duties of women, gender stereotypic duties of men, male dominance and, women's participation in labor market. The independent variable was group membership ((1) women living in peripheral districts and in touch with FG/SC, (2) women living in the same districts but not in touch with FG/SC, (3) women living in central and relatively

wealthy neighborhoods of Kadiköy). Covariates were education of wife, education of husband, years of residence in İstanbul, city development index value monthly family income and appliance ownership. Analyses were performed through SPSS GLM⁹.

The combined DVs were significantly affected by group membership, $F(10, 232) = 4.988, p < .001, \eta^2 = .177$ according to Wilks' criterion.

Univariate analysis revealed that, after adjustment by covariates (education of wife, education of husband, years of residence in İstanbul, city development index value monthly family income and appliance ownership), attitudes toward gender stereotypic duties of women, male dominance, and women's participation in labor market varied significantly with group membership of women. The univariate F values and effect sizes are presented in table 3.7.

Comparison of groups means revealed that, women living in peripheral districts of Kadiköy, regardless of whether they were in touch with FG/SC ($M = 2.46$) or not ($M = 2.33$) showed more favorable attitudes toward traditional gender stereotypic duties of women than women living in central districts of Kadiköy ($M = 4.66$).

Similarly, women living in peripheral districts of Kadiköy, regardless of whether they were in touch with FG/SC ($M = 4.15$) or not ($M = 3.77$) showed more favorable attitudes toward male dominance than women living in central districts of Kadiköy ($M = 6.14$).

Finally, women living in peripheral districts of Kadiköy and in touch with FG/SC ($M = 2.03$), showed more favorable attitudes toward women's

⁹ Prior to analysis the variables were examined for missing values, accuracy of data, univariate and multivariate outliers, multivariate normality, linearity, singularity and multicollinearity. The assumptions were met.

participation in labor market than women living in the same area but not in touch with FG/SC ($M = 2.38$), and woman living in central districts of Kadiköy ($M = 2.44$). None of the covariates had significant effect.

Table 3.7. Means, F values and Effect Sizes of Attitudes toward Family Roles

	Per. FG/SC	Per. Non - FG/SC	Central District			
Dependent Variable	Mean/ SD	Mean/ SD	Mean/ SD	F (2, 120)	p	η^2
Att. toward gender stereotypic duties of women	2.47/ .92	2.33 / .81	4.66 /1.49	12.98	.000	.178
Att. toward male dominance	4.15 / 1.55	3.36 /1.67	6.14 /1.28	6.23	.003	.094
Att. toward women's participation in labor market	2.03 / .385	2.38 / .460	2.44 / .510	8.86	.00.	.129

Per. FG/SC= women living in peripheral districts and in touch with FG/SC

Per. Non-FG/SC= women living in peripheral districts and not in touch with FG/SC

Central District= women living in central districts

3.7. Model for Relationships between Background Measures, Mastery,

Family Processes and Self-evaluation

3.7.1. Model Testing for Relationships between Background Measures,

Mastery, Family Processes and Self-evaluation

It was hypothesized that the effects of SES on women's self evaluations in their mother, wife and housewife roles will be mediated by feeling of mastery and

spousal relations. The model associated with this hypothesis is given in Figure 3.1.

The model has 6 latent measures namely economic status, mastery, relational power, and warmth and equality, self-evaluation and education (exogenous variable), it was examined in two steps. In the first step, a measurement model was tested through confirmatory factor analysis, in order to test the degree to which measured variables served as measurement instruments for the causal latent variables. The correlations among the latent variables were also observed through this measurement model. In the second step, a number of structural models – including the hypothesized ones- were tested. The purpose of the second step analysis was to specify the relationships among the latent variables. All these analysis were performed through LISREL 8.03, and a bivariate correlation matrix was used as input.

3.7.2. Measurement Model for Relationships between Background Measures, Mastery, Family Processes and Self-evaluation

Table 3.8 (see Appendix A) exhibits the correlations among the observed variables. Generally, the indicators of the latent variables were highly correlated, various indicators of the same latent variable exhibited higher correlations with each other than they did with the indicators of the other latent variables, as expected.

As illustrated in Figure 3.2, the measurement model consisted of six latent constructs, which were represented in the figure by ellipses. The latent variables and their indicators were as follows:

Education. Education level of women and husbands were used as the observed variables of education ($\alpha = .83$).

Economic Status. Appliance ownership, monthly family income and relative economic conditions scores were utilized as the observed variables measuring status. The reliability of these three items was .71.

Mastery. Perceived control over own life, and perceived control over child's life were the indicators of mastery. The reliability of this latent variable was .81.

Self- evaluation. Self-evaluation as mother, self-evaluation as spouse, and self-evaluation as housewife were reliably measuring self-evaluation ($\alpha = .82$).

Relational power. Contribution to decision-making, division of labor, taking husband's view into consideration, and dominancy in decision making were the items of the latent variable; relational power. However, the reliability of this latent variable was not high ($\alpha = .58$).

Warmth and equality. Strain with spouse, frequency of talking about different topics, taking wife's view into consideration, and common activities were the items, which were measuring spousal relations. The reliability of this latent variable was .58.

When the measurement model tested, it was seen that, excluding the variables contribution to decision-making, and dominancy in decision making from the analysis, improved the fit of the model. As can be seen in Figure 3.2 all of the observed variables loaded significantly on the appropriate latent variables. Although the modification indices suggested significant correlated errors between SES and 'taking husband's view into consideration' in the model (Figure 3.2), these suggestions were not taken into consideration since there was no theoretical

reason supporting such a modification. The measurement model provided a good fit to the data; χ^2 (75, N= 145) =114.3, $p < .001$, GFI = .90, NNFI = .93, CFI = .95. Although the χ^2 statistics revealed significant differences between the observed and the estimated matrices, the χ^2 ratio of model was below the suggested 2:1 ratio.

Examination of the correlations among the latent variables showed that all of the correlations were in the expected direction. The correlations between the latent variables in the model are presented in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9 Correlation Matrix of Independent Variables

	Edu	Rel. pow.	Equality &warmth	Status	Mastery	Self-evaluation
Edu	1.00					
Rel.pow.	-0.13	1.00				
Equality &warmth	0.63	0.19	1.00			
Status	0.86	-0.11	0.57	1.00		
Mastery	0.76	-0.33	0.77	0.70	1.00	
Self evaluation	-0.47	-0.02	-0.68	-0.48	-0.52	1.00

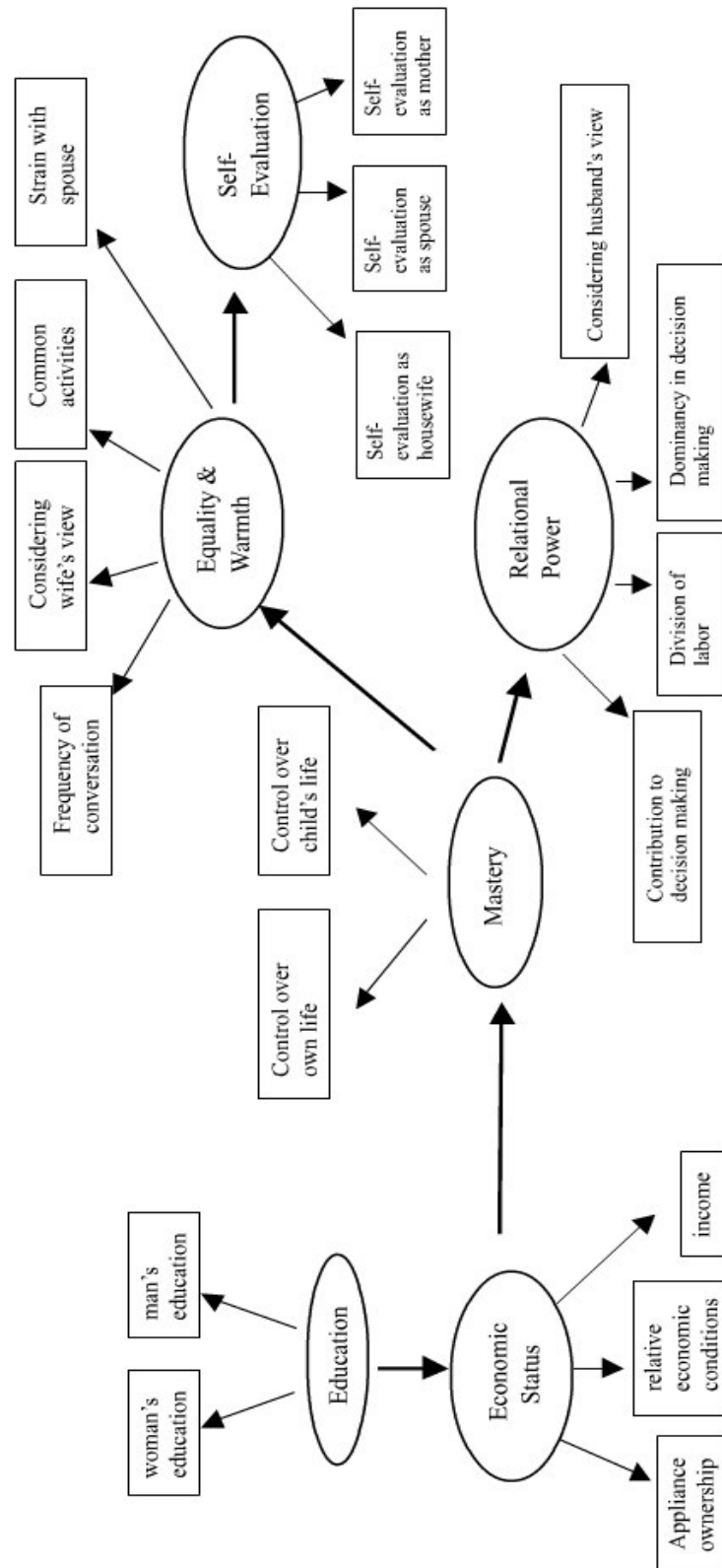
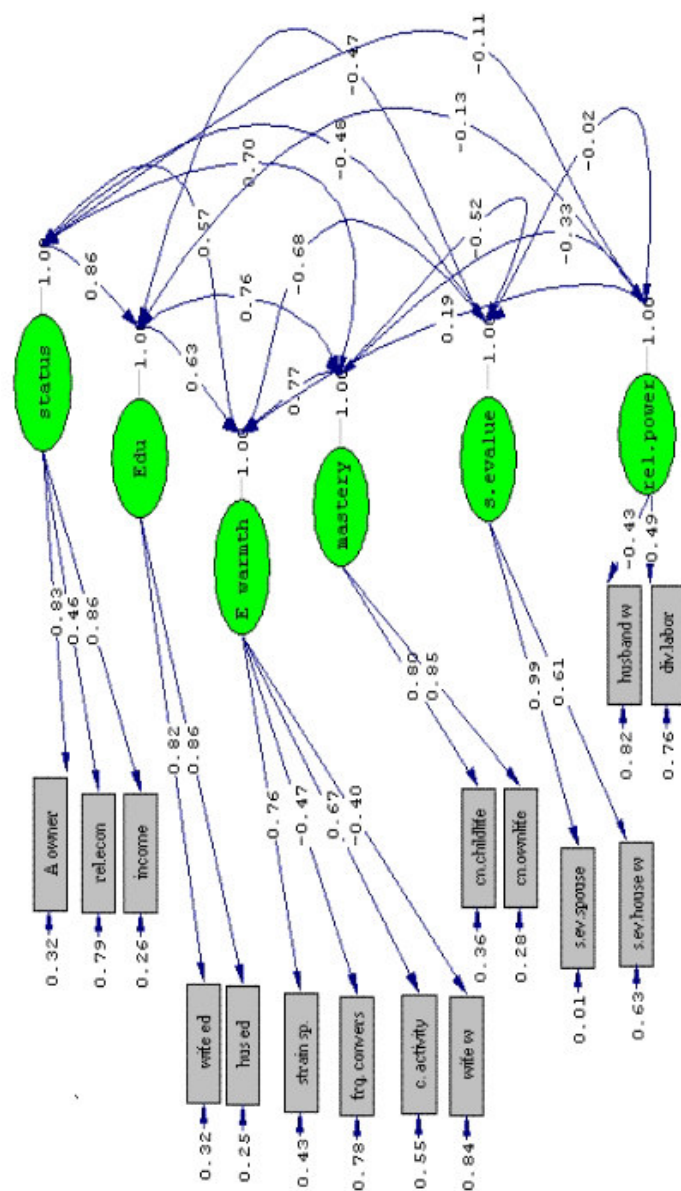


Figure 3.1 Hypothesized Model: Relation between background measures; mastery; family processes and self evaluation

3.7.3 The Structural Model for Relationships between Back-ground Measures, Mastery, Family Processes and Self-evaluation

Hypothesized structural model, given in Figure 3.3 was tested in this step. The model modification index suggested links between the latent variable ‘relational power’ and two observed variables, ‘monthly family income’ and ‘frequency of talking about different topics’. However, since such relationships were not in line with related theories and literature, the latent variable ‘relational power’ was excluded from the model. The final form of the structural model is given in Figure 3.4.

The independence model, which tests the hypothesis that all variables are uncorrelated, was easily rejected; $\chi^2 (78, N = 145) = 859.73$ $p < .01$. The hypothesized model was tested next, and support was found for it; $\chi^2 (61, N = 145) = 77.94$, $p = .071$, GFI = .92, CFI = .98, NNFI = .97, RMSEA = .047. Moreover, the χ^2 was less than two times the model degrees of freedom. The R^2 values revealed that education explained .81 of the variance in economical status, which in turn explained the .60 of the variance in mastery. .62 of the variance in warmth and equality was explained by mastery. Finally, warmth and equality was responsible for .49 of the variance in self-evaluation.



Chi-Square=116.07, df=75, p-value=0.00166, RMSEA=0.062

Figure 3.2 Measurement Model: Relation between background measures; mastery; family processes and self evaluation

3.8. Model for Relationships between Urbanization and Attitudes towards Spousal Roles

3.8.1 Model Testing for Relationships between Urbanization and Attitudes towards Spousal Roles

The model related to the hypothesis that, urbanization influences modern attitudes toward spousal roles positively and traditional attitudes toward spousal roles negatively is given in Figure 3.5. The model was examined in two steps. In the first step, a measurement model was tested through confirmatory factor analysis, in order to reveal how well the measured variables served as measurement instruments for the causal latent variables.

The correlations among the latent variables were also observed through this measurement model. In the following step, a hypothesized structural model was tested. The purpose of the second step analysis was to specify the relationships among the latent variables. All these analysis were performed through LISREL 8.03, and a bivariate correlation matrix was used as in-put.

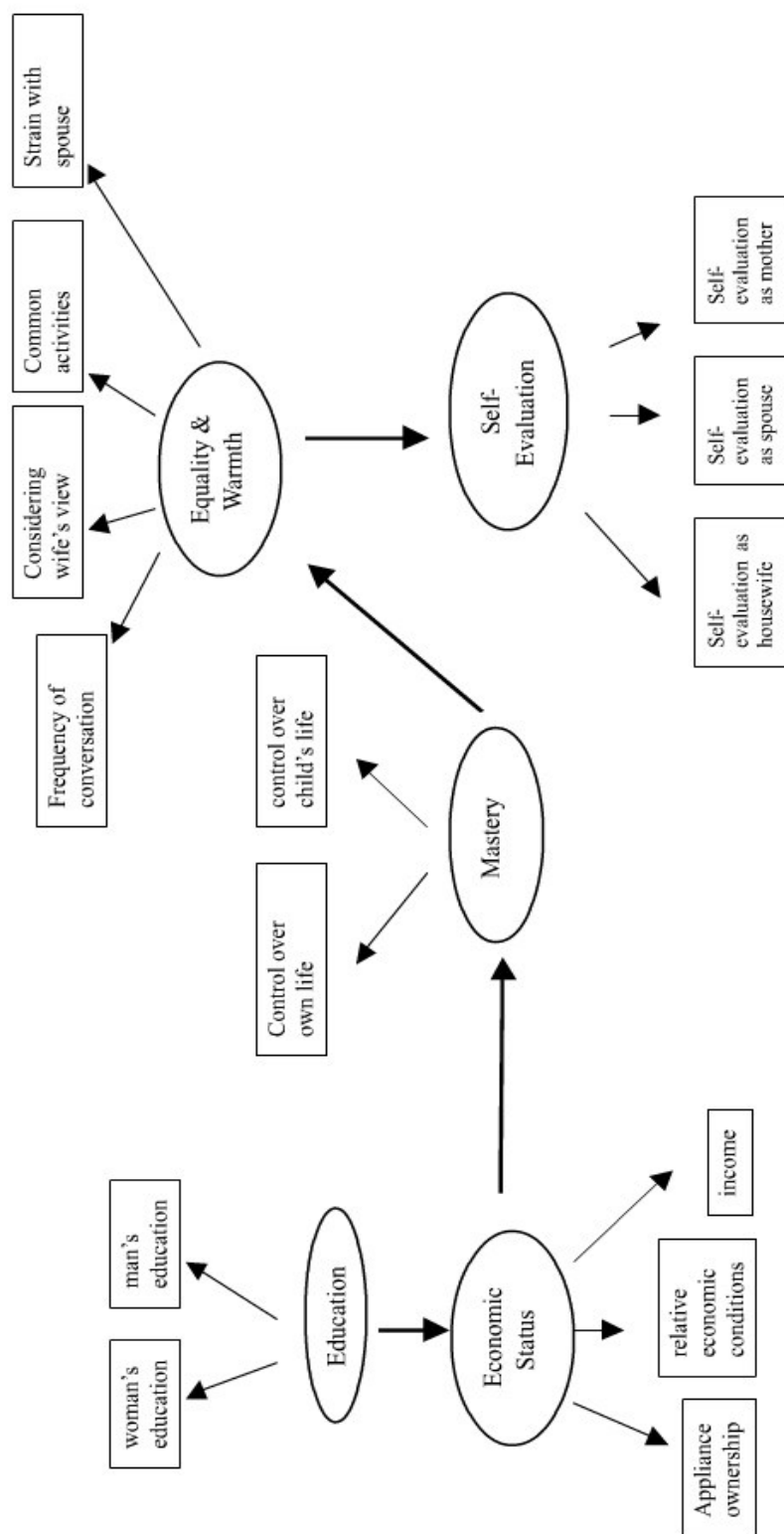
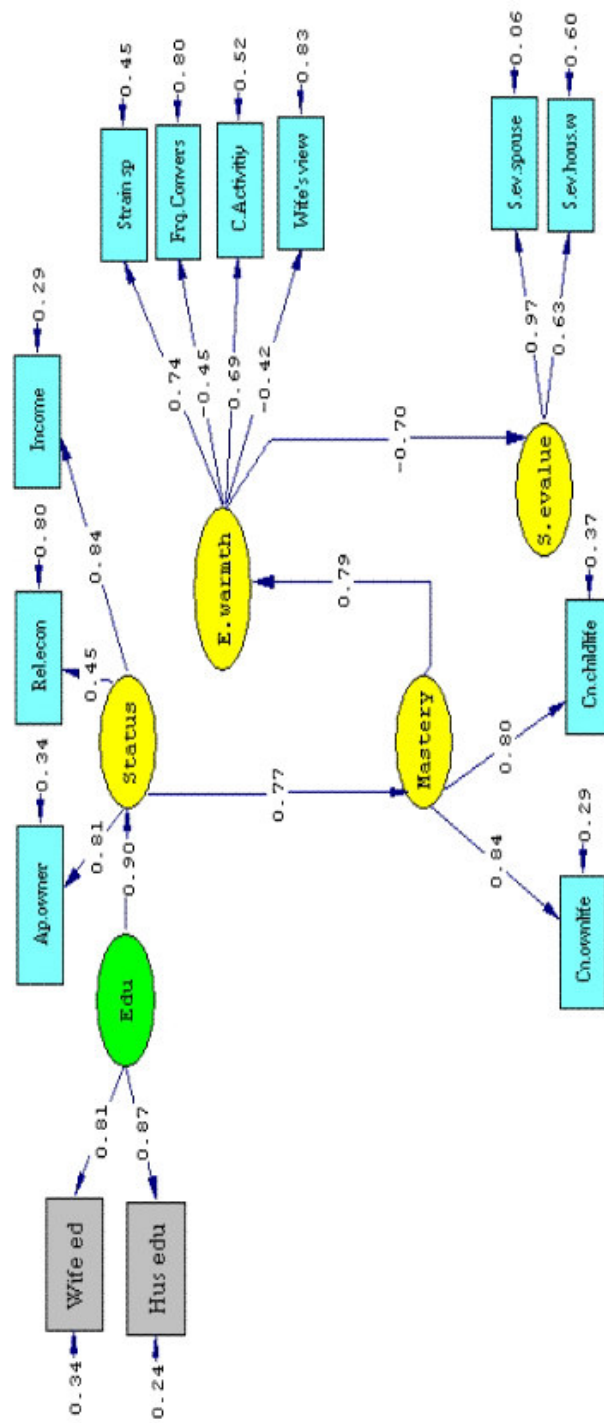


Figure 3.3 Hypothesized Structural Model: Relation between background measures; mastery; equality & warmth; family processes and self evaluation



Chi-Square=80.71, df=61, P-value=0.04642, RMSEA=0.047

Figure 3.4 Structural Model: Relation between background measures; mastery; family processes and self evaluation

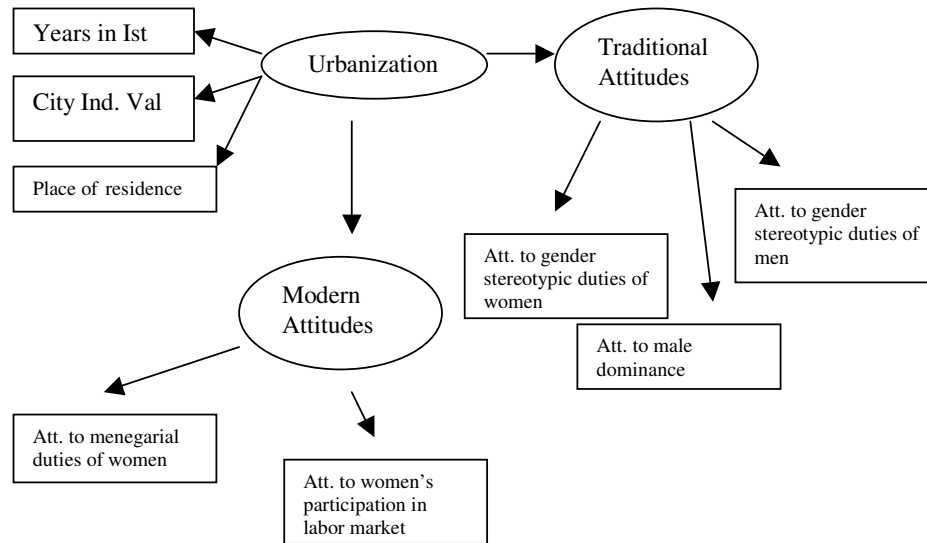


Figure. 3.5 Hypothesized Model: Effects of urbanization on attitudes towards spousal roles

3.8.2 Measurement Model for Relationships between Urbanization and Attitudes towards Spousal Roles

The hypothesized model consisted of three latent constructs, which were represented in the figure by ellipses (Figure 3.5). The latent variables and their indicators were as follows:

Urbanization. Years of residence in Istanbul, place of previous residences and city development index value (DPT, 1996) were determined as the observed variables of urbanization. The reliability of these three items was .72.

Traditional Attitudes. Scales of attitudes toward traditional gender stereotypic duties of woman, traditional gender stereotypic duties of man, and dominancy

indicating duties of man were the observed variables of traditional attitudes. The reliability of these items was .74.

Modern Attitudes. Scales of attitudes toward managerial duties of women and women's participation in labor market were the observed variables of modern attitudes. The reliability of these items was .24, therefore this latent variable excluded from further analysis.

Furthermore, as can be seen in figure 3.6, the observed variable city development index value did not load to the related latent variable urbanization, thus it was also excluded from the model. A revised model was adapted.

Table 3.10 exhibits the correlations among the observed variables. Generally, the indicators of the latent variables were highly correlated as expected.

Table. 3.10. Correlation matrix to be analyzed for relationship between urbanization and attitudes

	1	2	3	4	5
Male Dominance	1.00				
Gender stereotypic duties of men	0.39	1.00			
Gender stereotypic duties of women	0.45	0.61	1.00		
Years of residence in Istanbul	-0.12	-0.26	-0.35	1.00	
Place of previous residences	0.04	0.26	0.37	-0.33	1.00

The measurement model provided a good fit to the data; χ^2 (4, N= 138) = 6.68, $p = .15$, GFI = .98, NNFI = .95, CFI = .98. More over, the χ^2 ratio of model was below the suggested 2:1 ratio.

The correlations among the latent variables are presented in Table 3.11.

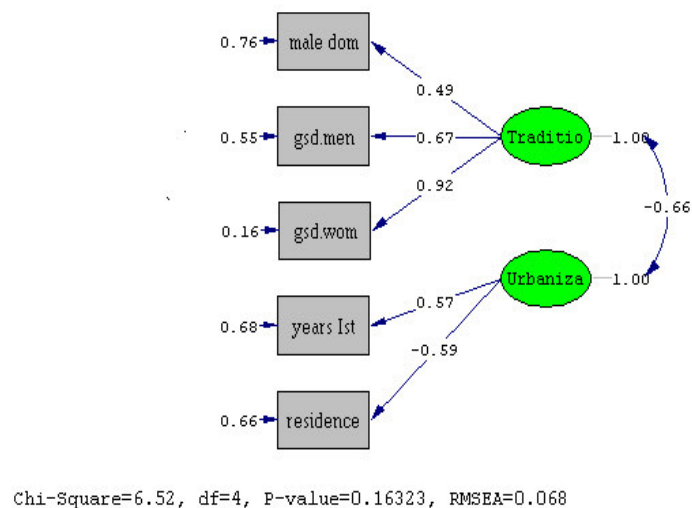


Figure 3.6. Measurement Model: Effects of urbanization on attitudes towards spousal roles

Table. 3.11. Correlation Matrix of Independent Variables related to Attitudes

	Gelenek	Urban
Gelenek	1.00	
Urban	-0.66 (0.11) -5.96	1.00

3.8.3 The Structural Model for Relationships between Urbanization and Attitudes towards Spousal Roles

The revised hypothesized structural model (given in Figure 3.7.) was tested in this step. The model modification index suggested no modifications. The independence model, which tests the hypothesis that all variables are uncorrelated, was easily rejected; $\chi^2 (10, N = 138) = 148.70$ $p < .01$. The hypothesized model was tested next, and support was found for it; $\chi^2 (4, N = 138) = 6.68$, $p = .15$, GFI = .98, NNFI = .95, CFI = .98. Moreover, the χ^2 ratio of models was below the suggested 2:1 ratio. The final structural model is given in Figure 3.7. Urbanization was responsible for the .44 of the variance in traditional attitudes.

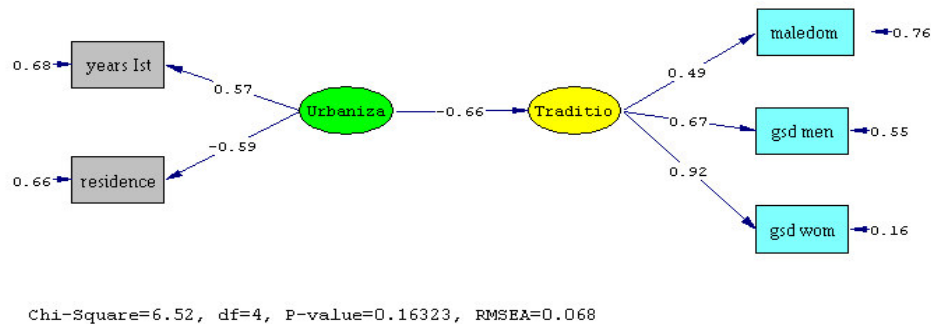


Figure 3.7. Structural Model: Effects of urbanization on attitudes towards spousal roles

3.9. Effects of Family Guidance / Solidarity Center

3.9.1. Differentiation in the Attitudes of Women

In order to see whether being in touch with FG/SC caused any differentiation in the attitudes of women, with five dependent variables a MANCOVA was performed. The dependent variables were; attitudes toward gender stereotypic duties of women, managerial duties of women, gender stereotypic duties of men, male dominance and finally, women's participation in labor market. The independent variable was being in touch with FG/SC ((1) women living in peripheral districts and in touch with FG/SC, (2) women living in the same districts but not in touch with FG/SC). Covariates were education of wife, education of husband, years of residence in İstanbul, city development index value monthly family income and appliance ownership. Analyses were performed through SPSS GLM¹⁰.

With the use of Wilks' criterion, the combined DVs were significantly affected by group membership, $F(5, 92) = 3.60, p < .005$. Strength of the relationship between the combined DVs and being in touch with FG/SC was $\eta^2 = .163$.

Univariate analysis revealed that, after adjustment by covariates (education of wife, education of husband, years of residence in İstanbul, city development index value monthly family income and appliance ownership), attitudes toward women's participation in labor market, varied significantly with being in touch with FG/SC, with a univariate $F(1, 96) = 14.71, p < .001, \eta^2 = .13$

¹⁰ Prior to analysis the variables were examined for missing values, accuracy of data, univariate and multivariate outliers, multivariate normality, linearity, singularity and multicollinearity. The assumptions were met.

The adjusted marginal means pointed out that, women living in peripheral districts of Kadiköy and in touch with FG/SC ($\underline{M} = 2.14$), showed more favorable attitudes toward women's participation in labor market than women living in the same area but not in touch with FG/SC ($\underline{M} = 2.49$)

None of the covariates was significantly associated with the dependent variables.

3.9.2. Women's evaluations on FG/SC

70 of the women living in peripheral districts of Kadiköy were in touch with FG/SC of the municipality. 78% mentioned that, they were attending the programs and/or courses offered by the center, regularly. The distribution of women according to their length of attendance to the center is given in Table 3.12.

Table 3.12. Distribution of women according to their length of attendance to the center

Length of attendance to FG/SC	Percent (%)
1-3 months	1.4
3-6 months	5.8
6 months-1 year	10.1
1year –3 years	24.6
3-5 years	11.6
more than 5 years	46.4

Whenever asked to evaluate the effects of FG/SC on their lives, 97 % of the women mentioned that the center was beneficial (Table 3.13). Besides, 90% cited that their lives changed after they attended to the center.

Table. 3.13 Distribution of women according to their evaluations on FG/SC

Evaluation of FG/SC	Percent (%)
Very beneficial	55
Beneficial	42
Not beneficial	3
Not at all beneficial	-

Table. 3.14 Mentioned benefits of the center

Kind of received benefit	Very true	True	Not true	Not at all true
Attend to educational seminars	46	50	1	3
Attend to occupational training	20	20	46	14
Attend to literacy courses	10	9	59	22
Receive material help (food, fuel, medicine etc.)	36	53	7	4
Utilize health services	34	49	13	4
See counsel	26	45	26	3

The women cited many benefits of the center (Table. 3.14), such as receiving education through courses on literacy, city life, communication skills, health and home economy; “I can telephone, I can write a telephone number. Going outside the house, going someplace alone became easier. I can call/ visit my relatives now” (Telefon edebiliyorum. Telefon numarasını yazabiliyorum. Evden çıkmam, tek başıma biryere gitmem kolaylaştı. Akrabalarımı artık arayabiliyorum), “They taught how to shop in the market, childrearing, how to organize spousal relations. It had benefits” (pazarda alışveriş yapmayı, çocuk eğitimi, eşle ilişkileri düzenlemeyi anlattılar, faydası oldu), “They were nice to us. They taught to us housework, cleaning, nutrition, how to behave toward your spouse, how to behave toward your child” (bize iyi davrandılar, evin işini, temizliği, beslenmeyi, beyine nasıl davranıyorsun, çocuğa nasıl davranıyorsun anlattılar), “They taught home economics, I benefited very much....now, I can communicate with my environment” (ev ekonomisi ve kadın sağlığı anlattılar, çok yararlandım....çevreyle iletişim kuruyorum artık)

I attended literacy courses. I learned what was what. I learned where to go, how to get on the bus. Before, I could not go any place. Now I can go by my self. Everything about me changed after I started attending FG/SC. I was dead ignorant, I did not know anything, if you do not learn anything it is no good you live in İstanbul. You do not know any thing, I learned everything here; consumer rights, baby care, housework, everything.

(Okuma yazma kurslarına katıldım. Neyin ne olduğunu öğrendim, gideceğim yeri, otobüsün nereye gideceğini öğrendim. Eskiden hiçbir yere gidemiyordum, şimdi kendim gidebiliyorum”. ADM ne gelmeye başlayınca herşeyim değişti. Cahildim körkütük hiçbirşey bilmiyordum. İstanbul’da durmuşsun neye yarar bir şey öğrenmedikçe, hiçbirşey bilmezsin, ben burda herşeyi

öğrendim; tüketici haklarını, bebek bakımını, ev işlerini herşeyi öğrendim).

Furthermore, women stated that, as a result of the occupational skills they got, through the courses provided by the center, they gained financial freedom and self-confidence; “I learned how to open and operate a work place.... they provided work for me. I had financial freedom. My self-confidence increased. When I decide to by something, when I place my child in a school, I can rely on my income” (Bir işyeri nasıl açılır, işletilir öğrendim.... Bana iş sağladılar. Maddi konuda özgürlüğüm oldu. Kendime güvenim arttı; bir şey almaya karar verirken, çocuğumu okula yazdırırken gelirim oluşuna güveniyorum), “Of course my life changed after I came to FG/SC. I started to work. I had economic freedom. I developed myself both economically and socially. I could not even get on a minibus on my self, my self-confidence increased” (ADM ne gelmemle hayatımda tabii ki değişiklik oldu. Çalışmaya başladım; ekonomik özgürlüğüm oldu. Hem ekonomik hem sosyal açıdan kendimi geliştirdim. Ben tek başıma minibüse bile binmezdim, kendime güvenim arttı), “at least in the parent-child education course I learned how to conduct my job. ...after I came here my life changed a lot. We learned about society, we learned that we were a useful/ worthy member of society” (En azından anne-çocuk eğitimi kursunda yaptığım işi nasıl yürüteceğimi öğrendim. Buraya gelmemle yaşamımda çok değişme oldu. Toplumu tanıdık, kendimizin de topluma yararlı bir insan olduğumuzu öğrendik),

Because of FG/SC, I now have a job. I got to know a different environment and more people. My confidence in myself increased. It is very important for me to have an occupation, a job. A person feels more secure, you believe that you can do something and produce some things, it is very important for me.

(ADM sayesinde en azından şu anda bir işim oldu, daha farklı bir çevre ve daha çok insan tanıdım, kendime güvenim arttı. Benim için bir mesleğimin, işimin olması çok önemli. İnsan kendini daha güvende hissediyor, birşeyler yapabileceğinize, birşeyler ürettiğinize inanıyorsunuz, bu benim için çok önemli).

Moreover, the women mentioned that, their views also influenced and changed with their attendance to the center and meeting volunteer women working there; “I benefited from here. I learned enlightened views” (Buranın yararını gördüm. Aydın görüşlülük öğrendim), “Before we came here we were behind the times. My eyes became open. I felt better. Seeing women increased my self-confidence” (Buraya gelmeden önce daha geri kafalıydık, bayağı açıldı beynimiz. Gözüm açıldı, kendimi daha iyi hissettim. Kadınları görmek kendime güvenimi arttırdı). Besides, they often stated that they feel more secure and comfortable as a result of the help and material resources provided by the center; “I received coal and food help in my direst day. It affected my life both morally and economically. I feel more comfortable” (En sıkıntılı günümde kömür, yiyecek yardımı oldu. Yaşamımda maddi manevi etkisi oldu. Kendimi daha rahat hissediyorum), “After I started coming here, my husband left his job. If it were not for here, we would be financially ruined” (Eşim buraya gelmeye başladıktan sonra işten çıktı, burası olmasa parasal olarak yanmıştık). When the relation of length of attendance and evaluation of received benefits is examined, no significant relation could be found.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

Based on The Systems Theory perspective, it was predicted that, educational achievement would influence economic conditions; economic conditions would affect women's mastery, which, in turn, would determine spousal relations and decision-making. Finally, spousal relations would influence perception of performance as mother, spouse and housewife. In order to test this hypothesized set of relationships; a measurement model concerning the relationships between measured and labeled variables was tested first.

Interesting findings emerged in the examination of the measurement model, the above expectation. One point to note was that, education and economic status were two separate but related latent variables, rather than a single one. This finding is somewhat inconsistent with general practice of including both education and economic power within the same construct, generally labeled SES. The emergence of two separate latent variables might be specific to current conditions in Turkey, where education might not be directly related to economic achievement. Although education emerges as a predictor of economic position, it is possible that, there may be other predictors such as, family of origin wealth, and social capital originating from network connections. These findings might question the current practice of equating SES with education within the current psychological research in Turkey.

Examination of the measurement model revealed that self-evaluation as mother did not load significantly on the latent variable Self-evaluation, whereas self-evaluation as spouse and housewife did. It is possible that, in the modernizing Turkish family, spousal and parental spheres do not constitute parts of the same whole. As urbanization and modernization literature argues (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1985; 2002), spousal intimacy is an aspect of marriage, which gains importance with urbanization and separation of nuclear and extended families. This might be especially true, in the case of women. Research shows that, the mother child relationship is the primary parental relationship, which shows least variation according to culture and time, whereas the father-child relationship shows more variation over time. Research also reveals that father's involvement with child affects women's positive feelings towards their husbands whereas fathers' relationships with their children depends on their relationships with their wives. In other words, women seem to love men who are good to their children, whereas men love the offspring of women who are good to them (Palkovitz, 1996).

Research on family views equality, interdependence, conflict, division of labor, and decision-making as components of spousal subsystem (Bradbury et al. 2000; Gill et al. 1999; Kirchler, 2000; Rusbult et al. 1994). Results of our measurement model revealed two separate latent variables related to marital subsystem. Frequency of conversation, considering wife's view, common activities, and strain with spouse loaded on the first latent variable named warmth and equality. Contribution to decision making, division of labor, dominancy in decision making and considering husband's view loaded on the second latent variable named relational power. The two dimensions relate to warmth and power,

were consistent with Kirchler et al.'s (2000) conceptualization of vertical and horizontal dimensions of spousal relations. It was noted that taking wife's and husband's views into consideration were parts of different constructs, considering women's view was part of a group of measures related to equality and internal dependence, where as considering husband's view was part of a group related to relational power.

Testing of fit of data to the above model, revealed partial support for the hypothesized set of relations. As expected, economic conditions influenced mastery. This finding is consistent with Cassidy and Davies' findings based on a Canadian sample. Although our sample consisted only of women, Cassidy and Davies (2003) revealed that socio- economic conditions are the primary determinant of feelings of control for both men and women and once this factor was controlled, gender differences disappeared. Therefore, it is possible that the relationship between status and mastery may also be true for men. Ross (1991) also argued that economic conditions are more important than spousal relations for both men's and women's sense of control. In short, both our and Cassidy and Davies' (2003) results support Stephanie's (2000) assertion that SES constitutes the ground on which long term options and vulnerabilities are based.

The second part of the hypothesized model predicted that the feelings of mastery would influence the relational power and warmth and equality. Although Cassidy and Davies (2003) construed the relationship between mastery and spousal relations in the opposite direction, Ross (1991) showed that power influenced spousal relationships rather than vice versa. The results of the LISREL

analysis provided support for the predicted causal relation between mastery and warmth and equality, but not for the link between mastery and relational power.

One possible explanation for the lack of relationship between mastery and relational power may be that, relational power, of which decision-making process is an important component, in Turkish family is role based. Hortaçsu (1999) showed that, both division of labor and decision processes were inline with traditional roles and were not significant predictors for spousal relations (Hortaçsu, 1999). Therefore, it is possible that relational power is part of the cultural script and not related to personal and relational factors. Warmth and equality on the other hand may be more relation specific and therefore may be influenced by the feelings of the individuals involved in the relationship. Such an argument is also consistent with Kwon et al.'s (2003) data as well as with Conger and Elder's (1994), Family Stress Model, which asserts that personal feelings of anxiety mediate between economic conditions and spousal relations. Although Conger and Elder do not include feelings of mastery and control in their model, research has demonstrated that anxiety and control are highly related and that lack of control affects anxiety level (Ross, 1991).

As predicted, warmth and equality positively predicted self-evaluation of adequacy in the roles of housewife and spouse. This is consistent with the system theory assumptions concerning the interplay between spousal and individual subsystems. In fact, the whole model is related to interplay between systems at different levels; such that, a macro context variable, economic status, influences an individual level variable (mastery), which influences a dyadic system (warmth and equality), the dyadic system in turn, influences individual's self evaluation.

My second expectation was concerned with the relationship between urbanization and attitudes of women about spousal roles within the family. The measurement model revealed that, measures related to attitudes about spousal roles constituted a separate factor. This latent variable, traditional attitudes, included gender stereotypic duties of both men and women together with male dominance. This composition represented attitudes in line with the traditional patriarchal Turkish family. However, unexpectedly, attitudes towards women's participation in labor market and less patriarchal managerial duties of women did not significantly loaded to the latent variable, modern attitudes. In addition, although the measurement model included city index value under the latent variable urbanization, this measure did not emerge as a significant component of urbanization. It is possible that the high correlation between city index value and place of residence is responsible for this finding ($r = .88$).

As predicted, urbanization was negatively related to traditional attitudes. This was consistent with Kağıtçıbaşı (1982; 1985) and Hortaçsu' s (2000) findings and assertions that urbanization causes change in, role definitions, relationship patterns, values and attitudes related to the family.

Comparison of the three groups of women with respect to attitudes towards spousal roles and women's participation to labor market revealed that, women living in peripheral districts of Kadıköy, regardless of whether they were or not in touch with FG/SC showed more favorable attitudes toward traditional gender stereotypic duties of women, and male dominance than women living in central districts of Kadıköy. Furthermore, women living in peripheral districts of Kadıköy and in touch with FG/SC, showed more favorable attitudes toward

women's participation in labor market than women living in the same area but not in touch with FG/SC, and woman living in central districts of Kadiköy (Table 3.7).

In the light of the findings it may be argued that, women in touch with FG/SC tended to change their attitudes through the effects of education and modeling provided by the women who were working at the center. Moreover, since most of the women living in central districts of Kadiköy were working outside, their less favorable attitudes towards women's participation in labor market, may be seen as a result of their experiencing the negative side effects of work in their private lives. The finding that there were no other differences between spousal roles may mean that, the courses in FG/SC were not aimed at changing attitudes, rather than were aimed providing women with basic information related to functioning in İstanbul. The women attending to FG/SC courses did utter spontaneous statements related to possible effects of the center in their lives. Statements expressing improved skills and independence in dealing with the city environment increased self-confidence and reliance, indicated that FG/SC influenced women's lives. Alternatively, the change in attitudes may be expected to occur at a later time that is a delayed effect of FG/SC experience may be seen.

The major contribution of the study was that, measures related to different subsystems in relation to family, such as, position within the macro context, spousal dyad and personal individual evaluations and perceptions were included in the study. Although the study was inspired by The Family Stress Model of Conger and Elder (1994), the concept of mastery was included in the proposed

model. In fact, two constructs related to power were considered, mastery was related to personal power where as relational power referred to relative power. In view of importance of concept of power in psychological literature (Cassidy & Davis, 2003; Kirchler, 1999; Kirchler et al. 2000; Rosenfield, 1989; Ross & Wu, 1995), the inclusion of this concept within the Family Stress Model might be viewed as a contribution. Another contribution is the modification of the appliance ownership measure previously developed by sociologists (Kalaycıoğlu, Kardam, Tüzün & Ulusoy, 1998; Veri Araştırma, 2000). Considering the economic conditions of Turkey, inclusion of economic indicators in psychological investigations of the family may prove to be fruitful. As such, the present investigation may be considered as an interdisciplinary research bridging sociology and social psychology. Several measures related to families (presented in table 3.3) were also developed and/or adapted to the Turkish scene in the course of this investigation and may be utilized in further studies.

Some limitations of the present study should be noted. First, unlike research based on Family Stress Model (Conger & Elder, 1994; Kwon et al. 2003) only women were included in the center. As demonstrated by Kwon et al. (2003), the relationships between some variables may be different for men and women. Another limitation of the study was that, effects of SES on parent child relations were not part of the model. Such effects should be studied and may prove to be important for intervention studies.

In short, the present investigation investigated a socially relevant topic, which is the relationship between SES and familial and personal outcomes, using a real world sample. As such, it is a rare example of social psychological research

employing sophisticated statistical analyses for the purpose of investigating a socially relevant issue.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

TABLE 3.8

Table 3.8 **Correlations Among the Observed Variables Related to Family Measures**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Wo.Edu	1,000							
2. Hus.Edu	,710	1,000						
3. Dom.Dm	,124	,143	1,000					
4. S.spouse	-,378	-,405	-,163	1,000				
5. S.housew	-,286	-,200	-,053	,608	1,000			
6. S. mother	-,529	-,463	-,068	,626	,617	1,000		
7. Str. child	,463	,444	-,094	-,313	-,256	-,600	1,000	
8. Str. spouse	,374	,387	,155	-,466	-,290	-,420	,379	1,000
9. Cont.child	,539	,488	,033	-,433	-,355	-,655	,555	,498
10. Cont.own	,558	,538	,090	-,427	-,250	-,530	,461	,523
11. A..own	,537	,633	,137	-,421	-,205	-,394	,427	,349
12.Hus.view	,149	,120	,253	-,022	-,172	-,131	,088	-,013
13. Wife.view	-,152	-,206	-,216	,318	,217	,182	-,065	-,340
14. Place res	,576	,489	,247	-,300	-,260	-,458	,340	,374
15. City ind	,588	,523	,226	-,287	-,239	-,391	,345	,385
16. Contr.dm	-,422	-,300	-,426	,328	,327	,435	-,192	-,278
17. Fr.conver	-,292	-,260	-,032	,402	,190	,369	-,192	-,282
18. Income	,625	,667	,007	-,387	-,161	-,422	,491	,274
19. Rel.econ	,262	,250	-,006	-,210	-,139	-,202	,228	,239
20. Com.Activ	,397	,394	,124	-,452	-,340	-,575	,386	,536
21 Div.Lab.	-,060	,074	-,157	-,034	,087	,044	-,085	,134

Table 3.8. (Continued)

	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
9. Cont.child	1,000							
10. Cont.own	680	1,000						
11. A.own	,443	,509	1,000					
12. Hus.view	,443	,509	,240	1,000				
13. Wife.view	,148	,177	-,202	,029	1,000			
14 Place res	-,198	-,247	,362	,096	-,167	1,000		
15. City ind	,404	,330	439	,155	-,188	,876	1,000	
16. Contr.dm	,422	,385	-,349	-,339	,361	-,285	-,253	1,000
17. Fr.conver	-,263	-,244	-,263	,195	,142	-,169	-,176	,029
18. Income	,438	,531	,701	,078	-,118	,423	,511	-,182
19. Rel.econ	,284	,358	,450	,143	-,159	,155	,221	-,080
20. Com.Activ	,461	,391	,386	,088	-,295	,431	,394	-,470
21. Div.Lab	-,097	-,100	-,020	-,212	,080	,097	,140	,332

Table 3.8. (Continued)

	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
17. Fr.conver	1,000							
18. Income	-,350	1,000						
19. Rel.econ	-,003	,375	1,000					
20. Com.Activ	-,312	,363	,165	1,000				
21. Div.Lab	-,204	,105	-,015	,045	1,000			

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE FORM

1. Demografik Bilgiler:

		Kadın	Kocas
1.Yaş			
2.Eğitim Durumu	İlk okul bitmemiş		
	İlk okul		
	Orta okul		
	Lise		
	Üniversite		
3.Gidilen Kurslar	Meslek edinme		
	Kur'an		
	Diğer		
4.ÇalışmaDurumu	Çalışıyor		
	Çalışmıyor		

	Sigortalı işçi	Sigortası z işçi	Parça başı bağımsız iş yapar	Memur	Kend i işi	Diğer
5.Kocanız çalışıyorsa, ne iş yapar?						
	İş Bulamıyor 1		Sağlık sorunları nedeniyle çalışmıyor 2	Emekli 3		
6.Kocanız şu an çalışmıyorsa neden ?						

7.Kaç yıldır evlisiniz?	
8.Kaç çocuğunuz var?	

		1.Çocuk	2.Çocuk	3.Çocuk	4.Çocuk	5.Çocuk	6.Çocuk
9.Yaş							
10.Cinsiyet	<u>K</u>						
	<u>E</u>						
11.Eğitim Durumu	İlk okul bitmemiş						
	İlk okul 2						
	Ortaokul 3						
	Lise 4						
	Üniversite 5						
12.Gidilen Kurslar	Meslek edinme 1						
	Kur'an 2						
	Diğer 3						
13.Medeni Hal	Bekar						
	Evli						
	Boşanmış						
	Dul						
14.Çalışma Durumu	Çalışıyor						
	Çalışmıyor						

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	1 yıldan az	1-3 yıl	3-5 yıl	5-10 yıl	10-20 yıl	20-30 yıl	30 yıldan fazla
15.Ne zamandır İstanbul da yaşıyorsunuz?							
16.Ne zamandır Kadıköy de yaşıyorsunuz?							
17.Daha önce nerede yaşadınız / kaç yıl?							
İstanbul da başka bir semt							
Neresi?							
Baska bir şehir							
Neresi?							
Kasaba							

Neresi?							
Köy							
Neresi?							

18.Evinizde, kocanız ve çocuklarınız dışında sizinle yaşayan yakınınız var mı?	Anne 1	Baba 2	Kayın valide 3	Kayın peder 4	Kardeş 5	Diğer 6
Evet, var						
Hayır, yok 7						

	Gecekondu	Müstakil ev	Apartman Dairesi
19.Nasıl bir evde oturuyorsunuz?			
20.Ev sahibi	1	2	3
Kiracı	4	5	6

21.Başka taşınmaz malınız var mı?	Ev	Arsa	Tarla	Diğer
Evet, var	1	2	3	4
Hayır, yok	5			
22.Otomobiliniz var mı?				
Evet, var				
1				
Hayır, yok				
2				

23. Sayacağım eşyalardan	hangileri şu an evinizde var?	
	Var 1	Yok 2
Buzdolabı		
No- frost buzdolabı		
Otomatik çamaşır makinesi		
Bulaşık makinesi		
Televizyon		
Telefon		
Cep telefonu		
Bilgisayar		

24. Evinize toplam olarak <u>ayda</u> aşağı yukarı kaç lira para girer?		
	Evet /Var	Hayır /Yok
25. Memleketinizden erzak, tarhana, kavurma, salça, yağ vb. gıda gelir mi?		
26. Arada bir gelen (hasat parası, bahçe, tarla kazancı gibi) bir gelir var mı?		

	1	2	3	4	5
Ekonomik durumunuzu düşünürseniz sizce,	Çok daha iyi	Daha iyi	Aynı	Daha kötü	Çok daha kötü
27. Beş yıl öncesine göre					
28. Dost, akraba yakın çevredekilere göre					
29. Evlenmeden önceki ailenizin durumuna göre					
30. Sizce gelecekteki (5 sene sonraki)ekonomik durumunuz şimdiye göre nasıl olacak?					
31. Sizce çocuklarınızın ekonomik durumu (gelecekte), şu anki ailenizin durumuna göre nasıl olacak?					

	1	2	3	4	5
	Hergün	Haftada birkaç defa	Haftada bir defa	Nadiren	Hiç
36. Evinize gazete alınır mı?					
	Ben 1	Kocam 2	Çocuklar 3	Diğer	4
37. Kim okur?					

	1	2	3	4	5
38.	Hergün	Haftada birkaç defa	Haftada bir defa	Nadiren	Hiç
Radyo veya televizyondan haberleri dinler/izler misiniz?					

39. Meshebinizi belirtir misiniz?	
------------------------------------------	--

2. Aile İçi İlişki ve Süreçler :

2.1. Kadının Ailedeki Konumu:

40. Bu günlerde para kazanmak için bir işle uğraşıyor musunuz?	1 Evet :	2 Hayır :
(Çalışıyorsa)		
41. Tam olarak ne yapıyorsunuz?		
42. Ne zamandır bu işi yapıyorsunuz?		
43. Sigortanız var mı?	1 Evet :	2 Hayır :

44.Devamlı mı çalışıyorsunuz, zaman zaman mı?		1 Devamlı:		2 Zaman zaman:	
45.Daha ne kadar çalışmayı düşünüyor sunuz?					
46.Halen çalıştığınız işi değiştirmeyi düşünüyor musunuz?		1 Evet :		2 Hayır :	
(Çalışmıyorsa)	1	2	3	4	
47.Neden çalışmıyorsunuz?	Çok Doğru	Biraz Doğru	Doğru Değil	Hiç Doğru Değil	
Çalışmak istemiyorum					
Kocam izin vermiyor					
İhtiyacımız yok					
Eğitimim mesleğim yok					
Çocuklarım küçük					
Bizde kadın kısmı çalışmaz					
Sağlığım elvermiyor					
Diğer (belirtiniz)					

48. Gelir sağlamak için evinizde herhangi bir üretim yapar mısınız?	1 Evet :		2 Hayır:		
	Yiyecek	Giysi	Süs eşyası	Fabrikalar için ara mal	Diğer
49. Evetse, ne üretiyorsunuz?	1	2	3	4	5

50. Kazandığınız parayı ne yaparsınız?	
Tümünü kocama veririm 1	
Bir kısmını kocama veririm 2	
Tümü bende durur, gerektikçe harcarım 3	
Parayı bir kutuya/çekmeceye koyarız, herkes gerektiğinde oradan alır. 4	
Harcamam, biriktiririm. 5	

51. Kocanız kazandığı parayı ne yapar?	
Tümünü bana verir, (yol/ sigara parası vb. İçin) gerektiğinde benden alır. 1	
Kendisi için (yol, sigara parası vb.) gerekli kısmı ayırır, kalanı bana verir. 2	
Tüm para onda durur, gerektiğinde bana harçlık verir. 3	
Parayı bir kutuya/çekmeceye koyarız, herkes gerektiğinde oradan alır. 4	

	Evet: 1	Hayır: 2
52. Kocanızın tam olarak ne kadar para kazandığını bilir misiniz?		
53. Tam olarak ne kadar kazandığınızı kocanıza söyler misiniz?		
54. Kocanızın bilmediği, birikmiş paranız (az da olsa) olur mu?		
(Evetse) 55. Bu (birikmiş) parayla ne yaparsınız? (sıralayınız)		
Acil bir durumda harcarım	1	
Çocukların isteklerini karşılarım	2	
Kızımın çeyizi için harcarım	3	
Kendi ihtiyaçlarımı/ isteklerimi karşılarım	4	
Kendi aileme (anne-babama ya da kardeşlerime) destek olurum	5	
Diğer (belirtiniz)	6	

56. Elinizdeki parayı harcarken nasıl bir öncelik ve önem sırası izlediğinizi belirtiniz. Bunun için soruyu yanıtlarken şöyle düşünebilirsiniz: “Elimdeki parayla ilk olarak kira ve faturaları öderim, sonraalırım“ gibi. Lütfen her maddeye sizin için taşıdığı öneme göre bir sıra numarası veriniz.	
Kirayı öderim.	
Elektrik, su, vb. faturalarını öderim.	
Evin günlük giderlerini (mutfak masrafları, yol paraları) karşılarım.	
Çocukların okul ihtiyaçlarını karşılarım.	
Çocukların giyim ihtiyaçlarını karşılarım.	
Kendi kişisel ihtiyaçlarımı karşılarım.	
Yakınlarıma destek olurum. (annem, kardesim vs.)	
Bir kısmını harcamam, biriktiririm.	
Diğer (belirtiniz)	

58. Alışverişlerinizde ödemelerinizi nasıl yaparsınız?					
	Her zaman	Çoğunlukla	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiçbir zaman
Nakit					
Veresiye					
Başkasından borç alarak					
Taksitle					
Kredi kartıyla					
Diğer (belirtiniz)					

59. Pahalı birşeyin alınmasına sizin evde daha çok kim karar verir?		
Çoğunlukla erkek	Çoğunlukla kadın	İkisi de aynı derecede etkin olur.

60. Kaç çocuğunuz olacağına kim karar verir ?		
Çoğunlukla erkek	Çoğunlukla kadın	İkisi de aynı derecede etkin olur.

61. Hangi konularda kocanızın fikrini alır, sözünü dinlersiniz ?					
	Herzaman	Çoğunlukla	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiçbir zaman
Bütün konularda					
Çocuklara ilişkin konularda					
Ev işlerine ilişkin konularda					
Alış-veriş meselelerinde					
Dini konularda					
Akrabalarla ilişkilerde					
Komşularla ilişkilerde					
Oy vermede, siyasi konularda					
62. Çok önemli konuda karar vereceğiniz ve sizinle aynı fikirde olmadığınız bir sonunda dediği olur? kocanız					
Her zaman kocamın	Çoğunlukla kocamın	Bazen benim bazen kocamın	Çoğunlukla benim	Her zaman benim	

64. Kocanız sizin fikirlerinizi en çok hangi konuda alır, sözünüzü dinler?					
	Her zaman	Çoğunlukla	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiçbir zaman
Çocuklara ilişkin konularda					
Ev işlerine ilişkin konularda					
Alış-veriş meselelerinde					
Dini konularda					
Akrabalarla ilişkilerde					
Komşularla ilişkilerde					
Oy vermede, siyasi konularda					
Başka, belirtiniz...					
Hiçbir konuda fikrimi almaz, sözümü dinlemez.					

65. Aşağıdaki konulardaki karar ve davranışlara kim karışabilir?								
	Tamamen kadın karar verir	Kadın kararda etkilidir	Kadının düşüncesi alınır	Kadının düşüncesi sorulmaz	Tamamen koca karar verir	Koca kararda etkilidir	Kocanın düşüncesi alınır	Kocanın düşüncesi sorulmaz
Kadının giyimi								
Kocanın giyimi								
Özel günlerde ne yapılacağı								
Ev temizliği								
Gezme, eğlence, tatil								
Para harcama								
Kadının kimlerle görüşeceği								
Kocanın kimlerle görüşeceği								
Aile ziyaretleri								
Kimin davet edileceği								
Eşya Alımı								
Eşya düzeni								
Kadının işi								
Kocanın işi								
Çocuk konusu								
Çocukların bakımı								
Çocukların okul işleri								
Çocukların alışverişi								
Çocukların dersleri								
Çocukların terbiyesi/ disiplini								
Çocukların boş zaman faaliyetleri								

66. Evliliğinizdeki iş bölümü nasıldır?						
	Herzaman ben yaparım	Herzaman kocam yapar	Çoğunlukla ben yaparım	Çoğunlukla kocam yapar	Birlikte yaparız	Sırayla yaparız
Yemek						
Bulaşık						
Çamaşır						
Ütü						
Temizlik						
Yiyecek alışverişi						
Giyecek alışverişi						
Makbuz ödeme						
Tamirat						
Kadının aile işleri						
Kocanın aile işleri						
Sağlık sorunları						
Para kazanma						
Araba kullanma						
Araba bakımı						
Komşu,arkadaş ilişkileri						
Çocukların okul işleri						
Çocukların alışverişi						
Çocukların dersleri						
Çocukların terbiyesi, disiplini						
Çocukların boş zaman faaliyetleri						

	Çok memnun	Memnun	Memnun değil	Hiç memnun değil
67. Bu iş bölümünden memnun musunuz?				
68. Sizce eşiniz bu iş bölümünden memnun mu?				
69. Memnun değilseniz, nasıl farklı olmasını isterdiniz?				
70. Sizce eşiniz memnun değilse nasıl farklı olmasını isterdi?				
	Ben yapıyorum		Eşim yapıyor	
71. Sizce en çok işi siz mi yapıyorsunuz, eşiniz mi?				

72. Sizce ailede erkeğin en önemli görevleri nelerdir?				
	Çok Önemli	Önemli	Önemli Değil	Hiç Önemli Değil
Ailenin geçimini sağlamak				
Ailenin güven ve koruma ihtiyacını karşılamak				
Ailenin önemli konularda kararlarını belirlemek				
Ailenin toplumdaki yerini belirlemek				
Ailedeki iş bölümünü belirlemek				
Ailedeki kadın ve kızların davranışlarını denetlemek				
Başka (belirtiniz)				

73. Sizce ailede kadının en önemli görevleri nelerdir?				
	Çok Önemli	Önemli	Önemli Değil	Hiç Önemli Değil
Ev işleri yapmak				
Aile bütçesine katkıda bulunmak				
Çocuk doğurmak				
Çocuklara ve kocasına bakmak				
Aile bütçesini idare etmek				
Aile içi uyumu ve huzuru sağlamak				
Ailenin yaşlılarına bakmak				
Ailenin sosyal ilişkilerini düzenlemek				
Başka (belirtiniz)				

74. Kadının ev dışında çalışmasının belirtilen alanlara etkisi	konusundaki aşağıda düşünceleriniz nelerdir?			
	Çok Doğru	Doğru	Doğru Değil	Hiç Doğru Değil
Aile birliği güçlenir				
Aile bütçesine katkısı olur				
	Çok Doğru	Doğru	Doğru Değil	Hiç Doğru Değil
Kadının zamanını daha iyi kullanmasına katkısı olur.				
Kadın kendini yetiştirir				
Çocuklarına daha az zaman ayırır				
Evde daha uyumlu ve anlayışlı davranır				
Çocuklarına verdiği terbiye ve eğitim daha iyi olur				
Ailenin sosyal ilişkileri zayıflar				
İş yerindeki sıkıntılarını eve yansıtır				
Kadın gereğinden fazla yorulur, yıpranır.				

2.2. Eşler Arası İlişki:

		Kendi isteği	Ailenin tercihi
75. Nasıl evlendiniz ?	Görücü usulü		
	Aracıyla tanışıp, birkaç kez görüşerek		
	Kendi tanışarak		
	Akraba evliliği		

	Sadece resmi nikah	Sadece imam nikahı	Resmi nikah ve imam nikahı	Başka (belirtiniz)
76. Hangi nikahla evlendiniz?				
77. Siz evlenirken aileniz başlık parası aldı mı?	Evet	Hayır	Bilmiyorum	

			Evet: 1	Hayır: 2
78. Kocanızla birlikte gezmeye gider misiniz?				
79.(Hayırsa) niçin birlikte gezmezsiniz?	Çok Doğru	Doğru	Doğru Değil	Hiç Doğru Değil
Ben istemem				
Kocam istemez				
İsteriz ama ekonomik durumumuz el vermez				
Çocuklara bakacak kimse yok				
Farklı yerlere gitmekten zevk alırız.				
Başka (belirtiniz)				
80. Kocanızla sohbet eder misiniz?			Evet: 1	Hayır: 2

186. En çok hangi konularda sohbet edersiniz?	Çok sık	Sık	Nadiren	Hiç
Çocuklarla ilgili konularda				
Aile sorunlarıyla ilgili				
Onun işiyle ilgili konularda				
Diğer (belirtiniz)				

81. Kocanızla ikinizin (birlikte) yapmaktan hoşlandığınız şeyler var mı? Evet:

Hayır:

82. Varsa, bunlar neler?

1)..... 4).....

2)..... 5).....

3).....

83. Kocanızla ikinizin de yapmaktan hoşlandığınız şeyleri ne sıklıkta yapıyor-sunuz?	Hergün	Haftada 2-3 kere	Haftada bir kere	15 günde bir kere	Ayda bir kere
1).....					
2).....					
3).....					
4).....					
5).....					

Eşler arası çatışma ölçeği:

	Çok Doğru	Doğru	Doğru Değil	Hiç Doğru Değil
84. Kocamla çok tartışıyoruz				
85. Kocam özgürlüğümü kısıtlıyor (yapmak istediklerimi engelliyor)				
86. Kocam beni anlamıyor				
87. Kocam benden çok şey istiyor				
88. Kocamla ilişkim bana istediklerimi vermiyor				
89. Kocam sevgisini yeteri kadar göstermiyor				
90. Kocam bana yeterince bağlı değil (kocamın gözü dışarda)				
91. Kocam sıklıkla beni boşamakla/terketmekle tehdit ediyor.				
92. Kocamla aramızdaki cinsel ilişkiden memnun / mutlu değilim. (Bu konuda beni mutsuz eden şeyler var)				

2.3. Çocuklarla İlişkiler:

Çocuklarla ilgili gerginlik ölçeği:				
	Çok Doğru	Doğru	Doğru Değil	Hiç Doğru Değil
93. Çocuğum/ çocuklarımdan biri çok mutsuz görünüyor.				
94. Çocuklarıma söz geçiremiyorum.				
95. Çocuğumun davranışları beni düşündürüyor, üzüyor, korkutuyor.				
96. Çocuklarım (en az biri) okulda ya da işte yeterince başarılı değil				
97. Çocuklarım ev işlerine yardımcı olmuyor.				
98. Çocuklarımdan biri ev dışında çok fazla zaman geçiriyor.				
99. Çocuklarımdan en az biri ile sürekli tartışıyoruz.				

100. Sizce çocuklar ne kadar tahsil yapmalıdır?		
	Kız	Erkek
İlk okulu bitirmeli		
Orta okulu bitirmeli		
Liseyi bitirmeli		
Yüksek okulu bitirmeli		
Okuyabildiği kadar okumalı		
Hiç okumamalı		
185. Sizce çocuğunuz ne kadar tahsil yapabilecek?		
	Kız	Erkek
İlk okulu bitirecek		
Orta okulu bitirecek		
Liseyi bitirecek		
Yüksek okulu bitirecek		
Okuyabildiği kadar okuyacak		

101. Çocuklarınızla aranızda görüş ayrılıkları olur mu?			Evet:		Hayır:
	Herzaman	Çoğunlukla	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiçbir zaman
102. Çocuklarınızla aranızda görüş farklılıkları genellikle hangi konularda olur?					
Kılık kıyafette					
Arkadaş seçiminde					
Eğlence tarzında					
Meslek seçiminde					
102. Çocuklarınızla aranızda görüş farklılıkları genellikle hangi konularda olur?					
Okul tercihinde					
Siyasi konularda					
Dini konularda					
Eş seçimi ve evlenme tarzında					
Para harcamada					
Diğer (belirtiniz)					

103. Çocuğunuzla oyun oynar, masal anlatır mısınız?			Evet:	Hayır:
104. Ne sıklıkta?	Hergün	Haftada 2-3 kere	Haftada 1 kere	15 günde 1 kere
105. Çocuğunuz okuldan geldiğinde evde olurmusunuz?			Evet:	Hayır:
106. Ne sıklıkta?	Hergün	Haftada 2-3 kere	Haftada 1 kere	15 günde 1 kere
107. Çocuğunuza ders çalıştırır mısınız?			Evet:	Hayır:
108. Ne sıklıkta?	Hergün	Haftada 2-3 kere	Haftada 1 kere	15 günde 1 kere

109. Bir gün içinde ne kadar zamanı sadece çocuğunuzla ilgilenerek (yaşına göre; oynayarak, sohbet ederek, ona birşeyler öğreterek ya da dertleşerek) geçirirsiniz?

Çocuğın hayatını belirleyebilme ölçeği:				
	Çok Doğru	Doğru	Doğru Değil	Hiç Doğru Değil
110. Çocuklarımın başına gelen kötü şeyleri engelleyemiyorum (kontrol edemiyorum).				
111. Çocuklarımın bazı sorunlarını çözebilmemden gerçekten hiç bir yolu yok.				
112. Çocuklarımın hayatındaki pek çok önemli şeyi değiştirmek için yapabileceğim çok az şey var (fazla birşey yok).				
Çocuğın hayatını belirleyebilme ölçeği:	Çok Doğru	Doğru	Doğru Değil	Hiç Doğru Değil
113. Sıklıkla çocuklarımın hayatta karşılaştıkları zorluklarla başa çıkmakta çaresiz hissediyorum.				
114. Bazen çocuklarımın yaşamda itilip kakıldıklarını hissediyorum.				
115. Gelecekte çocuklarımın başına gelecekler büyük oranda bana bağlı.				
116. Çocuklarımın yapmalarını kafama koyduğum hemen herşeyi yapmalarını sağlayabilirim.				

3. Kadının Değişik Roller ve Yeterliğine Dair Algısı

Annelikte yeterlik	Çok Doğru	Doğru	Doğru Değil	Hiç Doğru Değil
117. Çocuğumu temiz giydiriyorum.				
118. Çocuğumu zevkli giydiriyorum.				
119. Çocuğumu temiz tutuyorum.				
Annelikte yeterlik	Çok Doğru	Doğru	Doğru Değil	Hiç Doğru Değil
120. Çocuğum üzgün olduğunda, korktuğunda ya da ağladığında onu rahatlatıp, yatıştırabiliyorum				
121. Çocuğumun doğru davranmasını sağlayabiliyorum.				
122. Çocuğuma söz geçirmekte zorlanmıyorum.				
123. Çocuğumun dersleriyle ilgilenip ders çalışmasını sağlıyorum.				
124. Çocuğumun derslerinde ona yardımcı oluyorum.				
125. Çocuğumun arkadaşlarını tanıyorum.				
126. Çocuğumun okulda yaşadıklarını biliyorum.				
127. Çocuğumun günün hangi saatinde nerede olduğunu biliyorum.				
128. Çocuğumun kardeşleriyle sorunlarını biliyorum.				
129. Çocuğumun arkadaşlarıyla sorunlarını biliyorum.				
130. Çocuğumun öğretmen ve okulla ilgili sorunlarını biliyorum.				
Eş olmada yeterlik	Çok Doğru	Doğru	Doğru Değil	Hiç Doğru Değil
131. Eşimin temiz olmasını sağlıyorum.				
132. Eşimin temiz giyinmesini sağlıyorum.				
133. Eşimin uyumlu (zevkli) giyinmesini sağlıyorum.				
134. Eşimin canı sıkın olduğunda, morali bozuk olduğunda onu rahatlatabiliyorum.				
135. Eşimin çevredekilerle iyi ilişkiler kurmasında olumlu etkilerim oluyor.				
136. Eşimin iş yaşamında karşılaşılabileceği/karşılaştığı sorun ve sıkıntıları tahmin edebiliyorum, anlayabiliyorum.				
137. Eşimin zorlandığını alanlarda sıkıntısını aşmasında ona destek olabiliyorum.				
138. Eşimin ailesi ile olumlu/ uyumlu ilişkilerim var.				

Ev kadını olmada yeterlik	Çok Doğru	Doğru	Doğru Değil	Hiç Doğru Değil
139. Evimi temiz tutuyorum.				
140. Evimi düzenli ve toplu tutuyorum.				
141. Evde her zaman yemek olmasını sağlıyorum.				
142. Çocuklarımın ve eşimin taze yemekler yemesine özen gösteriyorum.				
143. Dikiş, nakış, örgü gibi becerilerim sayesinde evimi güzelleştirebiliyorum.				
144. Dikiş, örgü gibi becerilerim sayesinde kendime/ çocuklarıma / eşime giysiler dikiyorum, örüyorum.				
145. Aile bütçesini iyi idare edebiliyorum. (Para az da olsa onu mümkün olduğunca iyi idare edip, düzeni aksatmadan ihtiyaçları karşılayabiliyorum.)				
146. Evde huzurlu bir ortam sağlayabiliyorum.				

Kadının kendi hayatını belirleyebilme ölçeği:	Çok Doğru	Doğru	Doğru Değil	Hiç Doğru Değil
147. Başıma gelen kötü şeyleri engelleyemiyorum (kontrol edemiyorum).				
148. Bazı sorunlarımı çözebilmemin gerçekten hiç bir yolu yok.				
149. Hayatımdaki pek çok önemli şeyi değiştirmek için yapabileceğim çok az şey var (fazla birsey yok).				
150. Sıklıkla hayatta karşılaştığım zorluklarla başa çıkmakta çaresiz hissediyorum.				
151. Bazen yaşamda itilip kakıldığımı hissediyorum.				
152. Gelecekte başıma gelecekler büyük oranda bana bağlı.				
153. Yapmayı kafama koyduğum hemen herşeyi yapmayı sağlayabilirim.				

6. Aile Danışma Merkezi: (Sadece Merkeze Gelenlere Sorulacak)

175. Ne zamandır Aile Danışma Merkezine geliyorsunuz?	
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176. Niçin geliyorsunuz?	Çok Doğru	Doğru	Doğru değil	Hiç doğru değil
Burada verilen eğitimlere/seminerlere katılıyorum				
Meslek kurslarına katılıyorum				
Okuma yazma kurslarına katılıyorum				
Dağıtılan yadımlardan yararlanıyorum				
Sağlık hizmetlerinden yararlanmak için geliyorum.				
Önemli bir sorunun olduğunda akıl danışmak için geliyorum.				
Diğer (belirtiniz)				
177. Burada verilen eğitimlere ve yapılan etkinliklere düzenli olarak katılır mısınız?	Evet:		Hayır:	
178. Burada verilen eğitimlerden hangilerine katıldınız?	1)..... 4)..... 2)..... 5)..... 3).....			
179. Sizce aldığınız eğitimler ve katıldığınız kurslar yararlı oldu mu?	Çok yararlandım	Yararlandım	Yararlanmadım	Hiç Yararlanmadım
180. Buradaki katılımınızdan yararlandığınızı düşünüyorsanız , nasıl yararlandınız, açıkla mısınız?				

181. Burada verilen eğitimlere ve yapılan etkinliklere ailenizden başka gelen var mı?	Evet:	Hayır:
183. Buraya (Aile danışma merkezine) gelmeye başlamanızla birlikte yaşamınızda değişiklikler oldu mu?	Evet:	Hayır:
184. Olduysa, neler değişti?		

APPENDIX C

EVALUATION OF MODEL FIT

Although there are various measures for evaluation of model fit, there is a lack of consensus among researchers concerning how best to evaluate the extent to which a proposed model fits the data. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) argue that, generally good fitting models produce consistent results on many different indices. Thus, several absolute (the Chi-square (χ^2), Goodness of Fit Index, the χ^2 / degrees of freedom ratio,) and incremental fit indices (the Comparative Fit Index, the Non-Normed Fit Index, and the Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation) were used in this study.

An absolute fit index directly evaluates how well an a priori model reproduces the sample data. Since such an index compares the goodness of fit to a component, which is similar to a sum of squares, it is analogous to R^2 . On the contrary, an incremental fit index ‘measures the proportionate improvement in fit through comparing a target model with a more restricted, nested baseline model’. The most widely used baseline model is a null model in which all the observed variables are uncorrelated (Hu & Bentler, 1995).

The Chi-square (χ^2) evaluates the fit between the sample covariance matrix and the estimated population covariance matrix. Since a greater value for Chi-square (χ^2) points out greater departure of the implied (estimated) covariance matrix from the observed covariance matrix, smaller or non-significant χ^2 values are desired. Moreover, if the ratio of the χ^2 to the degrees of freedom is less than 2, the model fit is accepted as good (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). However, the

standard (χ^2) test is so sensitive to the sample size that, other indices for evaluating goodness of fit have also been proposed. The goodness of fit (GFI) index indicates the degree of fit between predicted squared residuals and the actual data. Tanaka and Huba (1989) suggest that, GFI is similar to R^2 in multiple regression (cited in Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001) and generally the cut of point of .90 is accepted as adequate (Hu & Bentler, 1995).

A representative of incremental fit indices, The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) 'estimates the lack of fit in a model compared to a perfect model'. Values of .06 or less indicate a good fitting model relative to the model degrees of freedom, where values larger than .10 are indicative of poor fitting models. Normed Fit Index (NFI)¹¹ evaluates the estimated model by comparing the χ^2 value of the model to the χ^2 value of the independence model. The integration of the degree of freedoms to the model gives the Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI). Finally, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) employs the non-central χ^2 distributions while assessing the model fit relative to the other models. High CFI values (greater than .95) imply a good fit, but values over .90 are considered acceptable (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001; Hu & Bentler, 1995).

¹¹ Since this index may underestimate the fit of the model in good-fitting modes with small samples (Bearden, Sharma, and Teel, 1982) it is not used in this study (cited in Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001).